

## P, NP, and PH

### 1 Introduction to $\mathcal{NP}$

Recall the definition of the class  $\mathcal{P}$ :

**Def 1.1**  $A$  is in  $\mathcal{P}$  if there exists a Turing machine  $M$  and a polynomial  $p$  such that  $\forall x$

- If  $x \in A$  then  $M(x) = YES$ .
- If  $x \notin A$  then  $M(x) = NO$ .
- For all  $x$   $M(x)$  runs in time  $\leq p(|x|)$ .

The typical way of defining NP is by using *non-deterministic* Turing machines. We will NOT be taking this approach. We will instead use quantifiers. This is equivalent to the definition using nondeterminism.

**Def 1.2**  $A$  is in NP if there exists a set  $B \in \mathcal{P}$  and a polynomial  $p$  such that

$$L = \{x \mid (\exists y)[|y| = p(|x|) \wedge (x, y) \in B]\}.$$

Here is some intuition. Let  $A \in \text{NP}$ .

- If  $x \in A$  then there is a SHORT (poly in  $|x|$ ) proof of this fact, namely  $y$ , such that  $x$  can be VERIFIED in poly time. So if I wanted to convince you that  $x \in L$ , I could give you  $y$ . You can verify  $(x, y) \in B$  easily and be convinced.
- If  $x \notin A$  then there is NO proof that  $x \in A$ .

### 2 NP Completeness

We first discuss the notion of *reductions*. We first define a Cook(-Turing) reduction:

**Def 2.1** A *Cook(-Turing) reduction* from a language  $L$  to a language  $L'$  is a polynomial-time oracle machine  $M$  such that, if  $M'$  is any machine that decides  $L'$ , then  $M^{M'}$  decides  $L$ . We express the above by writing  $L \leq_T^P L'$ .

Another important, yet immediate, result is that (1) if there is a Cook reduction from  $L$  to  $L'$  and (2)  $L' \in \mathcal{P}$ , then  $L \in \mathcal{P}$  as well. Note, however, that this is not believed to be the case for languages in NP. For example, every coNP language is Cook-reducible to an NP language, but it is not believed that  $\text{coNP} \subseteq \text{NP}$ .

A more restricted notion of a reduction is given next:

**Def 2.2** A *Karp reduction* (also called a *many-to-one reduction*) from a language  $L$  to a language  $L'$  is a polynomial-time computable function  $f$  such that  $x \in L$  iff  $f(x) \in L'$ . We express this by writing  $L \leq_m^p L'$ .

Note that any Karp reduction provides an immediate Cook reduction as well. However, here it is true that if there is a Karp reduction from  $L$  to  $L'$  and  $L' \in \text{NP}$ , then  $L \in \text{NP}$ .

It may be verified that all the above reductions are transitive.

## 2.1 Defining NP Completeness

With the above in place, we define NP-hardness and NP-completeness:

**Def 2.3** A language  $L$  is NP-hard if for every language  $L' \in \text{NP}$ , there is a Karp reduction from  $L'$  to  $L$ . A language  $L$  is NP-complete if it is NP-hard and also  $L \in \text{NP}$ .

We remark that one could also define NP-hardness via *Cook* reductions. However, this seems to lead to a different definition. In particular, oracle access to any coNP-complete language is enough to decide NP, meaning that any coNP-complete language is NP-hard w.r.t. Cook reductions. On the other hand, if a coNP-complete language were NP-hard w.r.t. Karp reductions, this would imply  $\text{NP} = \text{coNP}$  (which is considered to be unlikely).

We show the “obvious” NP-complete language:

**Theorem 2.4** Define language  $L$  via:

$$L = \left\{ \langle M, x, 1^t \rangle \mid \begin{array}{l} M \text{ is a non-deterministic T.M.} \\ \text{which accepts } x \text{ within } t \text{ steps} \end{array} \right\}.$$

Then  $L$  is NP-complete.

