Complexity Theory

Up to this point:

"*Can* computers solve this problem?"

(**Computability Theory**)

Up to this point:

“*Can* computers solve this problem?”

(**Computability Theory**)

Up to this point:

"*Can* computers solve this problem?"

(**Computability Theory**)

Starting today:

"Ok, even if we *can*, we need to consider whether the time/resources required actually make practical/feasible sense."

(**Complexity Theory**)

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**			
7	**128**			
8	**256**			
9	**512**			
10	**1,024**			
30	**2,070,000,000**			

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**			
7	**128**			
8	**256**			
9	**512**			
10	**1,024**			
30	**2,070,000,000**			

2.4s

Easy!

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**	384	4,096	1.84×10^{19}
7	**128**			
8	**256**			
9	**512**			
10	**1,024**			
30	**2,070,000,000**			

194 **YEARS**

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**	384	4,096	1.84×10^{19}
7	**128**	896	16,384	3.40×10^{38}
8	**256**			
9	**512**			
10	**1,024**			
30	**2,070,000,000**			

3.59E+21 **YEARS**

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**	384	4,096	1.84×10^{19}
7	**128**	896	16,384	3.40×10^{38}
8	**256**			
9	**512**			
10	**1,024**			
30	**2,070,000,000**			

3,590,000,000,000,000,000,000
YEARS

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**	384	4,096	1.84×10^{19}
7	**128**	896	16,384	3.40×10^{38}
8	**256**	2,048	65,536	1.16×10^{77}
9	**512**			
10	**1,024**			
30	**2,070,000,000**			

For comparison: there are about 10E+80 atoms in the universe. No big deal.

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**	384	4,096	1.84×10^{19}
7	**128**	896	16,384	3.40×10^{38}
8	**256**	2,048	65,536	1.16×10^{77}
9	**512**	4,608	262,144	1.34×10^{154}
10	**1,024**			
30	**2,070,000,000**			

1.42E+137 **YEARS**

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**	384	4,096	1.84×10^{19}
7	**128**	896	16,384	3.40×10^{38}
8	**256**	2,048	65,536	1.16×10^{77}
9	**512**	4,608	262,144	1.34×10^{154}
10	**1,024**	10,240 (.000003s)	1,048,576 (.0003s)	1.80×10^{308}
30	**2,070,000,000**	64,062,560,941 (35s)	4,284,900,000,000,000,000 (75 years)	LOL

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**	384	4,096	1.84×10^{19}
7	**128**	896	16,384	3.40×10^{38}
8	**256**	2,048	65,536	1.16×10^{77}
9	**512**	4,608	262,144	1.34×10^{154}
10	**1,024**	10,240 (.000003s)	1,048,576 (.0003s)	1.80×10^{308}
30	**2,070,000,000**	64,062,560,941 (35s)	4,284,900,000,000,000,000 (75 years)	$1.06 \times 10^{623,132,091}$

$1.86 \times 10^{623,132,074}$ years

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**	384	4,096	1.84×10^{19}
7	**128**	896	16,384	3.40×10^{38}
8	**256**	2,048	65,536	1.16×10^{77}
9	**512**	4,608	262,144	1.34×10^{154}
10	**1,024**	10,240 (.000003s)	1,048,576 (.0003s)	1.80×10^{308}
30	**2,070,000,000**	**64,062,560,941 (35s)**	4,284,900,000,000,000, 000 (75 years)	$1.06 \times 10^{623,132,091}$

2^n is clearly infeasible, but **look at $\log_2 n$ —only a tiny fraction of a second!**

$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	2^n
2	**4**	8	16	16
3	**8**	24	64	256
4	**16**	64	256	65,536
5	**32**	160	1,024	4,294,967,296
6	**64**	384	4,096	1.84×10^{19}
7	**128**	896	16,384	3.40×10^{38}
8	**256**	2,048	65,536	1.16×10^{77}
9	**512**	4,608	262,144	1.34×10^{154}
10	**1,024**	10,240 (.000003s)	1,048,576 (.0003s)	1.80×10^{308}
30	**2,070,000,000**	**64,062,560,941 (35s)**	4,284,900,000,000,000 (75 years)	$1.06 \times 10^{623,132,091}$

Key question: If we just want two buckets, where do we draw the dividing line?

A Decidable Problem

- ***Presburger arithmetic*** is a logical system for reasoning about arithmetic.
  - $\forall x.\ x + 1 \neq 0$
  - $\forall x.\ \forall y.\ (x + 1 = y + 1 \rightarrow x = y)$
  - $\forall x.\ x + 0 = x$
  - $\forall x.\ \forall y.\ (x + y) + 1 = x + (y + 1)$
  - $(P(0) \wedge \forall y.\ (P(y) \rightarrow P(y + 1))) \rightarrow \forall x.\ P(x)$
- Given a statement, it is decidable whether that statement can be proven from the laws of Presburger arithmetic.
- Any Turing machine that decides whether a statement in Presburger arithmetic is true or false has to move its tape head at least $2^{2^{cn}}$ times on some inputs of length n (for some fixed constant $c \geq 1$).

For Reference

- Assume $c = 1$.

$$2^{2^0} = 2$$
$$2^{2^1} = 4$$
$$2^{2^2} = 16$$
$$2^{2^3} = 256$$
$$2^{2^4} = 65536$$
$$2^{2^5} = 18446744073709551616$$
$$2^{2^6} = 340282366920938463463374607431768211456$$

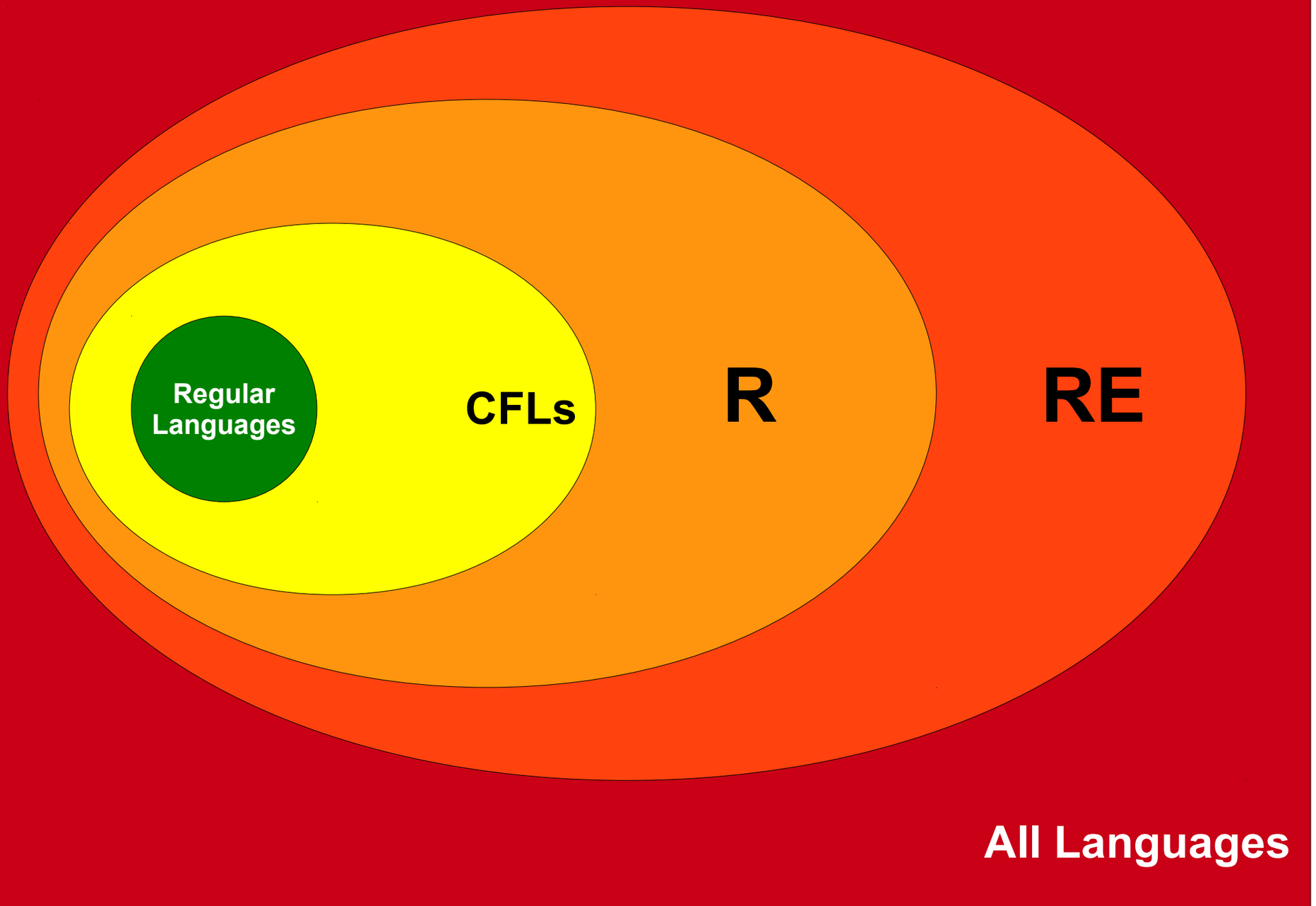
  - (this is 500+ years)
- $n = 7$ would take time longer than the age of the universe

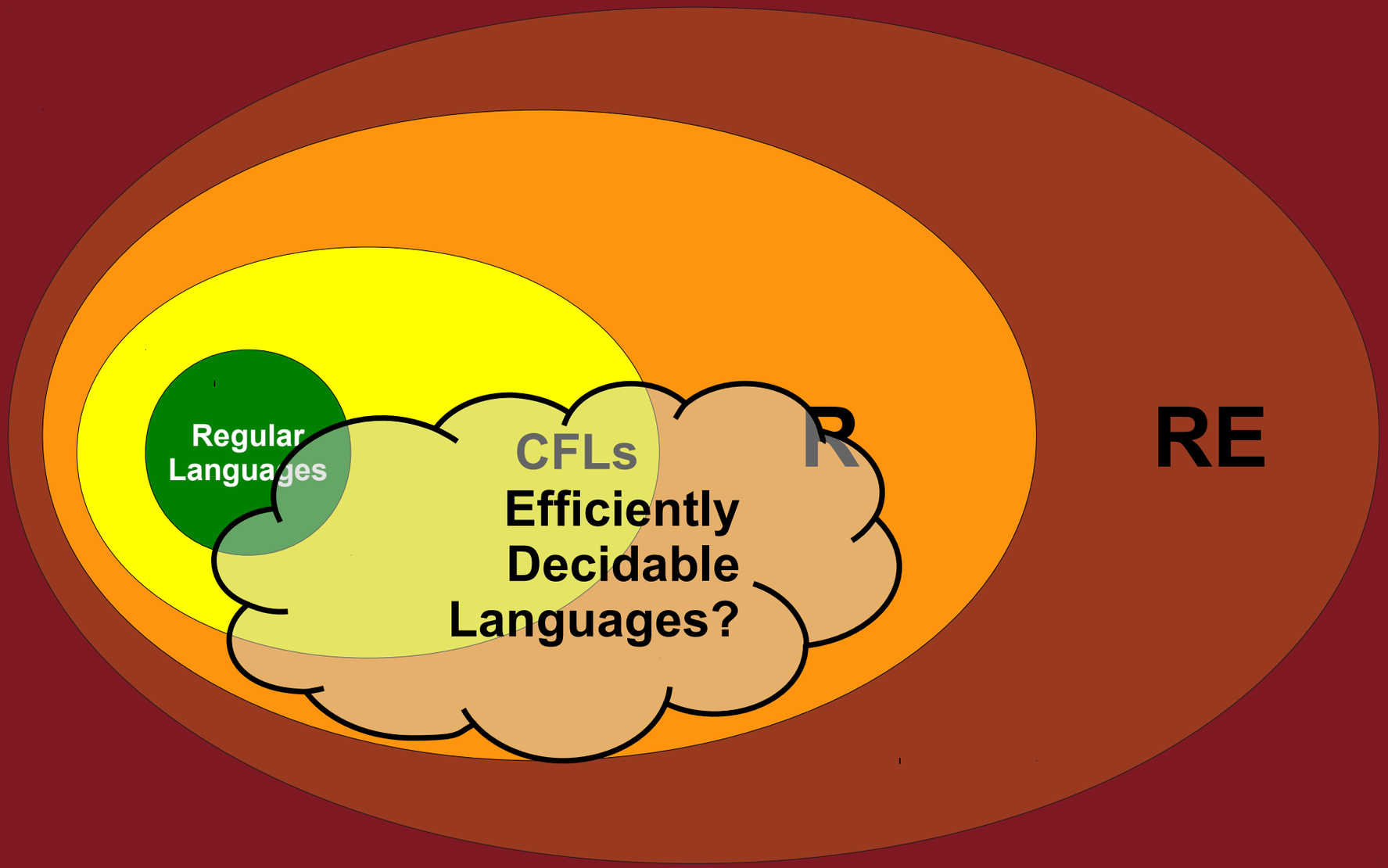
Where We've Been

- The class **R** represents problems that can be **solved** by a computer.
- The class **RE** represents problems where “yes” answers can be **verified** by a computer.

Where We're Going

- The class **P** represents problems that can be **solved** *efficiently* by a computer.
- The class **NP** represents problems where “yes” answers can be **verified** *efficiently* by a computer.


Regular Languages
CFLs
R
RE
All Languages


Regular Languages
CFLs
Efficiently Decidable Languages?
R
RE
All Languages

Measuring Complexity

- Suppose that we have a decider D for some language L.
- How might we measure the complexity of D?

Measuring Complexity

- Suppose that we have a decider D for some language L.
- How might we measure the complexity of D?
  - Number of states.
  - Size of tape alphabet.
  - Size of input alphabet.
  - Amount of tape required.
  - Amount of time required.
  - Number of times a given state is entered.
  - Number of times a given symbol is printed.
  - Number of times a given transition is taken.
  - (Plus a whole lot more...)

Measuring Complexity

- Suppose that we have a decider D for some language L.
- How might we measure the complexity of D?
  - Number of states.
  - Size of tape alphabet.
  - Size of input alphabet.
  - Amount of tape required.
  - Amount of time required.
  - Number of times a given state is entered.
  - Number of times a given symbol is printed.
  - Number of times a given transition is taken.
  - (Plus a whole lot more...)

What is an efficient algorithm?

Searching Finite Spaces

- Many decidable problems can be solved by searching over a large but finite space of possible options.
- Searching this space might take a staggeringly long time, but only finite time.
  - Recommended reading: *A Short Stay in Hell*, by Steven Peck
- From a decidability perspective, this is totally fine!
- From a complexity perspective, this may be totally unacceptable.

Defining Efficiency

- When dealing with problems that search for the “best” object of some sort, there are often at least exponentially many possible options.
- Brute-force solutions tend to take at least exponential time to complete.
- Clever algorithms often run in time $O(n)$, or $O(n^2)$, or $O(n^3)$, etc.

Polynomials and Exponentials

- An algorithm runs in ***polynomial time*** if its runtime is some polynomial in n.
  - That is, time $O(n^k)$ for some constant k.
- Polynomial functions "scale well."
  - Small changes to the size of the input do not typically induce enormous changes to the overall runtime.
- Exponential functions scale terribly.
  - Small changes to the size of the input induce huge changes in the overall runtime.

The Cobham-Edmonds Thesis

A language L can be ***decided efficiently*** if there is a TM that decides it in polynomial time.

Equivalently, L can be decided efficiently if it can be decided in time $O(n^k)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$.

Like the Church-Turing thesis, this is ***not*** a theorem!

It's an assumption about the nature of efficient computation, and it is somewhat controversial.

The Cobham-Edmonds Thesis

According to the Cobham-Edmonds thesis, how many of the following runtimes are considered efficient?

$4n^2 - 3n + 137$

10^{500}

2^n

1.000000000001^n

$n^{1{,}000{,}000{,}000{,}000}$

$n^{\log n}$

The Cobham-Edmonds Thesis

- Efficient runtimes:
  - $4n + 13$
  - $n^3 - 2n^2 + 4n$
  - $n \log \log n$
- Inefficient runtimes:
  - 2^n
  - $n!$
  - n^n
- “Efficient” runtimes:
  - $n^{1,000,000,000,000}$
  - 10^{500}
- “Inefficient” runtimes:
  - $n^{0.0001 \log n}$
  - 1.000000001^n

Why Polynomials?

- Polynomial time *somewhat* captures efficient computation, but has a few edge cases.
- However, polynomials have very nice mathematical properties:
  - The sum of two polynomials is a polynomial. (Running one efficient algorithm, then another, gives an efficient algorithm.)
  - The product of two polynomials is a polynomial. (Running one efficient algorithm a “reasonable” number of times gives an efficient algorithm.)
  - The *composition* of two polynomials is a polynomial. (Using the output of one efficient algorithm as the input to another efficient algorithm gives an efficient algorithm.)

The Complexity Class **P**

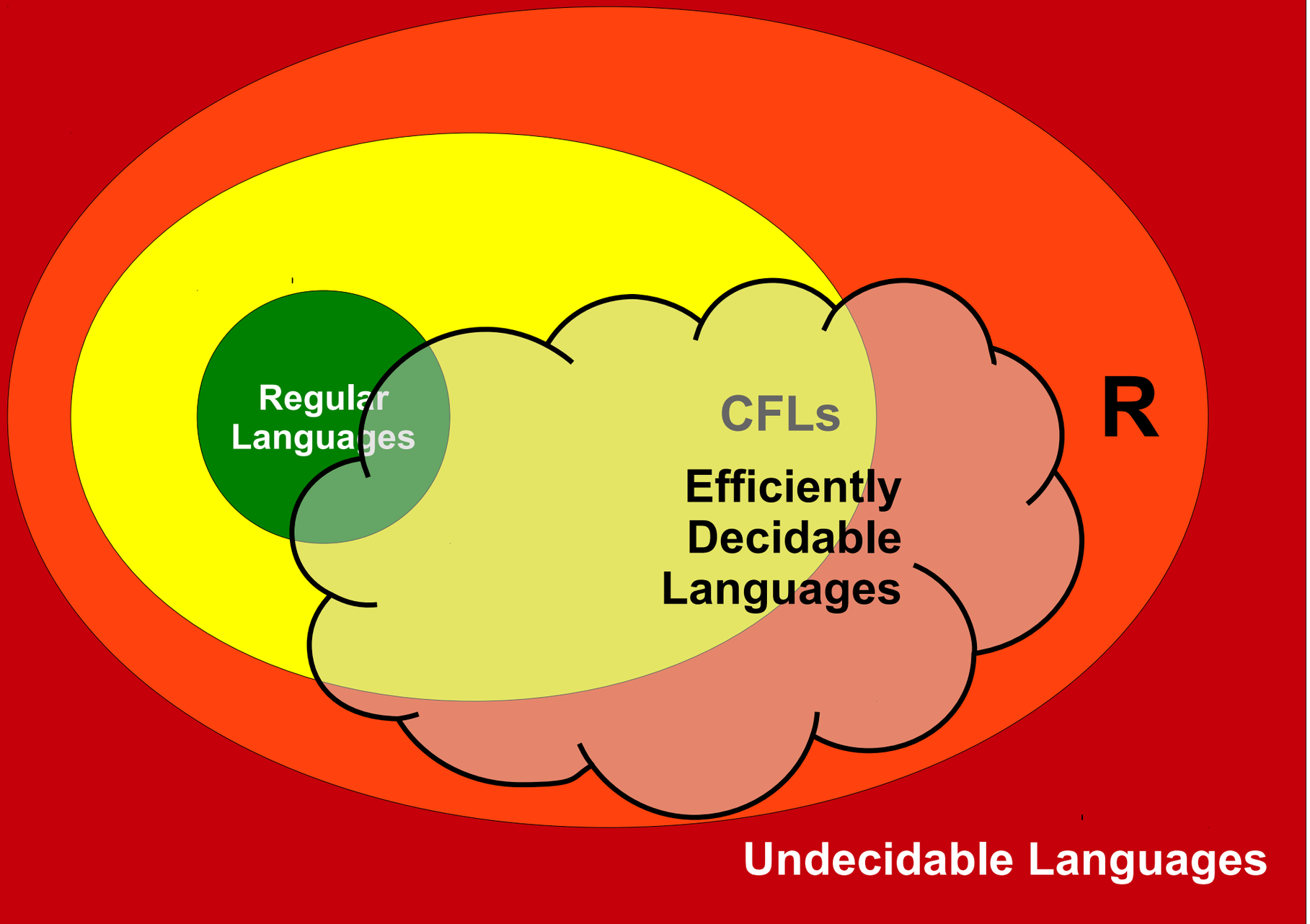
- The ***complexity class* P** (for ***p***olynomial time) contains all problems that can be solved in polynomial time.
- Formally:

