

# On Universally Easy Classes for NP-complete Problems

Erik D. Demaine\*

Alejandro López-Ortiz†

J. Ian Munro\*

## Abstract

We explore the natural question of whether all **NP**-complete problems have a common restriction under which they are polynomially solvable. More precisely, we study what languages are *universally easy* in that their intersection with any **NP**-complete problem is in **P**. In particular, we give a polynomial-time algorithm to determine whether a regular language is universally easy. While our approach is language-theoretic, the results bear directly on finding polynomial-time solutions to very broad and useful classes of problems.

## 1 Introduction and Overview

Empirically, it has been observed that some classes of instances result in polynomial-time algorithms for what are otherwise **NP**-complete problems. For example, COLOURING, CLIQUE and INDEPENDENT SET are well-known **NP**-complete problems that have polynomial-time solutions when restricted to interval graphs [7]. But this property is not universal: list coloring in graphs and determining the existence of  $k$  vertex-disjoint paths (where  $k$  is part of the input) remain **NP**-complete for interval graphs [1, 6].

This leads to a natural question about the existence of universally easy classes for **NP**-complete problems. It turns out that such languages exist, and it seems difficult to give a complete characterization. Thus we focus on two natural classes of languages: regular languages and context-free languages. In particular, we characterize precisely which regular languages are universally easy in the sense defined in Section 2.

Various particular restrictions have been studied before; see for example Brandstadt, Le, and Spinrad [8] for a detailed survey of graph classes.

## 2 Definitions

For simplicity of exposition, assume that the alphabet  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ . We use interchangeably the notions of a

language, a decision problem, and a class of instances.

**DEFINITION 2.1.** *The restriction of a problem  $P$  to a class of instances  $C$  is the intersection  $P \cap C$ .*

**DEFINITION 2.2.** *Given an **NP**-complete problem  $P$ , a class  $C$  is a simplifying restriction if the restriction of  $P$  to  $C$  is not **NP**-complete, and  $C$  is a polynomial restriction if there is a polynomial-time Turing machine that recognizes the restriction of  $P$  to  $C$ .*

Of course this definition is vacuous if  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$

**DEFINITION 2.3.** *A language  $C \in \mathbf{NP}$  is universally simplifying if it is a simplifying restriction of all **NP**-complete problems.*

**DEFINITION 2.4.** *A language  $C \in \mathbf{P}$  is universally polynomial if it is a polynomial restriction of all **NP**-complete problems.*

## 3 Easy Languages

A natural question is whether there exist universally simplifying languages if  $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$ . This can be readily answered in the affirmative by noticing that all finite languages are universally polynomially, which is not very enlightening. A more general class to consider is regular languages, which can be characterized according to their simplicity.

**DEFINITION 3.1.** *The growth function of a language  $L$  is the function  $\gamma_L(n) = |\{x \in L : |x| \leq n\}|$ . A language is sparse if its growth function is bounded from above by a polynomial, and is exponentially dense if the growth function is bounded from below by  $2^{\Omega(n)}$ .*

**THEOREM 3.1.** *A sparse language  $L$  is either universally simplifying or universally polynomial.*

*Proof.* Consider a sparse language  $L$ . If it is universally simple, there is nothing to show. If it is not universally simple, there is a problem  $P \subseteq \Sigma^*$  such that the restriction  $P \cap L$  is **NP**-complete. Because  $P \cap L \subseteq L$ , this restriction is also a sparse set, and it is **NP**-complete. Mahaney [5] proved that if a language is sparse and **NP**-complete, then  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$ . Therefore  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$  and consequently  $P \cap L \in \mathbf{P}$  for all **NP**-complete languages  $L$ .  $\square$

\*Department of Computer Science, University of Waterloo, Waterloo, Ontario N2L 3G1, Canada, email: {eddemaine, imunro}@uwaterloo.ca

†Faculty of Computer Science, University of New Brunswick, P. O. Box 4400, Fredericton, N. B. E3B 5A3, Canada, email: alopezo@unb.ca

DEFINITION 3.2. A loop in a DFA  $A$  is a directed cycle in the state graph of  $A$ .

DEFINITION 3.3. Let  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  be two DFA loops such that neither is a subgraph of the other. We say that  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  interlace if there is an accepting computation path in the DFA containing the sequence  $C_1 \cdots C_2 \cdots C_1$  or the sequence  $C_2 \cdots C_1 \cdots C_2$ .

