

Computational complexity

lecture 7

Complete problems

Previous lecture

NP – SAT, Hamiltonian cycle, clique, subset sum, dominating set, ...

P – HORNSAT

polyL – no complete problems

L – almost every language is complete

NL – reachability in directed graphs

Now

PSPACE - QBF

PSPACE-completeness of QBF

QBF problem

input: boolean formula $\phi(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ with variables x_1, \dots, x_n

question: is the following sentence true:

$$\exists x_1 \forall x_2 \exists x_3 \forall x_4 \dots \phi(x_1, \dots, x_n)$$

Theorem

The QBF problem is **PSPACE**-complete.

(the problem remains **PSPACE**-complete even if we require that ϕ is in the CNF)

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Proof

QBF is in **PSPACE**: we browse all possible valuations in lexicographic order... (backtracking)

for a fixed valuation, obviously we can compute the value of ϕ in **PSPACE**

PSPACE-completeness of QBF

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The QBF problem $(\exists x_1 \forall x_2 \exists x_3 \forall x_4 \dots \phi(x_1, \dots, x_n))$ is **PSPACE**-complete

Proof (PSPACE-hardness)

- A similar trick as in the Savitch theorem.
- Let L be a language recognized by a machine M working in polynomial space
- having an input word w of length n , we want to construct a formula

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Proof (PSPACE-hardness)

- A similar trick as in the Savitch theorem.
- Let L be a language recognized by a machine M working in polynomial space
- having an input word w of length n , we want to construct a formula
- configurations of M can be encoded in $p(n)$ bits, for some polynomial p
- for every i we will write a formula $\psi_i(x_1, \dots, x_{p(n)}, y_1, \dots, y_{p(n)})$ saying that from the configuration $x_1, \dots, x_{p(n)}$ it is possible to reach the configuration $y_1, \dots, y_{p(n)}$ in at most 2^i steps of M
- at the very end, it is enough to check whether the formula $\psi_{p(n)}(x_1, \dots, x_{p(n)}, y_1, \dots, y_{p(n)})$ is true, where $x_1, \dots, x_{p(n)}$ encodes the initial configuration, and $y_1, \dots, y_{p(n)}$ encodes the accepting configuration (we can assume that it is fixed, or we can add some existential quantification)

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- For $i=0$, either the configurations are equal, or M performs a single step between them – this can be easily written using a formula (as while proving that SAT is **NP**-hard)
- The formula can be easily generated in logarithmic space

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- A naive idea for $i>0$: $\psi_{i+1}(x, y) = \exists z. (\psi_i(x, z) \wedge \psi_i(z, y))$
- This does not work, since the formula grows exponentially

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- This does not work, since the formula grows exponentially
- One has to use ψ_i only once:
$$\psi_{i+1}(x, y) = \exists z. \forall r. \forall t. ((r=x \wedge t=z) \vee (r=z \wedge t=y) \rightarrow \psi_i(r, t))$$
- This is not in QBF, but quantifiers from ψ_i can be moved to the front of the formula (assuming that variable names are unique)

PSPACE-completeness of QBF

The QBF problem $(\exists x_1 \forall x_2 \exists x_3 \forall x_4 \dots \phi(x_1, \dots, x_n))$ is **PSPACE**-complete.

Proof (**PSPACE**-hardness)

- for every i we want to write a formula $\psi_i(x_1, \dots, x_{p(n)}, y_1, \dots, y_{p(n)})$ saying that from the configuration $x_1, \dots, x_{p(n)}$ it is possible to reach the configuration $y_1, \dots, y_{p(n)}$ in at most 2^i steps of M
- For $i=0$, either the configurations are equal, or M performs a single step between them – this can be easily written using a formula (as while proving that SAT is **NP**-hard)
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- This is not in QBF, but quantifiers from ψ_i can be moved to the front of the formula (assuming that variable names are unique)
- Again, this can be easily created in logarithmic space: first comparisons of appropriate variables, then ψ_0
- Remark: for **PSPACE** one usually relaxes the definition of hardness, and allows for reductions in **P** (instead of “in **L**”)