**Proof:** It is not hard to see that  $L \in \text{NP}$ . Given  $\langle M, x, 1^t \rangle$  as input, non-deterministically choose a legal sequence of up to  $t$  moves of  $M$  on input  $x$ , and accept if  $M$  accepts. This algorithm runs in non-deterministic polynomial time and decides  $L$ .

To see that  $L$  is NP-hard, let  $L' \in \text{NP}$  be arbitrary and assume that non-deterministic machine  $M_{L'}$  decides  $L'$  and runs in time  $n^c$  on inputs of size  $n$ . Define function  $f$  as follows: given  $x$ , output  $\langle M_{L'}, x, 1^{|x|^c} \rangle$ . Note that (1)  $f$  can be computed in polynomial time and (2)  $x \in L' \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in L$ . We remark that this can be extended to give a Levin reduction (between  $R_L$  and  $R_{L'}$ , defined in the natural ways). ■

### 3 More NP-Complete Languages

It will be nice to find more “natural” NP-complete languages. The *first* problem we prove NP-complete will have to use details of the machine model- Turing Machines. All later results will be reductions using known NP-complete problems.

- Def 3.1**
1. SAT is the set of all boolean formulas that are satisfiable. That is,  $\phi(\vec{x}) \in SAT$  if there exists a vector  $\vec{b}$  such that  $\phi(\vec{b}) = TRUE$ .
  2. CNFSAT is the set of all boolean formulas in SAT of the form  $C_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge C_m$  where each  $C_i$  is an  $\vee$  of literals.
  3.  $k$ -SAT is the set of all boolean formulas in SAT of the form  $C_1 \wedge \cdots \wedge C_m$  where each  $C_i$  is an  $\vee$  of exactly  $k$  literals.
  4. DNFSAT is the set of all boolean formulas in SAT of the form  $C_1 \vee \cdots \vee C_m$  where each  $C_i$  is an  $\wedge$  of literals.
  5.  $k$ -DNFSAT is the set of all boolean formulas in SAT of the form  $C_1 \vee \cdots \vee C_m$  where each  $C_i$  is an  $\wedge$  of exactly  $k$  literals.

**Theorem 3.2** *CNFSAT is NP-complete.*

**Proof:** It is easy to see that  $CNFSAT \in NP$ .

Let  $L \in NP$ . We show that  $L \leq_m^P CNFSAT$ .

$M$  be a TM and  $p, q$  be polynomials such that

$$L = \{x \mid (\exists y)[|y| = q(|x|) \text{ AND } M(x, y) = 1]\}$$

and  $M(x, y)$  runs in time  $q(|x| + |y|)$ .

We will actually have to deal with the details of the  $M$ . Let  $M = (Q, \Sigma, \delta, \Sigma, \delta, q_0, h)$

We will also need to represent what a Turing Machine is doing at every stage.

The machine itself has a tape, something like

$$\#abba\#ab@ab\#a$$

(We assume that everything to the right that is not seen is a  $\#$ . Our convention is that you CANNOT go off to the left— from the left most symbol you can't go left.) is in state  $q$  and the head is looking at (say) the  $@$  sign.

We would represent this

$$\#abba\#ab(@, q)a$$

That is our convention— we extend the alphabet and allow symbols  $\Sigma \times Q$ . The symbol  $(@, q)$  means the symbol is  $@$ , the state is  $q$ , and that square is where the head of the machine is.

If  $x \in L$  then there is a  $y$  of length  $q(|x|)$  such that the Turing machine on  $M$  accepts.

Lets us say that with more detail.

If  $x \in L$  then there is a  $y$  and a sequence of configurations  $C_1, C_2, \dots, C_t$  such that

- $C_1$  is the configuration that says ‘input is  $x\#y$ , and I am in the starting state.’
- For all  $i$ ,  $C_{i+1}$  follows from  $C_i$  (note that  $M$  is deterministic) using  $\delta$ .
- $C_t$  is the configuration that says “END and output is 1”
- $t = p(|x|) + q(|x|)$ .

