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Polynomial Terse Sets

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Let A be a set and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that we wish to know the answers to $x_1 \in A?$, $x_2 \in A?$, ..., $x_k \in A?$ for various k -tuples $\langle x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k \rangle$. If this problem *requires* k queries to A in order to be solved in polynomial time then A is called *polynomial terse* or *pterse*. We show the existence of both arbitrarily complex pterse and non-pterse sets; and that $P \neq NP$ iff every NP-complete set is pterse. We also show connections with p -immunity, p -selective, p -generic sets, and the boolean hierarchy. In our framework unique satisfiability (and a variation of it called $kSAT$ is, in some sense, "close" to satisfiability. © 1988 Academic Press, Inc.

1. INTRODUCTION

NP-complete problems are considered hard or "intractable." However, problems appearing in the real world cannot be chosen because of their ease, and practical concerns may necessitate solving "intractable" problem.

We consider a partial solution by "bounded query optimization." The idea is the following: Assume S is a hard but useful problem for which we wish to solve many instances. Further assume it is not a real time problem, so a solution is not needed immediately. If S is such that when presented with k instances, there is *one* new instance whose solution gives enough information to (quickly) solve the k instances, then a good strategy would be to batch k queries, and solve the one that helps yield the other solutions.

Note that there are many optimistic assumptions in this scenario, and the following questions need to be answered:

- Do such "hard" sets, that give many answers for the "price" of one, exist?
- If they do, are they natural? Can we classify them?

Roughly speaking, if membership in a set does not allow "quick" decisions about other members, we call the set *polynomial terse*. We show that there are arbitrarily complex polynomial terse sets, and that there are arbitrarily complex sets that are not polynomial terse. The big challenge is to find out which sets are polynomial terse and which sets are not.

Bounded queries can also be used to classify the complexity of functions. Krentel [19] and Gasarch [11] have classified many functions as being complete in certain bounded query classes. For example, (1) Krentel has shown that the traveling salesman function (which returns the cost of the minimum tour) is complete for the set of all functions that can be computed with a polynomial number of queries to a SAT oracle, and (2) Gasarch has shown that the minimum automata function (on input two finite sets S and T return the size of the minimal deterministic finite automata that accepts S and rejects T) is complete for the set of functions that can be computed with a logarithmic number of queries to a SAT oracle. Other problems remain to be classified.

Extensive work about terseness in the recursion-theoretic context has been done by Beigel, Gasarch, Gill, Hay, and Owings [6, 7, 5]. Most of the proofs and techniques used in these papers do not translate directly into a polynomial framework; and some of the theorems that hold in a recursion-theoretic framework do not hold in ours.

In Section 2 we define the notion of pterseness; informally, a set is pterse if k questions must be asked in order to obtain k answers. In Sections 3, 4, 5, and 8 we relate the notion of pterseness to complexity, bi-immunity, p -genericity, NP-completeness, p -selectivity, and polynomial reals. In Section 6 we look at k SAT (the set of formulas that have exactly k satisfying assignments) in our framework and prove that "not too far" from being NP. In Section 7 we compare some of the complexity classes we define with the Boolean hierarchy of Cai and Hemachandra [10].

2. DEFINITIONS, NOTATION, AND CONVENTIONS

We are interested in classifying sets and functions that can be computed with a bounded number of queries to an oracle. In particular we are concerned with the function that computes membership in some set A of each element in a given k -tuple. Formally:

DEFINITION. If A is any set and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ then

$$F_k^A(x_1, \dots, x_k) = \langle \chi_A(x_1), \dots, \chi_A(x_k) \rangle$$

(where χ_A is the characteristic function for A).

Some notation, definitions, and conventions follow:

DEFINITION. If g is a function and $k \in \mathbb{N}$ then $Q(k, g)$ is the class of sets that can be decided by a polynomial oracle Turing machine with function

oracle g that makes at most k queries to $Q(k, A)$.

The class $Q(k, A)$ is related to truth-table reducibility. If $B \in Q(k, A)$ then $B \leq_{(2^k-1)-tt} A$. The way we deal with functions in general, and with sets and with how the different types

DEFINITION. If g is a function and A is a set, then $FQ(k, A)$ is the class of functions that can be computed by a Turing machine with function oracle g , that makes at most k queries to A . We denote this class $FQ(k, A)$.

CONVENTION. Let k be any natural number. If A is any NP-complete set then $Q(k, A)$ and $Q(k, \text{NPC})$ are the same. Also note that in terms of complexity the functions F_k^A and F_k^B are equally hard. We define F_k^{NPC} in the following way: Whatever F_k^A is, where A is any NP-complete set.

We are interested in finding out whether a set is pterse or not. In recursion theory (no time bound) a set is pterse if it is not in $Q(k, A)$ for any k . In a polynomial framework we

DEFINITION. Let $i \geq 2$. A set A is i -pterse if it is not in $Q(i, A)$ in polynomial time by an M^A machine on every input. A set is pterse if it is i -pterse for every i .

All machines mentioned are assumed to be oracle machines where the oracle has no time limit. The phrase "run $M^{(i)}(x)$ along every possible path" means: whenever a query arises, and then run the machine until the answer is YES, and the path taken is the one that leads to YES. We know that M^A asks at most i queries. However, when we run $M^{(i)}$ we can ask more questions. In this manner note that a set is pterse in polynomial time.

We will use the notion of polynomial time.

DEFINITION. A set A is p -close to B if $(A - B) \cup (B - A)$ is sparse.

oracle g that makes at most k queries. If $g = \chi_A$ then we denote this class $Q(k, A)$.

The class $Q(k, A)$ is related to truth-table reductions [21] in that if $B \in Q(k, A)$ then $B \leq_{(2^k-1)\text{-tt}} A$. The work in [21] differs from ours in that we deal with functions in general, and F_k^A in particular, while they deal with sets and with how the different types of reducibilities relate.

DEFINITION. If g is a function and $k \geq 1$ then $FQ(k, g)$ is the class of functions that can be computed by a polynomial oracle Turing machine with function oracle g , that makes at most k queries. If $g = \chi_A$ then we denote this class $FQ(k, A)$.

CONVENTION. Let k be any natural number. Note that if A and B are NP-complete then $Q(k, A)$ and $Q(k, B)$ are identical. We call this class of sets $Q(k, \text{NPC})$. Also note that in terms of queries to any NP-complete set, the functions F_k^A and F_k^B are equally hard to compute. We use the symbol F_k^{NPC} in the following way: Whatever is said of F_k^{NPC} will be true of F_k^A where A is any NP-complete set.

We are interested in finding out when the function F_k^A requires k queries to A . In recursion theory (no time bounds) this notion is called *terseness* [6]. In a polynomial framework we call it *pterseness*.

DEFINITION. Let $i \geq 2$. A set A is *i-pterse* if F_i^A cannot be computed in polynomial time by an M^A machine that makes fewer than i queries on every input. A set is *pterse* if it is *i-pterse* for all i .

All machines mentioned are assumed to work in polynomial time. An oracle machine where the oracle has not been specified is denoted $M^{()}$. The phrase "run $M^{()}(x)$ along every possible path" means to run M on x until a query arises, and then run the machine on both paths—the path taken if the answer is YES, and the path taken if the answer is NO. If A is a set and we know that M^A asks at most i questions (i a constant) on any input then we do not necessarily know that every path asks only i questions. However, when we run $M^{()}$ we can ignore all paths that ask more than i questions. In this manner note that running all paths takes polynomial time.