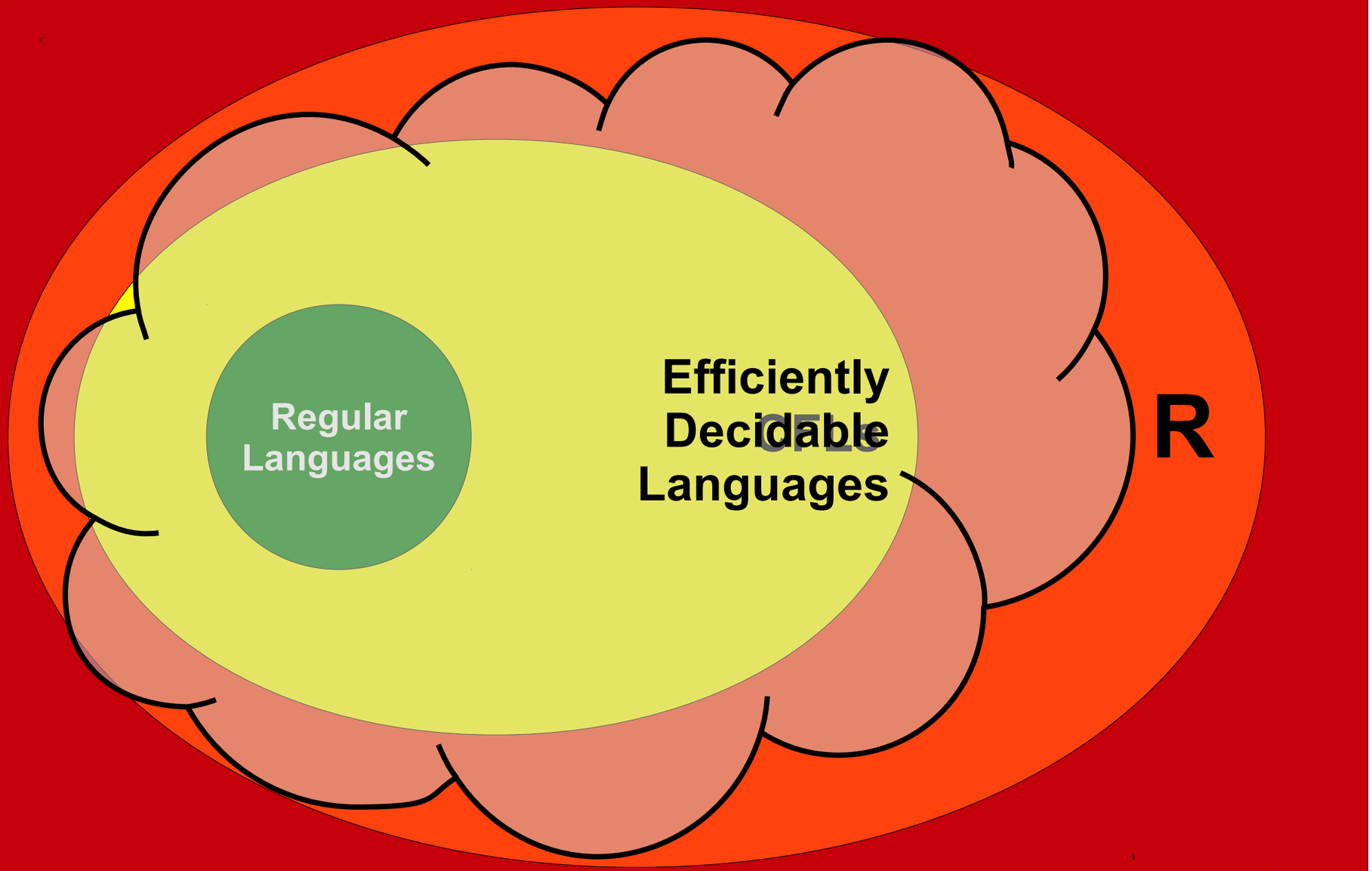
  P = { L | There is a polynomial-time decider for L }

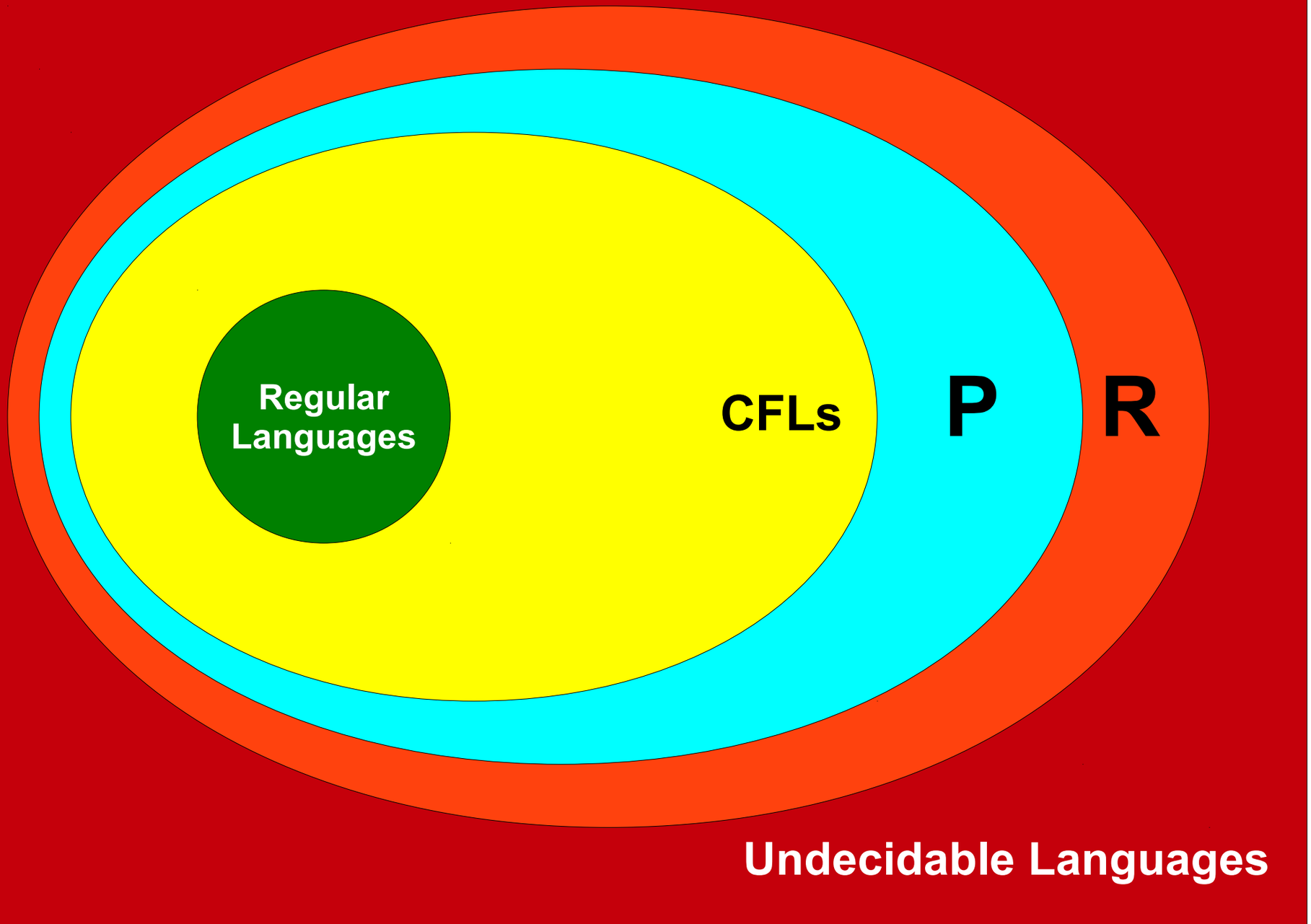
- Assuming the Cobham-Edmonds thesis, a language is in **P** if it can be decided efficiently.

Examples of Problems in **P**

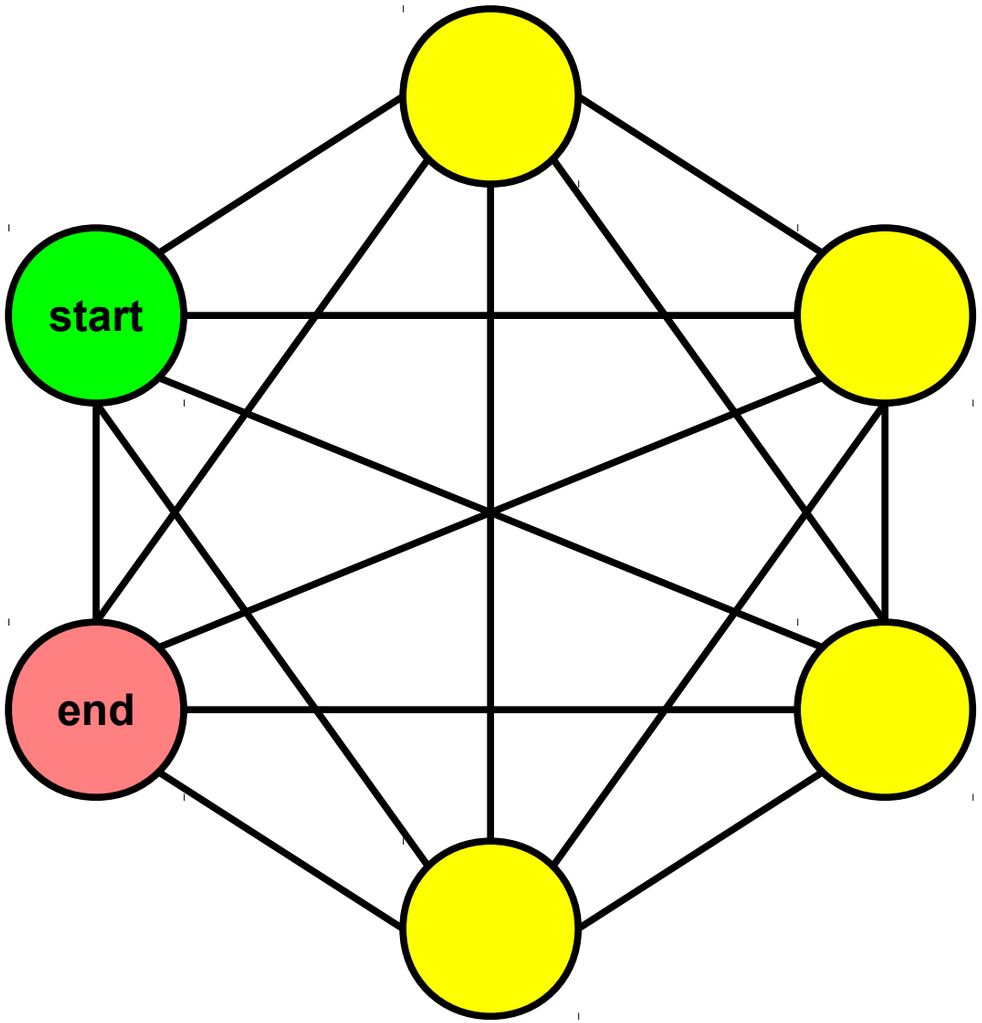
- All regular languages are in **P**.
  - All have linear-time TMs.
- All CFLs are in **P**.
  - Requires a more nuanced argument (the *CYK algorithm* or *Earley's algorithm*)
- And a *ton* of other problems are in **P** as well.
  - Curious? Take CS161!


Regular Languages
CFLs
Efficiently Decidable Languages
R
Undecidable Languages


Regular Languages
Efficiently Decidable Languages
CFLs
R
Undecidable Languages


Regular Languages
CFLs
P
R
Undecidable Languages

What *can't* you do in polynomial time?



How many simple paths are there from the start node to the end node?

{ 

, 

, 

, 

}

List all the subsets of a given set.

Calculate 2^n for a given n, where the input and output are both written in unary (base 1).

An Interesting Observation

- There are (at least) exponentially many objects of each of the preceding types.
- However, each of those objects is not very large.
  - Each simple path has length no longer than the number of nodes in the graph.
  - Each subset of a set has no more elements than the original set.
- This brings us to our next topic…

What if you need to search a large space for a single object?

Verifiers – Again

		7		6		1		
					3		5	2
3			1		5	9		7
6		5		3		8		9
	1						2	
8		2		1		5		4
1		3	2		7			8
5	7		4					
		4		8		7		

Does this Sudoku problem have a solution?

Verifiers – Again

2	5	7	9	6	4	1	8	3
4	9	1	8	7	3	6	5	2
3	8	6	1	2	5	9	4	7
6	4	5	7	3	2	8	1	9
7	1	9	5	4	8	3	2	6
8	3	2	6	1	9	5	7	4
1	6	3	2	5	7	4	9	8
5	7	8	4	9	6	2	3	1
9	2	4	3	8	1	7	6	5

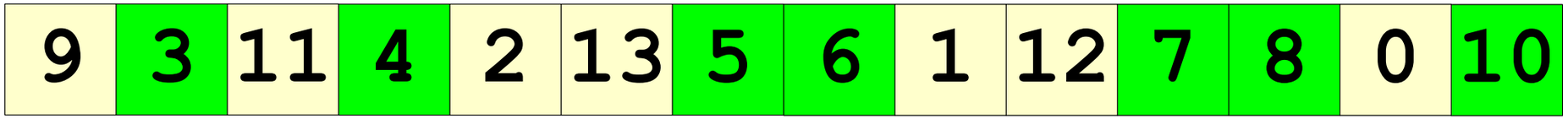
Does this Sudoku problem have a solution?

Verifiers – Again

9	3	11	4	2	13	5	6	1	12	7	8	0	10

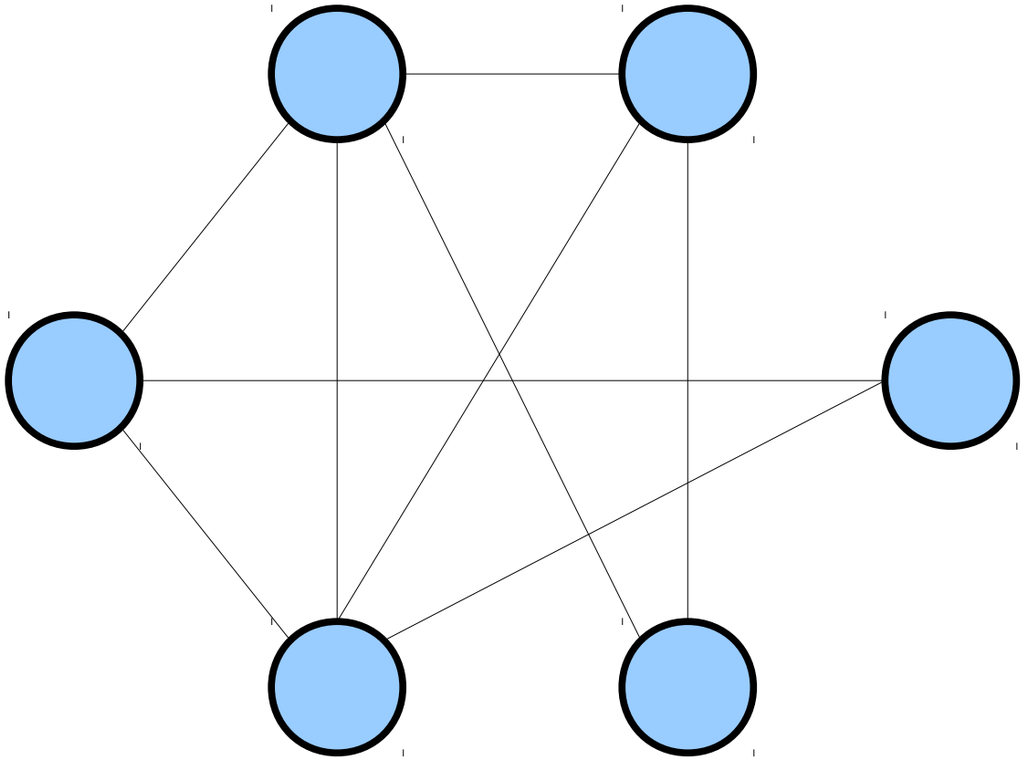
Is there an ascending subsequence of length at least 7?

Verifiers – Again



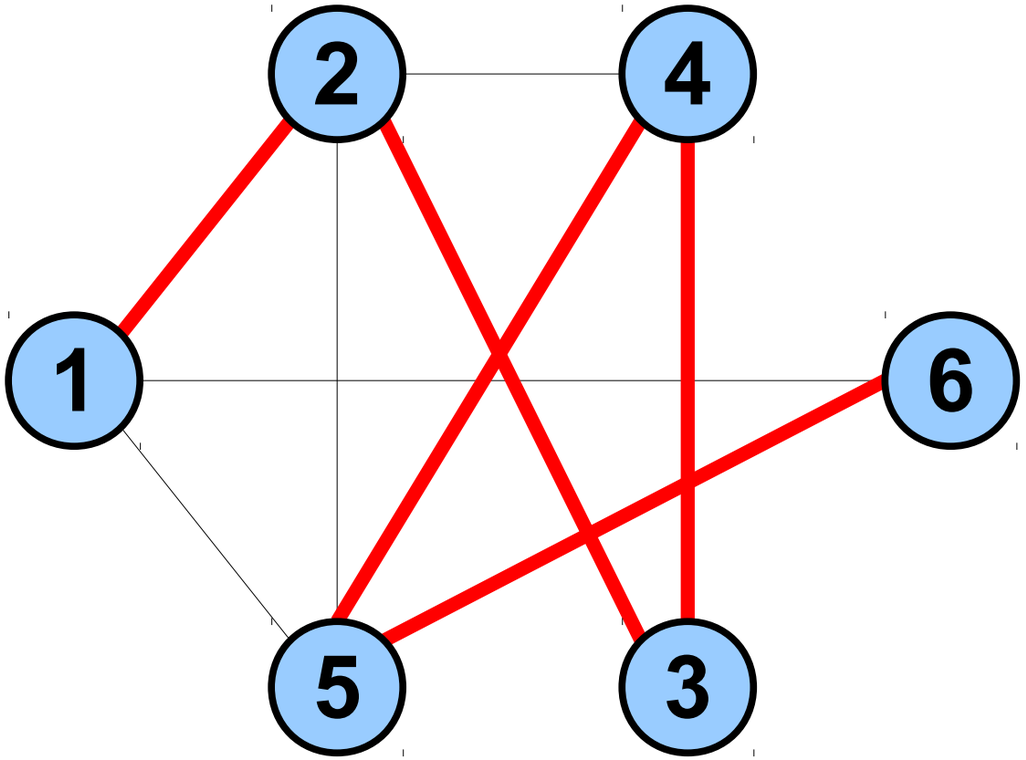
Is there an ascending subsequence of length at least 7?

Verifiers – Again



Is there a simple path that goes through every node exactly once?

Verifiers – Again



Is there a simple path that goes through every node exactly once?

Verifiers

- Recall that a ***verifier*** for L is a TM V such that
  - V halts on all inputs.
  - $w \in L$ iff $\exists c \in \Sigma^*$. V accepts $\langle w, c \rangle$.

Polynomial-Time Verifiers

- A ***polynomial-time verifier*** for L is a TM V such that
  - V halts on all inputs.
  - $w \in L$ iff $\exists c \in \Sigma^*$. V accepts $\langle w, c \rangle$.
  - V's runtime is a polynomial in $|w|$ (that is, V's runtime is $O(|w|^k)$ for some integer k)

The Complexity Class **NP**

- The complexity class **NP** (***nondeterministic polynomial time***) contains all problems that can be verified in polynomial time.
- Formally:

$$\textbf{NP} = \{ L \mid \text{There is a polynomial-time verifier for } L \}$$

- The name **NP** comes from another way of characterizing **NP**. If you introduce *nondeterministic Turing machines* and appropriately define "polynomial time," then **NP** is the set of problems that an NTM can solve in polynomial time.
- Although it's not immediately obvious, $\textbf{NP} \subsetneq \textbf{R}$. Come talk to me after class if you're curious why!

And now...

The

Most Important Question

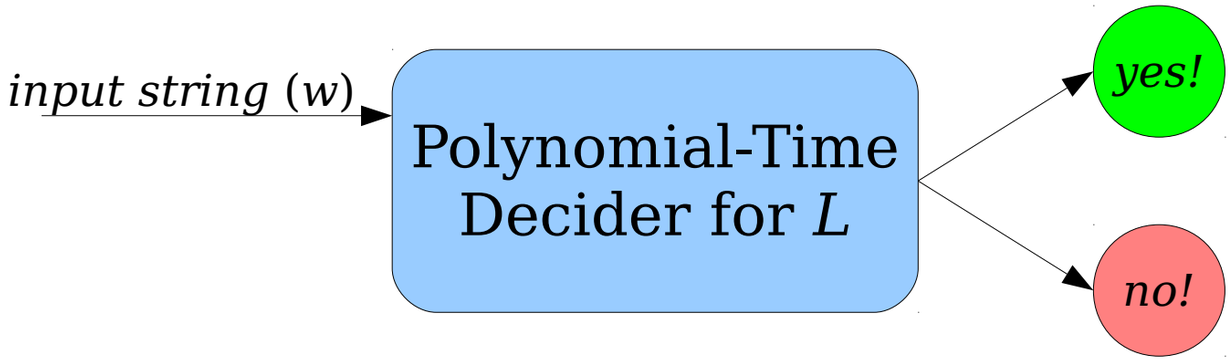
in

Theoretical Computer Science

What is the connection between **P** and **NP**?

