COMP3630/6360: Theory of Computation Semester 1, 2022 The Australian National University

Time Complexity

This lecture covers Chapter 10 of HMU: Time Complexity

- NP-Hardness
- Polytime Reductions
- SAT is NP-hard

Additional Reading: Chapter 10 of HMU.

$\mathbf{P}\stackrel{?}{=}\mathbf{N}\mathbf{P}$

Question 1.1 ($\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$ problem)

Can we simulate a non-deterministic TM (NTM) in polynomial time on a (deterministic) TM?

Recall:

- P—problems that can be solved in polynomial time on a TM.
- NP—problems that can be solved in polynomial time on an NTM.

At this point, no one knows for sure, but "no" might be a good bet.

This is about decision problems (problems with yes/no answers). Equivalently, solving the membership problem $x \in L$.

Obviously $\mathbf{P} \subseteq \mathbf{NP}$.

Nobody knows for sure whether $\mathbf{NP} \subseteq \mathbf{P}$

Intuitively, NP-complete problems are the "hardest" problems in NP.

${\bf P}$ Reducibility

Recall how we use mapping-reducibility to transfer (un)decidability from one problem to the next.

Definition 1.2

 $f: \Sigma^* \longrightarrow \Sigma^*$ is a *polynomial time computable* (or **P** *computable*) function if some polynomial time TM *M* exists that halts with just f(w) on its tape, when started on any input $w \in \Sigma^*$.

Definition 1.3

 $A \subseteq \Sigma_1^*$ is polynomial time mapping reducible (or **P** reducible) to $B \subseteq \Sigma_2^*$, written $A \leq_{\mathbf{P}} B$, if a **P** computable function $f : \Sigma_1^* \longrightarrow \Sigma_2^*$ exists that is also a reduction (from A to B).

${\bf P}$ Reducibility cont.

Theorem 1.4

If $A \leq_{\mathbf{P}} B$ and $B \in \mathbf{P}$ then $A \in \mathbf{P}$.

Proof.

To decide $w \in A$ first compute f(w) (in **P**) where f is the **P** reduction from A to B, and then run a **P** decider for B. This is still in **P** because $p_1(p_2(n))$ is a polynomial if $p_1(n)$ and $p_2(n)$ are.

NP-Completeness

Definition 1.5

A language B is **NP**-complete if

- ④ B ∈ NP
- 2 every $A \in \mathbf{NP}$ is **P** reducible to *B*.

Theorem 1.6

If B is NP-complete and $B \in \mathbf{P}$ then $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$.

Theorem 1.7

If B is NP-complete and $B \leq_{P} C$ for $C \in NP$, then C is NP-complete.

Proof.

Polynomial time reductions compose.

If there are any problems in $NP \setminus P$, the NP-complete problems are all there.

Every **NP**-complete problem can be translated in deterministic polynomial time to every other **NP**-complete problem.

So, if there is a ${\bf P}$ solution to one ${\bf NP}\text{-complete}$ problem, there is a ${\bf P}$ solution to every ${\bf NP}$ problem.

Typical method: Reduce a known NP-hard problem P_1 to the new problem P_2 .

NP-completeness is a good news/bad news situation.

- Good news: The problem is in NP!
- Bummer: The problem is NP-hard!

So, a typical NP-completeness proof consists of two parts:

- Prove that the problem is in NP (i.e., it has P verifier).
- Prove that the problem is at least as hard as other problems in NP.

A TM can simulate an ordinary computer in polynomial time, so it is sufficient to describe a polynomial-time checking algorithm that will run on any reasonable model of computation.

A problem is **NP**-*hard* if having a polynomial-time solution to it would give us a polynomial solution to every problem in **NP**.

Prove that the problem is **NP**-hard: The usual strategy is to find a polynomial-time reduction of a known **NP**-hard problem (say P_1) to the problem in question (say P_2).

The goal is to show that P_2 is at least as hard (in terms of polynomial vs. super-polynomial time) as P_1 .

If P_1 can be translated to an equivalent problem P_2 in polynomial time, then a polynomial-time solution to P_2 would also give a polynomial-time solution to P_1 : First reduce P_1 to P_2 , then solve it.

Repeated warning: Make sure you are reducing the known problem to the unknown problem!

In practice, there are now thousands of known **NP**-complete problems. A good technique is to look for one similar to the one you are trying to prove **NP**-hard.

Let $Prop = \{x, y, ...\}$ be a (finite) set of *Boolean variables* (or *propositions*). A CFG for Boolean formulae over *Prop* is:

$$\phi \to p \mid \phi \land \phi \mid \neg \phi \mid (\phi)$$
$$p \to x \mid y \mid \dots$$

We use abbreviations such as

$$\phi_1 \lor \phi_2 = \neg (\neg \phi_1 \land \neg \phi_2) \qquad \phi_1 \Rightarrow \phi_2 = \neg \phi_1 \lor \phi_2$$

FALSE = $(x \land \neg x)$ TRUE = \neg FALSE

Technically, we could handle countably infinite sets *Prop* if we had a naming scheme for variables, say, x_n for binary representations n of natural numbers.

