

Decidability, Etc.

Let \mathcal{N} be the set of *natural numbers* = $\{1, 2, \dots\}$, or the set of positive integers. In class, I gave a proof that there is a function $f : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ which is eventually greater than any computable function.

Definition 1 *If $f, g : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ are functions, we say that f is eventually greater than g if there is some integer i such that $f(n) > g(n)$ for all $n \geq i$.*

Theorem 1 *There is a function $f : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ which is eventually greater than any computable function.*

Proof: Each computable function can be implemented as a Turing machine (or a C++ program, if you prefer). There are only countably many Turing machines, hence there are only countably many computable functions.

Let f_1, f_2, \dots be an enumeration of all computable functions from \mathcal{N} to \mathcal{N} . Now define a function f as follows: for any $n \in \mathcal{N}$, let $f(n) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(n)$. We claim that f is eventually greater than any computable function.

For all $i \geq 1$ and $n \geq i$, $f(n)$ equals $1 + f_i(n)$ plus possibly additional positive terms. Therefore, f is eventually greater than f_i . Since every computable function is f_i for some i , we are done. ▀

\mathcal{P} , \mathcal{NP} , Etc.

Definition 2 *We say that a function f is in the class \mathcal{P} -TIME, or f is polynomial time, if there is a constant k and a machine M which computes $f(w)$ for any string w of length n in at most n^k steps. We say that a problem P is in the class \mathcal{P} -TIME if there is a constant k and an algorithm \mathcal{A} for P which takes at most n^k steps for any input of size n . A language L is in the class \mathcal{P} -TIME if the membership problem for L is in the class \mathcal{P} -TIME.*

Size of an input is defined to be the number of bits needed to express the input. For example, the primality problem is to decide whether a given numeral represents a prime number. The size of the input is not the number, but the number of bits in the numeral for the number. If N is an integer and $\langle N \rangle$ is the numeral for N in base b , the size of $\langle N \rangle$ is $\Theta(\log N)$ if $b \geq 2$.

A 0/1 problem is a problem such that the answer is either 0 or 1 (false or true) for each instance. For example, the membership problem for a language L is a 0/1 problem. In fact, every 0/1 problem is the membership problem for some language.

We say that L is \mathcal{NP} -TIME if there is an NTM (non-deterministic Turing Machine) which accepts L in polynomial time. (We could simply say non-deterministic machine ... it doesn't have to be a Turing Machine.)

\mathcal{P} -TIME and \mathcal{NP} -TIME are usually abbreviated as \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{NP} , respectively.

Theorem 2 *A language L is \mathcal{NP} -TIME if and only if, given any string $w \in L$, it can be proven that $w \in L$ in polynomial time.*

That is, there is a constant k such that, for any $w \in L$ of length n , there is a proof that $w \in L$ whose length (number of symbols in the proof) is at most n^k .

Trivially, every \mathcal{P} -TIME language is also \mathcal{NP} -time. The converse is perhaps the most important open problem in all of computation theory, and perhaps the most important unsolved problem in all of mathematics.

Conjecture 1 *If L is an \mathcal{NP} -TIME language, then L is \mathcal{P} -TIME.*

All (as far as I know) experts are of the opinion that Conjecture 1 is false. The usual statement of this conjecture is, “ $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$.”

Definition 3 *A language L is co- \mathcal{NP} if its complement is \mathcal{NP} .*

Definition 4 *A language L (or equivalently, a 0/1 problem) is said to be \mathcal{NP} -complete if, given any \mathcal{NP} -TIME language L_2 there is a polynomial time reduction of L to L_2 .*

Go to the internet and look up the definition of SAT, the Boolean Satisfiability problem, as well as the special form called 3-SAT.

Briefly, a boolean expression is satisfiable if it is not a contradiction. For example, “ $x = y$ and $x! = y$ ” is a contradiction, hence not satisfiable, while “ $x = y$ and $y = z$ ” is satisfiable. SAT is the language consisting of all satisfiable Boolean expressions.

We will not give the proof of the following theorem. You can find it on the internet.

Theorem 3 *SAT is \mathcal{NP} -complete.*

Once we prove a problem to be \mathcal{NP} -complete, we can use reduction to prove other problems \mathcal{NP} -complete.

Lemma 1 *If there is a polynomial time reduction of L_1 to L_2 , and if L_2 is \mathcal{NP} and L_1 is \mathcal{NP} -complete, then L_2 is \mathcal{NP} -complete.*

The proof is a trivial, given the rule that there can be no “easy” reduction of a “hard” problem to an “easy” problem.

Theorem 4 *3-SAT is \mathcal{NP} -complete.*

Proof: It is trivial that 3-SAT is \mathcal{NP} . We can define a polynomial time reduction of SAT to 3-SAT. (We skip that construction: you can find it on the internet, and I might do it in class.) Since SAT is \mathcal{NP} -complete so is 3-SAT by Lemma 1. ■

Well-Known \mathcal{NP} -Complete Problems

In the original paper on the subject, a number of well-known problems were proved to be \mathcal{NP} -complete. Now, there are thousands of \mathcal{NP} -complete problems known.