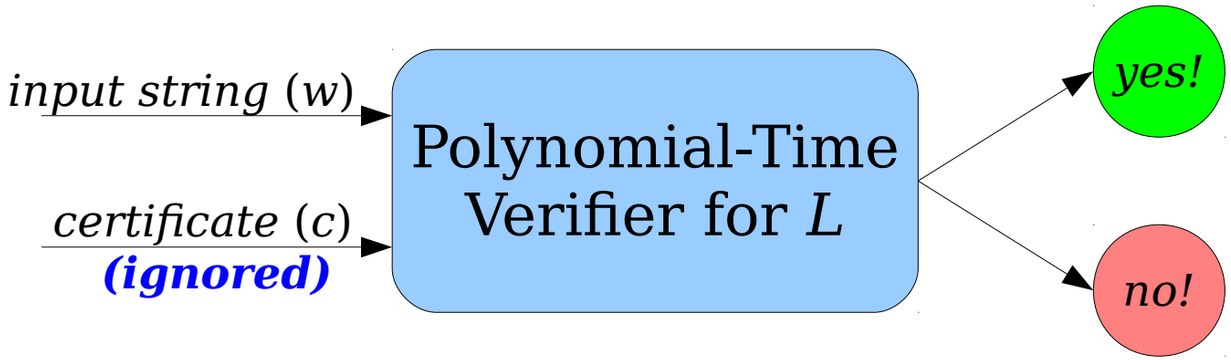
P = { L | There is a polynomial-time decider for L }

NP = { L | There is a polynomial-time verifier for L }



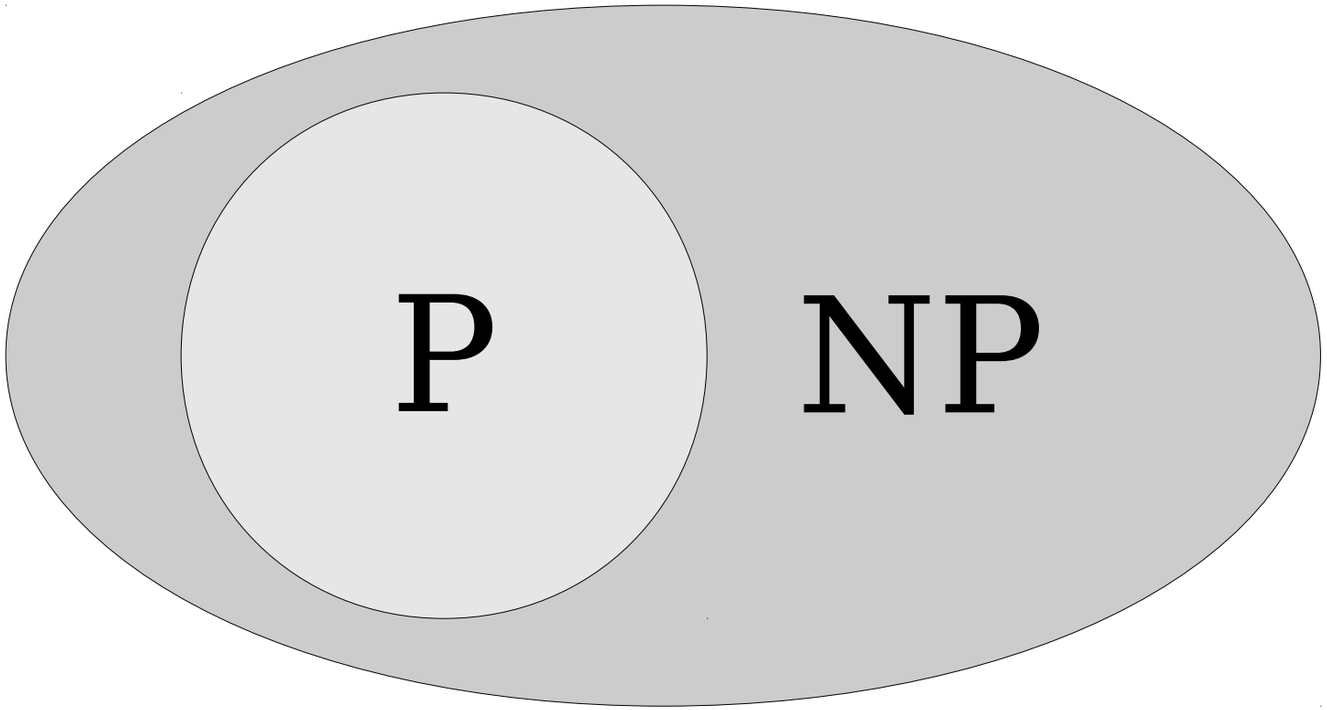
P = { L | There is a polynomial-time decider for L }

NP = { L | There is a polynomial-time verifier for L }

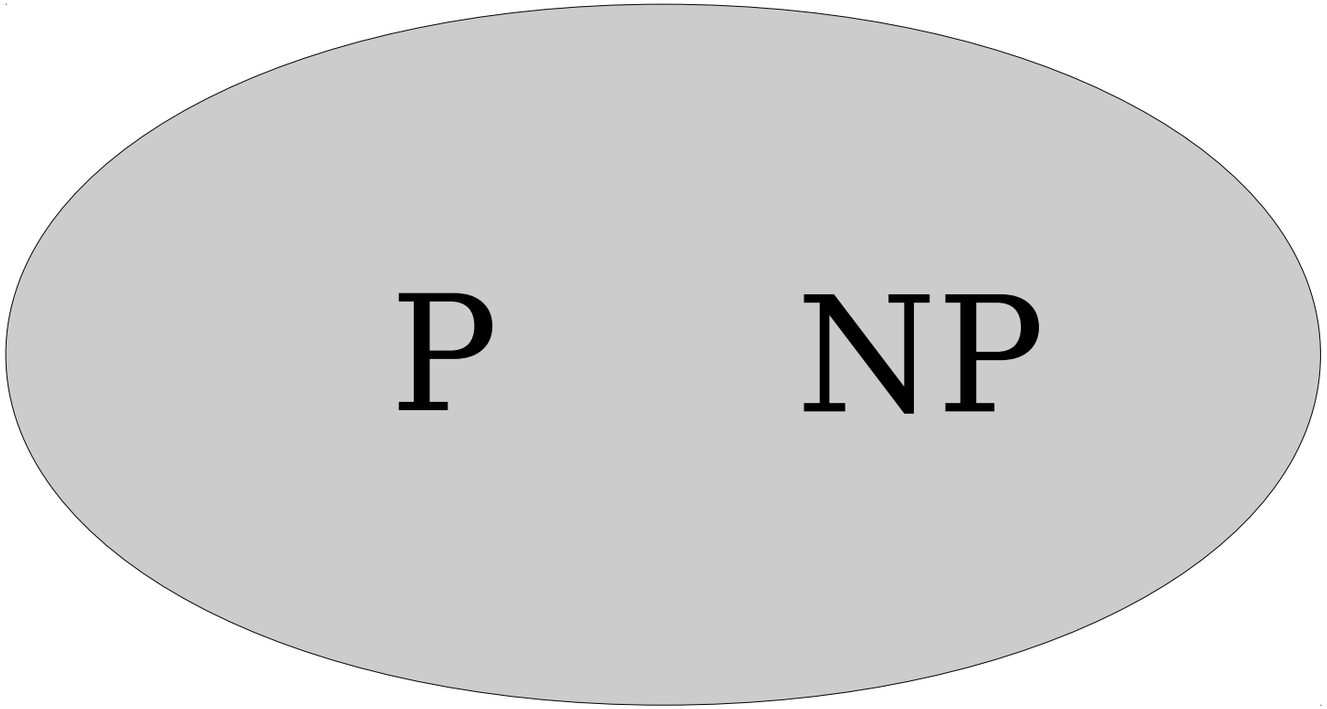


P ⊆ NP

Which Picture is Correct?



Which Picture is Correct?



Does **P = NP**?

$\mathbf{P \stackrel{?}{=} NP}$

- The $\mathbf{P \stackrel{?}{=} NP}$ question is the most important question in theoretical computer science.
- With the verifier definition of **NP**, one way of phrasing this question is

  *If a solution to a problem can be **checked** efficiently, can that problem be **solved** efficiently?*

- An answer either way will give fundamental insights into the nature of computation.

Why This Matters

- The following problems are known to be efficiently verifiable, but have no known efficient solutions:
  - Determining whether an electrical grid can be built to link up some number of houses for some price (Steiner tree problem).
  - Determining whether a simple DNA strand exists that multiple gene sequences could be a part of (shortest common supersequence).
  - Determining the best way to assign hardware resources in a compiler (optimal register allocation).
  - Determining the best way to distribute tasks to multiple workers to minimize completion time (job scheduling).
  - ***And many more***.
- If **P = NP**, ***all*** of these problems have efficient solutions.
- If **P ≠ NP**, ***none*** of these problems have efficient solutions.

Why This Matters

- If **P = NP**:
  - A huge number of seemingly difficult problems could be solved efficiently.
  - Our capacity to solve many problems will scale well with the size of the problems we want to solve.
- If **P ≠ NP**:
  - Enormous computational power would be required to solve many seemingly easy tasks.
  - Our capacity to solve problems will fail to keep up with our curiosity.

What We Know

- Resolving **P** $\stackrel{?}{=}$ **NP** has proven ***extremely difficult***.
- In the past 45 years:
  - Not a single correct proof either way has been found.
  - Many types of proofs have been shown to be insufficiently powerful to determine whether **P** $\stackrel{?}{=}$ **NP**.
  - A majority of computer scientists believe **P** ≠ **NP**, but this isn't a large majority.
- Interesting read: Interviews with leading thinkers about **P** $\stackrel{?}{=}$ **NP**:
  - http://web.ing.puc.cl/~jabaier/iic2212/poll-1.pdf

The Million-Dollar Question

The Clay Mathematics Institute has offered a ***$1,000,000 prize*** to anyone who proves or disproves **P = NP**.

Do you think **P = NP**?

What do we know about $\mathbf{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{NP}$?

Adapting our Techniques

A Problem

- The **R** and **RE** languages correspond to problems that can be decided and verified, *period*, without any time bounds.
- To reason about what's in **R** and what's in **RE**, we used two key techniques:
  - ***Universality***: TMs can run other TMs as subroutines.
  - ***Self-Reference***: TMs can get their own source code.
- Why can't we just do that for **P** and **NP**?

Theorem (Baker-Gill-Solovay): Any proof that purely relies on universality and self-reference cannot resolve $\mathbf{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{NP}$.

Proof: Take CS154!

So how *are* we going to reason about **P** and **NP**?

Complexity Theory

Part Two

Recap from Last Time

The Complexity Class **P**

- The ***complexity class* P** (for ***p***olynomial time) contains all problems that can be solved in polynomial time.
- Formally:

$$\mathbf{P} = \{ L \mid \text{There is a polynomial-time decider for } L \}$$

The Complexity Class **NP**

- The complexity class **NP** (***nondeterministic polynomial time***) contains all problems that can be verified in polynomial time.
- Formally:

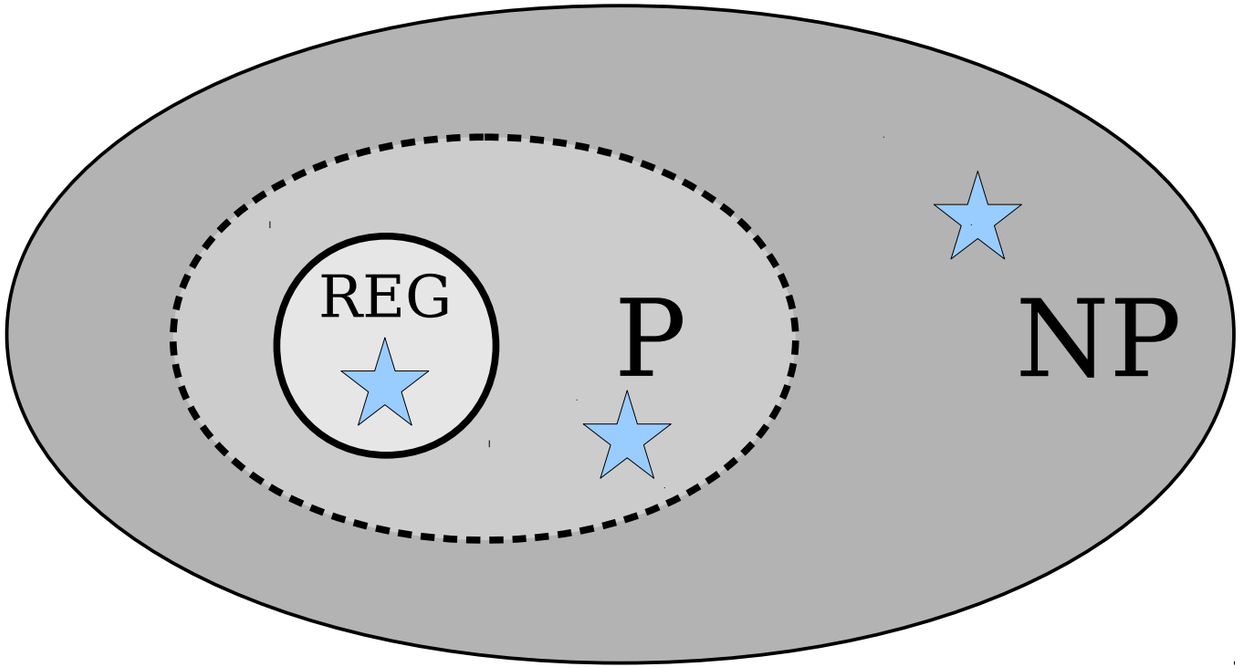
  NP = { L | There is a polynomial-time verifier for L }

- This means a verifier V's runtime is a polynomial in $|w|$ (that is, V's runtime is $O(|w|^k)$ for some integer k).

So how *are* we going to reason about **P** and **NP**?

New Stuff!

A Challenge



Problems in **NP** vary widely in their difficulty, even if **P** = **NP**.

How can we rank the relative difficulties of problems?

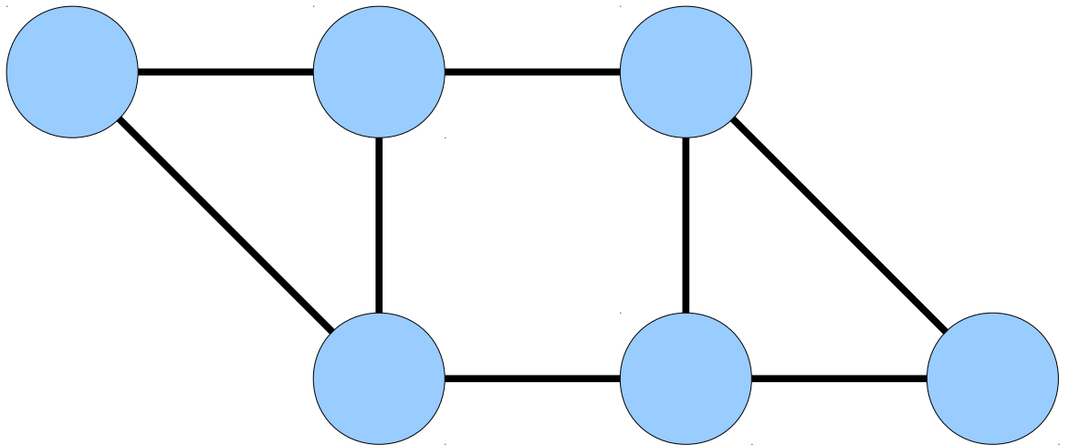
Reducibility

Maximum Matching

- Given an undirected graph G, a ***matching*** in G is a set of edges such that no two edges share an endpoint.
- A ***maximum matching*** is a matching with the largest number of edges.

Maximum Matching

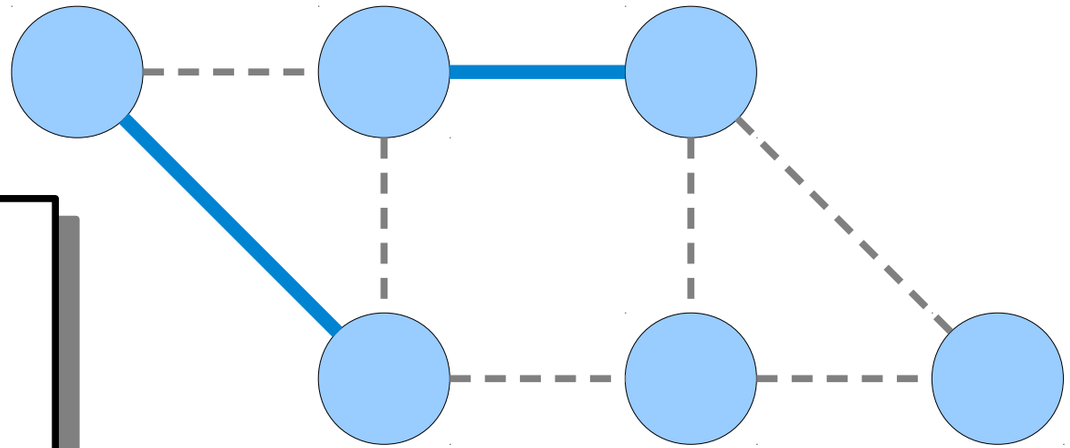
- Given an undirected graph G, a ***matching*** in G is a set of edges such that no two edges share an endpoint.
- A ***maximum matching*** is a matching with the largest number of edges.



Maximum Matching

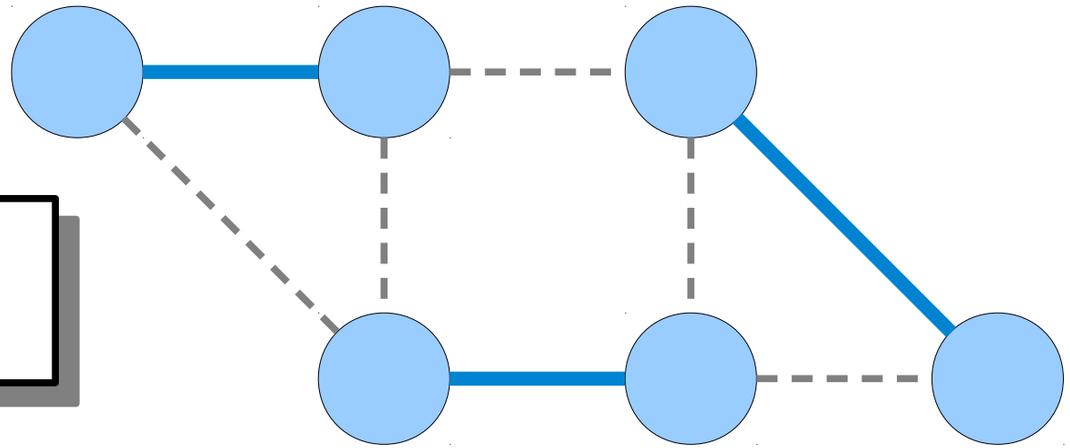
- Given an undirected graph G, a ***matching*** in G is a set of edges such that no two edges share an endpoint.
- A ***maximum matching*** is a matching with the largest number of edges.

A matching, but not a maximum matching.



Maximum Matching

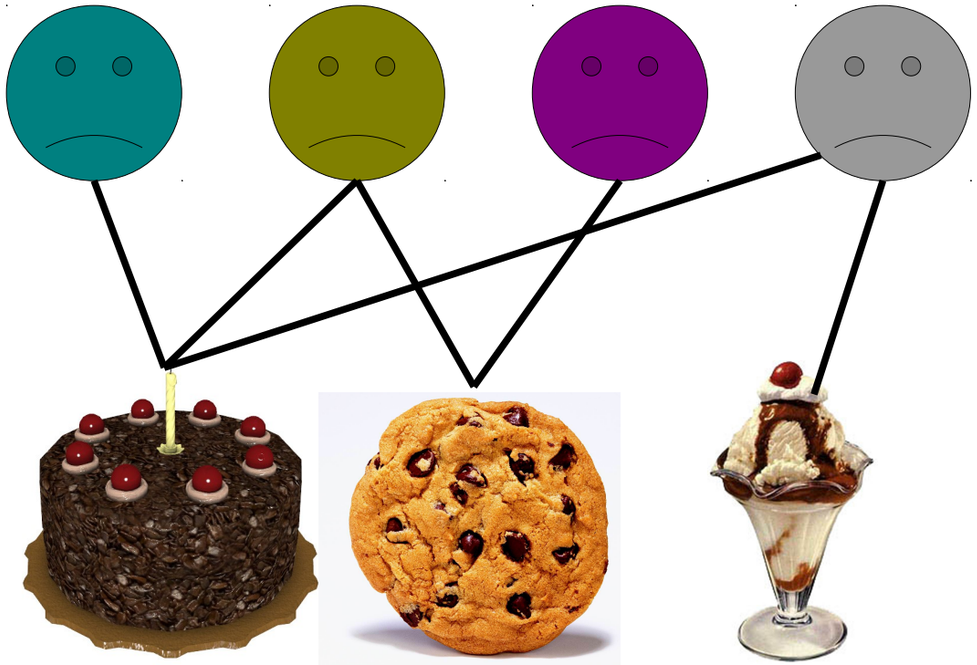
- Given an undirected graph G, a ***matching*** in G is a set of edges such that no two edges share an endpoint.
- A ***maximum matching*** is a matching with the largest number of edges.



A maximum matching.

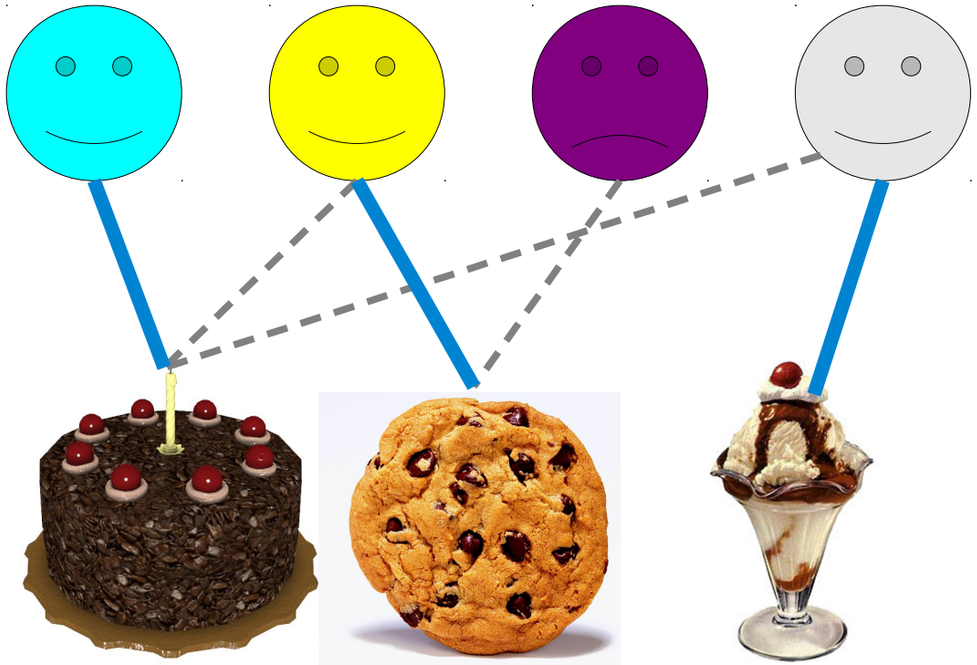
Maximum Matching

- Given an undirected graph G, a ***matching*** in G is a set of edges such that no two edges share an endpoint.
- A ***maximum matching*** is a matching with the largest number of edges.