A Boolean formula is either **TT** (for "true") or **FF** (for "false"), possibly depending on the interpretation of its propositions. Let $\mathbb{B} = \{FF, TT\}$.

Definition 2.1

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An interpretation (of Prop) is a function \pi : Prop \longrightarrow \mathbb{B}.
For Boolean formulae \phi we define \pi satisfies \phi, written \pi \models \phi, inductively by:
Base: \pi \models x iff \pi(x) = \mathbf{TT}.
Induction:
• \pi \models \neg \phi iff \pi \not\models \phi.
• \pi \models \phi_1 \land \phi_2 iff both \pi \models \phi_1 and \pi \models \phi_2.
• \pi \models (\phi) iff \pi \models \phi.
\phi is satisfiable if there exists an interpretation \pi such that \pi \models \phi.
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$SAT = \{ \langle \phi \rangle \mid \phi \text{ is a satisfiable Boolean formula } \}$

Theorem 2.2

SAT is NP-complete.

Proof of $SAT \in \mathbf{NP}$.

If $\pi \models \phi$ we use $\langle \pi \rangle$ as certicate. Had we chosen a countably infinite *Prop*, we'd restrict π to the propositions occurring in ϕ .

Let $A \in NP$. Let $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, F)$ be a deciding NTM with L(M) = A and let p be a polynomial such that M takes at most p(|w|) steps on any computation for any $w \in \Sigma^*$.

Construct a **P** reduction from A to SAT. On input w a Boolean formula ϕ_w that describes M's possible computations on w.

M accepts *w* iff ϕ_w is satisfiable. The satisfying interpretation resolves the nondeterminism in the computation tree to arrive at an accepting branch of the computation tree.

Remains to be done: define ϕ_w .

Recall that M accepts w if an $n \le p(|w|)$ and a sequence $(C_i)_{0 \le i \le n}$ of IDs exist, where

- 1 $C_1 = q_0 w$,
- 2 each C_i can yield C_{i+1} , and
- \bigcirc C_n is an accepting ID.

Let $C = Q \cup \Gamma \cup \{\#\}$. Each C_i can be represented as a #-enclosed string over alphabet C no longer than n + 3.

The Boolean formula ϕ_w shall represent all such sequences $(C_i)_{0 \le i \le n}$ beginning with $q_0 w$.

$$\phi_{w} = \phi_{\text{cell}} \land \phi_{\text{start}} \land \phi_{\text{move}} \land \phi_{\text{accept}}$$

... describes an n^2 grid using propositions $Prop = \{ x_{i,k,s} \mid i, k \in \{1, ..., n\} \land s \in C \}.$

$$\phi_{\mathsf{cell}} = \bigwedge_{0 < i,k \le n} \left(\bigvee_{s \in C} x_{i,k,s} \land \bigwedge_{s \neq t \in C} (\neg x_{i,k,s} \lor \neg x_{i,k,t}) \right)$$

Row *i* in the grid corresponds to the ID C_i . Unused tape cells are blank. Every grid cell contains exactly one symbol or a state.

... specifies that the first row of the grid contains $q_0 w$ where $w = w_1 \dots w_{|w|}$:

$$\phi_{\mathsf{start}} = x_{1,1,\#} \land x_{1,2,q_0} \land \bigwedge_{2 < i \le |w|+2} x_{1,i,w_{i-2}} \land \bigwedge_{|w|+2 < i \le n-1} x_{1,i,\sqcup} \land x_{1,n,\#}$$

... ensures that C_i yields C_{i+1} by describing legal 2 × 3 windows of cells.

$$\phi_{\text{move}} = \bigwedge_{0 < i, k < n} \bigvee_{\substack{a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3 \ a_4 \ a_5 \ a_6}} \left(\begin{array}{cc} x_{i,k-1,a_1} \ \land \ x_{i,k,a_2} \ \land \ x_{i,k+1,a_3} \ \land \ x_{i+1,k-1,a_4} \ \land \ x_{i+1,k,a_5} \ \land \ x_{i+1,k+1,a_6} \end{array} \right)$$

what is legal depends on the transition function δ .

... states that the accept state is reached:

$$\phi_{\mathsf{accept}} = \bigvee_{0 < i,k \leq n} x_{i,k,q_{\mathsf{accept}}}$$

Finally we check that the size of ϕ_w is polynomial in |w| and that ϕ_w is constructable in polynomial time.

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