

On Random Reductions from Sparse Sets to Tally Sets

Uwe Schöning
Universität Ulm, Abt. Theoretische Informatik
Postfach 40 66, D-7900 Ulm
Germany

keywords: computational complexity, random reductions, sparse sets, tally sets, completeness

We show that every sparse set S can be many-one reduced to an appropriate tally set T by a polynomial-time, randomized reduction (see formal definitions below.) Since T is in **NP** if S is in **NP**, this result can be used to show that there is a tally set in **NP** being randomized many-one complete for all sparse sets in **NP**. This partially answers an open problem posed by Hartmanis and Yesha [6].

In [6] it is shown that there is a tally set in **NP** being polynomial-time *Turing* complete (actually, truth-table complete) for all sparse sets in **NP**, and the question was posed whether there is also a *many-one* complete set for all sparse sets in **NP**.

In [3] it was first shown that every sparse set is *conjunctively* reducible to an appropriate tally set. This is proved by a certain “low degree polynomial trick.” Alternatively, in [8] the result is proved by a “chinese remainder trick.” We use a modification of the latter proof method to present our randomized reduction. (A modification of the former method could be used just as well.)

A set $A \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$ is called (*polynomially*) *sparse* if there is a polynomial p

such that for each n , the cardinality of $A \cap \{0, 1\}^n$ is upper bounded by $p(n)$. Any set $A \subseteq \{1\}^*$ over a one-letter alphabet is called *tally*. (Every tally set is clearly sparse.)

A set A *randomly many-one reduces* to a set B if there is a randomized, polynomial-time transducer algorithm M and a polynomial $q > 1$ such that for all x ,

$$\begin{aligned} x \in A &\Rightarrow M(x) \in B \text{ with probability } 1, \\ x \notin A &\Rightarrow M(x) \notin B \text{ with probability at least } 1 - 1/q(|x|). \end{aligned}$$

Here $M(x)$ denotes the output of M on input x . This definition coincides essentially with Adleman and Manders's UR-reducibility [1], with the PR-reductions in [9] and the \leq_m^{co-rp} reductions in [4]. In [9], a problem is shown to be NP-complete under PR-reductions which is not known to be NP-complete under polynomial-time Turing reductions.

We say that A *randomly many-one reduces to B with error polynomial q* if we want to specify the polynomial q in the above definition explicitly.

In the following, let p_1, p_2, p_3, \dots denote the sequence of prime numbers. For a string $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$, $num(x)$ denotes the natural number whose binary representation is $1x$. We will make use of a polynomial-time computable pairing function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ and its generalization to arbitrary n -tuples.

Theorem. *For every sparse set S there is a tally set T such that for every polynomial q , S randomly many-one reduces to T with error polynomial q .*

Additionally, if $S \in \text{NP}$, then $T \in \text{NP}$.

Proof. Let S be a sparse set, and let p be a polynomial such that $|S \cap \{0, 1\}^n| \leq p(n)$ for all n . Define the tally set T as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} T = \{ & 1^{\langle n, i, r \rangle} \mid n \geq 0, \text{ and there is an } x \in S, \\ & |x| = n, \text{ such that } r = (num(x) \bmod p_i) \} \end{aligned}$$

The randomized reduction algorithm M works as follows.

input x ; (* $|x| = n$ *)

guess randomly $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n \cdot p(n) \cdot q(n)\}$;
 $r := \text{num}(x) \bmod p_i$;
output $1^{(n,i,r)}$;

By the prime number theorem (cf. [7]) the value of the i -th prime p_i is of order $O(i \cdot \ln i)$. Therefore, the length of the binary encoding of the $n \cdot p(n) \cdot q(n)$ -th prime is $O(\ln n)$. That means, any inefficient, exponential-time primality test will be efficient enough—relative to the input length n —to guarantee that the procedure works in polynomial-time. (An interesting detail here is that the above procedure, for performing the random guess instruction, needs only *logarithmically* many random bits.)

Clearly, by definition of T , if $x \in S$, then every possible output $1^{(n,i,r)}$ of M on input x will be a member of T .

On the other hand, if $x \notin S$, then there is the possibility that the output string $1^{(n,i,r)}$ is in T because for some $y \in S$ with $|y| = n$, $(\text{num}(y) \bmod p_i) = r$. We estimate now the probability that this happens. By the Chinese remainder theorem, if $a \neq b$ and p_1, p_2, \dots, p_m are different primes satisfying $\prod_{i=1}^m p_i \geq \max(a, b)$, then the sequences of remainders (r_1, \dots, r_m) and (r'_1, \dots, r'_m) obtained by taking $r_i = a \bmod p_i$ and $r'_i = b \bmod p_i$ are different (in at least one component of the sequence.) We apply this to our scenario here: $a = \text{num}(x)$ and $b = \text{num}(y)$ where both numbers are bounded by 2^{n+1} . Further, $\prod_{i=1}^m p_i \geq 2^{n+1}$ is guaranteed if $m = n + 1$ since $p_i \geq 2$ for all i . Now consider all potential remainders $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_{np(n)q(n)}$ that might be calculated by the randomized procedure on input x . At least one of the first $n + 1$ will be different for an arbitrary input $y \neq x$. Taking out this different one, but adding the $(n + 2)$ -nd remainder, there will be again at least one difference in the remainder sequences, and so on. Altogether, we are sure to find at least $np(n)q(n) - n$ different points in the remainder sequences for x and y where they differ, and at most n remainders are equal.