Maximum Matching

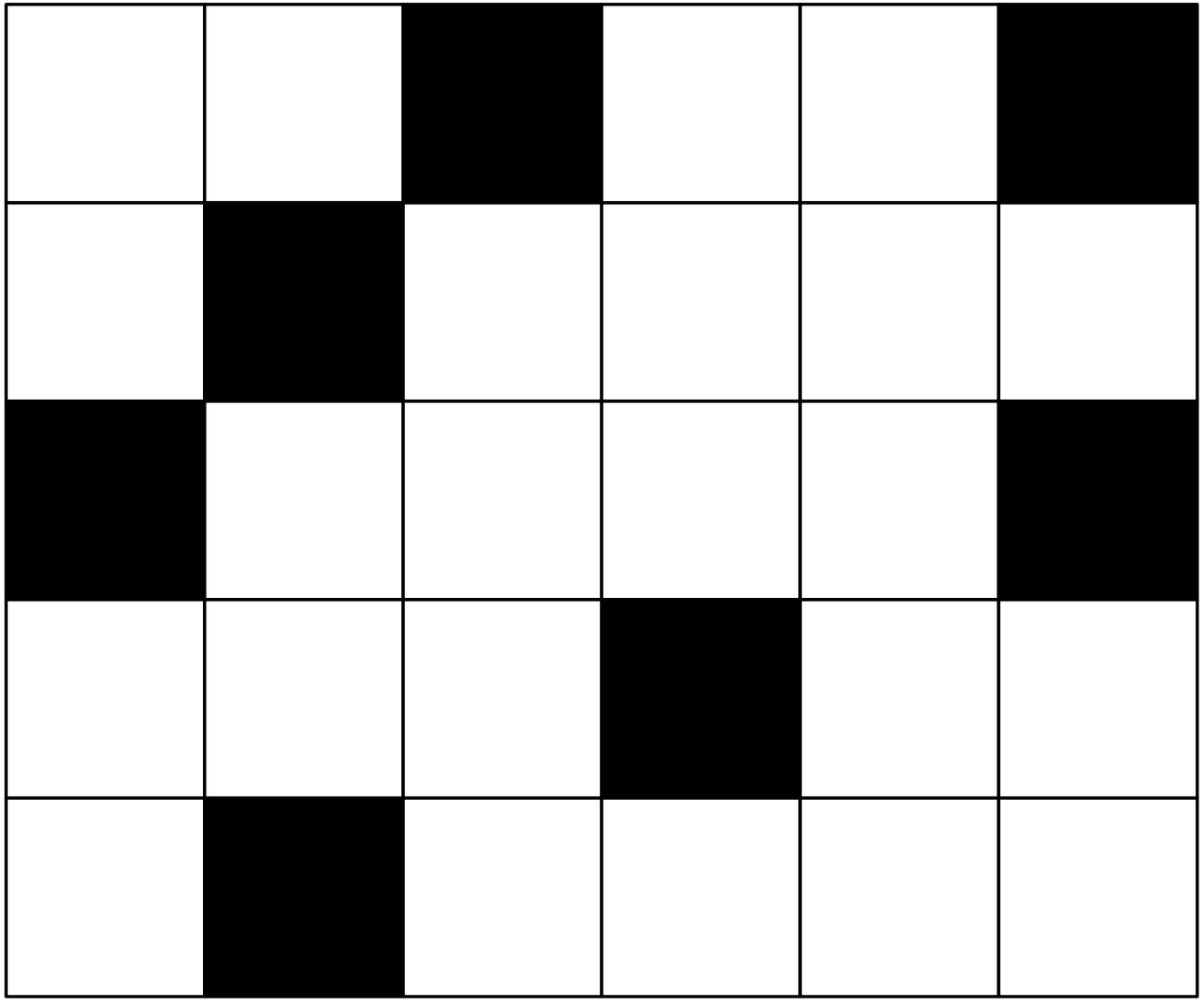
- Given an undirected graph G, a ***matching*** in G is a set of edges such that no two edges share an endpoint.
- A ***maximum matching*** is a matching with the largest number of edges.



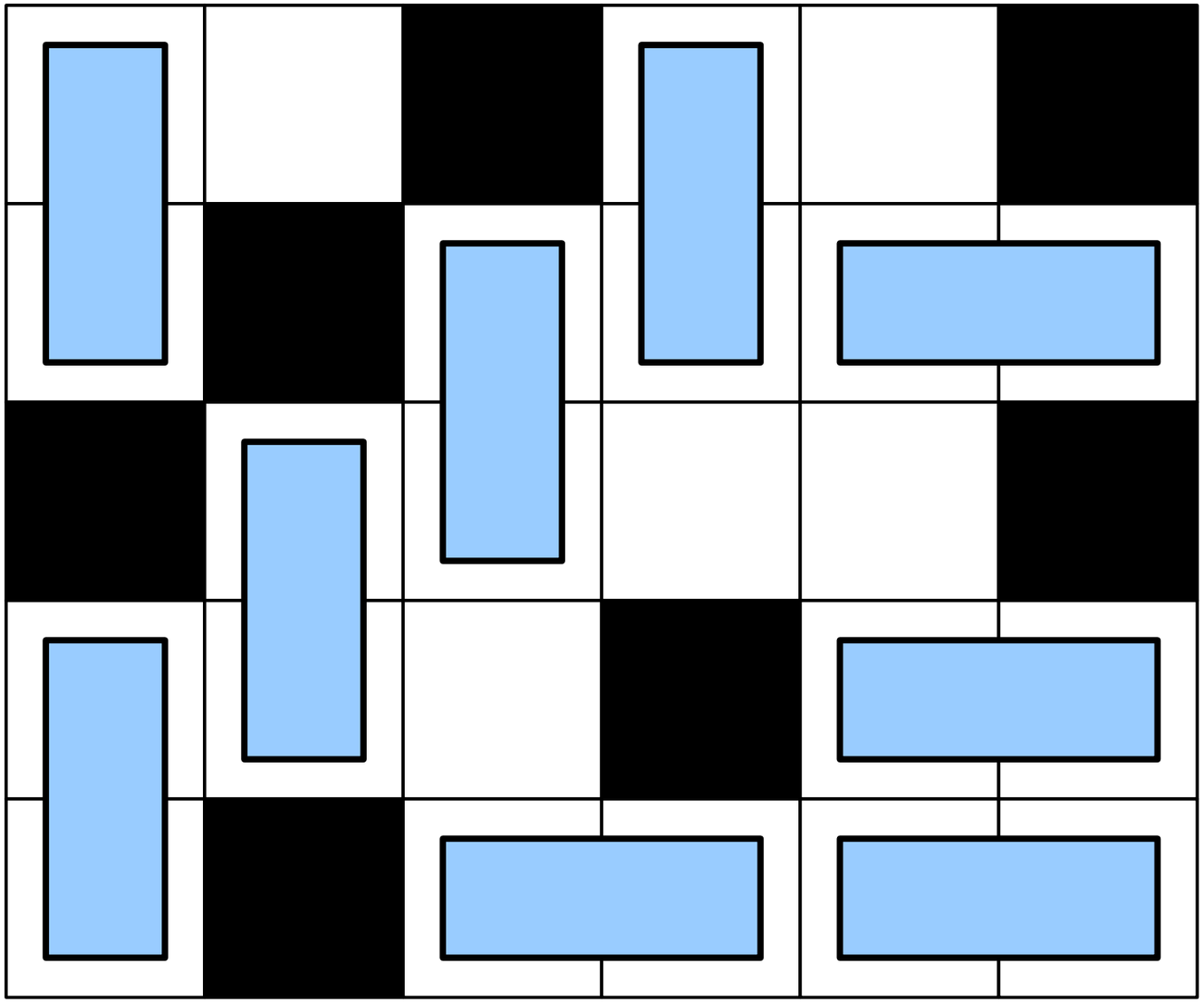
Maximum Matching

- Jack Edmonds' paper “Paths, Trees, and Flowers” gives a polynomial-time algorithm for finding maximum matchings.
  - (This is the same Edmonds as in “Cobham-Edmonds Thesis.”)
- Using this fact, what other problems can we solve?