Plan for the nearest future

- **NL=coNL**
- existence of **NP**-intermediate problems
- difficult problems that are not **NP**-hard
- relativisation and the Baker-Gill-Solovay theorem
- decision problems vs search problems
- polynomial hierarchy
- alternating machines
- probabilistic machines

It is enough to solve a complete problem

Fact

If a C -complete problem is in class D (and D is closed under composition with functions computable in \mathbf{L}), then $C \subseteq D$

Proof – obvious

Corollary:

If reachability in directed graphs is in \mathbf{coNL} , then $\mathbf{NL} = \mathbf{coNL}$

If SAT is in \mathbf{P} , then $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$

etc.

NL=coNL

Theorem Immerman-Szelepcsényi (1987)
Unreachability in directed graphs is in **NL**.

Thus **NL=coNL**, since reachability in directed graphs is **NL**-complete.

Remark

Reachability in undirected graphs is in **L** (Reingold, 2004)
(this is a rather difficult theorem)

NL=coNL

Theorem Immerman-Szelepcsényi (1987)

Unreachability in directed graphs is in **NL**.

Proof

- Idea: in **NL** we can not only check reachability, but also count reachable nodes

NL=coNL (*)

Theorem Immerman-Szelepcsény (1987)

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Proof

- Idea: in **NL** we can not only check reachability, but also count reachable nodes
- First consider such an algorithm in **NL**: given two numbers k and q , output q different nodes reachable from node s in $\leq k$ steps, and accept (if there are less such nodes, reject)
- Solution: a loop – set a counter to 0, then for every node v in the graph, nondeterministically: either ignore v , or guess a path of length $\leq k$ from s to v , output v , and increase the counter

NL=coNL (*)

Theorem Immerman-Szelepcsényi (1987)

Unreachability in directed graphs is in **NL**.

Proof

- We can: given k and q , output q different nodes reachable from s in $\leq k$ steps, and accept (if there are less such nodes, reject)
- Main trick: using this algorithm, we will compute (by induction) q_k – a number of nodes reachable from s in $\leq k$ steps
- $q_0 = 1$
- Given q_k we compute q_{k+1} as follows:
 - set q_{k+1} to 1 (we include s)
 - for every other node v , output q_k nodes reachable in $\leq k$ steps from s ; if among them there is a node u such that (u, v) is an edge, then increase q_{k+1} (we do not store the whole list of q_k nodes; we rather check the condition on-the-fly)
- It is now easy to finish: compute q_n , output all q_n nodes reachable in $\leq n$ steps, and check that the target node does not appear

NL=coNL

Question: why cannot we prove in a similar way that **NP=coNP**?
E.g., that SAT is in **coNP**?

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E.g., that SAT is in **coNP**?

- The proof is based on counting: in **NL** we can not only check reachability, but also count (and enumerate) reachable nodes.
- However, in polynomial time, even nondeterministically, we cannot count all valuations satisfying a given formula – there are exponentially many of them, so if we would like to count them “one-by-one”, polynomial time is not enough.

NL=coNL

Corollary from the Immerman-Szelepcseny theorem:

for every space-constructible function $S(n) \geq \log(n)$

NSPACE($S(n)$)=**coNSPACE**($S(n)$)

Proof: on tutorials

We use a technique called *padding*

Ladner's theorem

Theorem (Ladner, 1975) – existence of NP-intermediate problems:
If $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$, then there is a problem, which is in $\mathbf{NP} \setminus \mathbf{P}$, but is not \mathbf{NP} -hard with respect to polynomial-time reductions (so even more with respect to logarithmic-space reductions).

