

COMP3630 / COMP6363

week 7 & 8: **Time Complexity**

This Lecture Covers Chapter 10 of HMU: Time Complexity

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Content of this Chapter

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

Additional Reading: Chapter 10 of HMU.

$P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$ Question 10.1.1 ($P = NP$ 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.

NP-complete problems

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**.

P Reducibility

Definition 10.1.2

$f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ 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 10.1.3

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

Definition 10.1.4

- > A reduction is a polynomial-time translation of the problem, say r .
- > If w is an instance of problem A , then $r(w)$ is an instance of problem B .
- > r must have two properties:
 - ① it preserves the answer. So the answer to w is “yes” iff the answer to $r(w)$ is “yes.” (The same automatically holds for the “no” due to the “iff”.)
 - ② $r(w)$ can be computed in time polynomial in $|w|$.

P Reducibility cont.

Theorem 10.1.5

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

Proof.

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

NP Membership, Hardness, and Completeness

Definition 10.1.6 (NP completeness, NP membership, NP hardness)

A language B is NP-complete if

- | | |
|--|-----------------|
| ① $B \in \mathbf{NP}$ | = NP membership |
| ② <u>every</u> $A \in \mathbf{NP}$ is \mathbf{P} -reducible to B . | = NP hardness |

- > So from the second property we get $A \leq_{\mathbf{P}} B$ for all A , and therefore we know that B is “hard/expressive enough” to solve all other problems in \mathbf{NP} .
- > Therefore, **NP-complete** problems are the hardest ones in **NP**.
 (E.g., we probably can't solve other **NP** problems using a **P** problem!)
- > Note that if $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$, there do exist problems, which are in **NP**, not in **P**, but not **NP-hard**! In other words: If $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$ (so non-determinism can't be compiled away in poly-time), non-membership to \mathbf{P} (which implies that we need non-determinism for poly-time) does not imply that a problem is also **NP-hard** (and thus **NP-complete**).
 (Ladner's theorem, 1975)

Motivation

Why are we interested in showing **NP**-hardness/completeness in the first place?

- > If we fail in providing a **P** procedure for a new problem it could be:
 - Because we just did not think hard enough (it exists and we could find it)
 - Somebody else did just not think hard enough (it exists and somebody more fortunate could find it)
 - It doesn't even exist!
- > So ... How to find out whether we should just work harder?
 (Or ask "this friend that's always better/quicker than me"?)
 - If we can prove **NP**-completeness, then at least we know that nobody before you (and possibly long after you) found a **P**-procedure. (And maybe none even exists for it, which follows directly once somebody proves $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$.)
- > Why **NP**-completeness? Why not just showing **NP**-hardness?
 - Since the problem could be even harder! (E.g., **PSPACE** (week 10), **EXPTIME**, **NEXPTIME**, ..., $\mathbf{RE} \setminus \mathbf{R}$ (undecidable), and *infinitely* more!)
 - Each problem class has specific "properties". E.g., "**NP** looks like Logic", "**PSPACE** looks like planning".

NP-Hardness

Theorem 10.1.7

If B is **NP-hard** and $B \leq_P C$, then C is **NP-hard**.

Corollary 10.1.8

If B is **NP-complete** and $B \leq_P C$ for $C \in \mathbf{NP}$, then C is **NP-complete**.

Proof.

Polynomial time reductions compose. □

Important note! Corollary 10.1.8 is of major importance!! Why?

→ It gives us a convenient procedure to show **NP-completeness**!

> First, show **NP-membership**. (That's almost always very easy.)

> Then, show hardness by grabbing any **NP-complete** problem and reducing it to yours!

Open issue: We need “a very first” **NP-complete** problem... (Hardness is the issue!)

NP-Hardness by Reduction (Recap!)

Typical method to show **NP**-hardness:

- › Reduce a known **NP**-hard problem A to the new problem B (Theorem 10.1.7).
That is: Take **NP**-hard A from the literature and show $A \leq_P B$, where B is the (new) problem for which you want to show **NP**-hardness.

Why would we want to do so?

- › We just had some reasons a few slides back (see our *Motivation* slide!).
- › One point is: we know that nobody has found a **P** solution to your problem B yet! (That hopefully makes a good excuse!)

Consequences of **NP**-Completeness

Theorem 10.1.9

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

Proof.

Since B is **NP**-hard, by Def. 10.1.6, for every $A \in \mathbf{NP}$ holds $A \leq_{\mathbf{P}} B$.

Since B is in \mathbf{P} , and since polynomial time reductions compose, each A is in \mathbf{P} . \square

Question: Did we need **NP**-completeness of B ? Would **NP**-hardness have sufficed?

→ Yes! But it's less likely to show $B \in \mathbf{P}$ if it's not **NP**-complete. (Discuss in tutorials.)