We will use the notion of polynomial closeness [24, 30].

DEFINITION. A set A is *p-close* if there exists a set $B \in P$ such that $(A - B) \cup (B - A)$ is sparse.

3. NON-PTERSE SETS

In recursion theory one can show [6] that 2^m queries to A cannot be answered by m queries to A , for any nonrecursive A . Here we show that if $F_{2^m}^A \in FQ(m, A)$ then any number of queries to A can be answered by m queries to A . This does *not* lead to a contradiction, and in fact we show that there are arbitrarily complex sets A such that, for all k , $F_k^A \in FQ(1, A)$.

THEOREM 1. *Let B be a set, and m be a natural number. If $F_{2^m}^B \in FQ(m, B)$, then for every natural number k , $F_k^B \in FQ(m, B)$.*

Proof. We prove this theorem by induction on k . If $k \leq 2^m$ then it is given. Assume that $F_k^B \in FQ(m, B)$ via machine M to show that $F_{k+1}^B \in FQ(m, B)$.

Let $\langle \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{k+1} \rangle \in (\Sigma^*)^{k+1}$. We determine $F_{k+1}^B(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{k+1})$ with only m queries to B . Simulate $M(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$ without oracle calls, for all possibilities. Since M queries B at most m times, and after each reply follows one of two paths, there are no more than $2^m - 1$ queries that can be asked of B . This set of queries can be found in polynomial time.

Let the set of queries be $\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{2^m-1}\}$. By the hypothesis of the theorem the value of $F_{2^m}^B(\beta_1, \dots, \beta_{2^m-1}, \alpha_{k+1})$ can be deduced in m queries to B . The first $2^m - 1$ elements of this tuple can be used to simulate the $M(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$ calculations to yield $F_k^B(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k)$, and the last element is $\chi_B(\alpha_{k+1})$. This is all the information needed to compute $F_{k+1}^B(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{k+1})$.

We exhibit arbitrary complex sets A that are not 2-pterse. By the above theorem, for any k , $F_k^A \in FQ(1, A)$. The sets we use are super sparse; Ambos-Spies [1] used super sparse sets in a similar way in studying the relation between polynomial truth-table degrees and polynomial $m-1$ degrees.

THEOREM 2. *For any time constructible function T' there exists a set $A \notin \text{DTIME}(T'(n))$ that is not 2-pterse (i.e., $F_2^A \in FQ(1, A)$).*

Proof. Let T be a time constructible function such that $T(x) \geq T'(x)$, and $T(x) > x$. Let g be the function

$$g(0) = 0$$

$$g(n+1) = T(g(n)).$$

Let A' be the set

$$A' = \{x \mid \exists_n x = 0^{g(n)}\}.$$

Membership in A' is decidable in polynomial time. By a modification of the

time hierarchy theorem [14] there exists a function in $\text{DTIME}(T(n)^2)$ but not in $\text{DTIME}(T(n) \log T(n))$ (this is not important for our purposes.) We show that $A \notin \text{DTIME}(T(n))$. We show that both x and y are in A' (else membership in A' is determined easily since A is in $\text{DTIME}(T(n)^2)$) then the length of x is small compared to the length of y , which is determined easily since A is in $\text{DTIME}(T(n)^2)$. We give the following algorithm:

ALGORITHM (To determine if $x, y \in A'$)

- (1) Input (x, y) .
- (2) If $x = y$ then query $x \in A$, output 1 if $x \in A$, 0 if $x \notin A$.
- (3) Determine if $x \in A'$ and if $y \in A'$. If both are in A' , output 1, else 0.
- (4) If $e = f = 0$ then output $(0, 0)$ and halt. If $e = 0, f = 1$ then query $x \in A$, output $(\chi_A(x), 0)$, and halt. If $e = 1, f = 0$ then query $y \in A$, output $(0, \chi_A(y))$, and halt.
- (5) If both $x \in A'$ and $y \in A'$ then, if $|x| < |y|$ then query $x \in A$, output $(\chi_A(x), \chi_A(y))$. (From step 2 we know that $x \in A$ if and only if $x \in A'$.) If $|x| > |y|$ then query $y \in A$, output $(\chi_A(x), \chi_A(y))$.

The algorithm obviously computes $F_{2^k}^A$ for all k . It operates in polynomial time. The only part of the algorithm that is not in $\text{DTIME}(T^2(n))$ is when we run the $\text{DTIME}(T^2(n))$ algorithm for A . There exists a k such $|y| = g(k) = T^2(k)$. Therefore the part of the algorithm in (5) is in $\text{DTIME}(T^2(n))$.

$$(T(|x|))^2 \leq (T(g(k-1)))^2 = (T^2(k-1))^2$$

which is polynomial in the length of the input.

Note. If A is as constructed in Theorem 2 then $A \cup B$, $A - B$, and $B - A$ are all in $\text{DTIME}(T(n))$. We can obtain the answers to 2 queries for 1 (and vice versa). All these sets are p-close.

CONVENTION. The phrase "the sets A and B " refer to all sets of the form $A \cup B$, $A - B$, and $B - A$ constructed in Theorem 2 and B is any set in $\text{DTIME}(T(n))$.

COROLLARY 3. *For any time constructible function T there exists a set $A \notin \text{DTIME}(T(n))$ such that for all k , $F_k^A \in FQ(1, A)$.*

time hierarchy theorem [14] there exists a function $f: A' \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ that is in $\text{DTIME}(T(n)^2)$ but not in $\text{DTIME}(T(n))$. (One can actually obtain a function in $\text{DTIME}(T(n) \log T(n))$ that is not in $\text{DTIME}(T(n))$, although this is not important for our purposes.) Let $A = \{x \mid f(x) = 1\}$. It is easy to see that $A \notin \text{DTIME}(T(n))$. We show that A is not 2-terse. Intuitively, if both x and y are in A' (else membership in A is trivially NO) and $x < y$ then the length of x is small compared to the length of y that $\chi_A(x)$ can be determined easily since A is in $\text{DTIME}(T(n)^2)$. Formally, we have the following algorithm:

ALGORITHM (To determine $F_2^A(x, y)$ with one query to A)

- (1) Input(x, y).
- (2) If $x = y$ then query $x \in A$, output $(\chi_A(x), \chi_A(x))$, and halt.
- (3) Determine if $x \in A'$ and if $y \in A'$. Let $\chi_{A'}(x) = e$, $\chi_{A'}(y) = f$.
- (4) If $e = f = 0$ then output $(0, 0)$ and halt. If $e = 1$ and $f = 0$ then query $x \in A$, output $(\chi_A(x), 0)$, and halt. If $e = 0$ then query $y \in A$, output $(0, \chi_A(y))$, and halt.
- (5) If both $x \in A'$ and $y \in A'$ then, without loss of generality, assume $x < y$. (From step 2 we know that $x \neq y$.) Query $y \in A$. Using the $\text{DTIME}(T(n)^2)$ algorithm for A on x , determine if $x \in A$. Output $(\chi_A(x), \chi_A(y))$.

The algorithm obviously computes $F_2^A(x, y)$. We need only check that it operates in polynomial time. The only part for which this is not obvious is when we run the $\text{DTIME}(T^2(n))$ algorithm on x . If we get to step five then there exists a k such $|y| = g(k) = T^{(k)}(0)$ and $|x| \leq g(k-1) = T^{(k-1)}(0)$. Therefore the part of the algorithm in question takes time

$$(T(|x|))^2 \leq (T(g(k-1)))^2 = (T(T^{(k-1)}(0)))^2 = (T^{(k)})^2 = |y|^2,$$

which is polynomial in the length of the original input. ■

Note. If A is as constructed in the above theorem, and B is any polynomial set then $A \cup B$, $A - B$, and $B - A$ are also sets for which you can obtain the answers to 2 queries for 1 (and by Theorem 1, k queries for 1). All these sets are p-close.