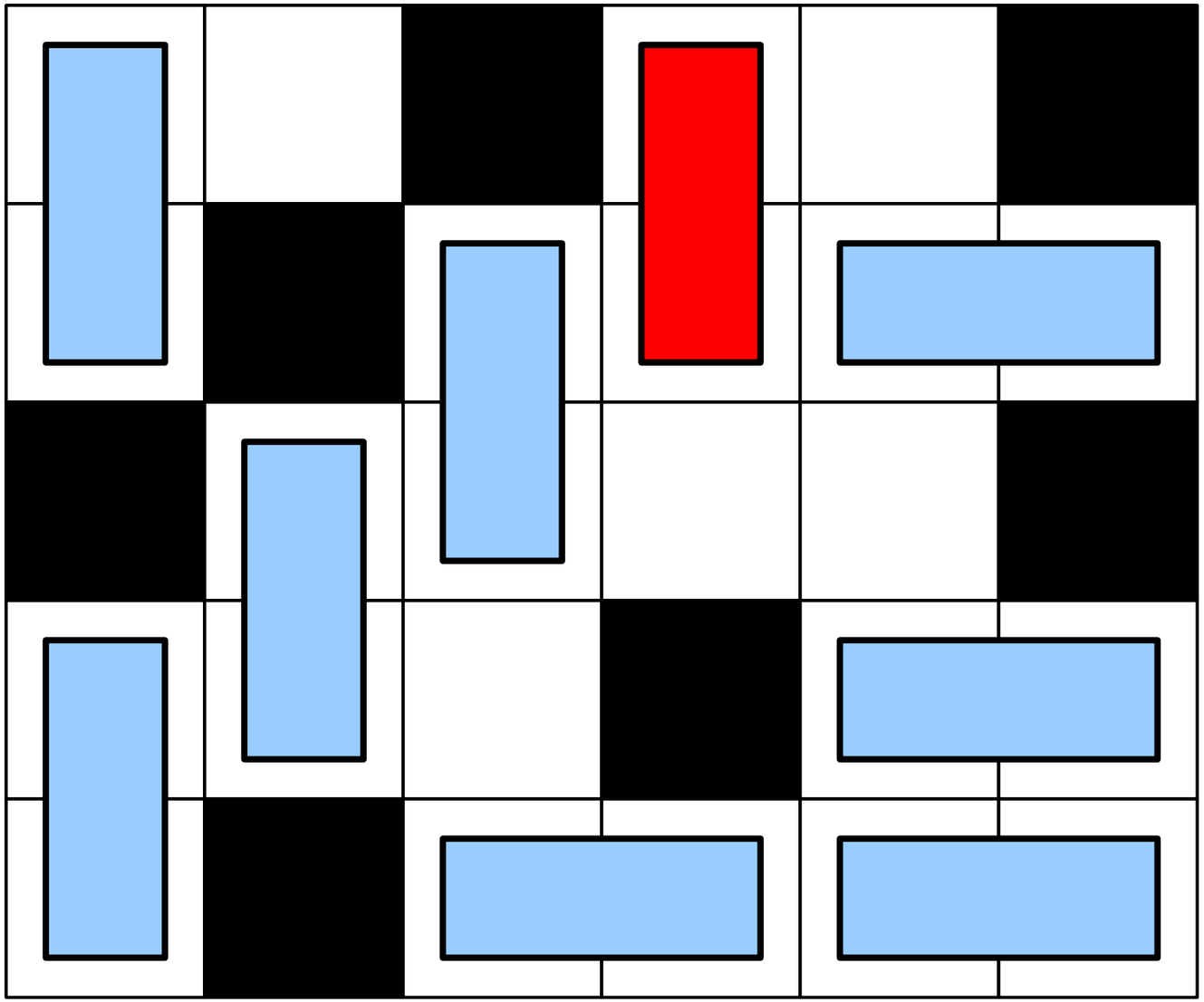
Domino Tiling



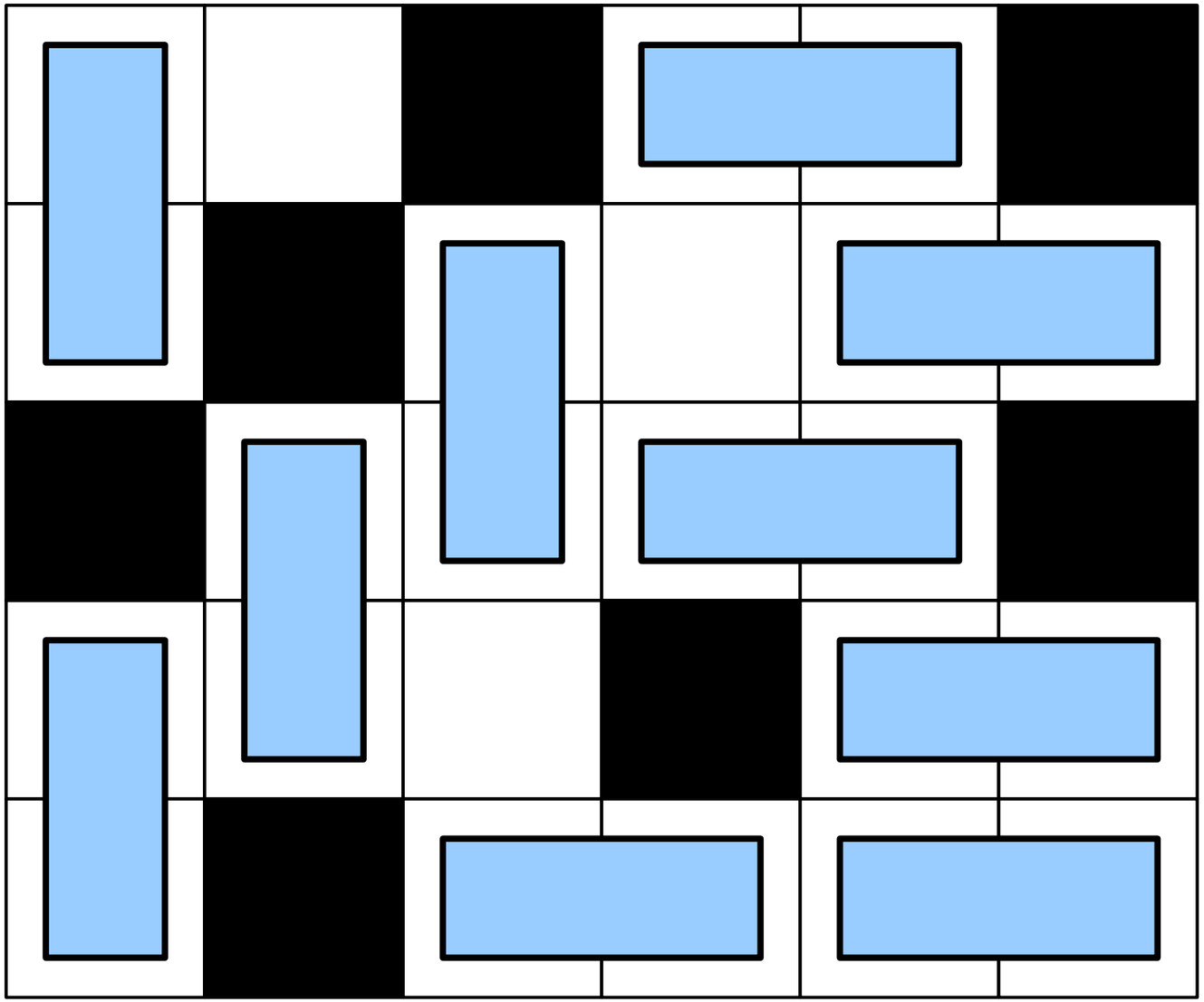
Domino Tiling



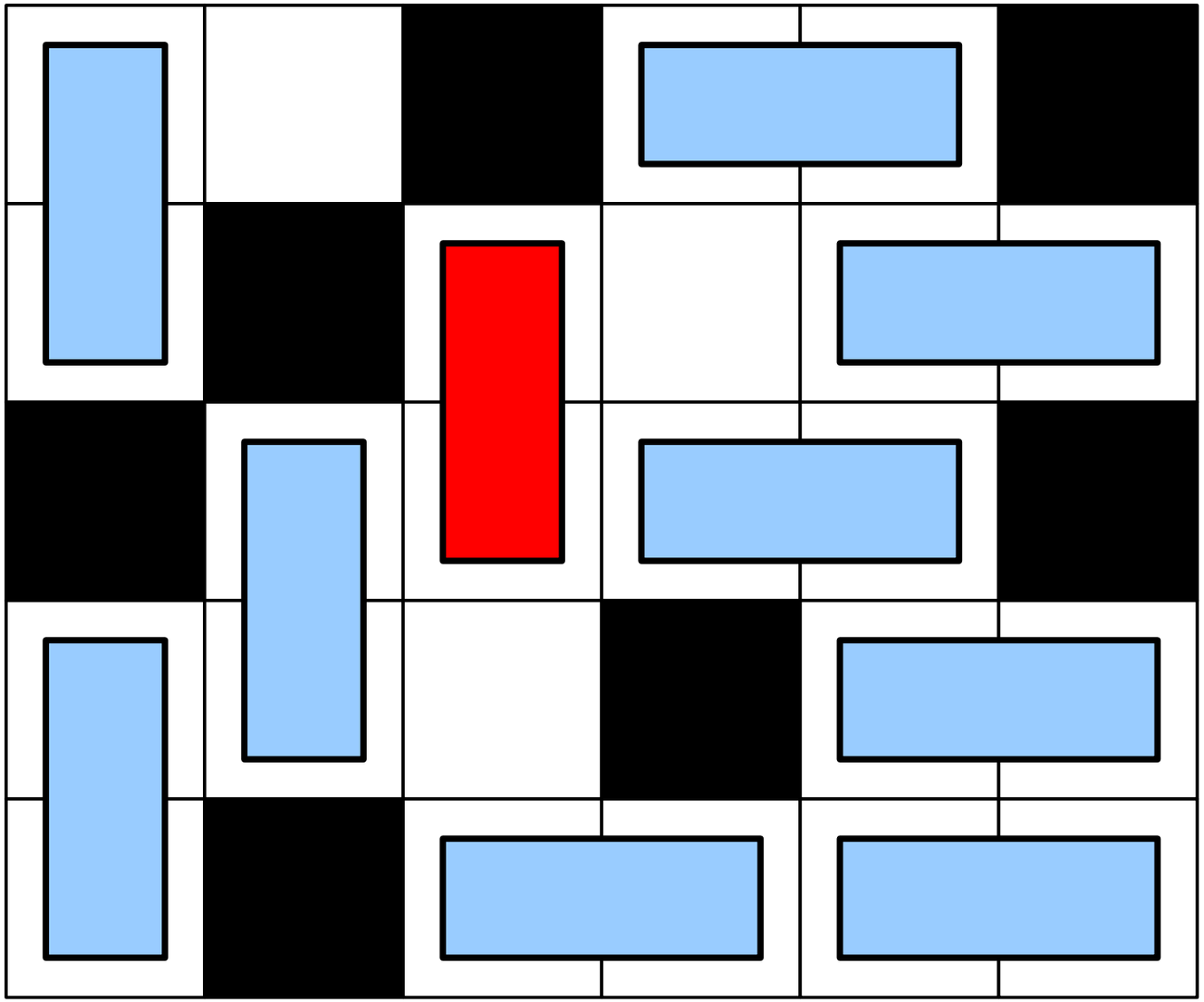
Domino Tiling



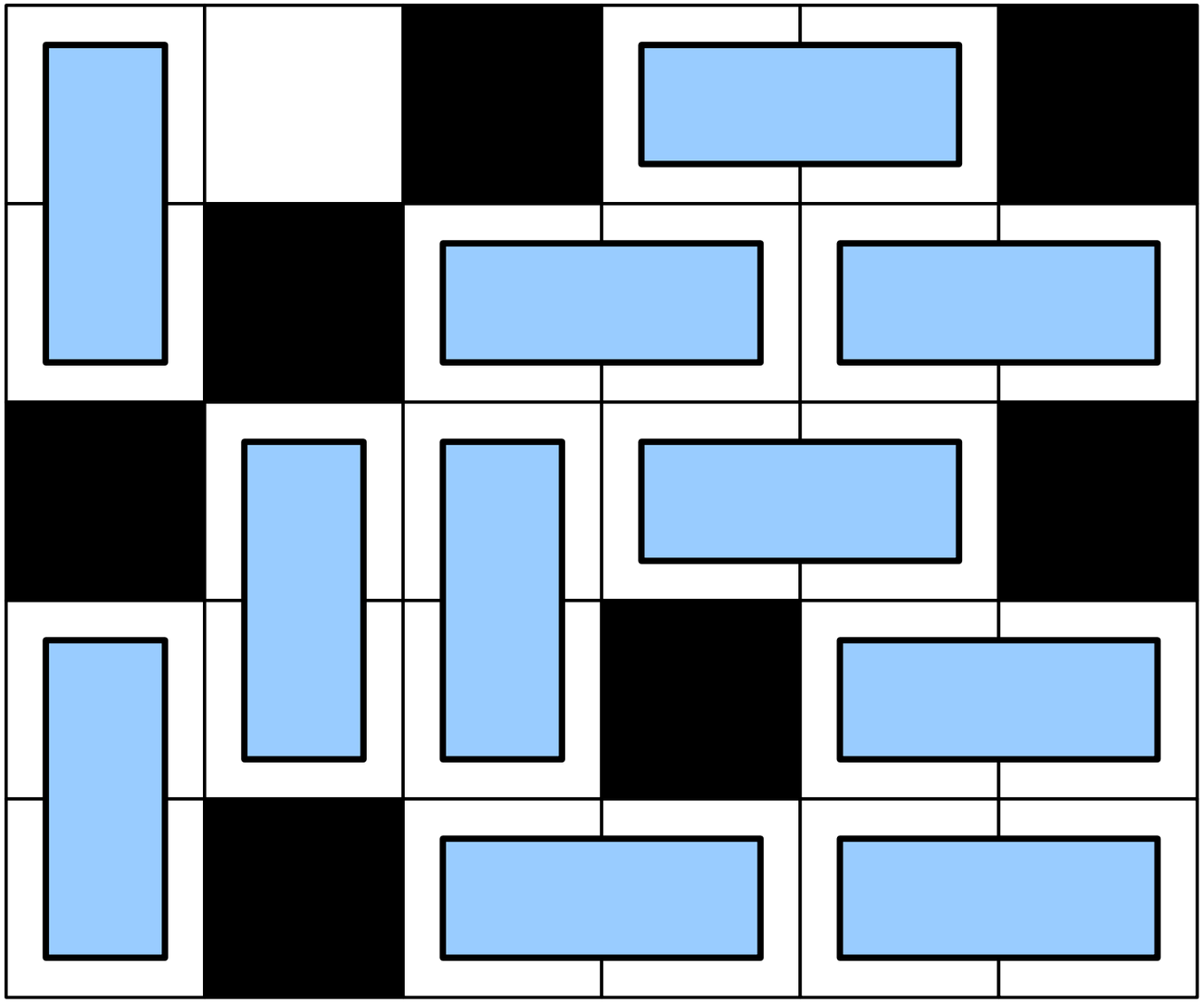
Domino Tiling



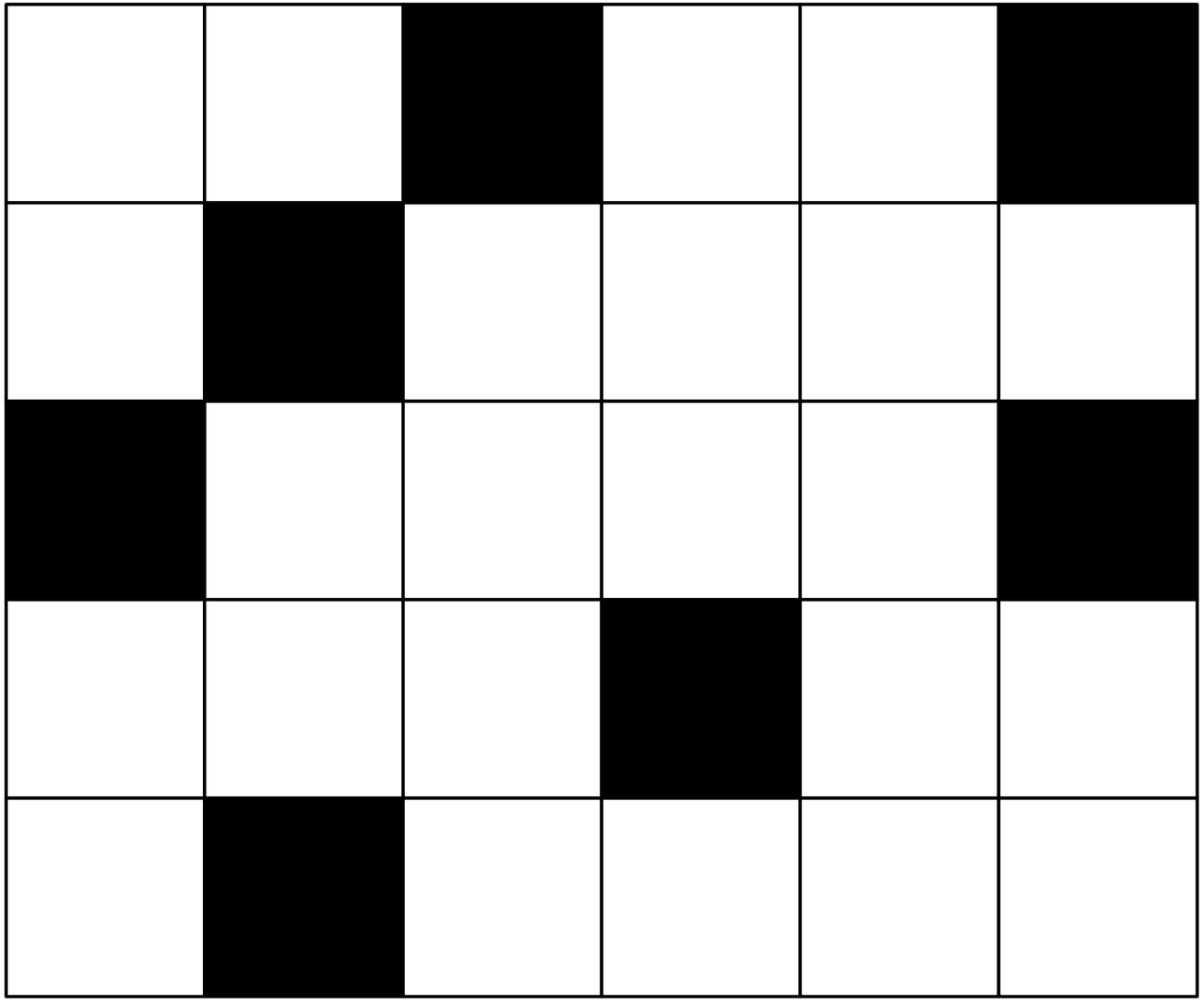
Domino Tiling



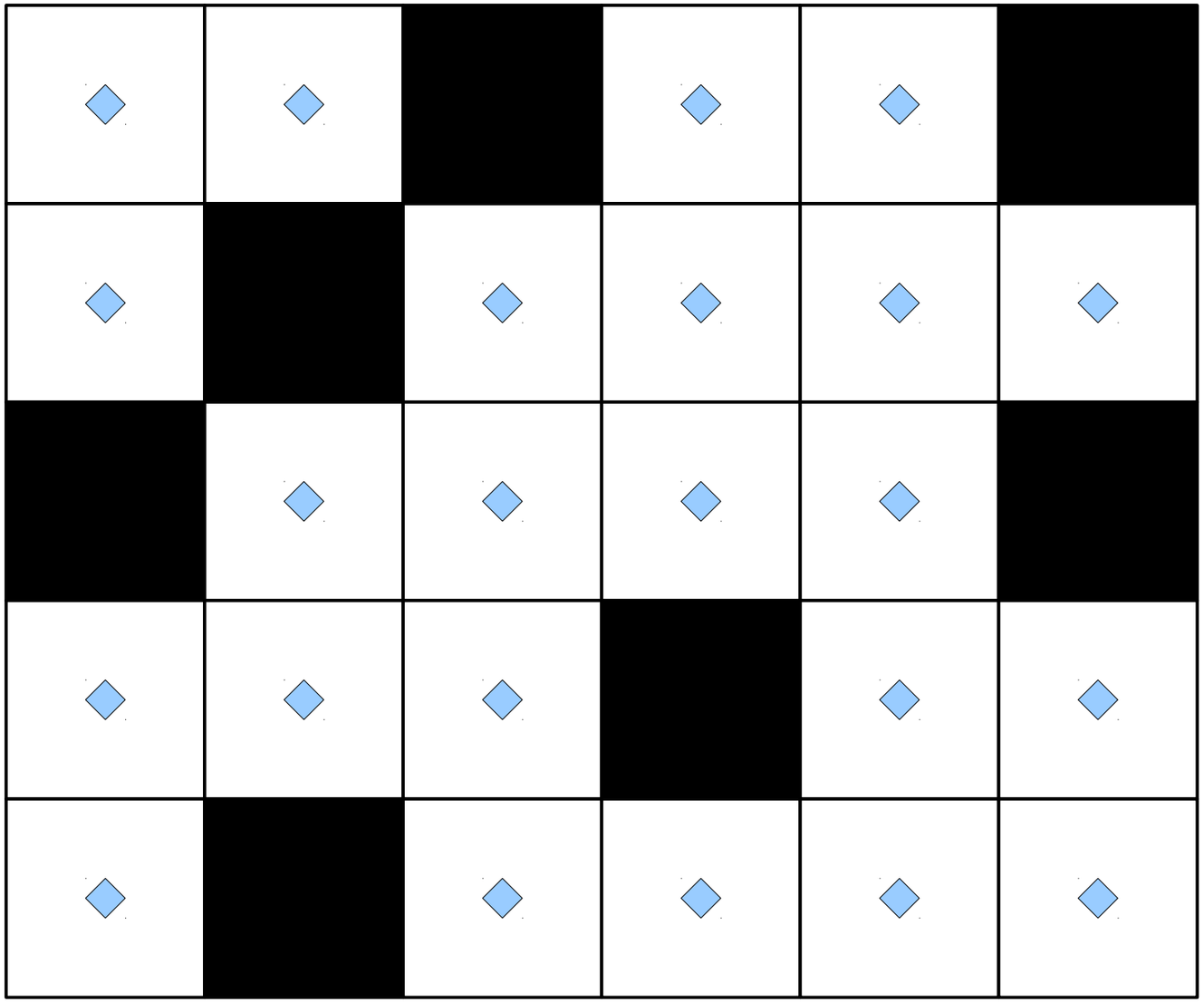
Domino Tiling



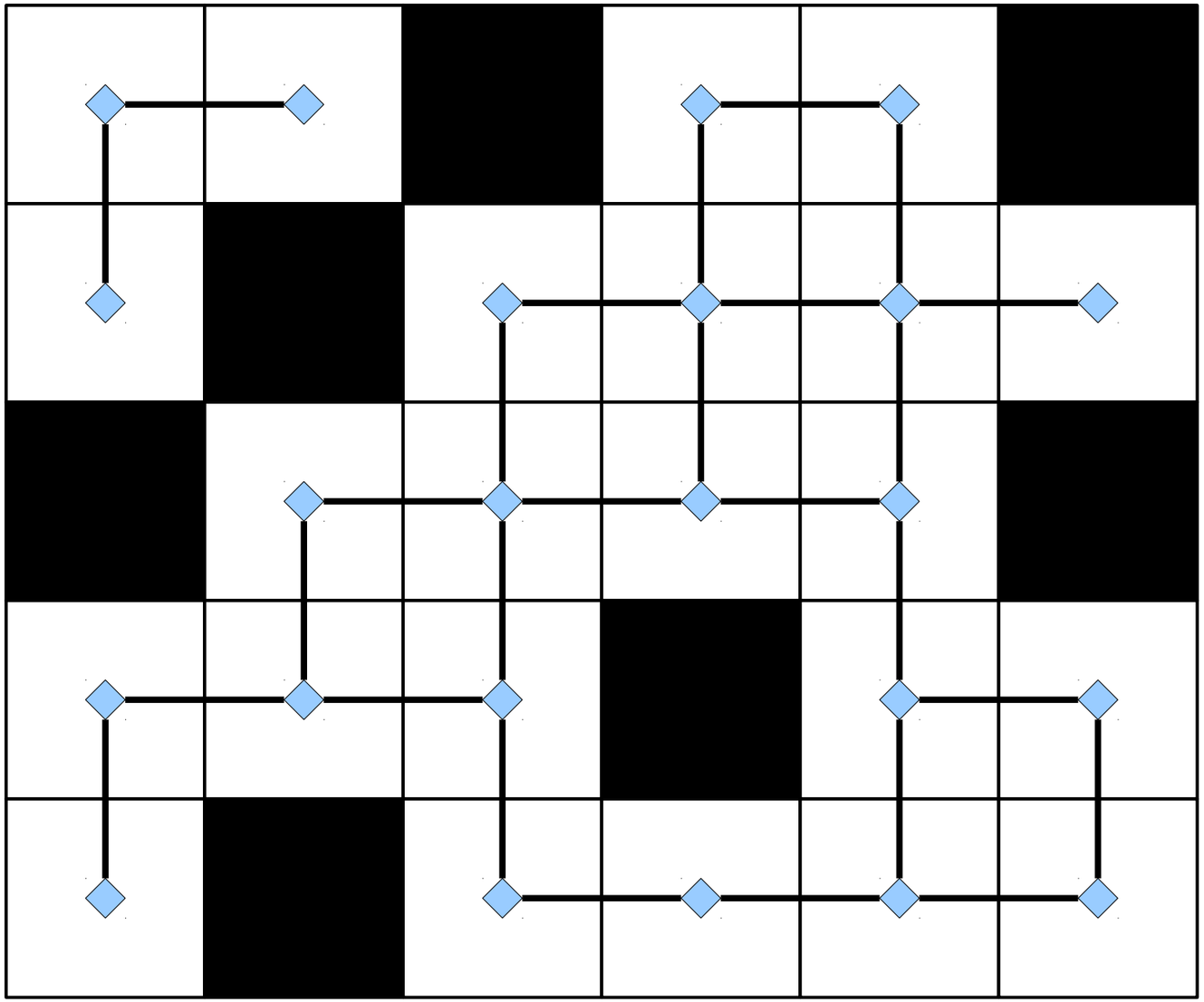
Solving Domino Tiling



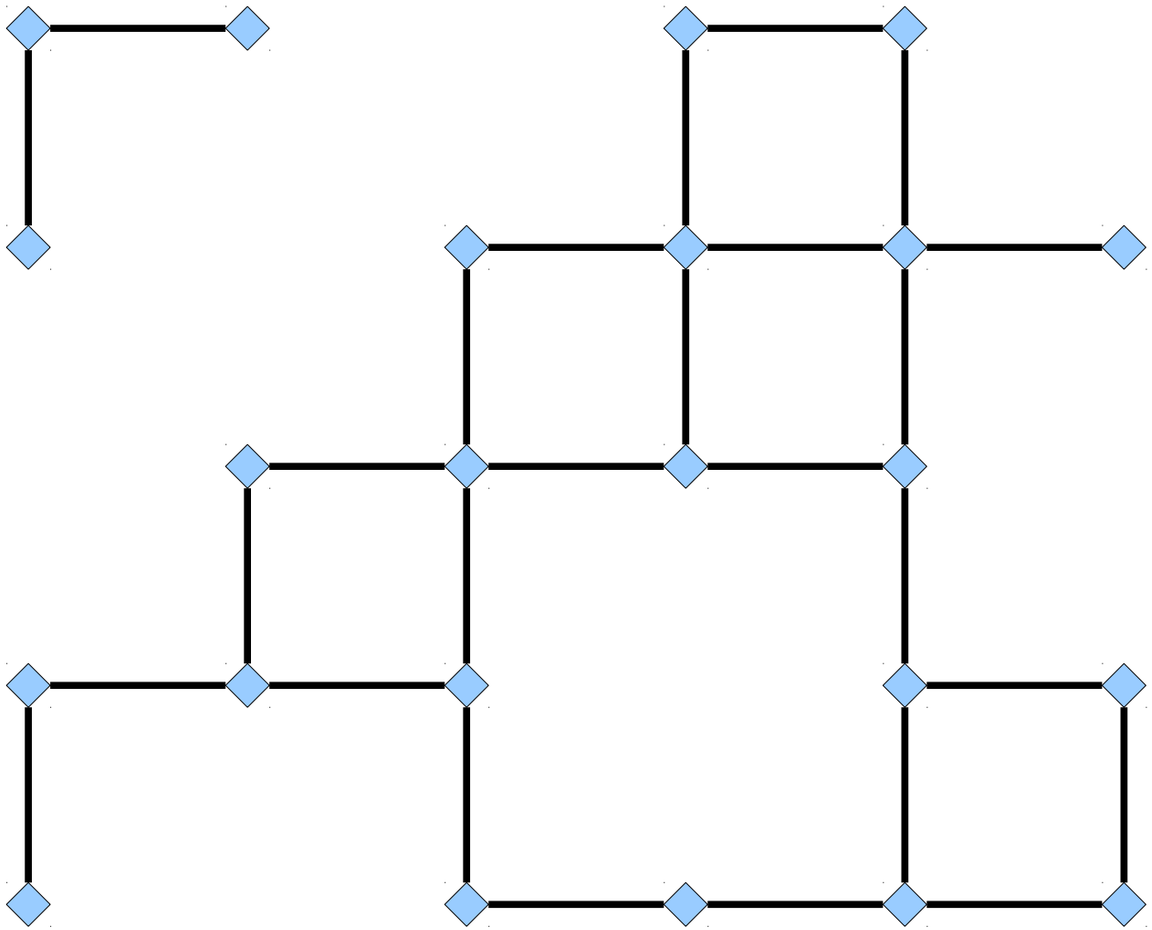
Solving Domino Tiling



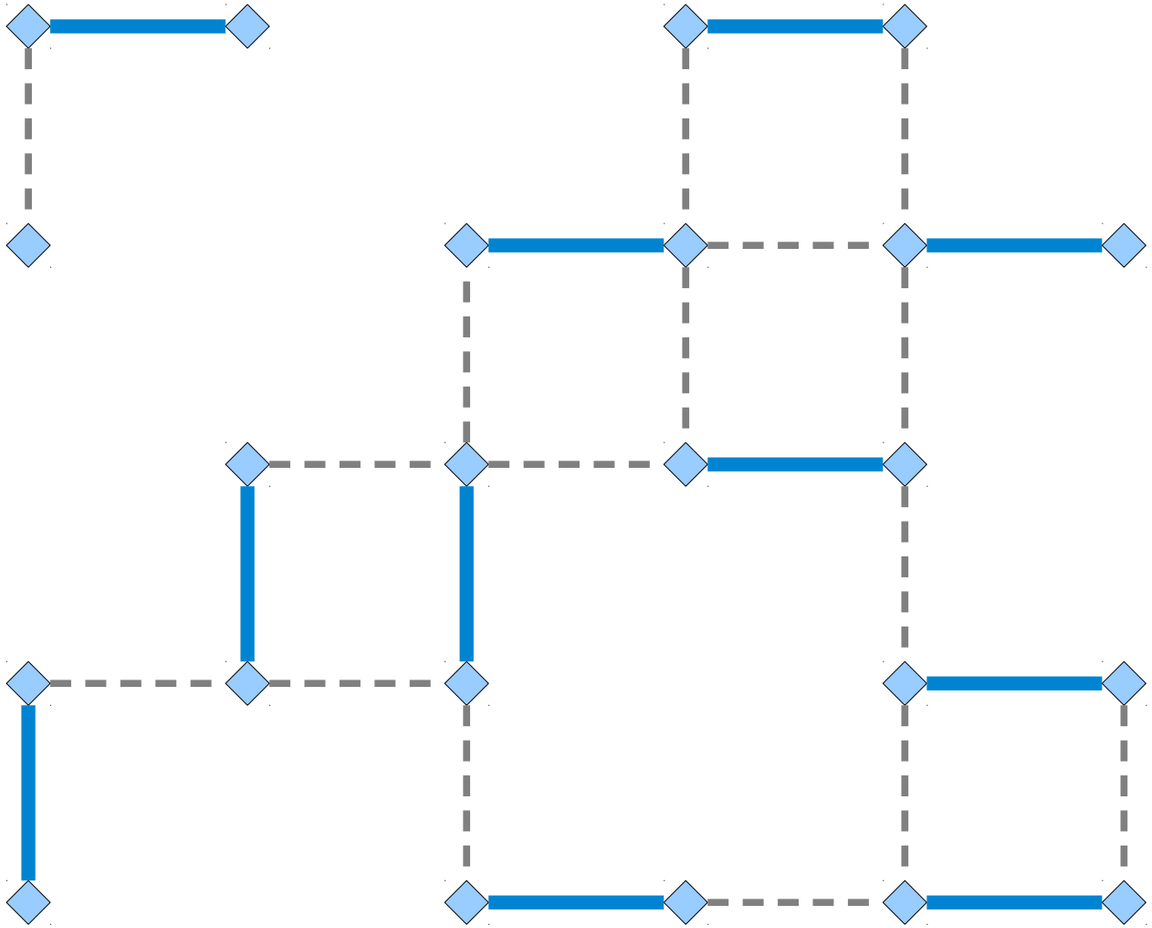
Solving Domino Tiling



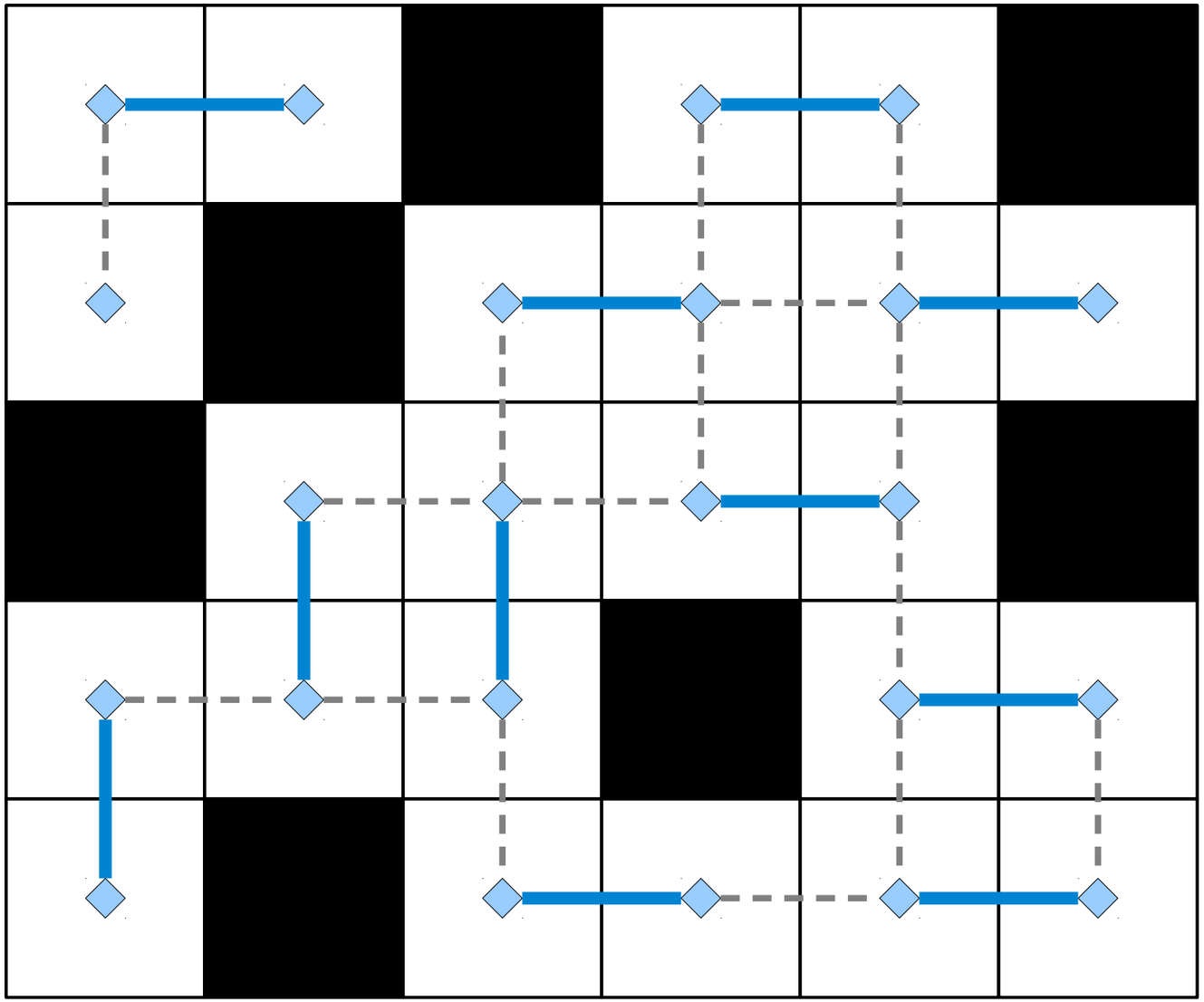
Solving Domino Tiling



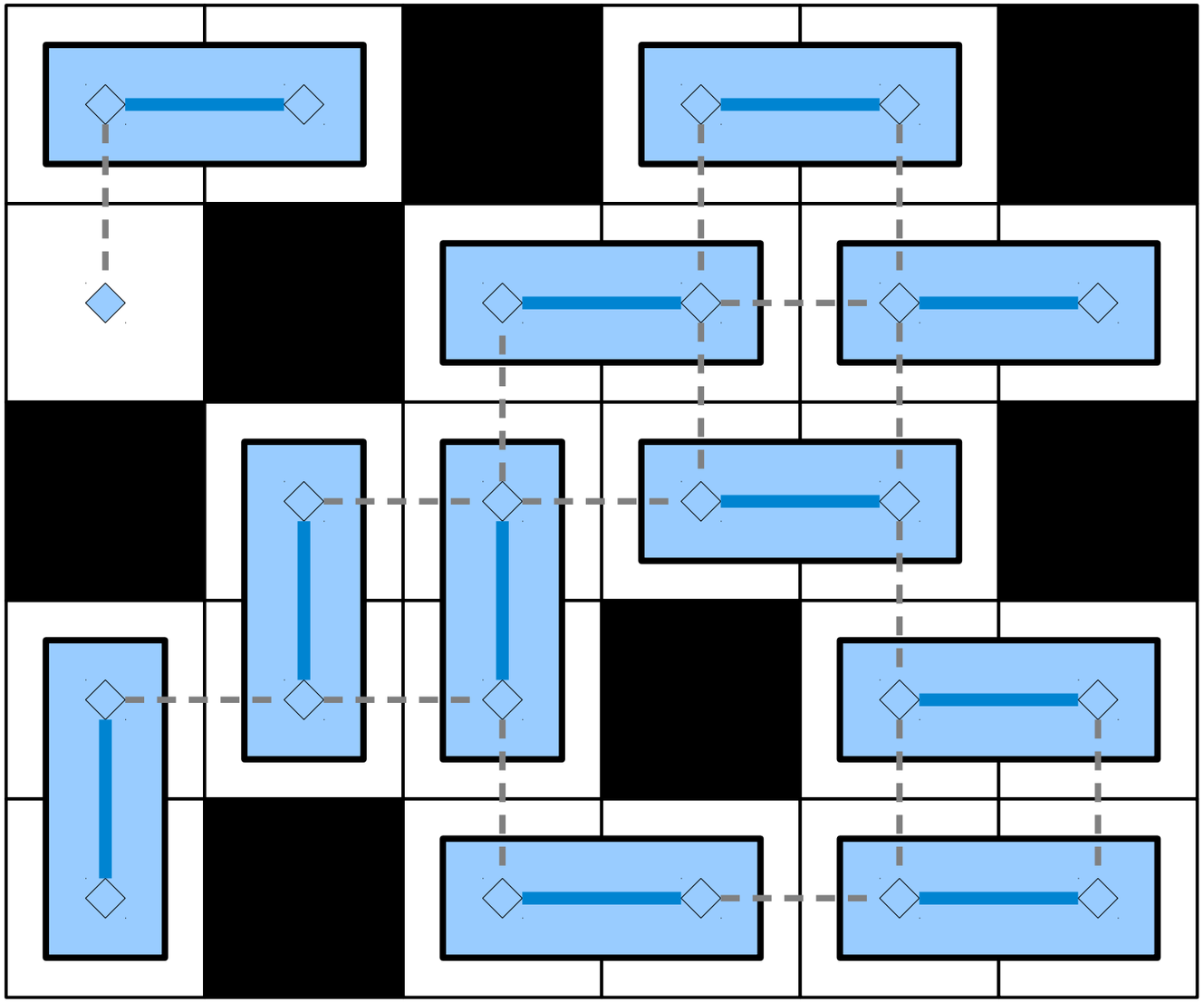
Solving Domino Tiling



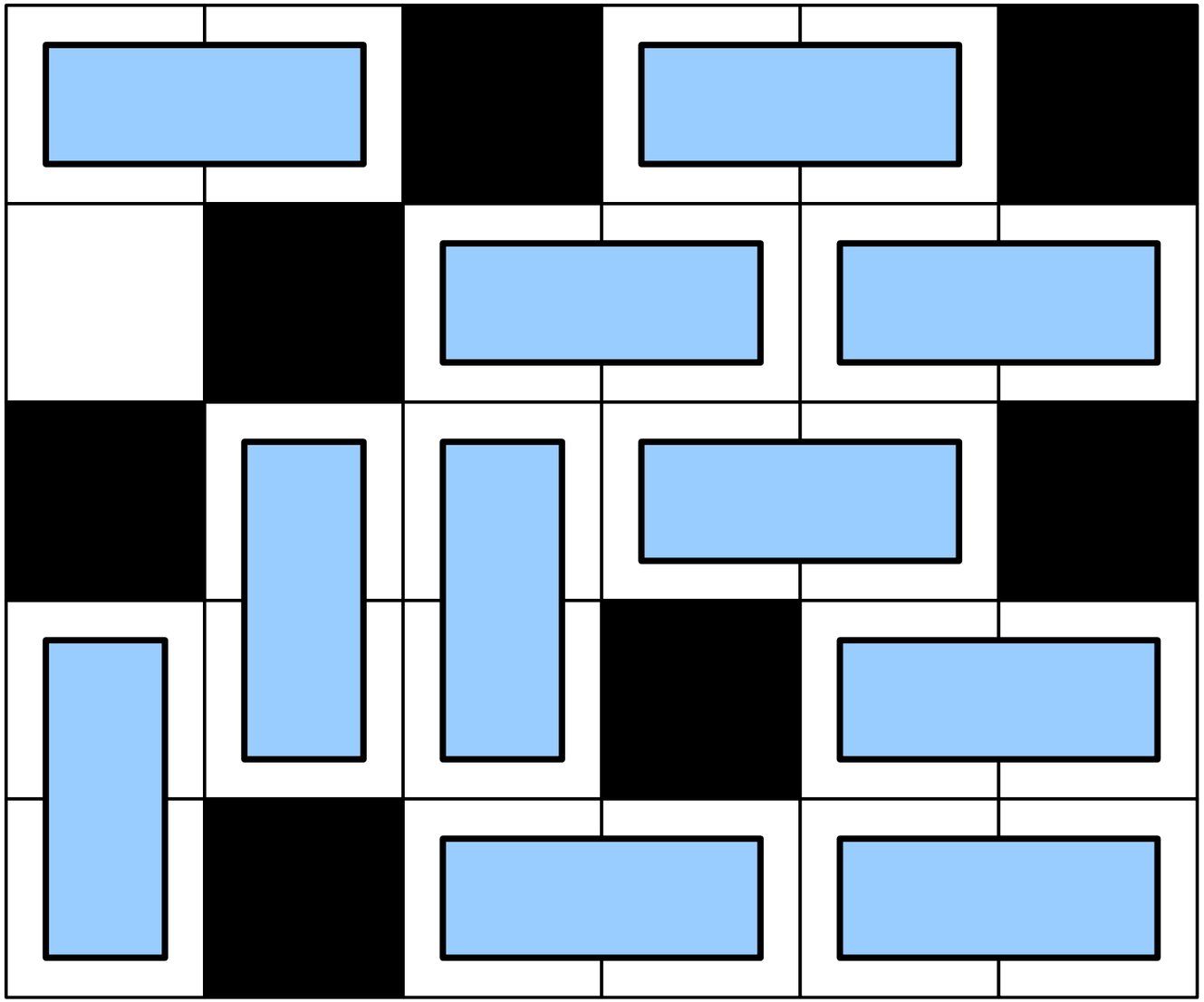
Solving Domino Tiling



Solving Domino Tiling



Solving Domino Tiling



In Pseudocode

```
boolean canPlaceDominos(Grid G, int k) {
   return hasMatching(gridToGraph(G), k);
}
```

Based on this connection between maximum matching and domino tiling, which of the following statements would be more proper to conclude?

A. Finding a maximum matching isn't any more difficult (in BigO/P-NP terms) than tiling a grid with dominoes.

B. Tiling a grid with dominoes isn't any more difficult (in BigO/P-NP terms) than finding a maximum matching.

Intuition:

Tiling a grid with dominoes can't be “harder” than solving maximum matching, because if we can solve maximum matching efficiently, we can solve domino tiling efficiently.