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Proof:

Supposing that $\text{SAT} \notin \mathbf{P}$ we will give a language $L \in \mathbf{NP}$ such that:

- L is not in \mathbf{P} , and
- SAT does not reduce to L in polynomial time

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We create L as a variant of SAT with an appropriate amount of padding. In general, with padding we can change a problem into a simpler one. We want to add enough padding so that the SAT problem stops to be \mathbf{NP} -complete, but not too much, so that still it is not in \mathbf{P} .

The definition will be:

$$L = \{w01^{f(|w|)} : w \in \text{SAT}\}$$

for an appropriate function f

Ladner's theorem (*)

$L = \{w01^{f(|w|)} : w \in \text{SAT}\}$ for an appropriate function f .

We now define f

- Fix a computable enumeration M_1, M_2, M_3, \dots of Turing machines, such that M_i works in time $O(n^i)$, and every language in \mathbf{P} is recognized by some M_i
- To this end, we take a list M'_1, M'_2, M'_3, \dots on which every Turing machine appears infinitely often. To M'_i we add a counter, which stops the machine after n^i steps – this results in M_i

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We now define f

- Fix a computable enumeration M_1, M_2, M_3, \dots of Turing machines, such that M_i works in time $O(n^i)$, and every language in **P** is recognized by some M_i

The function f is defined by the following algorithm:

- take $i=1, n=1$
- put $f(n)=n^i$
- if there is a word v of length $\leq \log(n)$ such that M_i incorrectly recognizes whether v belongs to L , then increase i by 1
- increase n by 1, go back to (b)

Ladner's theorem (*)

M_i works in time $O(n^i)$, every lang. in \mathbf{P} is recognized by some M_i

$L = \{w01^{f(|w|)} : w \in \text{SAT}\}$ for f defined by:

- (a) take $i=1, n=1$
- (b) put $f(n)=n^i$
- (c) if there is a word v of length $\leq \log(n)$ such that M_i incorrectly recognizes whether v belongs to L , then increase i by 1
- (d) increase n by 1, go back to (b)

Fact 1: It can be checked in polynomial time whether a word is of the proper form (i.e., if the number of ones is appropriate).

- In order to compute $f(n)$ we repeat the loop n times, in every repetition we check polynomially many words v (of logarithmic length)
- On every word v we run M_i , which works in time $O(\log^i n)$
- We can spend this time, as the input should have length $\geq f(n) \geq n^i$ (we interrupt the loop as soon as there are not enough ones)
- Remark: i is not a constant (time $O(\log^i n)$ by itself is not polynomial)
- Remark 2: the simulation time depends on $|M_i|$, but $|M_i| = |i| = \log(i) \leq \log(n)$, so this is OK

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- We can spend this time, as the input should have length $\geq f(n) \geq n^i$ (we interrupt the loop as soon as there are not enough ones)
- We also need to check whether $v \in L$ (where $|v| \leq \log n$)
 - we check the number of ones in v by the induction assumption
 - we check whether $\text{prefix} \in \text{SAT}$ in time exponential in $\log(n)$

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Fact 1: It can be checked in polynomial time whether a word is of the proper form (i.e., if the number of ones is appropriate).

Corollary: $L \in \mathbf{NP}$

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Fact 2: if $\text{SAT} \notin \mathbf{P}$ then $L \notin \mathbf{P}$

- If $L \in \mathbf{P}$, then some M_i recognizes L , so from some moment on (i.e. for $n \geq n_0$ for some n_0) we have that $f(n) = n^i$
- Then it is easy to solve SAT in \mathbf{P} (a contradiction):
 - if $|w| \geq n_0$ we append $|w|^i$ ones at the end, and we start M_i
 - for w shorter than n_0 the results can be hardcoded
- BTW, we have shown that f is unbounded (it is also nondecreasing)

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$L = \{w01^{f(|w|)} : w \in \text{SAT}\}$ for an appropriate f .