CONVENTION. The phrase "the sets A constructed in Theorem 2" will refer to all sets of the form $A \cup B$, $A - B$, and $B - A$ where A is a set constructed in Theorem 2 and B is any set in P .

COROLLARY 3. For any time constructible function T there exists a set $A \notin \text{DTIME}(T(n))$ such that for all k , $F_k^A \in \text{FQ}(1, A)$.

Proof. If A is the A in Theorem 2 then by Theorem 1, for all k , $F_k^A \in FQ(1, A)$. ■

4. 2-PTERSE AND k -PTERSE SETS

In Section 3 we showed that there are sets A that are arbitrarily complex, yet quite far from being pterse. Hence there is no obvious connection between complexity and pterseness. The sets A are p-close, so perhaps there is a connection between p-closeness and non-pterseness. We conjecture the following:

Conjecture. If A is such that $F_k^A \in FQ(1, A)$ then A is p-close. As a first step towards this conjecture we show that every polynomial bi-immune set is 2-pterse. (Beigel [4] was the first person to show this, although we exhibit a simpler proof) Geske, Huynh, and Selman [12] have shown that there exist arbitrarily hard polynomial bi-immune sets (they actually prove a much stronger result), which when combined with our results shows that there exist arbitrarily hard sets which are 2-pterse.

DEFINITION. A set A is *polynomial immune* if it contains no infinite polynomial subset. A set A is *polynomial bi-immune* if both A and \bar{A} are polynomial immune. If A is a tally set, a subset of 1^* , then by \bar{A} we mean $1^* - A$.

We show that tally sets that are polynomial bi-immune are 2-pterse. From this it will easily follow that all polynomial bi-immune sets are 2-pterse.

THEOREM 4. *If A is a tally set that is polynomial bi-immune then A is 2-pterse.*

Proof. Let A be a tally set that is polynomial bi-immune, and assume $F_2^A \in FQ(1, A)$. Thus there is a polynomial oracle Turing machine $M^{(1)}$ that computes $F_2^A(x, y)$, using only one query to A . If we simulate $M^{(1)}$ then we can, at the A -query, follow both paths. Both paths finish in time polynomial in $|x|$ and $|y|$, and at least one path outputs a correct reply to F_2^A ; the other path may output an incorrect answer.

There are three cases.

Case 1. There are an infinite number of k such that the two paths of $M^{(1)}(1^k, 1^{k-1})$ agree on the first component. We show that either A or \bar{A} has a polynomial subset. Assume that for infinitely many k the two paths of $M^{(1)}(1^k, 1^{k-1})$ both output 1 in the first component. The following polynomial time algorithm recognizes an infinite subset of A : On input 1^k

run both paths of $M^{(1)}(1^k, 1^{k-1})$; if the first component then output 1, else output 0. In both paths of $M^{(1)}(1^k, 1^{k-1})$ output 0 then the first component of these two subcases must occur.

Case 2. There are an infinite number of k such that the two paths of $M^{(1)}(1^k, 1^{k-1})$ agree on the second component. We show that either A or \bar{A} has a polynomial subset of either A or \bar{A} by

Case 3. There are only a finite number of k such that the two paths of $M^{(1)}(1^k, 1^{k-1})$ agree on either the first or the second component.

$$X = \{1^k \mid \text{the two paths of } M^{(1)}(1^k, 1^{k-1}) \text{ agree on the first component}\} \\ \cup \{1^k \mid \text{the two paths of } M^{(1)}(1^k, 1^{k-1}) \text{ agree on the second component}\} \cup \{1\}.$$

By assumption X is a finite set. We can hardwire into it $\chi_A(x)$ for every $x \in X$.

ALGORITHM

- (1) Input(1^k)
- (2) If $1^k \in X$ then determine if $1^k \in A$ and output that answer that is stored, and halt.
- (3) Run both paths of $M^{(1)}(1^k, 1^{k-1})$. If both slots output 1 then output $1 - b$, 0 for some $b \in \{0, 1\}$. We assume $\chi_A(1^{k-1}) = 1$.
- (4) Recursively call the algorithm on 1^{k-1} with the information obtained in (3).

It is easy to see that this algorithm runs in polynomial time.

In the proof we never use the fact that A is polynomial immune. Hence we actually show

THEOREM 5. *If A is a polynomial bi-immune set then $F_2^A \notin FQ(1, B)$.*

COROLLARY 6. *If A is polynomial immune then $F_2^A \notin FQ(1, B)$. Moreover, if B is any set, then $F_2^A \notin FQ(1, B)$.*

Proof. If A is not 2-pterse then $F_2^A \in FQ(1, B)$.

for all k , run both paths of $M^{(1^k, 1^{k-1})}$; if they both output 1 on the first component then output 1, else output 0. A similar argument yields that if both paths of $M^{(1^k, 1^{k-1})}$ output 0 then \bar{A} has a polynomial subset. One of these two subcases must occur.

Case 2. There are an infinite number of k such that the two paths of $M^{(1^k, 1^{k-1})}$ agree on the second component. This yields an infinite polynomial subset of either A or \bar{A} by reasoning similar to that in Case 1.

Case 3. There are only a finite number of k such that $M^{(1^k, 1^{k-1})}$ agree on either the first or the second component. We show $A \in P$. Let

$$X = \{1^k \mid \text{the two paths of } M^{(1^k, 1^{k-1})} \text{ agree on the first component}\} \\ \cup \{1^k \mid \text{the two paths of } M^{(1^k, 1^{k-1})} \text{ agree on the second component}\} \cup \{1\}.$$

By assumption X is a finite set. We can assume that the algorithm has hardwired into it $\chi_A(x)$ for every $x \in X$.

ALGORITHM for A

- (1) Input(1^k)
- (2) If $1^k \in X$ then determine if $1^k \in X$ by table lookup. Output the correct answer that is stored, and halt.
- (3) Run both paths of $M^{(1^k, 1^{k-1})}$. Since $1^k \notin X$ the answers differ in both slots. Hence we can assume that the answers are $(b, 1)$ and $(1-b, 0)$ for some $b \in \{0, 1\}$. We now know that $\chi_A(1^k) = b$ iff $\chi_A(1^{k-1}) = 1$.
- (4) Recursively call the algorithm on input(1^{k-1}). This answer, together with the information obtained in step 3, yields the correct value for $\chi_A(1^k)$.

It is easy to see that this algorithm runs in polynomial time. ■

In the proof we never use the fact that the oracle being queried is A itself. Hence we actually show

THEOREM 5. *If A is a polynomial bi-immune tally set and B is any set then $F_2^A \notin FQ(1, B)$.*

COROLLARY 6. *If A is polynomial bi-immune then A is 2-pterse. Moreover, if B is any set, then $F_2^A \notin FQ(1, B)$.*

Proof. If A is not 2-pterse then $F_2^A \in FQ(1, A)$; hence both $F_2^{A \circ 1^*}$ and

$F_2^{\bar{A} \cap 1^*}$ are in $FQ(1, A)$. At least one of $A \cap 1^*$ and $\bar{A} \cap 1^*$ is polynomial bi-immune (within 1^*), which contradicts the above corollary. ■

Beigel has shown that there are polynomial bi-immune sets A for which $F_4^A \in FQ(2, A)$, and hence (by Theorem 1) that $F_{2^n}^A \in FQ(n, A)$ for any $n \geq 2$. Therefore we cannot replace 2-pterse with any other pterseness-type condition.