The following theorem was proved by Flajolet [2]. Our proof uses a constructive argument needed for Theorem 3.3.

THEOREM 3.2. Every regular language is either sparse or exponentially dense.

*Proof.* Consider  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  recognized by a DFA  $A$ . If  $L$  is finite, then it is trivially sparse; otherwise, and contains strings of arbitrary length. The pumping lemma states that any DFA accepting a sufficiently large string has at least one loop in its state graph, which can be traversed (pumped) zero or more times.

If  $A$  has no interlacing loops, then each accepting computation  $T_k$  can be written as  $T_k = (s_1, t_1, s_2, t_2, \dots, C_1^*, s_i, t_i, \dots, C_j^*, \dots, q_f)$ , where the  $s_i$ 's are states,  $t_i$ 's are transition symbols,  $C_i$ 's are disjoint loops,  $q_f$  is a final state of  $A$ , and  $s_i \neq s_j$  for all  $i \neq j$ . Notice that, apart from the actual value represented by the Kleene star, there are only finitely many such orderings of states and loops, and thus the language  $L$  can be written as the finite union of  $T_k$ 's. Let  $j_k$  denote the number of loops and  $r_k$  the number of states in  $T_k$ . Then the total number of strings of length  $n$  generated by  $T_k$  is at most  $\binom{n-r_k}{j_k} = O(n^{j_k})$ . A union of finitely many such sets, each with a polynomially bounded number of strings of length  $n$ , is itself polynomially bounded and therefore sparse.

We now proceed to show that a DFA  $A$  with interlacing loops accepts an exponentially dense language. Consider an accepting computation path  $T_k$  of  $A$  with interlacing loops, that is,  $T_k = (s_1, t_1, \dots, C_1, \dots, C_2, \dots, C_1, \dots, q_f)$ . Now we pump a subsequence, obtaining  $T_k = (s_1, t_1, \dots, [C_1^*, \dots, C_2^*, \dots]^*, C_1, \dots, q_f)$ . We replace with a special character  $w_1$  the sequence of transitions taken in the  $(C_1, \dots)$  portion of  $T_k$  above, and with  $w_2$  the transitions in  $(C_2, \dots)$ . Then  $T_k$  can be rewritten as the regular expression  $t_1 \cdots \{w_1, w_2\}^* w_1 \cdots t_f$ . From this it follows that there are at least  $2^{n-r_k}$  strings of length  $n$  in  $(\Sigma \cup \{w_1, w_2\})^*$ . Thus  $\gamma_L(n) \geq 2^{(n-r_k)/m}$ , where  $m = \max\{|w_1|, |w_2|\}$ , which implies  $\gamma_L(n) = 2^{\Omega(n)}$   $\square$

THEOREM 3.3. No exponentially dense regular language  $L$  is universally simplifying.

*Proof.* From the proof of Theorem 3.2 we know that a DFA accepting  $L$  necessarily contains interlacing loops. We define an injective polynomial-time transformation  $F : \Sigma^* \rightarrow L$  as follows. Let  $T_k$  be a computation path with interlacing loops, i.e.,  $T_k = (t_1 \cdots \{w_1, w_2\}^* \cdots t_f)$ . Now we map 0 to  $w_1$ , and 1 to  $w_2$ . So a string  $x_1 x_2 \cdots x_j \in \Sigma^*$  is mapped to  $w_{x_1+1} w_{x_2+1} \cdots w_{x_j+1}$ . Note that  $F$  and its inverse can be computed in polynomial time.

Given any NP-complete language  $P$ , we define  $\hat{P} = \{x \in L : x = F(y) \text{ for some } y \in P\}$ .  $\hat{P}$  is NP-complete, because the  $y$ 's together with polynomial length certificates from  $P$  serve as certificates for  $\hat{P}$ , and  $F$  is a reduction from  $P$  to  $\hat{P}$ . Because  $\hat{P} \subseteq L$ , we have  $\hat{P} \cap L = \hat{P}$ , which is NP-complete. Thus  $L$  is not universally simplifying.  $\square$

COROLLARY 3.1. If an exponentially dense regular language is universally polynomial, then  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$ .

Note that the property of interlacing loops for regular languages, and hence ‘‘easiness,’’ can be tested in polynomial time.

#### 4 Open Problems

Recently the sparse/exponential-density property in Theorem 3.2 has been generalized to context-free languages [3, 4]. We conjecture that our results also generalize to CFLs; the main obstruction is in finding a polynomially constructive proof.

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