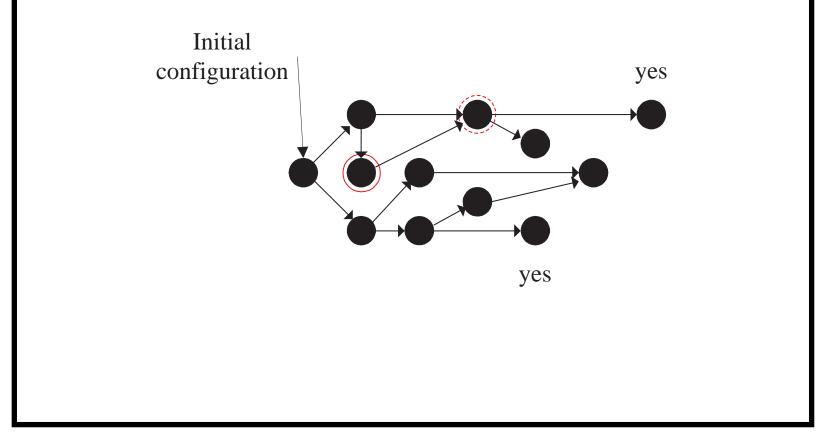
#### The Reachability Method

- The computation of a time-bounded TM can be represented by a directed graph.
- The TM configurations are its nodes.
- Two nodes are connectied by a directed edge if one yields the other.
- The start node representing the initial configuration has zero in degree.
- When the TM is nondeterministic, a node may have an out degree greater than one.

# Illustration of the Reachability Method





**Theorem 21** Suppose f(n) is proper. Then

- 1.  $SPACE(f(n)) \subseteq NSPACE(f(n)),$  $TIME(f(n)) \subseteq NTIME(f(n)).$
- 2. NTIME $(f(n)) \subseteq SPACE(f(n))$ .
- 3. NSPACE $(f(n)) \subseteq \text{TIME}(k^{\log n + f(n)}).$
- Proof of 2:
  - Explore the computation *tree* of the NTM for "yes."
  - Specifically, generate a f(n)-bit sequence denoting the nondeterministic choices over f(n) steps.

# Proof of Theorem 21(2)

- (continued)
  - Simulate the NTM based on the choices.
  - Recycle the space and then repeat the above steps until a "yes" is encountered or the tree is exhausted.
  - Each path simulation consumes at most O(f(n))space because it takes O(f(n)) time.
  - The total space is O(f(n)) because space is recycled.

#### Proof of Theorem 21(3)

• Let *k*-string NTM

$$M = (K, \Sigma, \Delta, s)$$

with input and output decide  $L \in \text{NSPACE}(f(n))$ .

- Use the reachability method on the configuration graph of M on input x of length n.
- A configuration is a (2k+1)-tuple

$$(q, w_1, u_1, w_2, u_2, \ldots, w_k, u_k).$$

# Proof of Theorem 21(3) (continued)

• We only care about

$$(q, i, w_2, u_2, \ldots, w_{k-1}, u_{k-1}),$$

where i is an integer between 0 and n for the position of the first cursor.

• The number of configurations is therefore at most

$$|K| \times (n+1) \times |\Sigma|^{(2k-4)f(n)} = O(c_1^{\log n + f(n)}) \quad (2)$$

for some  $c_1$ , which depends on M.

• Add edges to the configuration graph based on M's transition function.

#### Proof of Theorem 21(3) (concluded)

- x ∈ L ⇔ there is a path in the configuration graph from the initial configuration to a configuration of the form ("yes", i,...) [there may be many of them].
- This is REACHABILITY on a graph with  $O(c_1^{\log n + f(n)})$  nodes.
- It is in  $\text{TIME}(c^{\log n + f(n)})$  for some c because REACHABILITY  $\in \text{TIME}(n^j)$  for some j and

$$\left[c_1^{\log n + f(n)}\right]^j = (c_1^j)^{\log n + f(n)}$$

# The Grand Chain of Inclusions $L \subseteq NL \subseteq P \subseteq NP \subseteq PSPACE \subseteq EXP.$

- By Corollary 20 (p. 192), we know  $L \subsetneq PSPACE$ .
- The chain must break somewhere between L and PSPACE.
- It is suspected that all four inclusions are proper.
- But there are no proofs yet.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Carl Friedrich Gauss (1777–1855), "I could easily lay down a multitude of such propositions, which one could neither prove nor dispose of."