Another Example

Reachability

- Consider the following problem:

  Given an directed graph *G* and nodes *s* and *t* in *G*, is there a path from *s* to *t*?

- It's known that this problem can be solved in polynomial time (use DFS or BFS).
- Given that we can solve the reachability problem in polynomial time, what other problems can we solve in polynomial time?

Converter Conundrums

- Suppose that you want to plug your laptop into a projector.
- Your laptop only has a VGA output, but the projector needs HDMI input.
- You have a box of connectors that convert various types of input into various types of output (for example, VGA to DVI, DVI to DisplayPort, etc.)
- ***Question:*** Can you plug your laptop into the projector?

Converter Conundrums

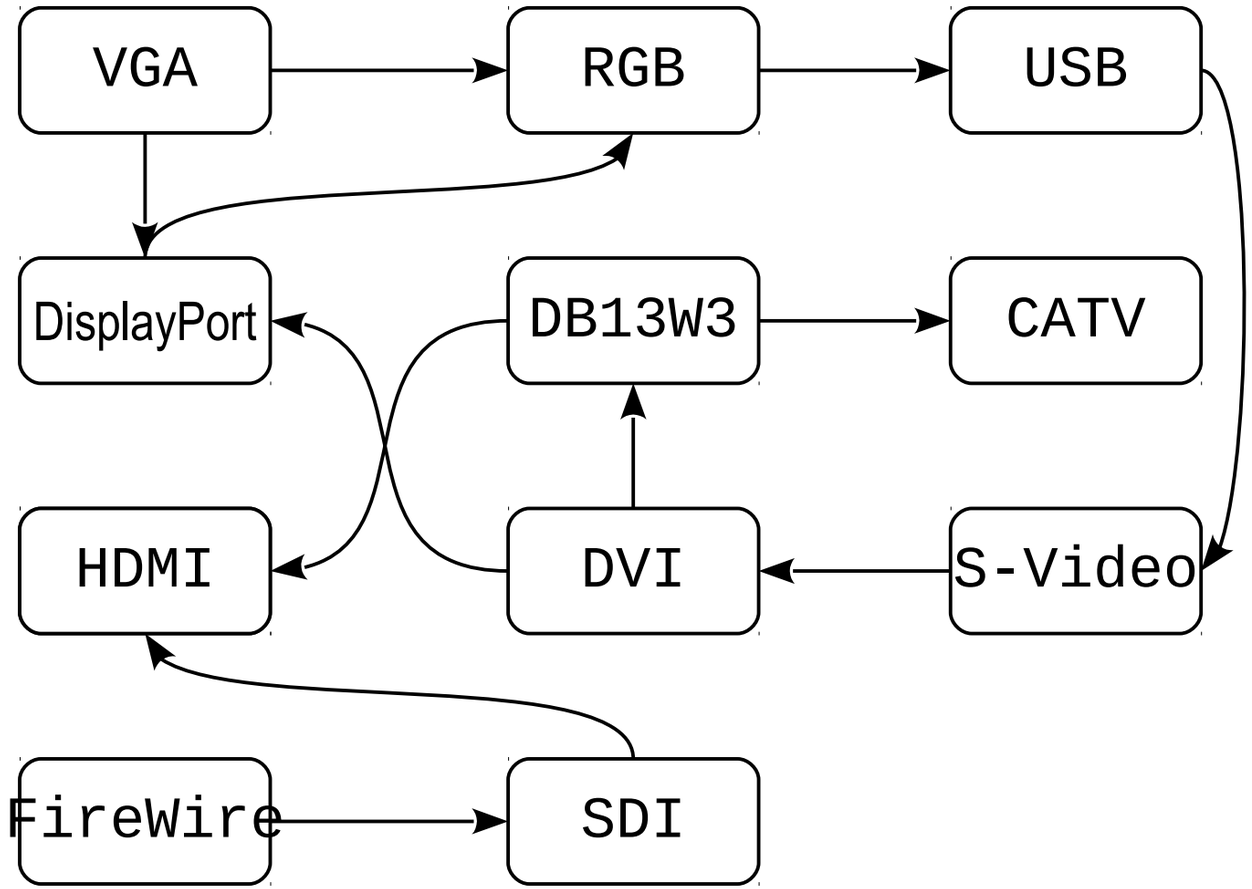
Connectors

RGB to USB
VGA to DisplayPort
DB13W3 to CATV
DisplayPort to RGB
DB13W3 to HDMI
DVI to DB13W3
S-Video to DVI
FireWire to SDI
VGA to RGB
DVI to DisplayPort
USB to S-Video
SDI to HDMI

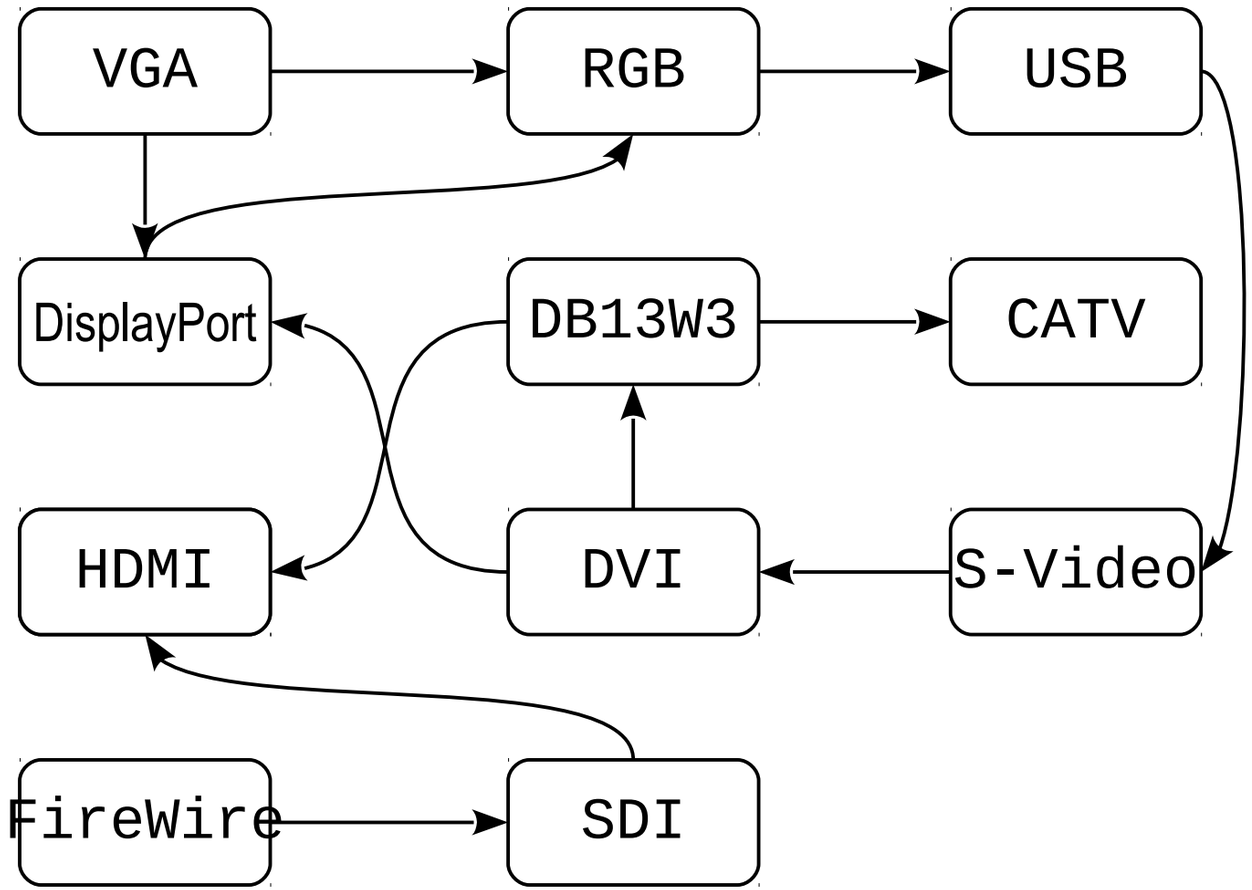
Converter Conundrums

Connectors

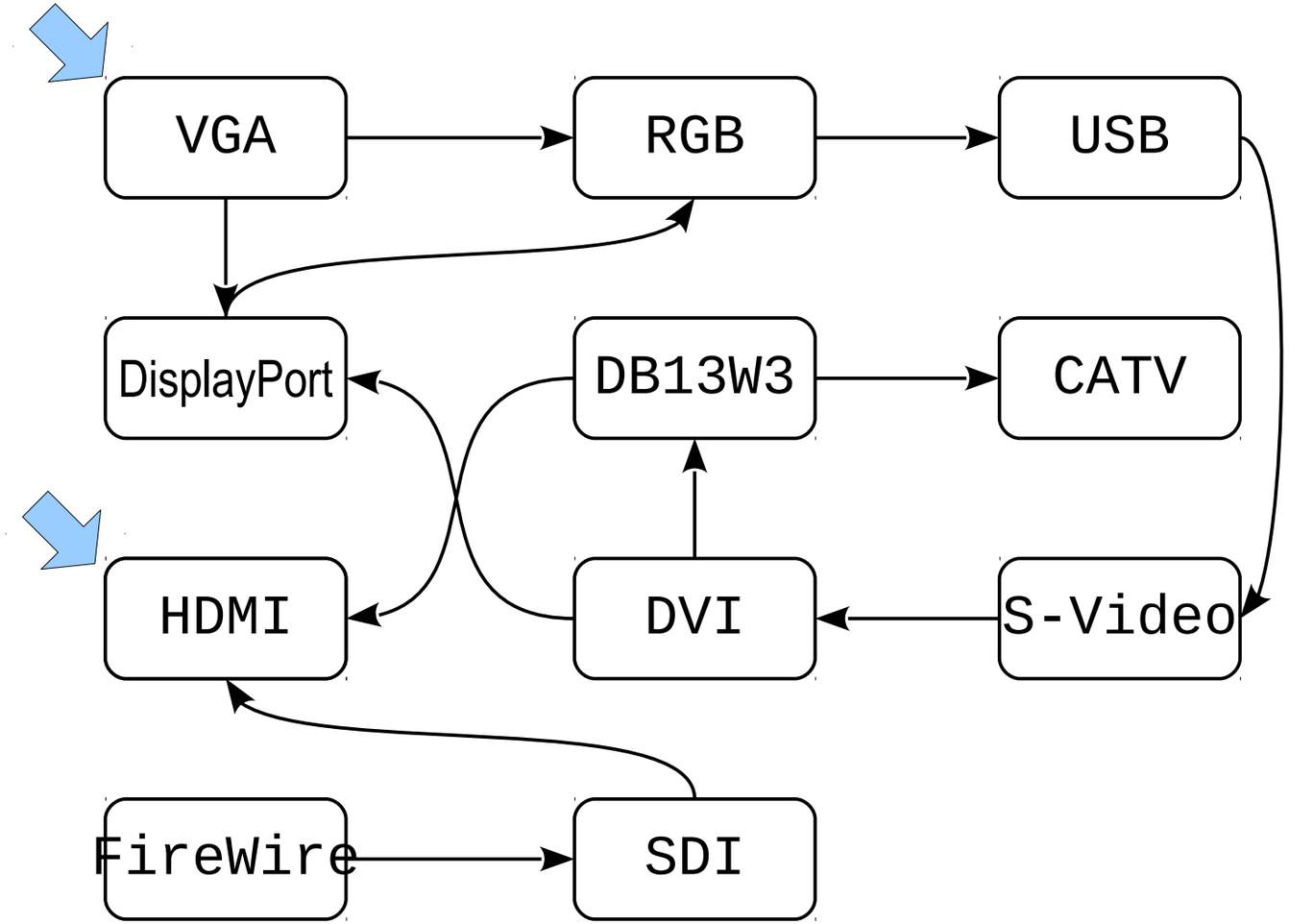
RGB to USB
VGA to DisplayPort
DB13W3 to CATV
DisplayPort to RGB
DB13W3 to HDMI
DVI to DB13W3
S-Video to DVI
FireWire to SDI
VGA to RGB
DVI to DisplayPort
USB to S-Video
SDI to HDMI