We use the above corollary to exhibit a variety of different types of 2-pterse sets. We need the following proposition of Geske, Huynh, and Selman [12].

PROPOSITION 7. *If T_1 and T_2 are any time constructible functions such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_1(n) \log T_1(n)/T_2(n) = 0$ then there exists a language that is in $DTIME(T_2(n))$ that is $DTIME(T_1(n))$ -bi-immune.*

This proposition yields polynomial bi-immune sets of subexponential, and arbitrarily high complexities. Hence, combining the proposition with Corollary 6 yields the following three corollaries.

COROLLARY 8. *There are 2-pterse sets that are subexponential.*

COROLLARY 9. *There exists a 2-pterse set $A \in EXPTIME - P$.*

COROLLARY 10. *There exist arbitrarily complex 2-pterse sets.*

In a recursion-theoretic setting all 1-generic sets (see [16]) are terse [6]. Ambos-Spies, Fleischhack, and Huwig have defined a notion of p-generic [2] set that is similar. The definition is somewhat complicated so we omit it, but one easy consequence of the definition is that p-generic sets are polynomially bi-immune. Thus we have the following corollary.

COROLLARY 11. *If A is p-generic then A is 2-pterse.*

In [3] we prove, using methods of p-genericity, that strongly p-generic sets are k -pterse for all k .

The sets A in Theorem 2 are constructed by diagonalization, which raises the possibility of a connection between "naturalness" and pterseness. We prove a theorem along these lines by showing that (if $P \neq NP$) every NP-complete set is 2-pterse.

THEOREM 12. *If $P \neq NP$ then for all $k > 0$, $F_{2^k}^{NPC} \notin FQ(k, NPC)$. (In particular $P \neq NP$ iff every NP-complete set is 2-pterse.)*

Proof. Assume that A is an NP-complete set for which $F_{2^k}^A \in FQ(k, A)$. By Theorem 1 for all m , $F_m^A \in FQ(k, A)$. If $f \in FQ(k+1, A)$ then by

simulating the computation of $f(x)$ through F_m^A that may arise we see that $f \in FQ(1, F_{2^k}^A)$. Since A is NP-complete we have $FQ(k+1, A) = FQ(k+1, SAT)$; thus $f \in FQ(k+1, SAT)$. Krentel [19] showed that if $P \neq NP$ then $FQ(k+1, SAT) \not\subseteq FQ(k, NPC)$. Hence if $P \neq NP$ then for all k , $F_{2^k}^A \notin FQ(k, NPC)$. ■

There is not much known about k -pterse sets. We can show that they exist and can show this three different ways.

THEOREM 13. *Every nonrecursive T -set is k -pterse for all k , A is k -pterse.*

Proof. In [6] it is shown that every nonrecursive set contains a superterse set. This set will be k -pterse.

The last theorem exhibited nonrecursive sets that are not recursive ones exist.

THEOREM 14. *For all k , there exists a 2-pterse set that is not k -pterse.*

Proof. Following [21] we define B (in polynomial time) that maps strings to strings, where each variable is of type $\{0, 1\}$ and evaluates to true. They show how to construct a $DTIME(2^n)$ set A such that $\{B \mid B \leq_{(k)} A\}$ is not k -pterse then $F_k^A \leq_{(k-1)-u} A$ and F_k^A is reducible to A is $\leq_{(k-1)-u}$ reducible to A .

The next theorem is proven in [3].

THEOREM 15. *If A is strongly p-generic then A is 2-pterse.*

5. POLYNOMIAL S

If a set is not 2-pterse then it is, in some sense, not natural. Even if the set is (as in Theorem 2) polynomially selective, there is something about it that makes it not 2-pterse. Polynomially selective sets have been explored in [25] though it resembles Jockusch's work.

A set A is polynomially selective (hence polynomial time computable) if for every polynomial time computable function f , $A \cap \{x, y\} \neq \emptyset$ then $f(x, y) \in A$.

simulating the computation of $f(x)$ through all $2^{k+1} - 1$ possible queries that may arise we see that $f \in FQ(1, F_{2^{k+1}-1}^A)$. Since $F_{2^{k+1}-1}^A \in FQ(k, A)$, so we have $FQ(k+1, A)$. Since A is NP-complete, $FQ(k, A) = FQ(k, SAT)$ and $FQ(k+1, A) = FQ(k+1, SAT)$; thus $FQ(k, SAT) = FQ(k+1, SAT)$. Krentel [19] showed that if $P \neq NP$ then for all k , $FQ(k, SAT) \neq FQ(k+1, SAT)$. Hence if $P \neq NP$ then for all NP-complete sets A and for all k , $F_{2^k}^A \notin FQ(k, NPC)$. ■

There is not much known about k -pterse sets. We do know that they exist and can show this three different ways.

THEOREM 13. *Every nonrecursive Turing degree contains a set A such that for all k , A is k -pterse.*

Proof. In [6] it is shown that every nonrecursive Turing degree contains a superterse set. This set will also be k -pterse for every k .

The last theorem exhibited nonrecursive k -pterse sets. We now show that recursive ones exist.

THEOREM 14. *For all k , there exists a recursive set A that is k -pterse.*

Proof. Following [21] we define $B \leq_{k-u} A$ if there exists a function f (in polynomial time) that maps strings to propositional formulas of k variables, where each variable is of the form $x_i \in B$, and $x \in A$ iff $f(x)$ evaluates to true. They show how to construct a recursive (in fact $DTIME(2^n)$) set A such that $\{B \mid B \leq_{(k-1)-u} A\} \neq \{B \mid B \leq_{k-u} A\}$. If A is not k -pterse then $F_k^A \leq_{(k-1)-u} A$ and thus every set which is \leq_{k-u} reducible to A is $\leq_{(k-1)-u}$ reducible to A . That is a contradiction. ■

The next theorem is proven in [3].

THEOREM 15. *If A is strongly p -generic then for all k , A is k -pterse.*

5. POLYNOMIAL SELECTIVE SETS

If a set is not 2-pterse then it is, in some sense, computationally easy. Even if the set is (as in Theorem 2) arbitrarily hard in terms of time complexity, there is something about it that makes it easier than other such sets. Polynomially selective sets have the same kind of property. We explore similarities between these two notions. The following definition is from [25] though it resembles Jockusch's semirecursive sets.

A set A is *polynomial selective* (henceforth p -selective) if there exists a polynomial time computable function f such that $f(x, y) \in \{x, y\}$ and if $A \cap \{x, y\} \neq \emptyset$ then $f(x, y) \in A$.

The properties of being non-2-pterse and being p -selective seem similar. They both make the set easier computationally, in an indirect way. The sets constructed in Theorem 2 are p -selective, thus yielding the following theorem.

THEOREM 16. *For any time constructible function T there exists a set $A \notin \text{DTIME}(T(n))$ such that A is p -selective.*

Proof. Let A and A' be as in Theorem 2. The set A is in $\text{DTIME}(T(n)^2)$ but not in $\text{DTIME}(T(n))$. We show that it is p -selective.