# Nondeterministic Space and Deterministic Space

• By Theorem 5 (p. 92),

$$\operatorname{NTIME}(f(n)) \subseteq \operatorname{TIME}(c^{f(n)}),$$

an exponential gap.

- There is no proof that the exponential gap is inherent.
- How about NSPACE vs. SPACE?
- Surprisingly, the relation is only quadratic—a polynomial—by Savitch's theorem.

#### Savitch's Theorem

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Theorem 22 (Savitch (1970))
```

REACHABILITY  $\in$  SPACE $(\log^2 n)$ .

- Let G be a graph with n nodes.
- For  $i \ge 0$ , let

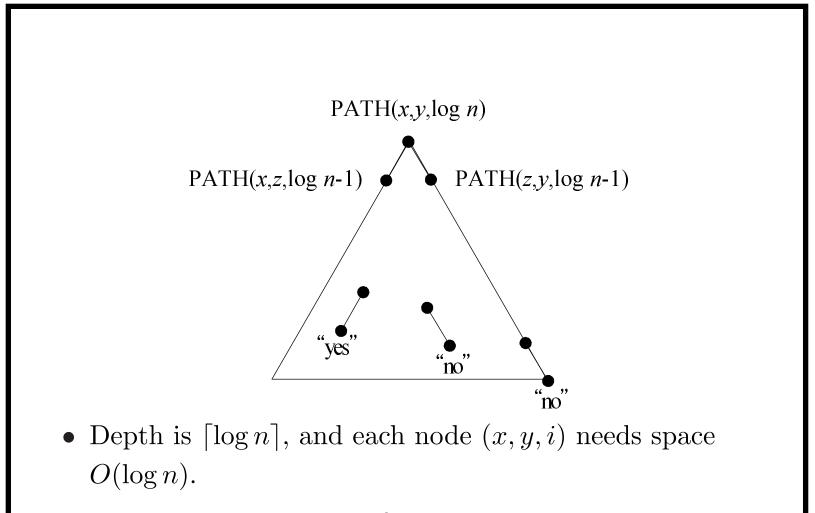
PATH(x, y, i)

mean there is a path from node x to node y of length at most  $2^i$ .

 There is a path from x to y if and only if PATH(x, y, ⌈log n⌉) holds.

#### The Proof (continued)

- For i > 0, PATH(x, y, i) if and only if there exists a z such that PATH(x, z, i 1) and PATH(z, y, i 1).
- For PATH(x, y, 0), check the input graph or if x = y.
- Compute  $PATH(x, y, \lceil \log n \rceil)$  with a depth-first search on a graph with nodes (x, y, i)s (see next page).
- Like stacks in recursive calls, we keep only the current path of (x, y, i)s.
- The space requirement is proportional to the depth of the tree:  $\lceil \log n \rceil$ .



• The total space is  $O(\log^2 n)$ .

The Proof (concluded): Algorithm for PATH(x, y, i)1: **if** i = 0 **then** if x = y or  $(x, y) \in G$  then 2: return true; 3: else 4: 5: return false; end if 6: 7: else for z = 1, 2, ..., n do 8: if PATH(x, z, i-1) and PATH(z, y, i-1) then 9: return true; 10: end if 11: end for 12:return false; 13:14: end if

# The Relation between Nondeterministic Space and Deterministic Space Only Quadratic

**Corollary 23** Let  $f(n) \ge \log n$  be proper. Then

 $NSPACE(f(n)) \subseteq SPACE(f^2(n)).$ 

- Apply Savitch's theorem to the configuration graph of the NTM on the input.
- From p. 198, the configuration graph has  $O(c^{f(n)})$  nodes; hence each node takes space O(f(n)).
- But if we construct explicitly the whole graph before applying Savitch's theorem, we get  $O(c^{f(n)})$  space!

## The Proof (continued)

- The way out is *not* to generate the graph at all.
- Instead, keep the graph implicit.
- We check for connectedness only when i = 0 on p. 205, by examining the input string.
- There, given configurations x and y, we go over the Turing machine's program to determine if there is an instruction that can turn x into y in one step.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Thanks to a lively class discussion on October 15, 2003.

# The Proof (concluded)

- The z variable in the algorithm on p. 205 simply runs through all possible valid configurations.