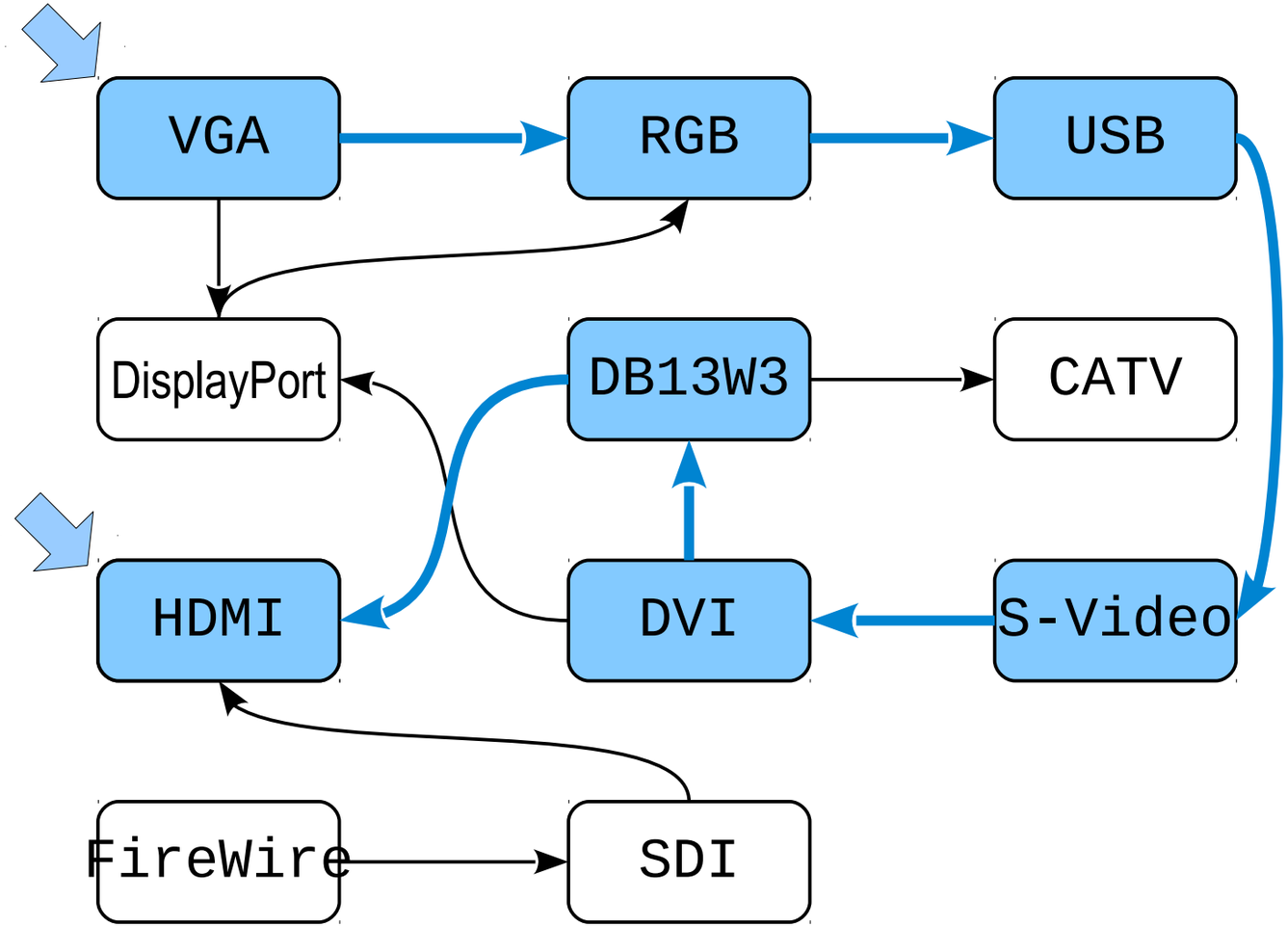
Converter Conundrums



Converter Conundrums



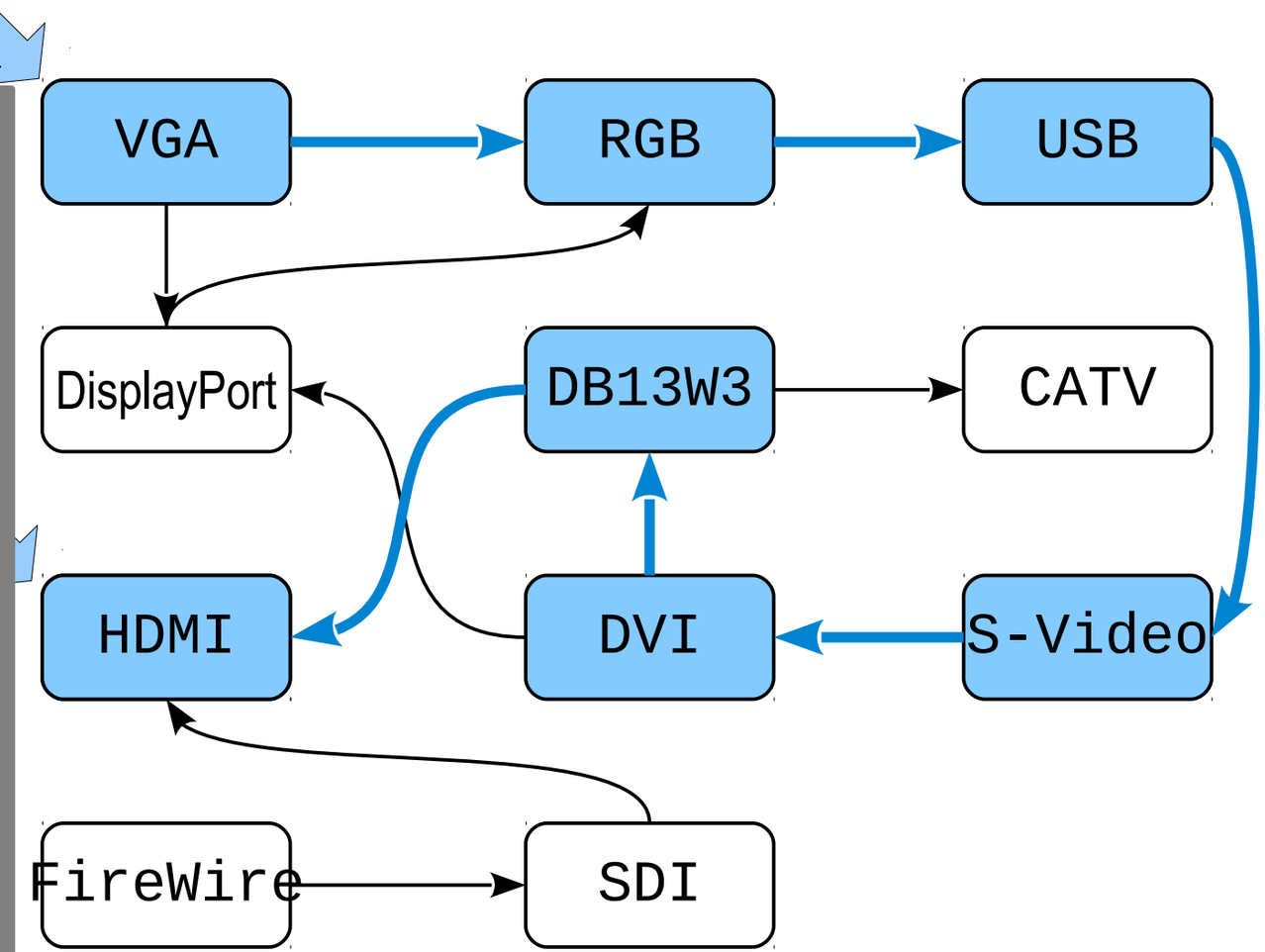
Converter Conundrums



Converter Conundrums

Connectors

RGB to USB
VGA to DisplayPort
DB13W3 to CATV
DisplayPort to RGB
DB13W3 to HDMI
DVI to DB13W3
S-Video to DVI
FireWire to SDI
VGA to RGB
DVI to DisplayPort
USB to S-Video
SDI to HDMI



In Pseudocode

```
boolean canPlugIn(List<Plug> plugs) {
   return isReachable(plugsToGraph(plugs),
                      VGA, HDMI);
}
```

Based on this connection between plugging a laptop into a projector and determining reachability, which of the following statements would be more proper to conclude?

A. Plugging a laptop into a projector isn't any more difficult that computing reachability in a directed graph.

B. Computing reachability in a directed graph isn't any more difficult than plugging a laptop into a projector.

Answer at **PollEv.com/cs103** or
text **CS103** to **22333** once to join, then **A** or **B**.

Intuition:

Finding a way to plug a computer into a projector can't be “harder” than determining reachability in a graph, since if we can determine reachability in a graph, we can find a way to plug a computer into a projector.

```
bool solveProblemA(string input) {
    return solveProblemB(transform(input));
}
```

Intuition:

Problem *A* can't be “harder” than problem *B*, because solving problem *B* lets us solve problem *A*.

```
bool solveProblemA(string input) {
    return solveProblemB(transform(input));
}
```

- If A and B are problems where it's possible to solve problem A using the strategy shown above*, we write

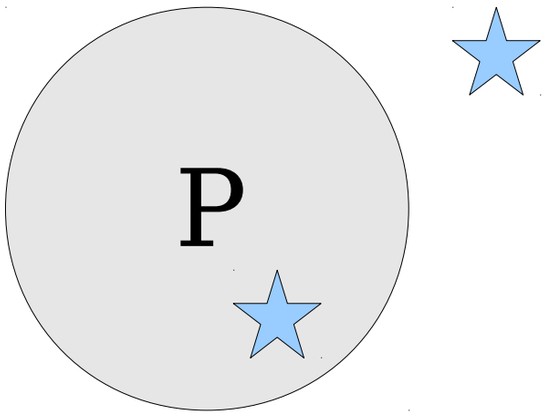
$$A \leq_{\mathrm{p}} B.$$

- We say that ***A is polynomial-time reducible to B***.

* Assuming that `transform` runs in polynomial time.

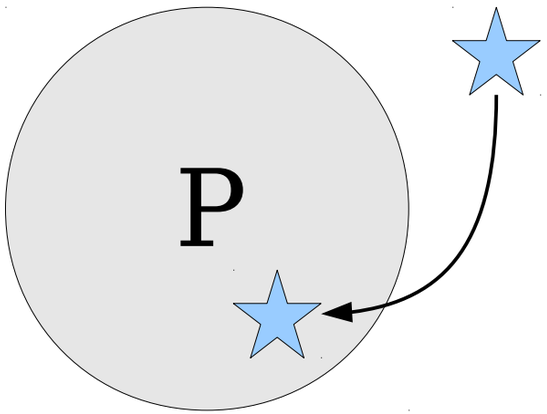
Polynomial-Time Reductions

- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{P}$, then $A \in \mathbf{P}$.



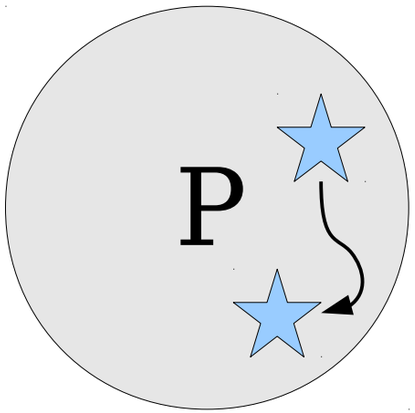
Polynomial-Time Reductions

- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{P}$, then $A \in \mathbf{P}$.



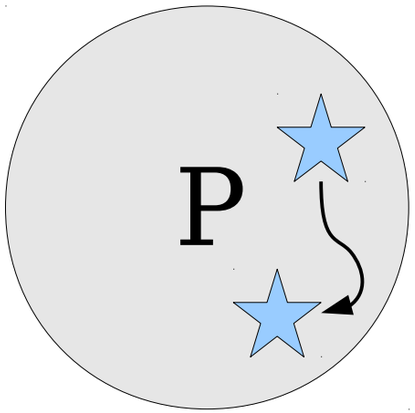
Polynomial-Time Reductions

- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{P}$, then $A \in \mathbf{P}$.



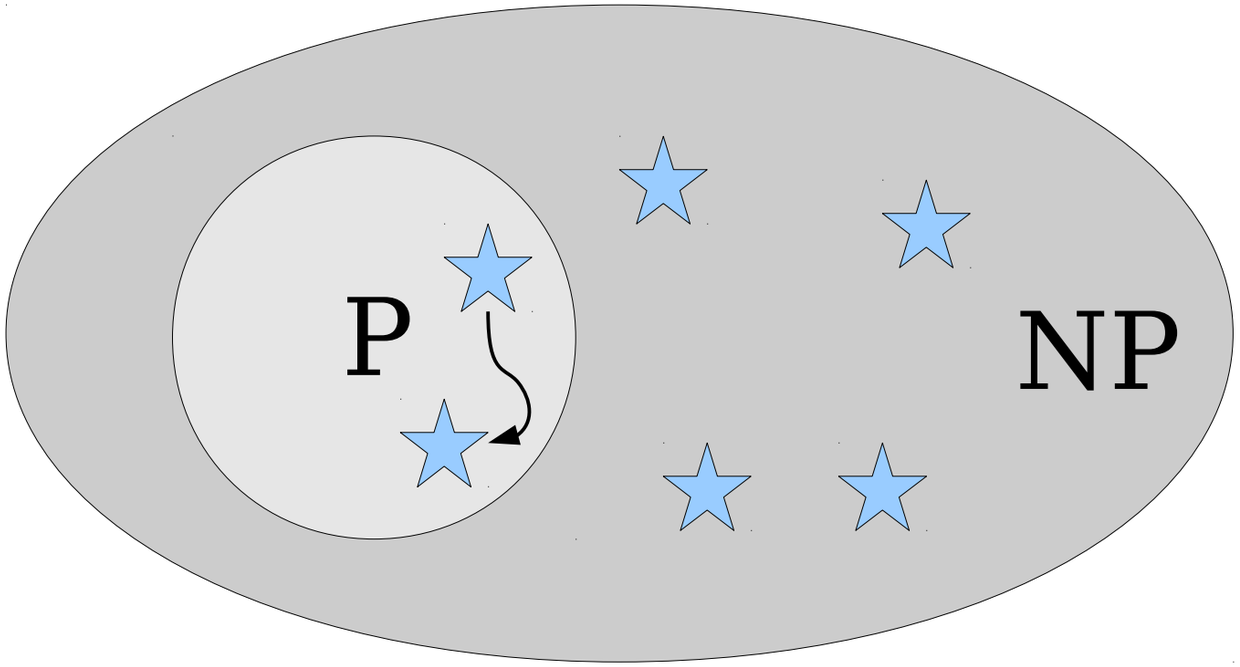
Polynomial-Time Reductions

- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{P}$, then $A \in \mathbf{P}$.
- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{NP}$, then $A \in \mathbf{NP}$.



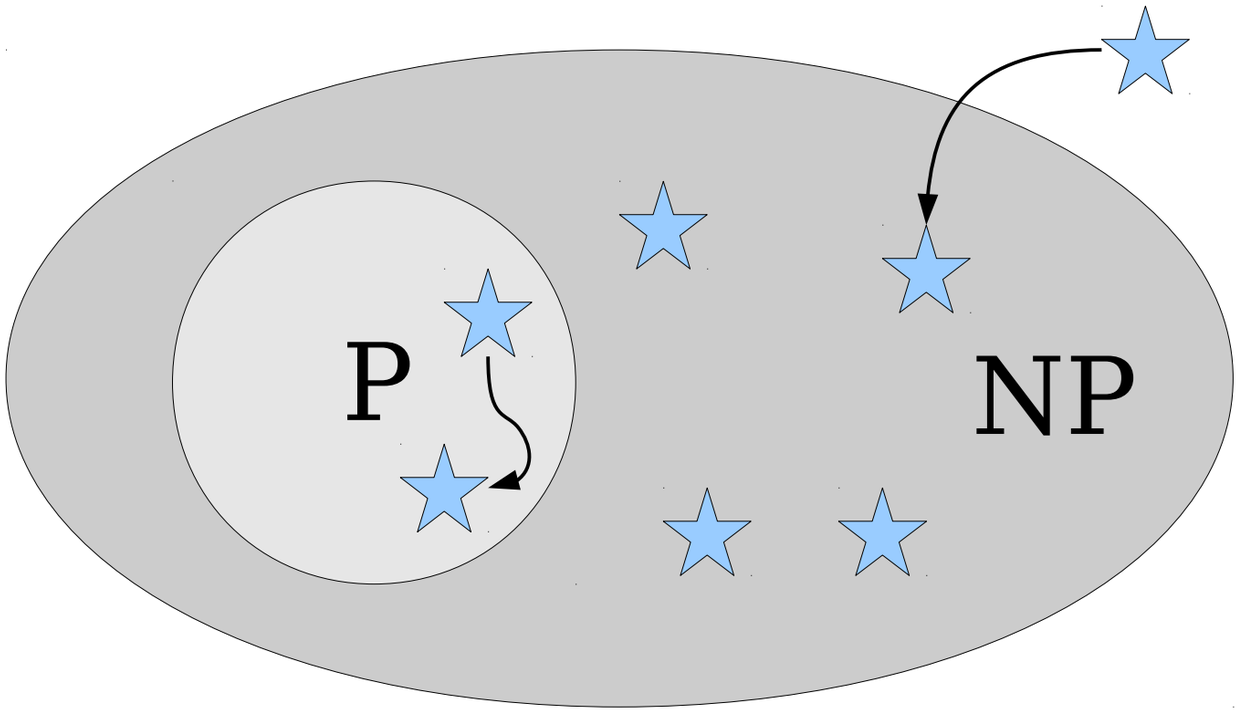
Polynomial-Time Reductions

- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{P}$, then $A \in \mathbf{P}$.
- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{NP}$, then $A \in \mathbf{NP}$.



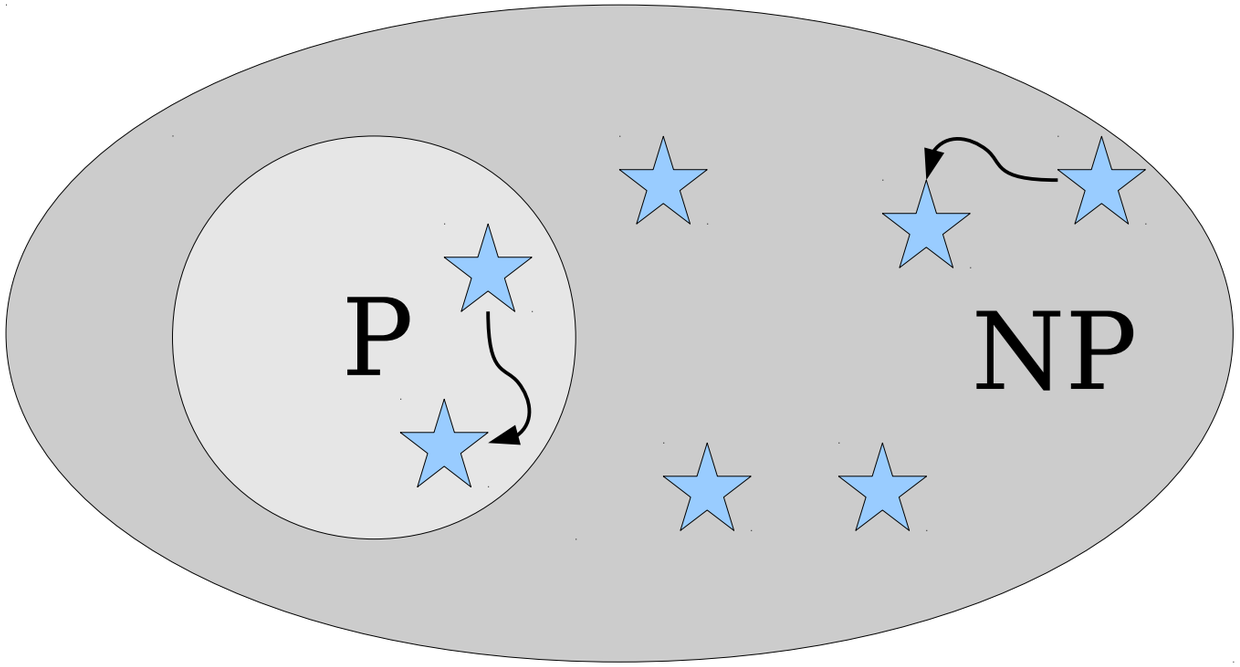
Polynomial-Time Reductions

- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{P}$, then $A \in \mathbf{P}$.
- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{NP}$, then $A \in \mathbf{NP}$.



