

# A logical approach to TFNP

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## A logical approach to TFNP – some references

- Buss, Krajíček 1994  
An application of Boolean complexity to separation problems in bounded arithmetic
- Jeřábek 2009  
Approximate counting by hashing in bounded arithmetic
- Skelley, Thapen 2011  
The provably total search problems of bounded arithmetic
- Beckmann, Buss 2014  
Improved witnessing and local improvement principle for second-order bounded arithmetic
- Kołodziejczyk, Thapen 2018  
Approximate counting and NP search problems

The talk is based on the last paper, which has detailed references.

Total Functional NP

Some logic

Bounded arithmetic and TFNP

Approximate counting and TFNP

## Total Functional NP

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# Total Functional NP

Complexity theory usually studies **decision problems**.

E.g. given a graph, decide whether it has a Hamiltonian path.

We will discuss instead **search problems**.

E.g. given a graph, find and output a Hamiltonian path.

We are interested in search problems where

- the thing being searched for always exists
- it is recognizable in polynomial time
- it is not too big.

The class of such problems is Total Functional NP, or TFNP.

## Two examples

TFNP problems appear in yellow.

### PIGEON

**Input:** a number  $n$  (in binary) and a circuit  $C$

The circuit  $C$  specifies a function  $f : n + 1 \rightarrow n$ .

**Output:** a collision in  $f$ .

That is, distinct  $x, x' < n + 1$  such that  $f(x) = f(x')$ .

### RAMSEY

**Input:** a number  $n$  (in binary) and a circuit  $C$

The circuit  $C$  specifies a graph  $G$  on vertices  $[0, n)$ .

**Output:** A clique or anticlique in  $G$  of size  $\frac{1}{2} \log n$ .

# Formal definition

## Definition

A TFNP problem is specified by a  $p$ -time relation  $R(x, y)$  and a polynomial bound  $p$  satisfying  $\forall x \exists y < 2^{p(|x|)} R(x, y)$ .

We use  $R$  as the name for the problem, suppressing the bound  $p$ .

The variables  $x, y$  range over binary strings, which we identify with natural numbers whenever convenient.

Usually the input  $x$  is a compact description of an exponential size object. In **relativized** problems, this object may be directly described by an oracle.

# Comparing problems

Let  $P, Q$  be problems in TFNP.

$P$  is reducible to  $Q$ , written  $P \leq Q$ , means

“we can efficiently solve  $P$  with the help of one call to  $Q$ ”

## Definition

$P \leq Q$  if there are p-time functions  $f$  and  $g$  such that

$$\forall x \forall z \quad Q(f(x), z) \rightarrow P(x, g(x, z)).$$

$$(\text{“solve } Q \text{ at } f(x)\text{”} \implies \text{“solve } P \text{ at } x\text{”})$$

$P$  is equivalent to  $Q$ , written  $P \equiv Q$ , if  $P \leq Q$  and  $Q \leq P$ .



# Structure of TFNP

FP := problems solvable in p-time.

Other subclasses of TFNP are PPAD, PLS, PPP, ...

These consist of all problems reducible to a specified problem.

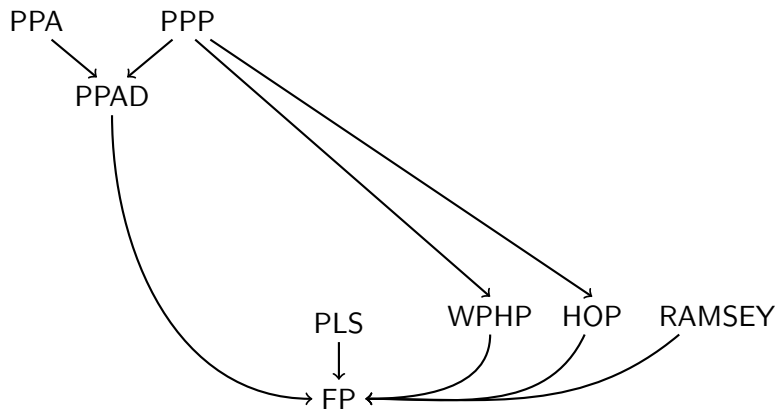
E.g. PPP :=  $\{Q \in \text{TFNP} : Q \leq \text{PIGEON}\}$ .

If  $P=NP$  then all these classes collapse to FP.

Why study the structure of TFNP classes?

- we want to solve search problems
- some are easy (e.g. in FP)
- some appear hard. What are the ways they can be hard?

## Selected TFNP classes



Solid arrows indicate strict containment of one class in another. Equivalently, a reduction  $\leq$  that goes strictly in one direction. (I am not distinguishing carefully between the names of classes and the names of their complete problems.)

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## Background - how strong is a theory?

A **theory** is just a set of sentences (describing properties of the natural numbers).

