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11 Reductions between Problems

A *reduction* is a way of solving one problem, assuming that you already know how to solve another problem.

11.1 Turing Reductions

Suppose that A and B are two computational problems. They can be decision problems or functional problems. We need to formalize the idea that, if we already know how to solve B , we can solve A . (We need to be careful because the definition needs to work even when A and B are uncomputable problems.)

Definition 11.1. A *Turing reduction from A to B* is a program that computes A and that is able to ask questions about B at no cost.

Definition 11.2. Say that $A \leq_t B$ provided there exists a Turing reduction from A to B .

11.1.1 Examples of Turing Reductions

Example 11.3. Suppose that

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \{n \in \mathcal{N} \mid n \text{ is even}\} \\ B &= \{n \in \mathcal{N} \mid n \text{ is odd}\}. \end{aligned}$$

The following program is a Turing reduction from A to B .

```
"{even( $x$ ):  
  if  $x \in B$  then  
    return 0  
  else  
    return 1  
}"
```

Notice that it asks if $x \in B$. That is where it uses B at no cost. Since there exists a Turing reduction from A to B , we know that $A \leq_t B$.

Example 11.4. Suppose that

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \{p \mid p \text{ is a quadratic polynomial in } x \text{ and } p \text{ has a real zero}\} \\ B &= \{p \mid p \text{ is a polynomial in } x \text{ and } p \text{ has a real zero}\} \end{aligned}$$

Notice that B allows p to have any degree. If you are allowed to ask about zeros of polynomials of any degree, it is easy to ask questions about quadratic polynomials. The following program is a Turing reduction from A to B , establishing that $A \leq_t B$.

```
"{has-zero( $p$ ):
  if  $p \in B$  then
    return 1
  else
    return 0
}"
```

Example 11.5. You can do a Turing reduction between two functions. Define $f : \mathcal{N} \times \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ to $g : \mathcal{N} \times \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} f(m, n) &= m + n \\ g(m, n) &= m \cdot n \end{aligned}$$

Here is a reduction from g to f . It multiplies by doing repeated additions.

```
"{ $g(m, n)$ :
   $y = 0$ 
  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ 
     $y = f(y, n)$ 
  return  $y$ 
}"
```

Example 11.6. The preceding three examples showed how to define a Turing reduction between two *computable* problems. For them, you could just

replace the test $x \in B$ or the use of $f(p, n)$ by a program that tells you whether $x \in B$ or that computes $f(p, n)$. But the following example shows a Turing reduction between two uncomputable problems. Define

$$\begin{aligned}\text{NOTHLT} &= \{(p, x) \mid p(x)\uparrow\} \\ \text{HLT} &= \{(p, x) \mid p(x)\downarrow\}\end{aligned}$$

The following is a Turing reduction from NOTHLT to HLT.

```
"{loops( $p, x$ ):
  if  $(p, x) \in \text{HLT}$  then
    return 0
  else
    return 1
}"
```

It is important to recognize that the test $(p, x) \in \text{HLT}$ is done without the need for a program that carries out that test. It is done for free, by the definition of a Turing reduction. That is good because there is no program that solves the halting problem.

11.1.2 Properties of Turing Reductions

Suppose that A and B are computational problems. The following theorem should be obvious. Just use the Turing reduction program.

Theorem 11.7. If $A \leq_t B$ and B is computable, then A is computable.

We can turn that around using a tautology that is related to the law of the contrapositive:

$$(p \wedge q) \rightarrow r \leftrightarrow (p \wedge \neg r) \rightarrow \neg q.$$

Corollary 11.8. If $A \leq_t B$ and A is not computable, then B is not computable.

(A corollary is just a theorem whose proof is obvious or trivial, given a previous theorem.) That suggests a way to prove that a problem B is not computable: choose a problem A that you already know is not computable and show that $A \leq_t B$.

11.1.3 An Intuitive Understanding of Turing Reductions

Definition 11.2 defines what $A \leq_t B$ means. But it can be helpful to have an intuitive understanding to go along with the definition. Let's look at problems from a viewpoint where computational problems come in only two levels of difficulty: a computable problem is considered easy and an uncomputable problem is considered difficult. Then, according to Theorem 11.7 and Corollary 11.8, $A \leq_t B$ indicates that

- (a) A is no harder than B , and
- (b) B is at least as hard as A .