Fact 3: if $\text{SAT} \notin \mathbf{P}$ then L is not **NP**-hard

- Suppose that SAT reduces to L through a function g computable in time n^k . We will show a polynomial algorithm for SAT.

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- Suppose that SAT reduces to L through a function g computable in time n^k . We will show a polynomial algorithm for SAT.
- We know that there is n_0 such that for $n \geq n_0$ it holds that $f(n) > n^k$
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- For formulas w shorter than n_0 the results can be hardcoded
- For $|w| \geq n_0$ we consider the word $g(w)$; it has length $\leq |w|^k$.

If $g(w)$ is not of the form $w'01^{f(|w'|)}$, then it is not in L , we reject (by fact 1, this can be checked in \mathbf{P}). Otherwise $w \in \text{SAT} \Leftrightarrow w' \in \text{SAT}$

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- For formulas w shorter than n_0 the results can be hardcoded
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Moreover, either $|w'| < n_0$, or we have that $|w|^k \geq |g(w)| > f(|w'|) > |w'|^k$, thus the new formula is shorter at least by 1.

- We repeat this in a loop; after a linear number of steps the input length decreases below n_0 , and we obtain a result.

Ladner's theorem

We have thus proved:

Theorem (Ladner 1975)

If $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$, then there is a problem, which is in $\mathbf{NP} \setminus \mathbf{P}$, but is not \mathbf{NP} -hard with respect to polynomial-time reductions (so even more with respect to logarithmic-space reductions).

CSP problems and the dichotomy conjecture

The CSP problem

Input: variables x_1, \dots, x_n , domains D_1, \dots, D_n , constraints C_1, \dots, C_m of the form (t, R) , where t is a tuple of k variables, and R is a k -ary relation

Question: are there $x_1 \in D_1, \dots, x_n \in D_n$ satisfying C_1, \dots, C_m ?

(a constraint (t, R) is satisfied if the tuple of variables t belong to the relation R)

Clearly $\text{CSP} \in \text{NP}$

Most natural **NP**-complete problems can be easily reduced to CSP (written as CSP).

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Problem $\text{CSP}(\Gamma)$ – like CSP, but only relations from a set Γ can be used

Conjecture: for every set Γ we either have $\text{CSP}(\Gamma) \in \text{P}$, or $\text{CSP}(\Gamma)$ is **NP**-complete

Berman's theorem

Is it the case that every problem not in **NP** is **NP**-hard?

Intuitively, **NP**-hard means hardest in **NP**, or even harder (so problems harder than **NP** should be **NP**-hard).

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But the definition is: L is **NP**-hard if we can reduce every problem from **NP** to L .

So: can we reduce every problem from **NP**, to every (more difficult) problem not in **NP**?

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So: can we reduce every problem from **NP**, to every (more difficult) problem not in **NP**?

The answer is **no** – we have the following theorem:

Theorem (Berman 1978)

If $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$, then no language over a single-letter alphabet is **NP**-hard wrt. polynomial-time reductions (so even more wrt. logarithmic-space reductions).

Berman's theorem

Is it the case that every problem not in **NP** is **NP**-hard?

No – we have the following theorem:

Theorem (Berman 1978)

If **P**≠**NP**, then no language over a single-letter alphabet is **NP**-hard.

Notice that there is a language over a single-letter alphabet that requires doubly-exponential running time (i.e., surely is not in **NP**): take any language L over $\{0,1\}$ requiring triple-exponential running time, and take $\{1^{|1w|_2} : w \in L\}$, where $|1w|_2$ is the number encoded in binary as $1w$.

There is also an undecidable language over a single-letter alphabet: $\{1^k : M_k \text{ halts on empty input}\}$

These languages are not **NP**-hard, and not in **NP** (assuming **P**≠**NP**).

Berman's theorem (*)

Theorem (Berman 1978)

If $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$, then no language over a single-letter alphabet is \mathbf{NP} -hard.

Proof

Next week...