Also:

- › All **NP**-complete problems can be translated in deterministic polytime into every other **NP**-complete problem. I.e., all **NP**-complete problems can be reduced to each other.
- › So, if there is a \mathbf{P} solution to one **NP**-complete problem, there is a \mathbf{P} solution to every **NP** problem. (This can be another “motivation” behind all this.)

Let A be **NP**-complete and $B \in \mathbf{NP}$. What can we conclude (at the moment)?

- ① $B \leq_{\mathbf{P}} A$? Yes, by definition. Since A is **NP**-hard.
- ② $A \leq_{\mathbf{P}} B$? No! Maybe $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$, and B might be in \mathbf{P} .
- ③ $A \leq_{\mathbf{P}} B$ if $B \notin \mathbf{P}$? Still no! Maybe $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$, then Ladner's theorem says that there are non-**NP**-hard problems in $\mathbf{NP} \setminus \mathbf{P}$! (And maybe that's our B .)

Basic Proof Strategy (Another Recap!)

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

- Good news: The problem is in **NP**! (Why good? It's "not" harder!)
- Bummer: The problem is **NP**-hard! (Why bad? Likely not in **P**...)

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

- ① Prove that the problem is in **NP** (i.e., it has **P** verifier – or a non-deterministic TM).
- ② 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. (Recall the pseudocode for gcd! That wasn't a TM either.)

NP-hardness: How (not) to do it

Important warning:

- Make sure you are reducing the known problem to the unknown problem! “Unknown” here means that it’s the “new” one that has unknown complexity.
- Recall Corollary 10.1.8: Show $B \leq_P C$ for $C \in \mathbf{NP}$, i.e., C is the unknown problem and B was an **NP**-complete problem. (Any **NP**-hard problem will do for B , but if it’s harder than **NP**, you likely won’t be able to do the reduction.)
- So, again, carefully double-check that you reduce in the right direction!

In practice, there are now thousands of known **NP**-complete problems.

A great start: “Karp’s 21 NP-complete problems” – google it!

(And attend/watch Alban’s guest lectures on examples! No slides!)

A good technique is to look for one similar to the one you are trying to prove **NP**-hard.

Making our life easier...

So for **NP**-completeness we need to show **NP**-hardness. For this, we had two options:

- ① Use Definition 10.1.6, i.e., show that all problems in **NP** reduce to our problem, or
- ② use Theorem 10.1.7, i.e., reduce from an **NP**-hard problem.

So in the first case we need to show a property for all problems, in the second we only need a single reduction... What's easier? :)

So we need a very first problem that's shown to be NP-hard – from then on we can start reducing!

For this, we will use SAT!

(Note that this / the first choice is actually also just a single reduction!)

Boolean Formulae

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

$$\begin{aligned} \phi &\rightarrow p \mid \phi \wedge \phi \mid \neg\phi \mid (\phi) \\ p &\rightarrow x \mid y \mid \dots \end{aligned}$$

We use abbreviations such as

$$\phi_1 \vee \phi_2 = \neg(\neg\phi_1 \wedge \neg\phi_2)$$

$$\text{FALSE} = (x \wedge \neg x)$$

$$\phi_1 \Rightarrow \phi_2 = \neg\phi_1 \vee \phi_2$$

$$\text{TRUE} = \neg\text{FALSE}$$

(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. We won't need this!)

Semantics of Boolean Formulae

A Boolean formula is either \top (for “true”) or \perp (for “false”), possibly depending on the interpretation of its propositions. Let $\mathbb{B} = \{\perp, \top\}$.

Definition 10.2.1

An interpretation (or assignment) of $Prop$ is a function $\pi : Prop \rightarrow \mathbb{B}$.

For Boolean formulae ϕ we define π satisfies ϕ , written $\pi \models \phi$, inductively by:

Base: $\pi \models x$ iff $\pi(x) = \top$.

Induction:

- $\pi \models \neg\phi$ iff $\pi \not\models \phi$.
- $\pi \models \phi_1 \wedge \phi_2$ iff both $\pi \models \phi_1$ and $\pi \models \phi_2$.
- $\pi \models (\phi)$ iff $\pi \models \phi$.

ϕ is satisfiable if there exists an interpretation π such that $\pi \models \phi$.

SAT—An NP-Complete Problem

$$\text{SAT} = \{ \langle \phi \rangle \mid \phi \text{ is a satisfiable Boolean formula} \}$$

Theorem 10.2.2 (Cook-Levin Theorem – or: Cook's Theorem, 1971/1973)

SAT is NP-complete.

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

If $\pi \models \phi$ we use $\langle \pi \rangle$ as certificate. (I.e., guess it and verify.) Had we chosen a countably infinite *Prop*, we'd restrict π to the propositions occurring in ϕ . \square

Proof of SAT is NP-hard.

The entire rest of these slides! \square

Proof of **NP**-Hardness of *SAT*

Let $A \in \mathbf{NP}$. 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*:

- › Input w is turned into 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 .