If you keep that intuition in mind, you will make fewer mistakes. For example, we have seen that, if A is uncomputable and $A \leq_t B$, then B is uncomputable too (since it is at least as difficult as uncomputable problem A). What if A is uncomputable and $B \leq_t A$? That only tells you that B is no more difficult than an uncomputable problem. So?

11.2 Mapping Reductions

Mapping reductions are a restricted form of reductions that only work for decision problems, but that have some advantages over Turing reductions for decision problems. (One of those advantages is brevity; mapping reductions are often short and simple.) Suppose that A and B are languages (decision problems).

Definition 11.9. A *mapping reduction* from A to B is a *computable* function f such that, for every x ,

$$x \in A \leftrightarrow f(x) \in B$$

.

Definition 11.10. Say that $A \leq_m B$ provided there exists a mapping reduction from A to B .

11.2.1 Examples of Mapping Reductions

Example 11.11. Suppose that

$$\begin{aligned}A &= \{n \in \mathcal{N} \mid n \text{ is even}\} \\B &= \{n \in \mathcal{N} \mid n \text{ is odd}\}\end{aligned}$$

Function $f(x) = x + 1$ is a mapping reduction from A to B . There is no need to write a program (except to observe that $f(x)$ is computable).

Example 11.12. Suppose that

$$\begin{aligned}A &= \{p \mid p \text{ is a quadratic polynomial in } x \text{ and } p \text{ has a real zero}\} \\B &= \{p \mid p \text{ is a polynomial in } x \text{ and } p \text{ has a real zero}\}\end{aligned}$$

Then $f(x) = x$ is a mapping reduction from A to B .

Example 11.13. Define

$$\begin{aligned}K &= \{p \mid p(p) \downarrow\} \\HLT &= \{(p, x) \mid p(x) \downarrow\}\end{aligned}$$

Then $f(p) = (p, p)$ is a mapping reduction from K to HLT. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned}p \in K &\leftrightarrow p(p) \downarrow \\&\leftrightarrow (p, p) \in HLT.\end{aligned}$$

showing that the requirement $p \in K \leftrightarrow f(p) \in HLT$ of a mapping reduction from K to HLT is met.

11.2.2 Properties of Mapping Reductions

Mapping reductions share some properties with Turing reductions.

Theorem 11.14. If $A \leq_m B$ and B is computable then A is computable.

Proof. Suppose that $A \leq_m B$. That is, there exists a mapping reduction from A to B . Ask someone else to provide a mapping reduction f from A to B . The following program is a Turing reduction from A to B .

```
"{a(x):
  y = f(x)
  if y ∈ B
    return 1
  else
    return 0
}"
```

Since $x \in A \leftrightarrow f(x) \in B$, it should be clear that $a(x)$ computes A . So $A \leq_t B$. Now simply use Theorem 11.7.

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Corollary 11.15. If $A \leq_m B$ and A is not computable then B is not computable.

11.3 Using Turing Reductions to Find Mapping Reductions

Students often find it easier to discover Turing reductions than mapping reductions. One way to discover a mapping reduction is to find a Turing reduction first and to convert that to a mapping reduction. You just need to obey two requirements in the Turing reduction from A to B .

- (a) The Turing reduction must only ask one question about whether a string y is in B .
- (b) The answer that the Turing reduction returns must be the same as the answer (0 or 1) returned by the test $y \in B$.

If you obey those requirements, then you find that your Turing reduction must have the form

```
"{a(x):
  y = f(x)
  if y ∈ B
    return 1
  else
    return 0
}"
```

```
    else
      return 0
  }"
```

The mapping reduction is f .

We showed earlier that, if A and B are defined by

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \{(p, x) \mid p(x) \uparrow\} \\ B &= \{(p, x) \mid p(x) \downarrow\} \end{aligned}$$

then $A \leq_t B$. It is worth noting that $A \not\leq_m B$. The reason is that any Turing reduction from A to B must negate the answer that it gets to the question about membership in B , and that is not allowed in a mapping reduction.

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