How to make all of this into a formula?

**KEY 1:** We will have a variable for every possible entry in every possible configuration. Hence the variables are  $z_{i,j,\sigma}$  where  $1 \leq i, j \leq t$ , and  $\sigma \in \Sigma \cup Q$ . The intent is that if there is an accepting sequence of configurations then

$z_{i,j,\sigma} = T$  iff the  $j$  symbol in the  $i$ th configuration is  $\sigma$ .

To just make sure that for every  $i, j$  there is a unique  $\sigma$  such that  $z_{i,j,\sigma} = T$  we have, for every  $1 \leq i \leq j$ , the following clauses.

$$\bigvee_{\sigma \in \Sigma \cup Q} z_{i,j,\sigma}$$

(NOTE- the actual formula would write out all of this and not be allowed to use  $\bigvee$ . With Poly time it MATTERS what kind of representation you use since we want computations to be poly time in the length of the input.)

for each  $\sigma \in \Sigma \cup (\Sigma \times Q)$

$$z_{i,j,\sigma} \rightarrow \bigvee_{\tau \in (\Sigma \cup (\Sigma \times Q)) - \{\sigma\}} \neg z_{i,j,\tau}$$

(It is an easy exercise to turn this into a set of clauses.)

**KEY 2:** The parts of the formula that say that  $C_1$  is the starting configuration for  $x\#y$  on the tape, and  $C_t$  is the configuration for saying DONE and output is 1, are both easy. Note that for the  $y$  part- WE DO NOT KNOW  $y$ . So we have to write that the  $y$  is a squnce of elements of  $\Sigma$  of length  $q(|x|)$ .

Recall our convention for the first and last configuration:

*Intuitively we start out with  $x$  and  $y$  laid out on the tape, and the head looking at the  $\#$  just to the right of  $y$ . The machine then runs, and if it gets to the  $q_{accept}$  state then it accepts.*

The following formula says that  $C_1$  says ‘start with  $x$ ’ Let  $x = x_1 \cdots x_n$ .

$$z_{1,1,x_1} \wedge \cdots \wedge z_{1,n,x_n} \wedge x_{1,n+1,\#} \wedge$$

$$\bigwedge_{i=n+2}^{n+q(|x|+1)} \bigvee_{\sigma \in \Sigma} z_{1,i,\sigma} \wedge z_{1,q(n)+n+2,(\#,s)} \wedge \bigwedge_{i=q(n)+n+3}^{t(n)} \wedge z_{1,i,\#}$$

Note that this formula is in CNF-form.

The following formula says that  $C_t$  says ‘ends with accept’

$$\bigvee_{i=1}^{t(n)} \bigvee_{\sigma \in \Sigma} z_{t,i,(\sigma, q_{\text{accept}})}$$

**KEY 3:** How do we say that going from  $C_i$  you must goto  $C_{i+1}$ . We first do a thought experiment and then generalize. What if

$$\delta(q, a) = (p, b).$$

Then if the  $C_i$  says that you are in state  $q$  and looking at an  $a$  then  $C_{i+1}$  must be in state  $p$  and overwrite  $a$  with  $b$ . Note that in both cases *the rest of the configuration has not changed*.

How do we make this into a formula? The statement “ $C_i$  says that you are in state  $q$  and looking at an  $a$ ” and the head is at the  $j$ th position is

$$z_{i,j,(a,q)}$$

We also have to know what else is around it. Assume that there is a  $b$  on the left and a  $c$  on the right. So we have

$$(z_{i,j-1,b} \wedge (z_{i,j,(a,q)} \wedge (z_{i,j+1,c}.$$

The statement that  $C_{i+1}$  is in state  $p$  and having overwritten  $a$  with  $b$

$$(z_{i+1,j-1,b} \wedge (z_{i+1,j,(b,p)} \wedge (z_{i+1,j+1,c}.$$

This leads to the formula

$$\bigwedge_{i,j=1}^t (z_{i,j-1,b} \wedge (z_{i,j,(a,q)} \wedge (z_{i,j+1,c} \rightarrow (z_{i+1,j-1,b} \wedge (z_{i+1,j,(b,p)} \wedge (z_{i+1,j+1,c}.$$

This formula can be put into CNF-form.