Proof of **NP**-Hardness of *SAT* cont.

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

- ① $C_0 = q_0 w$,
- ② each C_i can yield C_{i+1} , and
- ③ C_n is an accepting ID.
- ④ Note that we have at most $n + 1$ IDs if the TM can make at most $n \leq p(|w|)$ steps.

ϕ_w

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

$$\phi_w = \phi_{\text{cell}} \wedge \phi_{\text{start}} \wedge \phi_{\text{move}} \wedge \phi_{\text{accept}}$$

The different sub formulae serve the following purposes:

- > ϕ_{cell} : Defines all existing “cells”, which encode all possible IDs.
- > ϕ_{start} : Sets the initial row of these cells: TM’s initial ID.
- > ϕ_{move} : Enforces legal TM transitions.
- > ϕ_{accept} : Enforces ending up in an accepting state.

ϕ_{cell}

...describes an n^2 grid using propositions $Prop = \{ x_{i,k,s} \mid i, k \in \{0, \dots, n\} \wedge s \in \Sigma_\phi \}$, where $\Sigma_\phi = Q \cup \Gamma$ (recall that $B \in \Gamma$) is the “alphabet of the SAT formula” used to encode the IDs. Also recall that TM IDs contain the non-trivial tape and the state.

First, why is $i, k \in \{0, \dots, n\}$? Why $s \in \Sigma_\phi$?

- i : encode the rows. We need one for every possible ID ($n + 1$ many!)
- k : encodes the columns. Each column is a possible value of an ID symbol. n symbols are the TM cells that can be reached, and one is the state.
- s : The content of ID i at position k , i.e., a tape symbol or the state.

$$\phi_{\text{cell}} = \bigwedge_{0 \leq i, k \leq n} \left(\left(\bigvee_{s \in \Sigma_\phi} x_{i,k,s} \right) \wedge \left(\bigwedge_{s \neq t \in \Sigma_\phi} (\neg x_{i,k,s} \vee \neg x_{i,k,t}) \right) \right)$$

Meaning: “There is exactly one symbol at each cell”.

ϕ_{start}

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

$$\phi_{\text{start}} = x_{0,0,q_0} \wedge \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq |w|} x_{0,i,w_i} \wedge \bigwedge_{|w| < i \leq n} x_{0,i,B}$$

So the first line of our grid contains:

- > the q_0 symbol in the first cell,
- > followed by the symbols of our initial tape word,
- > followed by the blank symbol until the end.

ϕ_{move}

... ensures that C_i yields C_{i+1} by describing legal 2×3 windows of cells. We need 3 cells to cover the cell on the left of the state, the state, and on its right (to enable left and right movements of the head).

$$\phi_{\text{move}} = \bigwedge_{0 < i, k < n} \bigvee_{\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \hline a_1 & a_2 & a_3 \\ \hline a_4 & a_5 & a_6 \\ \hline \end{array} \text{ is legal}} \left(\begin{array}{l} X_{i,k-1,a_1} \wedge X_{i,k,a_2} \wedge X_{i,k+1,a_3} \wedge \\ X_{i+1,k-1,a_4} \wedge X_{i+1,k,a_5} \wedge X_{i+1,k+1,a_6} \end{array} \right)$$

(Some border cases are not covered here for simplicity, e.g., i can never be zero.)
What is legal depends on the transition function δ .

Example: Let the current ID be $w_1 w_2 q w_3 w_4$ (so we have blanks before and after it).
Whether we go to the left or to the right, we only need to change 3 cells!

- > $w_1 w_2 q w_3 w_4$ – current ID
- > $w_1 w_2 x q_1 w_4$ – if $\delta(q, w_3) = (q_1, x, R)$
- > $w_1 q_2 w_2 y w_4$ – if $\delta(q, w_3) = (q_2, y, L)$

Are we still complete?

We can't seem to be able to move to the left of the initial head position!

- > Not a problem: We showed equivalence for semi-infinite tapes under polytime.
- > We could alternatively have created a grid of size $(2n)^2$, which also goes n to the left.

ϕ_{accept} – and concluding the Proof

... states that the accept state is reached:

$$\phi_{\text{accept}} = \bigvee_{0 \leq i, k \leq n, q_F \in F} X_{i,k,q_F}$$

Concluding the Proof:

Recall:

$$\phi_w = \phi_{\text{cell}} \wedge \phi_{\text{start}} \wedge \phi_{\text{move}} \wedge \phi_{\text{accept}}$$

Finally we check that the size of ϕ_w is polynomial in $|w|$ and that ϕ_w is constructable in polynomial time. (Both is true!)

So finding a valuation to this formula means deciding $w \in L(M)$ for the arbitrary non-deterministic TM M ! So SAT is **NP-hard**! (It can express every problem in **NP**!)

We have our patient zero now – so now we can prove **NP-hardness** of other problems by reducing from SAT. (And we build our portfolio...)