1. Partition. Given any set of weighted objects, does there exist a partition of that set into two subsets of equal weight? For example, can there be a tie in the Electoral College?
2. Knapsack. Given any set of weighted objects, and given a knapsack with capacity K , does there exist a subset of objects that exactly fills the knapsack? That is, a subset whose total weight is exactly K ?

3. Traveling Salesman. Given n cities with various distances between them, and given a distance D , can a salesman, starting at one city, visit all of the cities, each exactly once, while traveling a total distance of no more than D ?
4. Integer Programming. Linear Programming can be solved in polynomial time, where the variables have real type. But if the variables are required to have integer type, the problem is \mathcal{NP} -complete.
5. Bounded Degree Minimum Spanning Tree. Given a weighted graph G , and given a weight W , can you find a spanning tree of weight at most W ? Kruskal's algorithm solves this problem in polynomial time. But if we impose the condition that the spanning tree can have degree at most D , the problem is \mathcal{NP} -complete.
6. Independent Set. A set I of vertices of a graph G is *independent* if no two vertices of that set are neighbors. Given a graph G and a number k , does G have an independent set of size k ?

Guide Strings

Let M be some non-deterministic machine. Any computation of M requires picking one of finitely many choices at each step. Without loss of generality, M never has more than two choices at each step, since k choices at a step can be emulated by a sequence of at most $\log_2 k$ steps with 2 choices at each step. We can deterministically emulate any finite computation of M by providing a binary string, called a *guide string*, of sufficient length. At each step, the emulation reads the guide string to determine the next choice. The emulation halts when the end of the guide string is reached.

Theorem 5 *If a language L is accepted by some non-deterministic machine M_1 , then L is accepted by some deterministic machine M_2 .*

Proof: Let $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$, the binary alphabet, and let g_1, g_2, \dots be a canonical order enumeration of Σ^* . Let M_2 be the following program.

1. Read w .
2. For $i = 1$ to ∞ :
 - (a) Emulate M_1 with input w using g_i as a guide string.
 - (b) If that emulation outputs "1" before the guide string is exhausted, write "1" and **break**.

If w is accepted by some computation of M_1 , let g be a binary string which encodes the necessary choices of that computation. When $g_i = g$ in the main loop of the code, M_2 halts and accepts w . On the other hand, M_2 will never halt if w is not accepted by any computation of M_1 . ■

We define $\mathcal{EXPTIME}$ to be the set of all functions $f : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ such that $f(n) = O(2^{n^k})$ for some constant k . We define $\mathcal{EXPTIME}$ to be the class of all languages which are accepted in *exponential time*. That is, $L \in \mathcal{EXPTIME}$ if there is a deterministic machine M and a constant k such that for every $w \in L$, M accepts w in at (2^{n^k}) steps where n is the length of w , and M does not accept any string not in L .

Theorem 6 $\mathcal{NP-TIME} \subseteq \mathcal{EXPTIME}$.

Proof: Suppose $L \in \mathcal{NP}$ -TIME. Let M be an NTM that accepts L in polynomial time, *i.e.*, M does not accept any string not in L , and there is a constant k such that every $w \in L$ is accepted by M in at most n^k steps. For each $w \in L$, let g_w be the guide string which encodes the choices that M makes while accepting w . The length of g_w does not exceed the number of steps M needs to accept w . During the loop of M_2 given in the proof of Theorem 5, we can halt M_2 , and output “0” once $g_i > g_w$ in the canonical order. There are at most 2^k guide strings that are less than g_w in canonical order, hence the program, which is deterministic, decides L in exponential time. ▀

Witnesses, Certificates

If we have an instance I of a problem P , we say that a string w is a *witness*, or *certificate* for I if it shows that I is a solution of the problem.

For example, if $I = (K, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_m)$ is an instance of the Knapsack problem, a witness for I is any subsequence of $\{x_i\}$ whose sum is K .

Theorem 7 *If $L \in \mathcal{NP}$, each member of L has a witness of polynomial length.*

More formally, if $L \in \mathcal{NP}$, there is a deterministic machine V , called the *verifier*, and an integer k such that

1. The input of V is an ordered pair of strings (u, v) . With input (u, v) , V either *accepts* or *rejects*.
2. If $u \notin L$ and v is any string, V rejects (u, v) .
3. If $u \in L$ and $n = |u|$, there is some string v such that
 - (a) $|v| \leq n^k$,
 - (b) V accepts (u, v) in at most n^k steps.

Note that V could reject (u, v) even if $u \in L$. The verifier is easy, but finding the correct certificate could be hard.

Space Complexity

\mathcal{P} -SPACE is the class of all languages L which are accepted in polynomial space. That is, $L \in \mathcal{P}$ -SPACE if there is some integer k and some machine M which has at most n^k states which accepts L .

We can also define the non-deterministic version, but we don't get a new class, since \mathcal{NP} -SPACE = \mathcal{P} -SPACE.

The proof of the following theorem is pretty easy. Do you see it?

Theorem 8 \mathcal{NP} -TIME \subseteq \mathcal{P} -SPACE.

The following conjecture is also considered very important, and experts also believe that it is false.

Conjecture 2 \mathcal{NP} -TIME = \mathcal{P} -SPACE.