  - Let  $z = 0, 1, \dots, O(c^{f(n)})$ .
  - Make sure z is a valid configuration before using it in the recursive calls.<sup>a</sup>
- Each z has length O(f(n)) by Eq. (2) on p. 198.

<sup>a</sup>Thanks to a lively class discussion on October 13, 2004.

Implications of Savitch's Theorem

- PSPACE = NPSPACE.
- Nondeterminism is less powerful with respect to space.
- Nondeterminism may be very powerful with respect to time as it is not known if P = NP.

#### Nondeterministic Space Is Closed under Complement

- Closure under complement is trivially true for deterministic complexity classes (p. 185).
- It is known that<sup>a</sup>

$$coNSPACE(f(n)) = NSPACE(f(n)).$$
 (3)

$$coNL = NL,$$
  
 $coNPSPACE = NPSPACE.$ 

• But there are still no hints of coNP = NP.

<sup>a</sup>Szelepscényi (1987) and Immerman (1988).

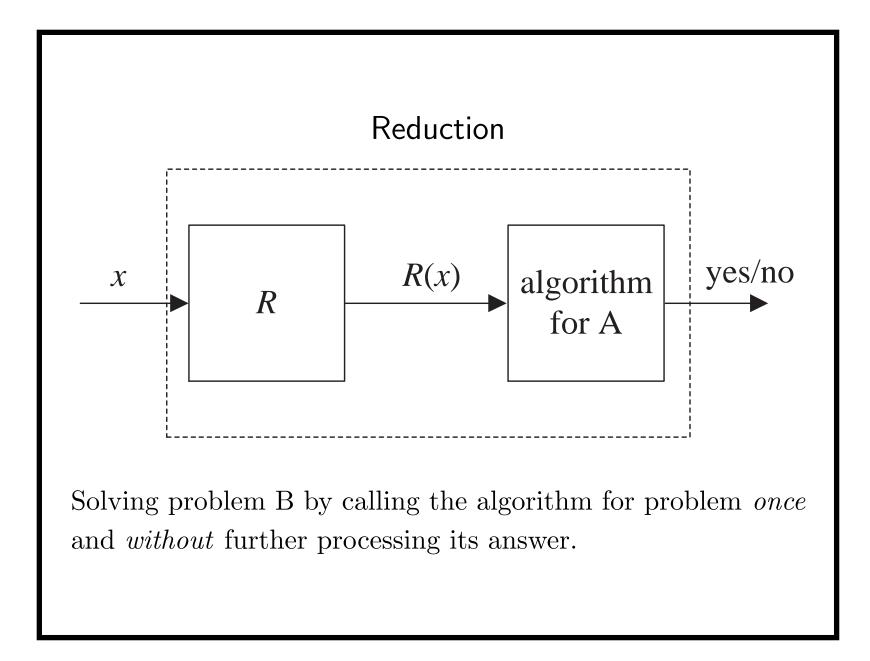
# Reductions and Completeness

#### Degrees of Difficulty

- When is a problem more difficult than another?
- B reduces to A if there is a transformation R which for every input x of B yields an equivalent input R(x) of A.
  - The answer to x for B is the same as the answer to R(x) for A.
  - There must be restrictions on the complexity of computing R.
  - Otherwise, R(x) might as well solve B.
    - \* E.g., R(x) = "yes" if and only if  $x \in B!$

# Degrees of Difficulty (concluded)

- We say problem A is at least as hard as problem B if B reduces to A.
- This makes intuitive sense: If A is able to solve your problem B after only a little bit of work (R), then A must be at least as hard.



#### $\mathsf{Comments}^{\mathrm{a}}$

- Suppose B reduces to A via a transformation R.
- The input x is an instance of B.
- The output R(x) is an instance of A.
- R(x) may not span all possible instances of A.
- So some instances of A may never appear in the range of the reduction *R*.

<sup>a</sup>Contributed by Mr. Ming-Feng Tsai (D92922003) on October 29, 2003.

#### Reduction between Languages

- Language  $L_1$  is **reducible to**  $L_2$  if there is a function R computable by a deterministic TM in space  $O(\log n)$ .
- Furthermore, for all inputs  $x, x \in L_1$  if and only if  $R(x) \in L_2$ .
- R is said to be a (**Karp**) reduction from  $L_1$  to  $L_2$ .
- Note that by Theorem 21 (p. 195), *R* runs in polynomial time.
- Suppose R is a reduction from  $L_1$  to  $L_2$ .
- Then solving "R(x) ∈ L<sub>2</sub>" is an algorithm for solving "x ∈ L<sub>1</sub>."

## A Paradox?

- Degree of difficulty is not defined in terms of *absolute* complexity.
- So a language  $B \in TIME(n^{99})$  may be "easier" than a language  $A \in TIME(n^3)$ .