ALGORITHM

- (1) Input(x, y).
- (2) If $x = y$ then output x and halt.
- (3) If $x \notin A'$ then output y and halt.
- (4) If $y \notin A'$ then output x and halt.
- (5) (both $x, y \in A'$ and $x \neq y$) Assume $x < y$. For the $\text{DTIME}(T(n)^2)$ algorithm for A on x , determine if $x \in A$; output x if it is, y otherwise.

For reasons analogous to those in the proof of Theorem 2, the algorithm runs in polynomial time.

These selective sets appear contrived and (as in the case of non-2-pterse sets) make us ponder if such sets are unnatural. Grollman and Selman [13] has shown a theorem analogous to our Theorem 12 along these lines.

THEOREM 17. *If $P \neq \text{NP}$ then SAT (and any other NP-complete set) is not p -selective.*

The two above theorems indicate that p -selective sets and non-2-pterse sets have a similar flavor. It would be of interest to push the analogy further and prove (say) that every polynomial bi-immune set is not p -selective. As of now this is an open question. We have shown, in [3], that p -selectiveness and non-2-pterseness are not equivalent.

6. k SAT AND BOUNDED QUERIES TO SAT

k SAT is the set of all Boolean formulas that have exactly k satisfying assignments. This set is not known to be in NP, although it is easily seen to be in P^{SAT} . We use bounded query classes to clarify the complexity of k SAT. We show that it is "closer" to NP than to P^{SAT} in terms of the number of questions needed. In particular, we show that $k\text{SAT} \in Q(1, F_2^{\text{SAT}})$ and $\text{SAT} \in Q(1, k\text{SAT})$. As a corollary we obtain that k SAT is co-NP-hard.

Valiant and Vazirani [27] have studied (the set of all assignments with exactly one satisfying assignment) and D_2 (differences of NP sets) using r -queries. Gurevich [8] show that there are oracle sets (properly defined) is complete for D_2^A , a class (using deterministic reductions). They show that USAT there) is co-NP-hard. Our proof is different theirs.

CONVENTION. If α is a Boolean formula, $B(\alpha)$ is TRUE iff $\alpha \in B$, and NOT $B(\alpha)$ means $\alpha \notin B$.

The following two theorems were obtained.

THEOREM 18. $k\text{SAT} \in Q(1, F_2^{\text{SAT}})$.

Proof. For a any constant, let B_a be the set of all assignments with a or more satisfying assignments. Since B_a is in P^{SAT} , a formula in B_a can be determined by one query to SAT .

The following algorithm solves k SAT.

ALGORITHM

- (1) Input(α) (a Boolean formula).
- (2) Using F_2^{SAT} find out $B_k(\alpha)$ and $B_{k+1}(\alpha)$.
- (3) If $B_k(\alpha)$ is TRUE and $B_{k+1}(\alpha)$ is FALSE then output YES. NO. ■

Note. Alternatively, one can obtain a similar algorithm (due to [18] and also to [4]): if α is in D_2 , it is in $Q(1, F_2^{\text{SAT}})$.

The next two results appear, for the first time, as modifications of theirs.

THEOREM 19. $\text{SAT} \in Q(1, k\text{SAT})$.

Proof. The following algorithm solves k SAT.

ALGORITHM

- (1) Input($\alpha(x_1, \dots, x_n)$) (a Boolean formula).
- (2) If $2^n \leq k$ then try all 2^n possible assignments for appropriate value, and halt.

Valiant and Vazirani [27] have studied USAT (the set of formulas with exactly one satisfying assignment) and have shown that it is complete for D_2 (differences of NP sets) using *randomized* reductions. Blass and Gurevich [8] show that there are oracles A and B such that USAT^A (properly defined) is complete for D_2^A , and USAT^B is not complete for D_2^B (using deterministic reductions). They also obtain that 1-SAT (called USAT there) is co-NP-hard. Our proof is essentially a modification of theirs.

CONVENTION. If α is a Boolean formula and B is a set then $B(\alpha)$ is TRUE iff $\alpha \in B$, and NOT $B(\alpha)$ means that $\alpha \notin B$.

The following two theorems were obtained in collaboration with Beigel.

THEOREM 18. $k\text{SAT} \in Q(1, F_2^{\text{SAT}})$.

Proof. For a any constant, let B_a be the set of all formulas that have a or more satisfying assignments. Since B_a is in NP the membership of a formula in B_a can be determined by one query to SAT.

The following algorithm solves $k\text{SAT}$ and makes one call to F_2^{SAT} .

ALGORITHM

- (1) Input(α) (a Boolean formula).
- (2) Using F_2^{SAT} find out $B_k(\alpha)$ and $B_{k+1}(\alpha)$.
- (3) If $B_k(\alpha)$ is TRUE and B_{k+1} is FALSE then output YES, else output NO. ■

Note. Alternatively, one can obtain this result by using the following theorem (due to [18] and also to [4]): $D_2 \cup \bar{D}_2 \subseteq Q(1, F_2^{\text{SAT}})$. Since $k\text{SAT}$ is in D_2 , it is in $Q(1, F_2^{\text{SAT}})$.

The next two results appear, for the $k = 1$ case, in [8]. Our proofs are modifications of theirs.

THEOREM 19. $\text{SAT} \in Q(1, k\text{SAT})$.

Proof. The following algorithm solves SAT and makes one call to $k\text{SAT}$.

ALGORITHM

- (1) Input($\alpha(x_1, \dots, x_n)$) (a Boolean formula)
- (2) If $2^n \leq k$ then try all 2^n possible truth assignments, output the appropriate value, and halt.

- (3) Construct a formula $\beta(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ that has exactly k satisfying assignments (this is possible since $k \leq 2^n$). If one of those assignments satisfies α then output(YES) and halt.
- (4) If NOT $kSAT(\alpha \vee \beta)$ then output YES, else output NO.

The above algorithm works because:

(a) If α is satisfiable then either (1) α is satisfied by one of the k truth assignments that satisfy β in which case step 3 of the algorithm outputs YES, or (2) there is an assignment that satisfies α but not β , hence $(\alpha \vee \beta)$ has at least $k+1$ satisfying assignments so NOT $kSAT(\alpha \vee \beta)$ is true, and step 4 outputs YES.

(b) If α is not satisfiable then $\alpha \vee \beta$ has exactly k satisfying assignment, NOT $kSAT(\alpha \vee \beta)$ is FALSE, so step 4 outputs NO. ■

COROLLARY 20. $kSAT$ is co-NP-hard.

Proof. If the above reduction is modified to output some $\gamma \notin kSAT$ instead of YES in step 3 and $\alpha \vee \beta$ in step 4 then we have a polynomial m -reduction of the complement of SAT to $kSAT$. ■

7. RELATION TO THE DIFFERENCE HIERARCHY OF NP SETS

We compare bounded query classes to other classes that are "in the vicinity of P^{SAT} ." In particular, we show that the k th level of the Boolean hierarchy (defined by Cai and Hemachandra [10]) is contained in $Q(\lceil \log(k+1) \rceil, NPC)$. The proof is essentially a binary search. We then prove an analogous theorem in the setting where one can ask p questions simultaneously, which uses a technique similar to $(p+1)$ -ary search, i.e., binary search with p processors [20, 26].

Our definition of the Boolean hierarchy looks different from the original one, but they are equivalent. See [9] for a proof of that.