PA := algebraic axioms + induction for all formulas

$I\Sigma_k$  := algebraic axioms + induction for  $\Sigma_k$  formulas [ $\Sigma_k$ -IND]

$$I\Sigma_0 < I\Sigma_1 < I\Sigma_2 < \dots < \text{PA} < \dots < \text{ATR}_0 < \dots$$

As we move to the right, we can define more recursive functions. That is, we can prove more recursive functions are total. This gives a common measure for quite different theories.

There are sophisticated ways to measure this increase in strength, using ordinals or measuring the growth rate of functions.

# From computability to complexity

We replace recursive functions with TFNP problems.

## Definition

For a theory  $T$ ,

$$\text{TFNP}(T) := \{R \in \text{TFNP} : T \text{ proves } R \text{ is total}\}.$$

What is language is  $T$  in? How do we express “ $R$  is total”?

- The language consists of a name for every  $p$ -time relation and function. E.g.  $x < y$ ,  $x \mapsto 2^{p(|x|)}$  and  $R(x, y)$ .
- “ $R$  is total” is the formal sentence  $\forall x \exists y < 2^{p(|x|)} R(x, y)$ .
- As before, variables are binary strings, identified with numbers.

# A convenient base theory

## Definition

The theory BASE consists of every true sentence of the form  $\forall \bar{x} \phi(\bar{x})$  where  $\phi$  is quantifier free (that is, p-time).

Recall that the condition  $Q \leq P$  is such a sentence, namely

$$\forall x \forall z \quad Q(f(x), z) \rightarrow P(x, g(x, z)).$$

## Proposition

If  $T$  contains BASE, then  $\text{TFNP}(T)$  is closed under reductions. BASE also contains the algebraic axioms of PA.

For our questions, it is harmless to work only with theories containing BASE (called in the literature e.g.  $\forall \text{PV}(\mathbb{N})$ ).

# Examples

$\text{TFNP}(\text{BASE}) = \text{FP}$  (the problems solvable in p-time)

$\text{TFNP}(\text{BASE} + "R \text{ is total}"),$  for some  $R \in \text{TFNP}$

Depends on robustness of  $R$ .

If  $R$  is PLS, this is just PLS.

$\text{TFNP}(\text{PA})$  or  $\text{TFNP}(\text{ZFC}) = \dots?$

Cannot be all of TFNP, unless you add BASE.

"Given a purported proof of  $0 = 1$  in PA, find a mistake"  
is a TFNP problem that PA does not prove is total.

Discussed in [Beckmann 09, Pudlák 17]

$\text{TFNP}(\{\text{all true sentences}\}) = \text{TFNP}$

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# Bounded arithmetic

This is a “resource bounded” version of PA [Buss 85].

## Definition

The theory  $\Sigma_k^P$ -IND consists of

- BASE, and
- the induction axiom for every  $\Sigma_k^P$  formula

The induction axiom for a formula  $\phi$  is

$$\phi(0) \wedge \forall x(\phi(x) \rightarrow \phi(x + 1)) \rightarrow \forall x\phi(x).$$

A  $\Sigma_k^P$  property is one at level  $k$  in the polynomial hierarchy.

$\Sigma_1^P$  is NP,  $\Sigma_2^P$  is  $\text{NP}^{\text{NP}}$ , etc.

We need to specify a particular machine to express a  $\Sigma_k^P$  property in a formula. But it does not matter which one, as BASE proves they are all equivalent.

# Bounded arithmetic

Bounded arithmetic provides a natural way to reason with and about concepts from complexity theory.

Two properties we use here are that it can be translated into small, uniform constant-depth Frege proofs, and the following:

## Theorem [Buss 85]

$\Sigma_k^P$ -IND proves

“Every  $P^{\Sigma_k^P}$  machine has a computation on every input”.

For our purposes,  $\Sigma_k^P$ -IND is equivalent to this statement.

## PLS (SINK OF DAG) [JPY 88]

**Input:** A number  $n$  (in binary) and a circuit  $C$   
 $C$  specifies a DAG  $G$  on  $[0, n)$ , in which node 0 is a source.

**Output:** A sink in  $G$ .

Here DAG means that every edge  $(x, y)$  in  $G$  has  $x < y$ .

This has many natural equivalent problems.

E.g. find a local minimum of a function over a low degree graph.

(Formally, PLS is the class of problems  $\leq$  SINK OF DAG.)

## Theorem [BK 94]

$$\text{TFNP}(\Sigma_1^P\text{-IND}) = \text{PLS}$$

# Coloured Polynomial Local Search

## CPLS [KST 07]

A version of PLS with some extra structure.

Find a sink in a DAG, where each node is labelled with a set of colours that must satisfy some local conditions.