  - This happens when B is reducible to A.
- But isn't this a contradiction if the best algorithm for B requires  $n^{99}$  steps?
- That is, how can a problem *requiring*  $n^{33}$  steps be reducible to a problem solvable in  $n^3$  steps?

## A Paradox? (concluded)

- The so-called contradiction does not hold.
- When we solve the problem "x ∈ B?" via "R(x) ∈ A?", we must consider the time spent by R(x) and its length | R(x) |.
- If  $|R(x)| = \Omega(n^{33})$ , then answering " $R(x) \in A$ ?" takes  $\Omega((n^{33})^3) = \Omega(n^{99})$  steps, which is fine.
- Suppose, on the other hand, that  $|R(x)| = o(n^{33})$ .
- Then R(x) must run in time  $\Omega(n^{99})$  to make the overall time for answering " $R(x) \in A$ ?" take  $\Omega(n^{99})$  steps.
- In either case, the contradiction disappears.

#### HAMILTONIAN PATH

- A **Hamiltonian path** of a graph is a path that visits every node of the graph exactly once.
- Suppose graph G has n nodes:  $1, 2, \ldots, n$ .
- A Hamiltonian path can be expressed as a permutation  $\pi$  of  $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$  such that
  - $-\pi(i) = j$  means the *i*th position is occupied by node *j*.

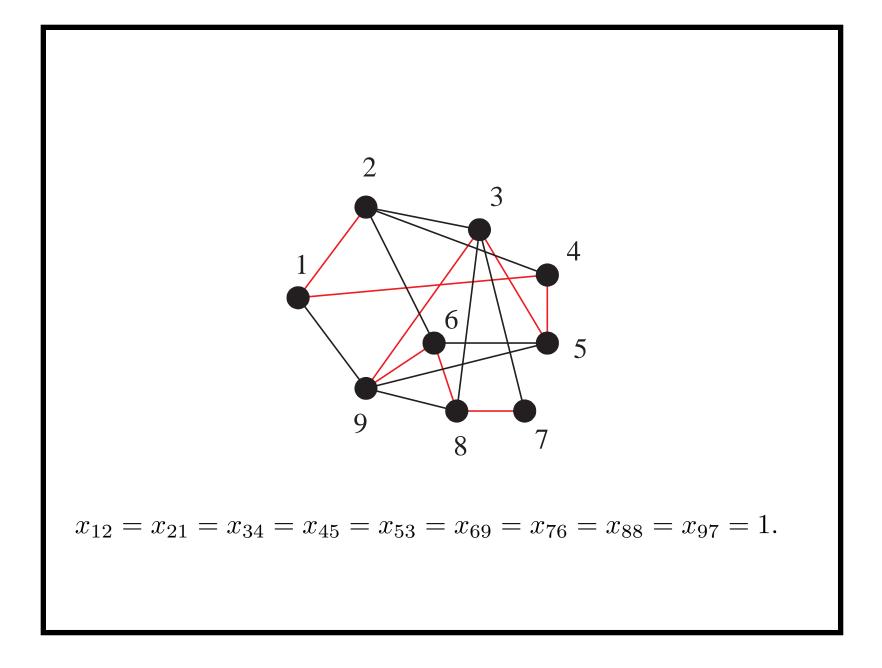
 $- (\pi(i), \pi(i+1)) \in G \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1.$ 

• HAMILTONIAN PATH asks if a graph has a Hamiltonian path.

#### Reduction of HAMILTONIAN PATH to SAT

- Given a graph G, we shall construct a CNF R(G) such that R(G) is satisfiable iff G has a Hamiltonian path.
- R(G) has  $n^2$  boolean variables  $x_{ij}, 1 \le i, j \le n$ .
- $x_{ij}$  means

the ith position in the Hamiltonian path is occupied by node j.



The Clauses of R(G) and Their Intended Meanings

- 1. Each node j must appear in the path.
  - $x_{1j} \vee x_{2j} \vee \cdots \vee x_{nj}$  for each j.
- 2. No node j appears twice in the path.
  - $\neg x_{ij} \lor \neg x_{kj}$  for all i, j, k with  $i \neq k$ .
- 3. Every position i on the path must be occupied.
  - $x_{i1} \vee x_{i2} \vee \cdots \vee x_{in}$  for each *i*.
- 4. No two nodes j and k occupy the same position in the path.
  - $\neg x_{ij} \lor \neg x_{ik}$  for all i, j, k with  $j \neq k$ .
- 5. Nonadjacent nodes i and j cannot be adjacent in the path.
  - $\neg x_{ki} \lor \neg x_{k+1,j}$  for all  $(i,j) \notin G$  and  $k = 1, 2, \ldots, n-1$ .

# The Proof

- R(G) contains  $O(n^3)$  clauses.
- R(G) can be computed efficiently (simple exercise).
- Suppose  $T \models R(G)$ .
- From clauses of 1 and 2, for each node j there is a unique position i such that  $T \models x_{ij}$ .
- From clauses of 3 and 4, for each position *i* there is a unique node *j* such that  $T \models x_{ij}$ .