DEFINITION. The *Boolean hierarchy* is the following sequence of classes of sets:

$$D_1 = \{X \mid X \in NP\}$$

$$D_{n+1} = \{X \mid X = Y - Z, Y \in NP, Z \in D_n\}.$$

If A is in D_k then there exist NP sets L_1, \dots, L_n such that

$$A = L_1 - (L_2 - (L_3 - \dots - (L_{n-2} - (L_{n-1} - L_n) \dots))).$$

Note. The Boolean hierarchy has many properties. It is shown that the statement $A \in BH$ is

- (1) A is a finite union of D_2 sets.
- (2) A is a finite intersection of co- D_2 sets.
- (3) A is in the Boolean closure of D_2 .
- (4) $A \leq_{k-1} SAT$ for some k .
- (5) $L_1 - (L_2 - (L_3 - \dots - (L_{n-2} - (L_{n-1} - L_n) \dots)))$.

Note. To determine if an element x is in A , one can run an algorithm such that $x \notin L_i$, and then note that $x \in A$.

CONVENTION. \bar{D}_k is the class of all sets A such that $A \cap \bar{D}_k = \emptyset$.

Papadimitriou and Yannakakis [22], have shown that many problems in the Boolean hierarchy are P-complete. Cai and Hemachandra [10] have shown that the Boolean hierarchy is complete for each level of the hierarchy. They also show that for each level of the hierarchy there are sparse sets. Wagner and Wechsung [23] have shown similar notions.

In a recursion-theoretic setting there are $Q(i, K)$ classes (K is the halting set) and $\bar{Q}(i, K)$ classes [7]. A similar interleaving holds in a bounded query setting, together with results of Beigel, Gill, and Hemachandra [2].

$$D_1 \subseteq Q(1, K) \subseteq D_2 \subseteq D_3 \subseteq Q(2, K) \subseteq \bar{D}_2 \subseteq \bar{Q}(1, K) \subseteq \bar{D}_1 \subseteq \bar{Q}(0, K) \subseteq D_0 \subseteq Q(0, K) \subseteq D_1$$

We are unable to obtain any proper interleaving of D_k and \bar{D}_k on $P \neq NP$ may be possible.

THEOREM 21. $D_k \cup \bar{D}_k \subseteq Q(\lceil \log(k+1) \rceil, NPC)$.

Proof. Let k and m be such that $2^m \geq k$ and let $\langle L_1, \dots, L_k \rangle$ be NP sets such that

$$A = L_1 - (L_2 - (L_3 - \dots - (L_{n-2} - (L_{n-1} - L_n) \dots))).$$

By convention let $L_k = \emptyset$ for $k+1 \leq n$. An algorithm that, given x , determines the question of membership of x in A .

Note. The Boolean hierarchy has many equivalent formulations. In [9] it is shown that the statement $A \in BH$ is equivalent to each of the following:

- (1) A is a finite union of D_2 sets,
- (2) A is a finite intersection of co- D_2 -sets,
- (3) A is in the Boolean closure of NP,
- (4) $A \leq_{k-n}$ SAT for some k .
- (5) $L_1 - (L_2 - (L_3 - \dots - (L_{n-2} - (L_{n-1} - L_n)) \dots))$, where $L_{i+1} \subseteq L_i$.

Note. To determine if an element x is in A it suffices to find the least i such that $x \notin L_i$, and then note that $x \in A$ iff i is even.

CONVENTION. \bar{D}_k is the class of all sets whose complements are D_k , i.e., $\bar{D}_k = \{A \mid \bar{A} \in D_k\}$.

Papadimitriou and Yannakakis [23], and Papadimitriou and Wolfe [22], have shown that many problems, including TSP facets, are D_2 -complete. Cai and Hemachandra [10] (originally) defined the Boolean hierarchy. They exhibit problems related to colorability that are complete for each level of the hierarchy. They also discussed oracle results and which levels have sparse sets. Wagner and Wechsung [28, 29] have defined similar notions.

In a recursion-theoretic setting there is a nice interleaving between the $Q(i, K)$ classes (K is the halting set) and the difference hierarchy of r.e. sets [7]. A similar interleaving holds in a complexity theory framework. This section, together with results of Beigel, will establish the following diagram:

$$\begin{aligned} D_1 \subseteq Q(1, K) \subseteq D_2 \subseteq D_3 \subseteq Q(2, K) \subseteq D_4 \subseteq D_5 \subseteq D_6 \subseteq D_7 \\ \subseteq Q(3, K) \subseteq D_8 \subseteq \dots \subseteq D_{2^k-1} \subseteq Q(k, K) \subseteq D_{2^k} \subseteq D_{2^k+1} \subseteq \dots \end{aligned}$$

We are unable to obtain any proper containments. A theorem contingent on $P \neq NP$ may be possible.

THEOREM 21. $D_k \cup \bar{D}_k \subseteq Q(\lceil \log(k+1) \rceil, NPC)$.

Proof. Let k and m be such that $2^{m-1} < k+1 \leq 2^m$. Let A be a D_k set, and let $\langle L_1, \dots, L_k \rangle$ be NP sets such that

$$A = L_1 - (L_2 - (L_3 - \dots - (L_{k-2} - (L_{k-1} - L_k)) \dots)).$$

By convention let $L_{k'} = \emptyset$ for $k+1 \leq k' \leq 2^m$. We present a $Q(m, NPC)$ algorithm that, given x , determines the least i such that $x \notin L_i$, and hence the question of membership of x in A . The algorithm is essentially a binary

search: each question to NPC cuts in half the interval where i can be found. This is why there is a logarithm.

ALGORITHM

- (1) Input(x).
- (2) $a \leftarrow 0, b \leftarrow 2^m$ (i will always be in $[a+1, b]$).
- (3) Ask NPC

$$x \in \bigcap_{j=a+1}^{a+(b-a)/2} L_j?$$

If YES then $a \leftarrow a + (b-a)/2$ else $b \leftarrow a + (b-a)/2$. (We will see later that $b-a$ is always even.)

- (4) If $a + (b-a)/2 > a+1$ (i.e., if $b-a > 2$) then go to step 3. If $a + (b-a)/2 = 2$ (i.e., if $b-a = 2$) then ask NPC, $x \in L_{a+1}$? If YES then $i \leftarrow a+2$ else $i \leftarrow a+1$. (We will see later that $b-a$ will eventually be 2.)
- (5) If i is even then output(YES), else output(NO).

By induction one can show that after step 3 is executed q times, $b-a = 2^{m-q}$, and we know that the least i such that $x \notin L_i$ is in the interval $[a+1, b]$. After m steps we have $b-a = 2$ and the algorithm terminates with the correct answer. The number of queries is m which is $\leq \lceil \log(k+1) \rceil$. Hence $D_k \subseteq Q(k, \text{NPC})$. Since $Q(k, \text{NPC})$ is closed under complementation, $\bar{D}_k \subseteq Q(k, \text{NPC})$, so $D_k \cup \bar{D}_k \subseteq Q(k, \text{NPC})$. ■

THEOREM 22. *If A is in $Q(k, \text{NPC})$ then there exist D_2 sets B_1, \dots, B_{2^k} such that $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^k} B_i$. This implies that $Q(k, \text{SAT}) \in D_{2^k+1}$.*

Proof. Let $M^{(\cdot)}$ be a polynomial oracle Turing machine that recognizes A and makes at most k queries to SAT. By convention, $M^{(\cdot)}$ makes at most k queries on any path that it takes. Let w_1, \dots, w_{2^k} be all 2^k elements of $\{0, 1\}^k$. We will define, for every i ($1 \leq i \leq 2^k$), sets C_{i1} and C_{i2} such that C_{i1} is NP, C_{i2} is co-NP; and if $x \in A$ and the correct computation that accepts x follows the query answers provided by w_i , then x is in both C_{i1} and C_{i2} .