For all of the  $\delta$  values we need a similar formula.

### PUTTING IT ALL TOGETHER

Take the  $\wedge$  of the formulas in the last three KEY points and you have a formula  $\phi$

$$x \in L \iff \phi \in CNFSAT.$$

■

## 4 Other NP-Complete Problems

Now that we have SAT is NP-Complete many other problems can be shown to be NP-complete. They come from many different areas of computer science and math: graph theory, scheduling, number theory, and others.

*There are literally thousands of natural and distinct NP-complete problems!*

## 5 Relating Function Problems to Decision Problems

Consider the NP-complete problem

$$CLIQUE = \{(G, k) \mid G \text{ has a clique of size } k\}.$$

Note that while this is a nice problem, its not quite the one we really want to solve. We want to compute the *function*

$SIZECLIQUE(G) = k$  such that  $k$  is the size of the largest clique in  $G$ .

Or we may want to compute

$FINDCLIQUE(G) =$  the largest clique in  $G$  (Note- this is ambiguous as there could be a tie. This can be resolved in several ways.)

How hard are these problems?

**Theorem 5.1** *CLIQUE and FINDCLIQUE are Cook-equivalent. In particular*

1. *CLIQUE can be solved with one query to FINDCLIQUE.*
2. *FINDCLIQUE( $G$ ) can be computed with  $\log n$  queries to CLIQUE*

**Proof:**

The first part is trivial.

We give an algorithm for the second part.

1. Input  $G$
2. Ask  $(G, n/2) \in CLIQUE$ ? If YES then ask  $(G, 3n/4) \in CLIQUE$ . If NO then ask  $(G, n/4) \in CLIQUE$ .
3. Continue using binary search until you get to the answer. This will take  $\log n$  queries.

■

The theorem above can be generalized to saying that if  $L \in NP$  then the function associated to it (this can be done in several ways) is Cook Equivalent to  $L$ . Details will be on a HW.

## 6 The Polynomial Hierarchy

Recall (one of) the definitions of NP.

**Def 6.1**  $A \in NP$  if there exists a polynomial  $p$  and a polynomial predicate  $B$  such that

$$A = \{x \mid (\exists y)[|y| \leq p(|x|) \wedge B(x, y)]\}.$$

What if we allowed more quantifiers? Then what happens?

### Notation 6.2

1. The expression

$$A = \{x \mid (\exists^p y)[B(x, y)]\}$$

means that there is a polynomial  $p$  such that

$$A = \{x \mid (\exists y, |y| \leq p(|x|))[B(x, y)]\}.$$

2. The expression

$$A = \{x \mid (\forall^p y)[B(x, y)]\}$$

means that there is a polynomial  $p$  such that

$$A = \{x \mid (\forall y, |y| \leq p(|x|))[B(x, y)]\}.$$

3. The expression

$$A = \{x \mid (\forall^p y)(\exists^p z)[B(x, y, z)]\}$$

means that there are polynomials  $p_1, p_2$  such that

$$A = \{x \mid (\forall y, |y| \leq p_1(|x|))(\exists z, |z| \leq p_2(|x|))[B(x, y, z)]\}.$$

4. One can define this notation for as long a string of quantifiers as you like. We leave the formal definition to the reader.

In the following definition we include a definition and an alternative definition.

### Def 6.3

1.  $A \in \Sigma_0^p$  if  $A \in P$ .  $A \in \Pi_0^p$  if  $A \in P$ . (We include this so we use it inductively later.)