## Theorem

$$\text{TFNP}(\Sigma_2^P\text{-IND}) = \text{CPLS}$$

This principle is useful for proof complexity lower bounds, as it is in some sense the strongest combinatorial principle with a short proof in resolution.

# Game Induction Principle

## $k$ -turn Game Induction Principle, $GI_k$ [ST 11]

**Input:** A sequence of  $k$ -turn, two-player games, together with a winning strategy for Player B in the first game, and functions to change a strategy for game  $i$  into a strategy for game  $i + 1$ .

**Output:** Winning moves for Player B in the last game.

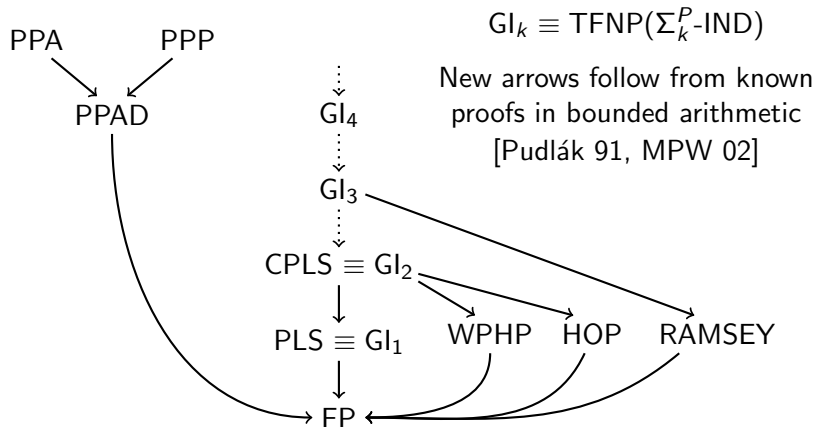
## Theorem

$$\text{TFNP}(\Sigma_k^P\text{-IND}) = GI_k$$

$GI_k$  is equivalent to [PT 12]:

**Generalized PLS**,  $GPLS_k$  - A version of PLS where you have to optimize an alternating min of max of min etc. rather than just find a minimum.

**Polynomial Time Equilibrium**,  $PE_k$  - Find a Nash equilibrium in a  $k$ -turn, succinctly given game, where players can only make  $p$ -time revisions to their strategies.



## Main open problem

For  $k \geq 2$ , show  $Gl_k \not\equiv Gl_{k+1}$ , w.r.t. some oracle.  
 In other words, show  $\Sigma_{k+1}^P\text{-IND}$  is stronger than  $\Sigma_k^P\text{-IND}$ .

## Second order theories

[Buss 85] also introduced “second-order” bounded arithmetic theories. These are similar to  $\Sigma_k^P$ -IND, but also allow quantification over exponentially large objects; essentially oracles.

Two important theories are  $U_2^1$  and its extension  $V_2^1$ .

### Theorem [Buss 85]

$U_2^1$  proves

“Every PSPACE machine has a computation on every input”.

$V_2^1$  proves

“Every EXPTIME machine has a computation on every input”.

For our purposes,  $U_2^1$  and  $V_2^1$  are equivalent to these respective statements.

These are uniform versions of Frege and Extended Frege proof systems.  $U_2^1$  can formalize counting and is very good at proving combinatorial statements.

# Local Improvement Principle

## Local Improvement Principle, LI [KNT 11]

**Input:** A large DAG, with an initial labelling of nodes, and local rules about how to relabel nodes to improve their “score”.

**Output:** A labelling of part of the graph with maximal score.

## Linear Local Improvement Principle, $LLI_{\log}$

A restriction of LI, where the DAG is just a line and scores are at most logarithmic in the size parameter.