For each x one can run $M^{(\cdot)}$ using the j th bit of w_i to answer the j th query. In this manner we can easily determine what queries would be asked and what the final answer would be if w_i were used for the answers.

Let

$$C_{i1} = \{x \mid M^{(\cdot)}(x) \text{ using } w_i \text{ accepts } x\}$$

$$\forall_j w_i[j] = 1 \Rightarrow \text{the } j\text{th query is YES}$$

$$C_{i2} = \{x \mid M^{(\cdot)}(x) \text{ uses } w_i \text{ then } x \text{ is accepted}\}$$

$$\forall_j w_i[j] = 0 \Rightarrow \text{the } j\text{th query is NO}$$

Checking membership in C_{i1} is easy since the formulas are in SAT, hence, C_{i1} is in P. Checking membership in C_{i2} is essentially seeing if k (a constant) formulas are in co-NP.

If $x \in C_{i1} \cap C_{i2}$ then path w_i is correct and the computation $M^{\text{SAT}}(x)$ followed some path.

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^k} C_{i1} \cap C_{i2} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^k} B_i$$

where $B_i = C_{i1} - \bar{C}_{i2}$, a D_2 set.

In [9] it is shown that $A \in D_{2^k}$ iff A is a union of sets in D_2 . Combining this with the above we get $Q(k, \text{SAT}) \subseteq D_{2^k+1}$.

For the sake of completeness we mention that A is in D_2 as mentioned in the last paragraph. If $A \in D_2$ then

$$A = L_1 - (L_2 - (L_3 - \dots - (L_{2^k})))$$

where for each i , L_i is an NP set and $L_i \subseteq L_{i-1}$ as $A = (L_1 - L_2) \cup (L_3 - L_4) \cup \dots \cup (L_{2^k})$ in the desired form.

For the reverse direction we give a similar construction. The idea. Let $A = (L_1 - L_2) \cup (L_3 - L_4)$, where L_i are NP sets as a set in D_4 . Let

$$A_1 = L_1 \cup L_2$$

$$A_2 = L_2 \cup L_4$$

$$A_3 = (L_1 \cap L_4) \cup (L_2 \cap L_3)$$

$$A_4 = (L_1 \cap L_3 \cap L_4)$$

A can be expressed as

$$A = (A_1 - (A_2 - (A_3 - A_4)))$$

Note. Beigel [4] has improved the above result to $Q(k, \text{NPC}) \subseteq Q(1, D_{2^k-1}) \subseteq D_{2^k}$.

Let

$$C_{i1} = \{x \mid M^{(i)}(x) \text{ using } w_i \text{ accepts and} \\ \forall_j w_i[j] = 1 \Rightarrow \text{the } j\text{th query encountered has answer YES}\}$$

$$C_{i2} = \{x \mid M^{(i)}(x) \text{ uses } w_i \text{ then} \\ \forall_j w_i[j] = 0 \Rightarrow \text{the } j\text{th query encountered has answer NO}\}.$$

Checking membership in C_{i1} is essentially seeing if k (a constant) formulas are in SAT, hence, C_{i1} is in NP. Checking membership in C_{i2} is essentially seeing if k (a constant) formulas are NOT in SAT; hence, C_{i2} is in co-NP.

If $x \in C_{i1} \cap C_{i2}$ then path w_i is correct and accepts, so $x \in A$; if $x \in A$ then the computation $M^{\text{SAT}}(x)$ followed some path w_i , so $x \in C_{i1} \cap C_{i2}$. Hence

$$A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^k} C_{i1} \cap C_{i2} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^k} C_{i1} - \bar{C}_{i2} = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^k} B_i,$$

where $B_i = C_{i1} - \bar{C}_{i2}$, a D_2 set.

In [9] it is shown that $A \in D_{2^k}$ iff A can be written as the union of k sets in D_2 . Combining this with what we have shown we obtain $Q(k, \text{SAT}) \subseteq D_{2^{k+1}}$.

For the sake of completeness we include a sketch of the result of [9] mentioned in the last paragraph. If $A \in D_{2^k}$ then A can be written as

$$A = L_1 - (L_2 - (L_3 - \dots - (L_{2^k-2} - (L_{2^k-1} - L_{2^k})) \dots)),$$

where for each i , L_i is an NP set and $L_{i+1} \subseteq L_i$. The set A can be rewritten as $A = (L_1 - L_2) \cup (L_3 - L_4) \cup \dots \cup (L_{2^k-1} - L_{2^k})$. This is clearly in the desired form.

For the reverse direction we give an example that expresses the main idea. Let $A = (L_1 - L_2) \cup (L_3 - L_4)$, where each L_i is in NP. We express A as a set in D_4 . Let

$$A_1 = L_1 \cup L_2$$

$$A_2 = L_2 \cup L_4$$

$$A_3 = (L_1 \cap L_4) \cup (L_2 \cap L_3)$$

$$A_4 = (L_1 \cap L_3 \cap L_4) \cup (L_1 \cup L_2 \cup L_3).$$

A can be expressed as

$$A = (A_1 - (A_2 - (A_3 - A_4))). \quad \blacksquare$$

Note. Beigel [4] has improved the above result by showing that $Q(k, \text{NPC}) \subseteq Q(1, D_{2^k-1}) \subseteq D_{2^k}$.

We now look at what happens if we can ask p questions at a time. In particular, we see how D_k relates to $Q(-, F_p^A)$ where p is a fixed constant. We use a technique similar to $(p+1)$ -ary search, i.e., binary search with p processors [20, 26], in a manner similar to our use of binary search in Theorem 20. The constant p is arbitrary but fixed.

We show that the classes $Q(k, F_p^{\text{NPC}})$ bear a relationship to the difference hierarchy.

THEOREM 23. $D_k \cup \bar{D}_k \subseteq Q(\lceil \log(k+1)/\log(p+1) \rceil, F_p^{\text{NPC}})$.

Proof. Let k and m be such that $(p+1)^{m-1} < k+1 \leq (p+1)^m$. Let A be a D_k set, and let $\langle L_1, \dots, L_k \rangle$ be NP sets such that

$$A = L_1 - (L_2 - (L_3 - \dots - (L_{k-2} - (L_{k-1} - L_k)) \dots)).$$

By convention let $L_{k'} = \emptyset$ for $k+1 \leq k' \leq (p+1)^m$. We present a $Q(m, F_p^{\text{NPC}})$ algorithm which, given x , determines the least i such that $x \notin L_i$, and hence the question of membership of x in A . The algorithm is essentially a $(p+1)$ -ary search; each question to F_p^{NPC} reduces the length of the interval in which i can be found by a factor of $p+1$.

ALGORITHM

- (1) Input(x).
- (2) $a \leftarrow 0, b \leftarrow (p+1)^m$ (i will always be in $[a+1, b]$).
- (3) Ask F_p^{NPC} simultaneously

$$\begin{aligned} x \in \bigcap_{j=a+1}^{a+(b-a)/(p+1)} L_j? \\ x \in \bigcap_{j=a+1}^{a+2(b-a)/(p+1)} L_j? \\ x \in \bigcap_{j=a+1}^{a+3(b-a)/(p+1)} L_j? \\ \vdots \\ x \in \bigcap_{j=a+1}^{a+p(b-a)/(p+1)} L_j? \end{aligned}$$

(We will see later that $b-a$ is always divisible by $p+1$.)