2.  $A \in \Sigma_1^p$  if there exists a set  $B \in P$  such that  
 $A = \{x \mid (\exists^p y)[B(x, y)]\}$ .  
This is just NP.
3.  $A \in \Pi_1^p$  if there exists a set  $B \in P$  such that  
 $A = \{x \mid (\forall^p y)[B(x, y)]\}$ .  
This is just all sets  $A$  such that  $\bar{A} \in NP$ . It is often called co-NP.
4.  $A \in \Sigma_2^p$  if there exists a set  $B \in P$  such that  
 $A = \{x \mid (\exists^p y)(\forall^p z)[B(x, y, z)]\}$ .
5.  $A \in \Sigma_2^p$  (alternative definition) if there exists a set  $B \in \Pi_1^p$  such that  
 $A = \{x \mid (\exists^p y)[B(x, y)]\}$ .
6.  $A \in \Pi_2^p$  if there exists a set  $B \in P$  such that  
 $A = \{x \mid (\forall^p y)(\exists^p z)[B(x, y, z)]\}$ .
7.  $A \in \Pi_2^p$  (alternative definition) if  $\bar{A} \in \Sigma_2^p$ .
8. Let  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $i$  is even then  $A \in \Sigma_i^p$  if there exists  $B \in P$  such that  
 $A = \{x \mid (\exists^p y_1)(\forall^p y_2) \cdots (\forall^p y_i)[B(x, y_1, \dots, y_i)]\}$   
If  $i$  is odd then  $A \in \Sigma_i^p$  if there exists  $B \in P$  such that  
 $A = \{x \mid (\exists^p y_1)(\forall^p y_2) \cdots (\exists^p y_i)[B(x, y_1, \dots, y_i)]\}$
9. Let  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $i$  is even then  $A \in \Pi_i^p$  if there exists  $B \in P$  such that  
 $A = \{x \mid (\forall^p y_1)(\exists^p y_2) \cdots (\exists^p y_i)[B(x, y_1, \dots, y_i)]\}$   
If  $i$  is odd then  $A \in \Pi_i^p$  if there exists  $B \in P$  such that  
 $A = \{x \mid (\forall^p y_1)(\exists^p y_2) \cdots (\forall^p y_i)[B(x, y_1, \dots, y_i)]\}$
10. Let  $i \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $i \geq 1$ .  $A \in \Sigma_i^p$  (alternative definition) if there exists  $B \in \Pi_{i-1}^p$   
such that  
 $A = \{x \mid (\exists^p y)[B(x, y)]\}$ .  
(Note- we use the definition of  $\Sigma_0^p, \Pi_0^p$  here.)
11.  $A \in \Pi_i^p$  (alternative definition) if  $\bar{A} \in \Sigma_i^p$ .
12. The *polynomial hierarchy*, denoted PH, is  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \Sigma_i^p$ . Note that this is the same  
as  $\bigcup_{i=0}^{\infty} \Pi_i^p$ .

**Def 6.4** A set  $A$  is  $\Sigma_i^p$ -complete if both of the following hold.



1.  $A \in \Sigma_i^p$ , and
2. For all  $B \in \Sigma_i^p$ ,  $B \leq_m^p A$ .

**Def 6.5** A set  $A$  is  $\Pi_i^p$ -complete if both of the following hold.

1.  $A \in \Pi_i^p$ , and
2. For all  $B \in \Pi_i^p$ ,  $B \leq_m^p A$ .