## Theorem [KNT 11, BB 14]

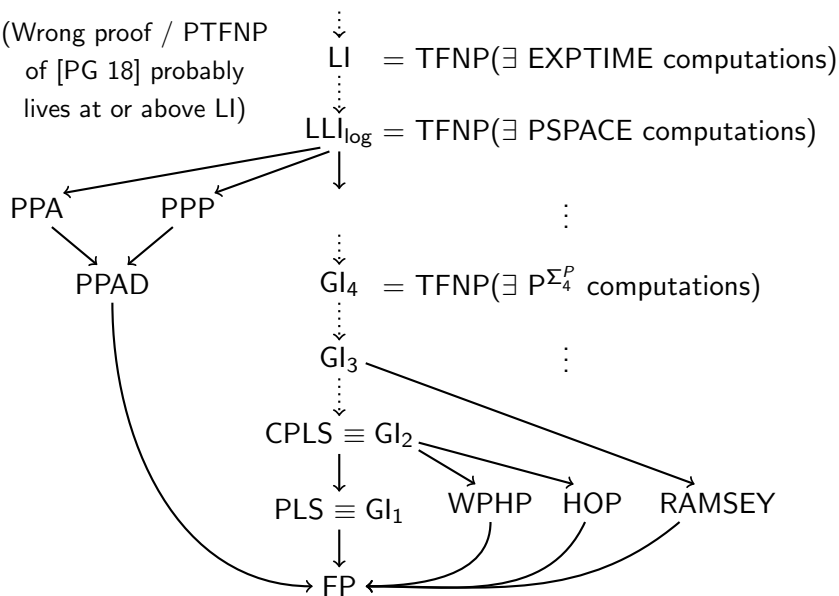
$$\text{TFNP}(U_2^1) = LLI_{\log}$$

$$\text{TFNP}(V_2^1) = \text{LI}$$



# TFNP

(Wrong proof / PTFNP  
of [PG 18] probably  
lives at or above LI)



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**Approximate counting and TFNP**

# Approximate counting

The problems WPHP, HOP and RAMSEY can all be proved total using arguments based on approximate counting.

## Proof of the finite Ramsey Theorem

We are given a graph  $G$  of size  $n$ . Choose the first node in  $G$ . Either it has an edge to at least  $(\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon)n$  other nodes, or it has no edge to at least  $(\frac{1}{2} - \epsilon)n$  other nodes ...

- Q1. Is there a formal theory capturing this kind of counting?
  - Q2. Is **every** TFNP-style principle, provable in first-order bounded arithmetic, already provable in approximate counting?
  - Q3. Is **every** TFNP-style principle, provable in first-order bounded arithmetic, already provable in  $\Sigma_2^P$ -IND / reducible to CPLS?
- A1. Yes
  - A2. No (at least relative to an oracle)
  - A3. This is the main open problem again

# Approximate counting

## Definition [Jeřábek 09]

The theory  $\text{APC}_2$  consists of

- $\Sigma_1^P$ -IND, and
- $\text{rWPHP}(\text{P}^{\text{NP}})$ , the  $\text{P}^{\text{NP}}$  retraction weak pigeonhole principle stating there is no  $\text{P}^{\text{NP}}$  surjection  $n \rightarrow 2n$ . with  $\text{P}^{\text{NP}}$  inverse.

## Theorem [Jeřábek 09]

In  $\text{APC}_2$  we can express “a set  $X$  has size approximately  $n$ , with some multiplicative error” and can formalize proofs using this notion, such as the Ramsey theorem, the tournament principle, etc.

## Theorem [KT 18]

$\text{APC}_2$  does not prove that CPLS is total.

# Proof that $APC_2$ does not prove CPLS is total, part 1

## Definition

A  $\Sigma_2^P$  search problem is like a TFNP problem, except that the relation  $R(x, y)$  is coNP, rather than p-time.

Given a purported solution to such a problem, there may be a counterexample, showing that it is not a solution.

## Definition

A TFNP problem  $Q(x, y)$  is **PLS counterexample reducible** to a  $\Sigma_2^P$  search problem  $R(x', y')$  if we can solve  $Q$  as follows:

1. Given  $x$ , compute in p-time an instance  $x'$  of  $R$ .
2. Let  $y'$  be a purported solution of  $R$  satisfying  $R(x', y')$ .
3. Compute  $y$  from  $x$  and  $y'$  by solving a PLS problem.
4. Either  $y$  is a solution satisfying  $Q(x, y)$ , or  $y$  is a counterexample witnessing that  $R(x', y')$  is false.

## Proof that $APC_2$ does not prove CPLS is total, part 2

We formalize the  $P^{NP}$  retraction weak pigeonhole principle as a class  $rWPHP_2$  of  $\Sigma_2^P$  search problems.

### Definition

The class APPROX consists of all TFNP problems which are PLS counterexample reducible to problems in  $rWPHP_2$ .

### Theorem

$APPROX = TFNP(APC_2)$

### Theorem

$CPLS \notin APPROX$ , relative to an oracle.

# Proof that $APC_2$ does not prove CPLS is total, last part

Theorem (from last slide)

$CPLS \notin APPROX$ , relative to an oracle.

**Proof.** We use a random restriction and a kind of switching lemma, developed in [PT 19], to construct a partial oracle  $\alpha$  for an instance of CPLS such that

- $\alpha$  does not contain a solution to CPLS
- $\alpha$  fixes replies to every NP query made by a  $P^{NP}$  machine on most inputs, and thus the output of the machine, for a suitable notion of “fixes”.

We show that  $\alpha$  contains a purported solution  $y'$  to our  $rWPHP(P^{NP})$  problem, but it is still hard to find a solution to CPLS in  $\alpha$  or to find a counterexample witnessing that  $y'$  is not a solution to  $rWPHP(P^{NP})$ , even if we have the power to solve PLS problems. □