Therefore, for fixed $y \neq x$, the probability for hitting an equal element in the remainder sequence is at most $\frac{1}{p(n)q(n)}$, and the probability for hitting with the output string $1^{(n,i,r)}$ an element of T (because of some $y \in S$, $|y| = n$) is at most $|S \cap \{0, 1\}^n| \cdot \frac{1}{p(n)q(n)} \leq \frac{1}{q(n)}$.

The set T is in NP if S is in NP . This can be seen as follows. On input $1^{(n,i,r)}$, guess some x of length n and verify that $x \in S$. Then, the i -th prime has to be found and $r = (\text{num}(x) \bmod p_i)$ needs to be verified. \square

In some sense, in the above proof, the information contained in the sparse set S is distributed in logarithmically smaller pieces in the tally set, and this is done in a certain redundant, error-correcting way. Encoding a sparse NP set in a tally NP set such that the original information can be recovered is the key technique of Hartmanis's result [5] that $\text{DTIME}(2^{O(n)}) \neq \text{NTIME}(2^{O(n)})$ if and only if there exist sparse sets in $\text{NP} - \text{P}$. The above technique can also be used to prove this.

With very similar techniques as in [5] Hartmanis and Yesha [6] show that there is a tally set in NP being complete for all sparse sets in NP . The completeness notion here is understood for *Turing* reducibility. (Actually, any Turing reduction to a tally set is already a truth-table reduction.) The authors ask whether there is also a *many-one* complete set for all sparse sets in NP , but in the same paper they show that there are relativizations which do not allow such sets. Therefore, we think the following (relativizable) result is of interest.

Corollary. *There is a tally set in NP which is complete for all sparse sets in NP under randomized many-one reductions.*

Proof. There is a set A that is complete for $\text{NTIME}(2^{O(n)})$ under linear-time many-one reductions. Consider its tally version

$$\text{TALLY}(A) = \{1^{\text{num}(x)} \mid x \in A\}.$$

$\text{TALLY}(A)$ is a member of NP (cf. [2]) and is a tally set. Let $S \in \text{NP}$ be a sparse set. By the last theorem there is a tally set $T \in \text{NP}$ such that S randomly many-one reduces to T . Consider the binary encoded version of T ,

$$\text{BIN}(T) = \{x \in \{0,1\}^* \mid 1^{\text{num}(x)} \in T\}.$$

$\text{BIN}(T)$ is a member of $\text{NTIME}(2^{O(n)})$, and therefore linear-time many-one reducible to A . This implies the existence of a polynomial-time many-one reduc-

tion from T to $TALLY(A)$. Combining the reductions, we obtain a randomized many-one reduction from S to $TALLY(A)$. \square

References

- [1] L. Adleman, K. Manders. Reductions that lie. *Proceedings of the 20th Annual Conference on Foundations of Computer Science*, IEEE, 1979, 397–410.
- [2] R.V. Book. Tally languages and complexity classes. *Information and Control* 26 (1974), 186–193.
- [3] H. Buhrman, L. Longpré, E. Spaan. Sparse reduces conjunctively to tally. Northeastern University, College of Computer Science, Technical Report NU-CCS-92-8, 1992.
- [4] R. Chang, J. Kadin, P. Rohatgi. Connections between the complexity of unique satisfiability and the threshold behavior of randomized reductions. *Proceedings of the 6th Annual Conference on Structure in Complexity Theory*, IEEE, 1991, 255–266.
- [5] J. Hartmanis. On sparse sets in NP – P. *Information Processing Letters* 16 (1983), 55–60.
- [6] J. Hartmanis, Y. Yesha. Computation times of NP sets of different densities. *Theoretical Computer Science* 34 (1984), 17–32.
- [7] I. Niven, H.S. Zuckerman. *An Introduction to the Theory of Numbers*. Wiley, New York, 1960.
- [8] S. Saluja. Relativized limitations of the left set technique and closure classes of sparse sets. Department of Computer Science, Tata Institute of Fundamental Research, Bombay, India; Technical Report, 1992.
- [9] U. Vazirani, V. Vazirani. A natural encoding scheme proved probabilistic polynomial complete. *Theoretical Computer Science* 24 (1983), 291–300.