**Def 6.6** A set  $A$  is  $\Pi_i^p$ -complete (Alternative Definition) if  $\bar{A}$  is  $\Sigma_i^p$ -complete.

**Example 6.7** In all of the examples below  $x$  and  $y$  and  $x_i$  are vectors of Boolean variables.

1.  $A = \{\phi(x, y) \mid (\exists b)(\forall c)[\phi(b, c)]\}$ . This set is  $\Sigma_2^p$ -complete. It is clearly in  $\Sigma_2^p$ . This is called  $QBF_2$ . The  $QBF$  stands for Quantified Boolean Formula. The proof that it is  $\Sigma_2^p$ -complete uses Cook's Theorem.
2. One can define  $QBF_i$  easily. It is  $\Sigma_i^p$ -complete.
3.  $QBF$  is the set of all  $\phi(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  (the  $x_i$ 's are vectors of variables) such that  $(\exists x_1)(\forall x_2) \cdots (Qx_n)[\phi(x_1, \dots, x_n)]$ . ( $Q$  is  $\exists^p$  if  $n$  is odd and is  $\forall^p$  if  $n$  is even.) This set is thought to not be in any  $\Sigma_i^p$  or  $\Pi_i^p$ .
4. Let  $TWO = \{\phi \mid \phi \text{ has exactly two satisfying assignments}\}$ . We show that  $TWO \in \Sigma_2^p$ .  
 $TWO =$   
 $\{\phi \mid (\exists b, c)(\forall d)[b \neq c \wedge \phi(b) \wedge \phi(c) \wedge (\phi(d) \rightarrow ((d = b) \vee (d = c)))]\}$   
 It is not known if  $TWO$  is  $\Sigma_2^p$ -complete; however it is thought to NOT be.
5. One can define  $THREE$ ,  $FOUR$ , etc. easily. They are all in  $\Sigma_2^p$ .
6. One can define variants of  $TWO$  having to do with finding TWO Hamiltonian cycles, TWO  $k$ -cliques, etc. Also  $THREE$ , etc. These are all  $\Sigma_2^p$ .
7.  $ODD = \{\phi \mid \phi \text{ has an odd number of satisfying assignments}\}$  is thought to NOT be in PH.

Recall that

*There are literally thousands of natural and distinct NP-complete problems!*

What about  $\Sigma_2^P$ -complete problems? Other levels? Alas- there are very few of these. So why do we care about PH ?

We think that  $SAT \notin P$  since

$$SAT \in P \rightarrow P = NP.$$

We tend to think that PH does not collapse to a lower level of the hierarchy (e.g., that  $PH = \Sigma_2^P$ ). Hence if we have a statement XXX that we do not think is true but cannot prove is false, we will be happy to instead show

$$XXX \rightarrow PH \text{ collapses .}$$

## 7 Collapsing PH

**Theorem 7.1** *If  $\Pi_1^P \subseteq \Sigma_1^P$  then  $PH = \Sigma_1^P = \Pi_1^P$ .*

**Proof:** Assume  $\Sigma_1^P = \Pi_1^P$ . We first show that  $\Sigma_2^P = \Sigma_1^P$ .

Let  $L \in \Sigma_2^P$ . Hence there is a set  $B \in \Pi_1^P$  such that

$$L = \{x \mid (\exists^P y)[(x, y) \in B]\}.$$

Since  $B \in \Pi_1^P$ , by the premise  $B \in \Sigma_1^P$ . Therefore there exists  $C \in P$  such that

$$B = \{(x, y) \mid (\exists^P z)[(x, y, z) \in C]\}.$$

Replacing this definition of  $B$  in the definition of  $L$  we obtain

$$L = \{x \mid (\exists^P y)(\exists^P z)[(x, y, z) \in C]\}.$$

This is clearly in  $\Sigma_1^P$ . Hence  $\Sigma_2^P \subseteq \Sigma_1^P$ . Hence we have  $\Sigma_2^P = \Sigma_1^P$ . By complementing both sides we get  $\Pi_2^P = \Pi_1^P$ .

One can now easily show that, for all  $i$ ,  $\Sigma_i^P = \Sigma_1^P$  by induction. One then gets  $\Pi_i^P = \Pi_1^P$ . Hence  $PH = \Pi_1^P = \Sigma_1^P$ . ■

The following theorems are proven similarly

**Theorem 7.2** *Let  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . If  $\Pi_i^P \subseteq \Sigma_i^P$  then  $PH = \Sigma_i^P = \Pi_i^P$ .*

**Theorem 7.3** *If  $\Sigma_i^P \subseteq \Pi_i^P$  then  $PH = \Sigma_i^P = \Pi_i^P$ .*