- So there is a permutation  $\pi$  of the nodes such that  $\pi(i) = j$  if and only if  $T \models x_{ij}$ .

## The Proof (concluded)

- Clauses of 5 furthermore guarantees that  $(\pi(1), \pi(2), \ldots, \pi(n))$  is a Hamiltonian path.
- Conversely, suppose G has a Hamiltonian path

 $(\pi(1),\pi(2),\ldots,\pi(n)),$ 

where  $\pi$  is a permutation.

• Clearly, the truth assignment

 $T(x_{ij}) =$ true if and only if  $\pi(i) = j$ 

satisfies all clauses of R(G).

# A Comment $^{\rm a}$

- An answer to "Is R(G) satisfiable?" does answer "Is G Hamiltonian?"
- But a positive answer does not give a Hamiltonian path for G.
  - Providing witness is not a requirement of reduction.
- A positive answer to "Is R(G) satisfiable?" plus a satisfying truth assignment does provide us with a Hamiltonian path for G.

<sup>a</sup>Contributed by Ms. Amy Liu (J94922016) on May 29, 2006.

#### Reduction of REACHABILITY to CIRCUIT VALUE

- Note that both problems are in P.
- Given a graph G = (V, E), we shall construct a variable-free circuit R(G).
- The output of R(G) is true if and only if there is a path from node 1 to node n in G.
- Idea: the Floyd-Warshall algorithm.

#### The Gates

- The gates are
  - $-g_{ijk}$  with  $1 \le i, j \le n$  and  $0 \le k \le n$ .
  - $-h_{ijk}$  with  $1 \le i, j, k \le n$ .
- $g_{ijk}$ : There is a path from node *i* to node *j* without passing through a node bigger than *k*.
- $h_{ijk}$ : There is a path from node *i* to node *j* passing through *k* but not any node bigger than *k*.
- Input gate  $g_{ij0} =$ true if and only if i = j or  $(i, j) \in E$ .

#### The Construction

- $h_{ijk}$  is an AND gate with predecessors  $g_{i,k,k-1}$  and  $g_{k,j,k-1}$ , where k = 1, 2, ..., n.
- $g_{ijk}$  is an OR gate with predecessors  $g_{i,j,k-1}$  and  $h_{i,j,k}$ , where k = 1, 2, ..., n.
- $g_{1nn}$  is the output gate.
- Interestingly, R(G) uses no ¬ gates: It is a monotone circuit.

#### Reduction of CIRCUIT SAT to SAT

- Given a circuit C, we will construct a boolean expression R(C) such that R(C) is satisfiable iff C is.
  - R(C) will turn out to be a CNF.
  - R(C) is a depth-2 circuit; furthermore, each gate has out-degree 1.
- The variables of R(C) are those of C plus g for each gate g of C.
  - g's propagate the truth values for the CNF.
- Each gate of C will be turned into equivalent clauses.
- Recall that clauses are  $\wedge$ -ed together by definition.

### The Clauses of R(C)

g is a variable gate x: Add clauses  $(\neg g \lor x)$  and  $(g \lor \neg x)$ .

• Meaning:  $g \Leftrightarrow x$ .

g is a true gate: Add clause (g).