- (4) Let k_0 be the largest k such that

$$x \in \bigcap_{j=a+1}^{a+k_0(b-a)/(p+1)} L_j.$$

Set

$$a \leftarrow a +$$

$$b \leftarrow a +$$

(Note: the a and b on the right and b .)

- (5) If $a+1 < a + (b-a)/(p+1)$ (i.e., $a+1 = a + (b-a)/(p+1)$ (i.e., simultaneously $x \in L_{a+1}, x \in L_{a+2}, \dots, a+p$ number in $\{a+1, a+2, \dots, a+p\}$ that $b-a$ will eventually be $p+1$ happen.)
- (6) If i is even then output(YES), else

By induction one can show that $b-a = (p+1)^{m-q}$, and we know that interval $[a+1, b]$

The rest of this proof is analogous to

THEOREM 24. If A is in $Q(k, F_p^{\text{NPC}})$ such that $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^{pk}} B_i$. This implies that

Proof. This is proven in a manner except that the w_i are sequences of element formulas on each path to be concerned

8. NONSPARSE VERBOSE SETS

The sets A constructed (in Theorem 24) are p -close. This leads us to believe that a question now arises, Are there some A with some savings, though perhaps not quite a savings on queries is possible for some p -close.

The following theorem is based on Theorem 24, presented in [15], put into a polynomial time used in recursion-theoretic terseness by [6]. We construct verbose sets that cannot prove this.

Set

$$a \leftarrow a + \frac{k_0(b-a)}{p+1}$$

$$b \leftarrow a + \frac{(k_0+1)(b-a)}{p+1}$$

(Note: the a and b on the right hand side are the old values of a and b .)

- Let A
- (5) If $a+1 < a+(b-a)/(p+1)$ (i.e., $b-a > p+1$) then go to step 3. If $a+1 = a+(b-a)/(p+1)$ (i.e., $b-a = p+1$) then ask F_p^{NPC} simultaneously $x \in L_{a+1}, x \in L_{a+2}, \dots, x \in L_{a+p}$. Set i to be the least number in $\{a+1, a+2, \dots, a+p\}$ such that $x \notin L_i$. (We will see later that $b-a$ will eventually be $p+1$; hence no other possibility can happen.)
- (6) If i is even then output(YES), else output(NO).

By induction one can show that after step 3 is executed q times, $b-a = (p+1)^{m-q}$, and we know that the least i such that $x \notin L_i$ is in the interval $[a+1, b]$

The rest of this proof is analogous to that for Theorem 20. ■

THEOREM 24. *If A is in $Q(k, F_p^{\text{NPC}})$ then there exist D_2 sets $B_1, \dots, B_{2^{pk}}$ such that $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^{pk}} B_i$. This implies that $Q(k, F_p^{\text{NPC}}) \subseteq D_{2^p+1}$.*

Proof. This is proven in a manner similar to that for Theorem 21, except that the w_i are sequences of elements from $\{0, 1\}^p$, and there are pk formulas on each path to be concerned with. ■

8. NONSPARSE VERBOSE SETS AND SUPERTERSE SETS

The sets A constructed (in Theorem 2) such that $F_k^A \in FQ(1, A)$ are p -close. This leads us to believe that all such sets must be p -close. The question now arises, Are there some non- p -close sets where you can get some savings, though perhaps not quite as drastic as k for 1? We show that a savings on queries is possible for some sets that do not appear to be p -close.

The following theorem is based on ideas of McLaughlin and Martin presented in [15], put into a polynomial framework by Selman [25], and used in recursion-theoretic terseness by Beigel, Gasarch, Gill, and Owings [6]. We construct verbose sets that do not seem to be p -close but we cannot prove this.

THEOREM 25. *If A is a tally set then there exists a nonsparse set B , $B \equiv_p^u A$, such that for all n , $F_{2^n-1}^B \in FQ(n, B)$.*

Proof. Let $a_i = \chi_A(1^i)$. Let \mathbf{a} be the infinite string $a_1 a_2 a_3 \dots$. Let

$$B = \{w \mid w \text{ is lexicographically less than } \mathbf{a}\}.$$

It is easy to see that $A \equiv_p^u B$ and that B is not sparse. $F_{2^n-1}^B(x_1, \dots, x_{2^n-1})$ can be found by a binary search which determines the largest element that is NOT in B ; all larger elements are in B , all smaller ones are not. This only needs n queries. ■

Note that the set B can be looked at as the left cut of a real [17], where that real is in the same polynomial 1-1 degree as A . The set B in the above theorem does not appear to be p-close, but we are currently unable to prove this.

9. OPEN PROBLEMS AND FURTHER WORK

We would like to know more about which sets are and are not pterse. We informally conjecture that all sets A such that $F_k^A \in FQ(1, A)$ are "unnatural." Along these lines, in a forthcoming article [3] we show that the hard cores of the non-2-pterse sets (informally) have large "gaps."

The notions of 2-pterseness and p-separability seem linked. For NP-complete sets the notions are similar: non-2-pterseness of A is equivalent to $\bar{A} \times A$ and $A \times \bar{A}$ being p-separable. However, in a forthcoming article [3] we will show that these notions are not equivalent.

It is open if $P \neq NP$ implies $Q(k, SAT) \neq Q(k+1, SAT)$. Krentel [19] has shown that there exists an oracle A such that makes $Q(1, SAT)^A = Q(2, SAT)^A$ and $P^A \neq NP^A$. Since the proof of " $P \neq NP$ implies $FQ(k, SAT) \neq FQ(k+1, SAT)$ " relatives, the techniques used in that proof will not suffice to show that $P \neq NP$ implies $Q(k, SAT) \neq Q(k+1, SAT)$.

The class $Q(1, F_k^A)$ appears to be weaker than $Q(k, A)$, but this seems hard to prove. Obtaining various values of A that make these two classes equal or unequal would be of interest.

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Mathematical Optimizing Properties of Synchronizing Programs

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Methods for constructing binary exhaustive synchronizing properties are given. In particular it is shown that a code be anagrammatic and the delay as linear integer programming problem given and the program optimizes over all examples, solved by a commercially available are included. © 1988 Academic Press, Inc.

I. PRELIMINARIES

If E is a set of symbols then let E^i , $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, be the set of symbol strings of length i over E . The set of all symbol strings of length i over E is often denoted E^+ . By an *encoding* over E we mean a mapping of S into E^+ , and the mapping m from S to E^+ is called an *encoding* with E^+ elements and the association with $E = \{0, 1\}$ an encoding of $\{s_1, s_2, s_3, \dots\}$ is $\{1, 110011\}$, where s_1 is represented by 1, s_2 by 110011.

Elements of W are called code words or messages. A message from the example is not *uniquely decipherable* (ud), since it can be decoded validly in more than one way. A code is called a "code" for the ud case.

If a string $e \in E^+$ may be expressed as a concatenation of non-empty strings α, β , $e = \alpha\beta$, then α is a *proper prefix* of e . It is well known if an encoding W has the property that no word is a proper prefix of another word, the encoding is called a *prefix code*.

A *proper prefix* of W is a non-null prefix of a word in W .

A convenient representation of a prefix code is a *prefix tree*, which may be drawn as an oriented tree. The root of the tree is the empty code word and the code words are described by the sequence of edges from the root to all terminal (degree 0) nodes.