• Meaning: g must be true to make R(C) true.

g is a false gate: Add clause  $(\neg g)$ .

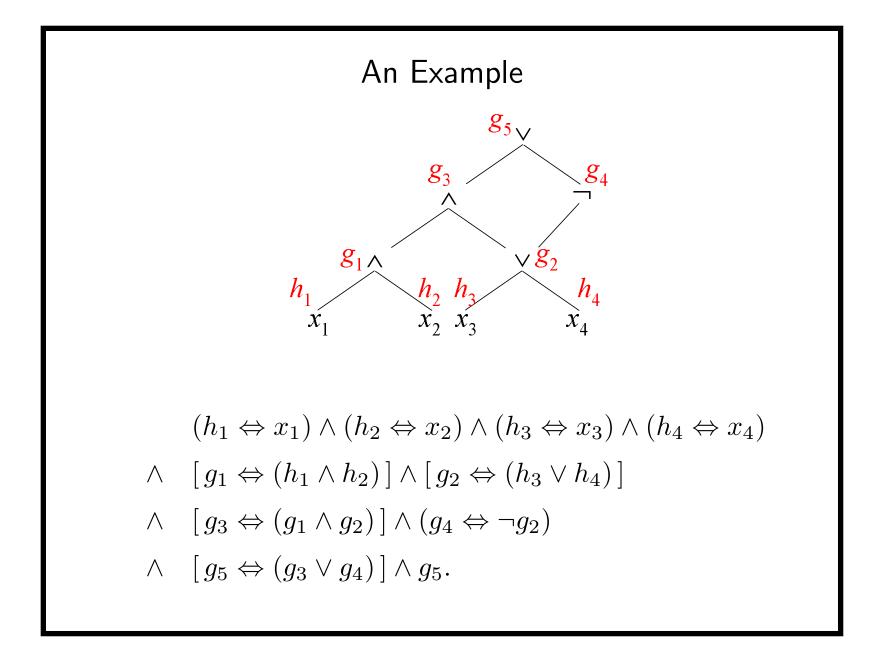
- Meaning: g must be false to make R(C) true.
- g is a  $\neg$  gate with predecessor gate h: Add clauses  $(\neg g \lor \neg h)$  and  $(g \lor h)$ .
  - Meaning:  $g \Leftrightarrow \neg h$ .

# The Clauses of R(C) (concluded)

- g is a  $\lor$  gate with predecessor gates h and h': Add clauses  $(\neg h \lor g)$ ,  $(\neg h' \lor g)$ , and  $(h \lor h' \lor \neg g)$ .
  - Meaning:  $g \Leftrightarrow (h \lor h')$ .
- g is a  $\land$  gate with predecessor gates h and h': Add clauses  $(\neg g \lor h)$ ,  $(\neg g \lor h')$ , and  $(\neg h \lor \neg h' \lor g)$ .
  - Meaning:  $g \Leftrightarrow (h \land h')$ .
- g is the output gate: Add clause (g).

• Meaning: g must be true to make R(C) true.

Note: If gate g feeds gates  $h_1, h_2, \ldots$ , then variable g appears in the clauses for  $h_1, h_2, \ldots$  in R(C).



# An Example (concluded)

- In general, the result is a CNF.
- The CNF has size proportional to the circuit's number of gates.
- The CNF adds new variables to the circuit's original input variables.

### Composition of Reductions

**Proposition 24** If  $R_{12}$  is a reduction from  $L_1$  to  $L_2$  and  $R_{23}$  is a reduction from  $L_2$  to  $L_3$ , then the composition  $R_{12} \circ R_{23}$  is a reduction from  $L_1$  to  $L_3$ .

- Clearly  $x \in L_1$  if and only if  $R_{23}(R_{12}(x)) \in L_3$ .
- How to compute  $R_{12} \circ R_{23}$  in space  $O(\log n)$ , as required by the definition of reduction?

# The Proof (continued)

- An obvious way is to generate  $R_{12}(x)$  first and then feeding it to  $R_{23}$ .
- This takes polynomial time.<sup>a</sup>
  - It takes polynomial time to produce  $R_{12}(x)$  of polynomial length.
  - It also takes polynomial time to produce  $R_{23}(R_{12}(x)).$
- Trouble is  $R_{12}(x)$  may consume up to polynomial space, much more than the logarithmic space required.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Hence our concern below disappears had we required reductions to be in P instead of L.

## The Proof (concluded)

- The trick is to let  $R_{23}$  drive the computation.
- It asks  $R_{12}$  to deliver each bit of  $R_{12}(x)$  when needed.
- When  $R_{23}$  wants to read the *i*th bit,  $R_{12}(x)$  will be simulated until the *i*th bit is available.
  - The initial i 1 bits should *not* be written to the string.
- This is feasible as  $R_{12}(x)$  is produced in a write-only manner.
  - The *i*th output bit of  $R_{12}(x)$  is well-defined because once it is written, it will never be overwritten.