Polynomial-Time Reductions

- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{P}$, then $A \in \mathbf{P}$.
- If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in \mathbf{NP}$, then $A \in \mathbf{NP}$.



This $\leq_p$ relation lets us rank the relative difficulties of problems in **P** and **NP**.

What else can we do with it?

NP-Hardness and **NP**-Completeness

Question: What makes a problem hard to solve?

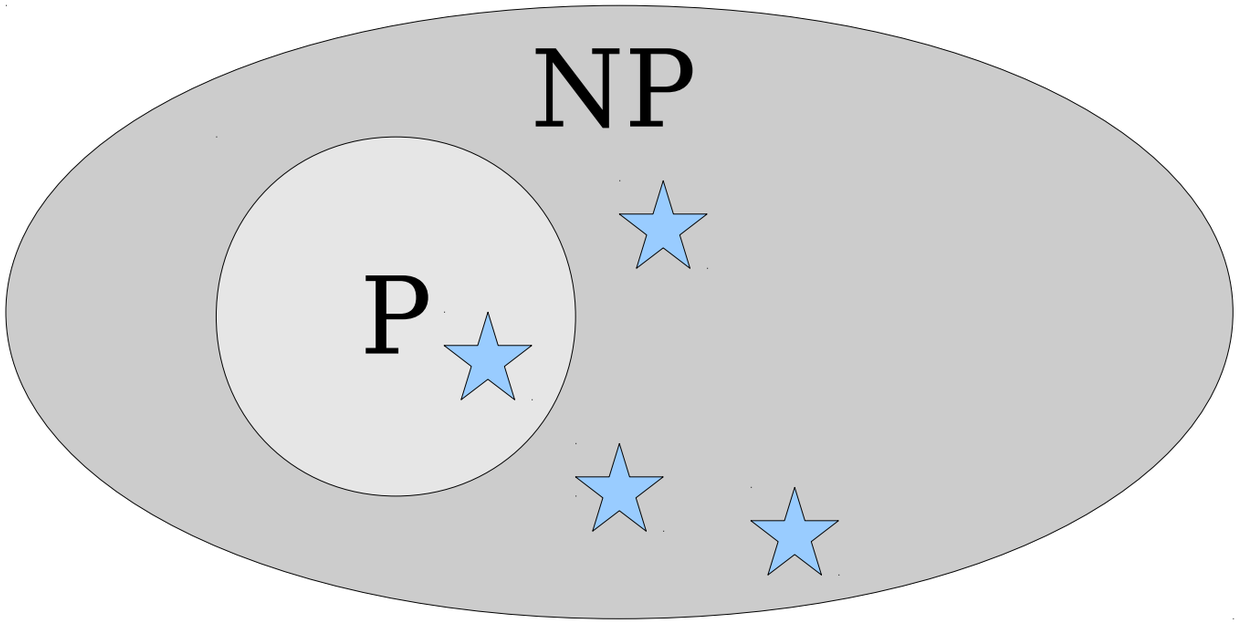
Intuition: If $A \leq_p B$, then problem B is at least as hard* as problem A.

* for some definition of “at least as hard as.”

Intuition: To show that some problem is hard, show that lots of other problems reduce to it.

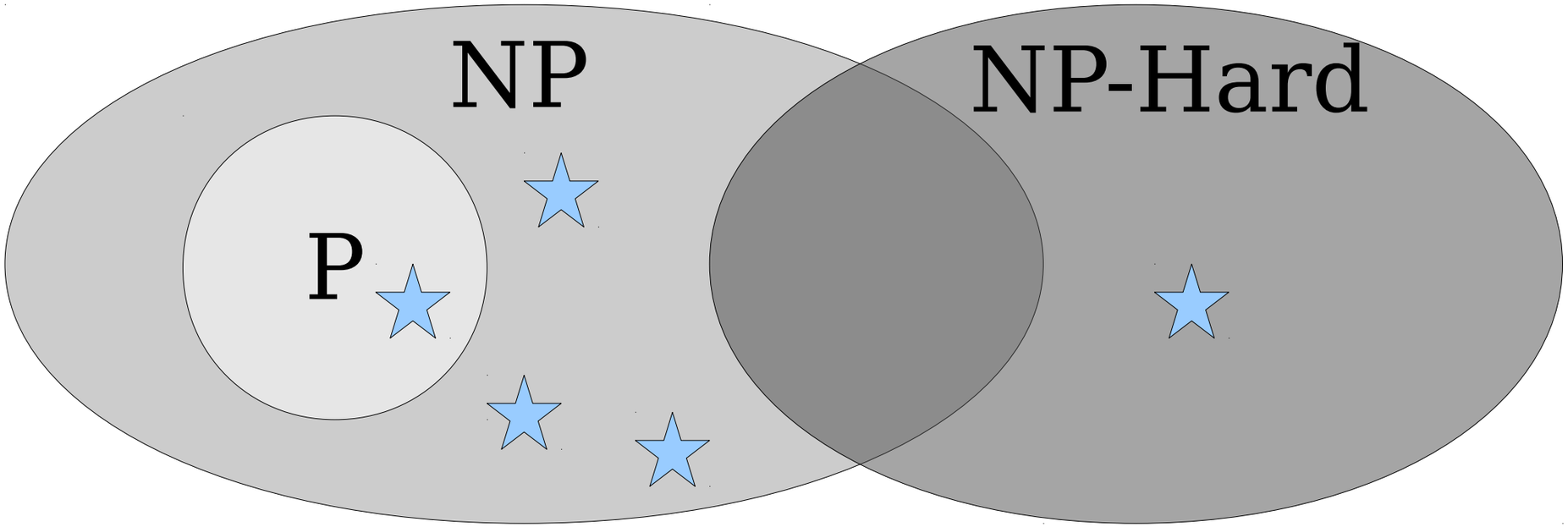
NP-Hardness

- A language L is called ***NP-hard*** if for *every* $A \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have $A \leq_{\mathrm{P}} L$.



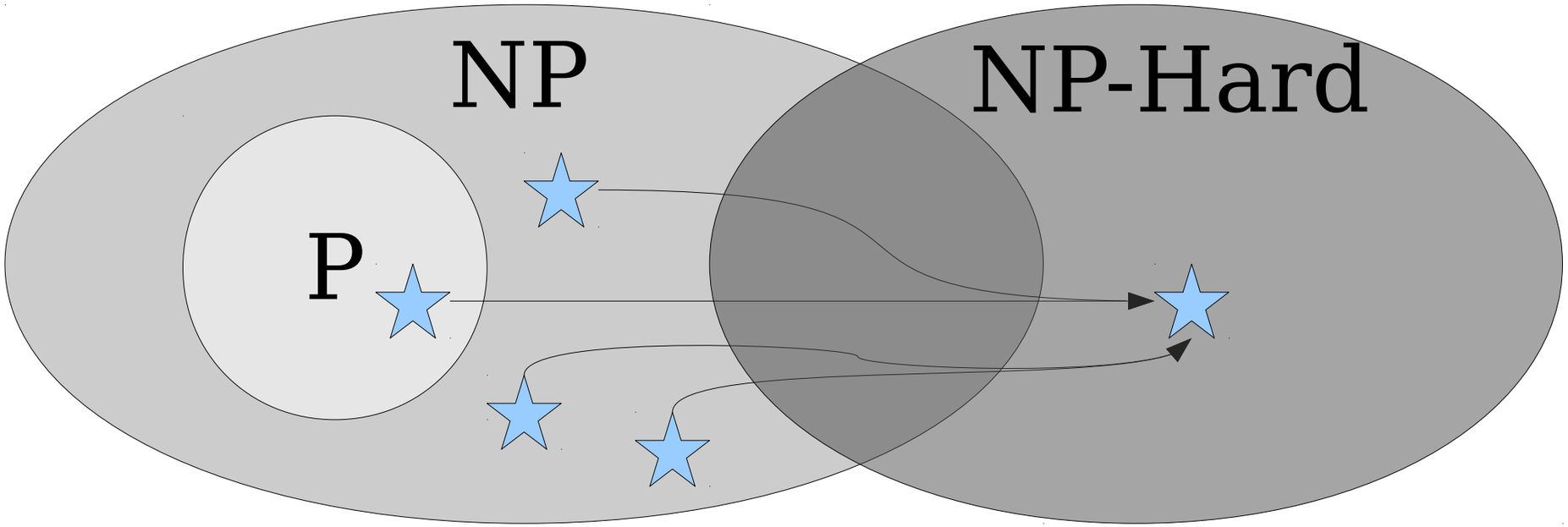
NP-Hardness

- A language L is called ***NP-hard*** if for *every* $A \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have $A \leq_{\mathrm{P}} L$.



NP-Hardness

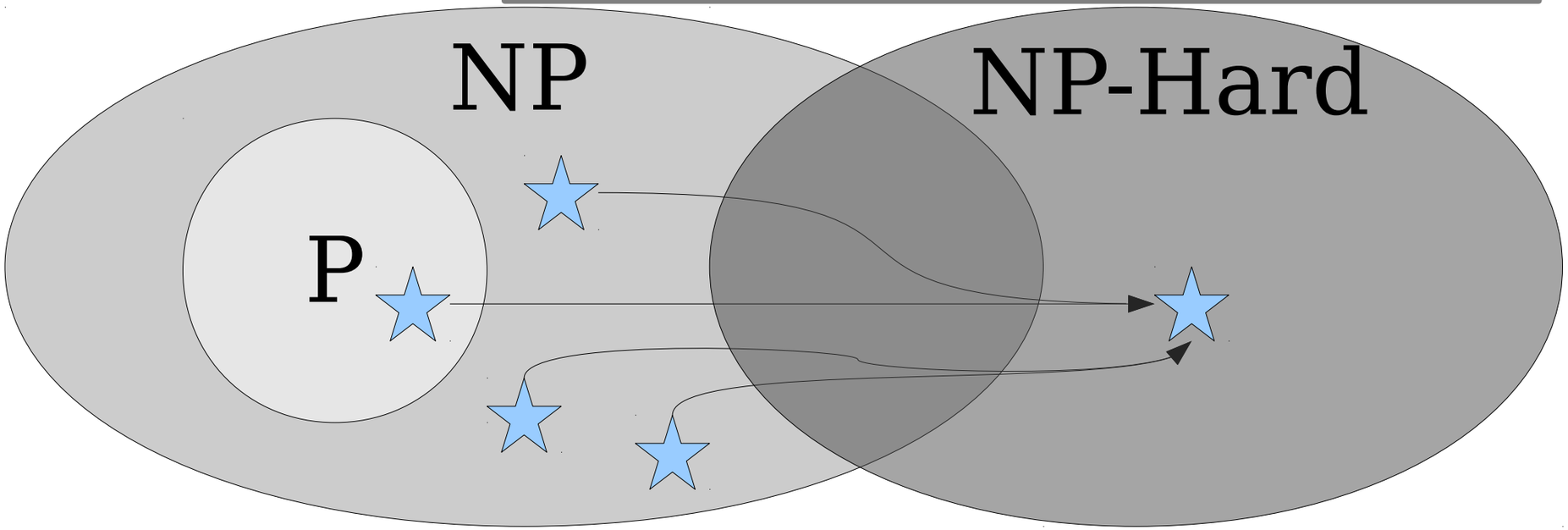
- A language L is called ***NP-hard*** if for *every* $A \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have $A \leq_{\mathrm{P}} L$.



NP-Hardness

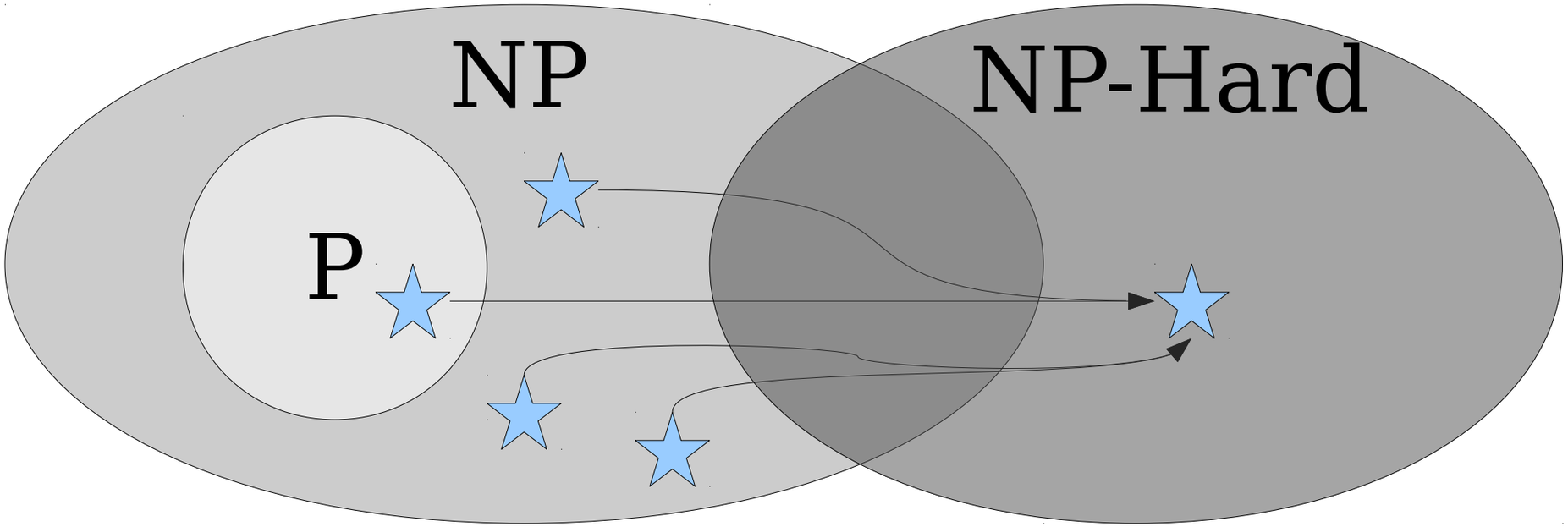
- A language L is called ***NP-hard*** if for *every* $A \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have $A \leq_P L$.

Intuitively: L has to be at least as hard as every problem in **NP**, since an algorithm for L can be used to decide all problems in **NP**.



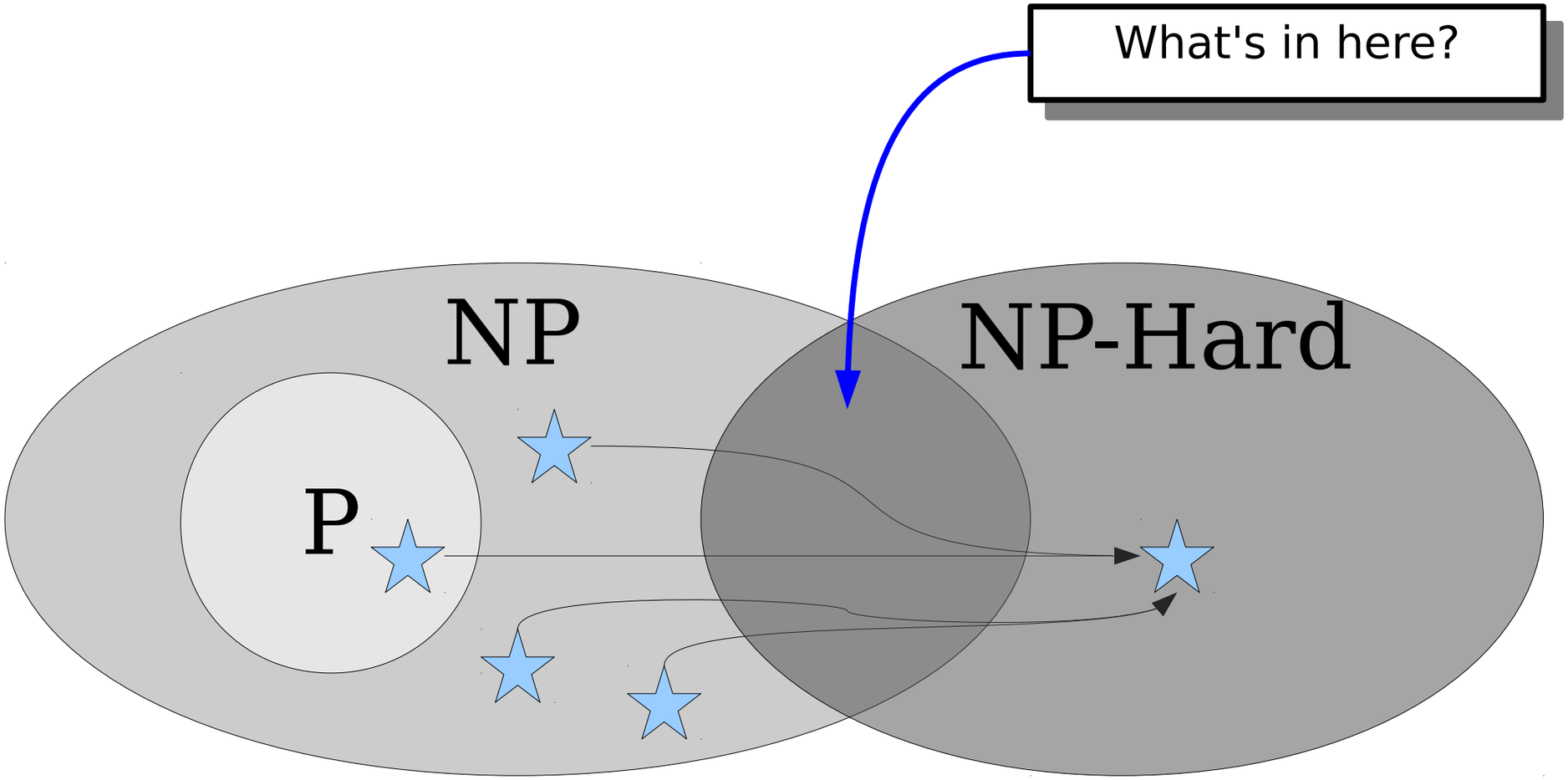
NP-Hardness

- A language L is called ***NP-hard*** if for *every* $A \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have $A \leq_{\mathrm{P}} L$.



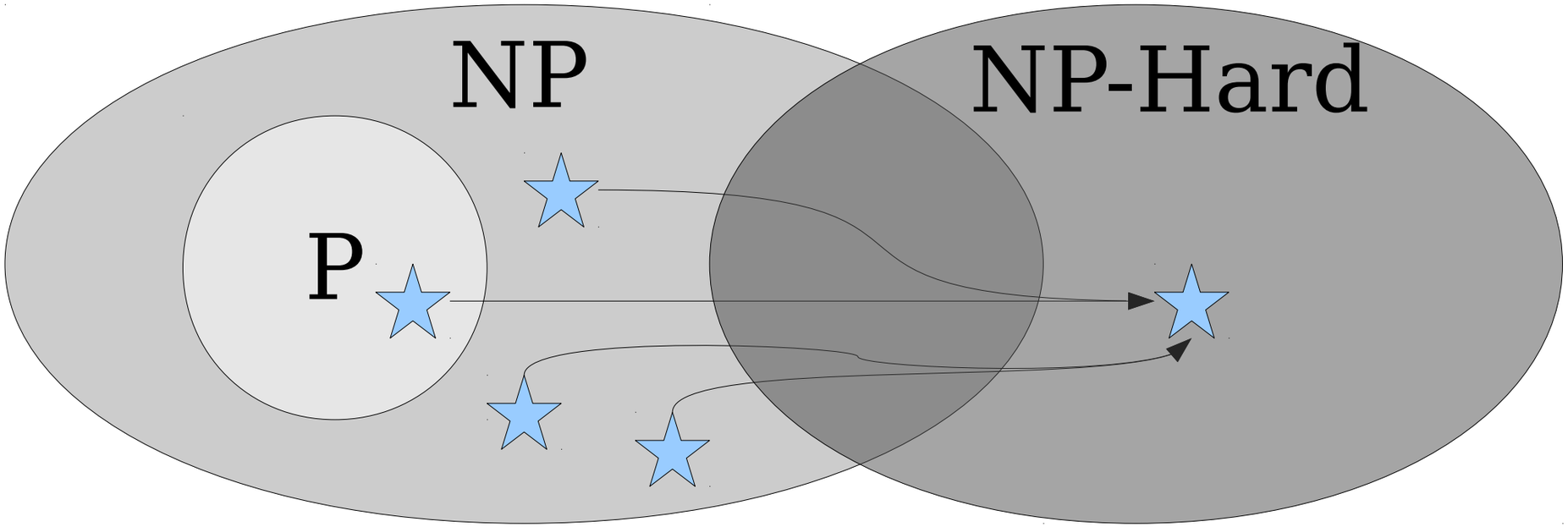
NP-Hardness

- A language L is called ***NP-hard*** if for *every* $A \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have $A \leq_P L$.



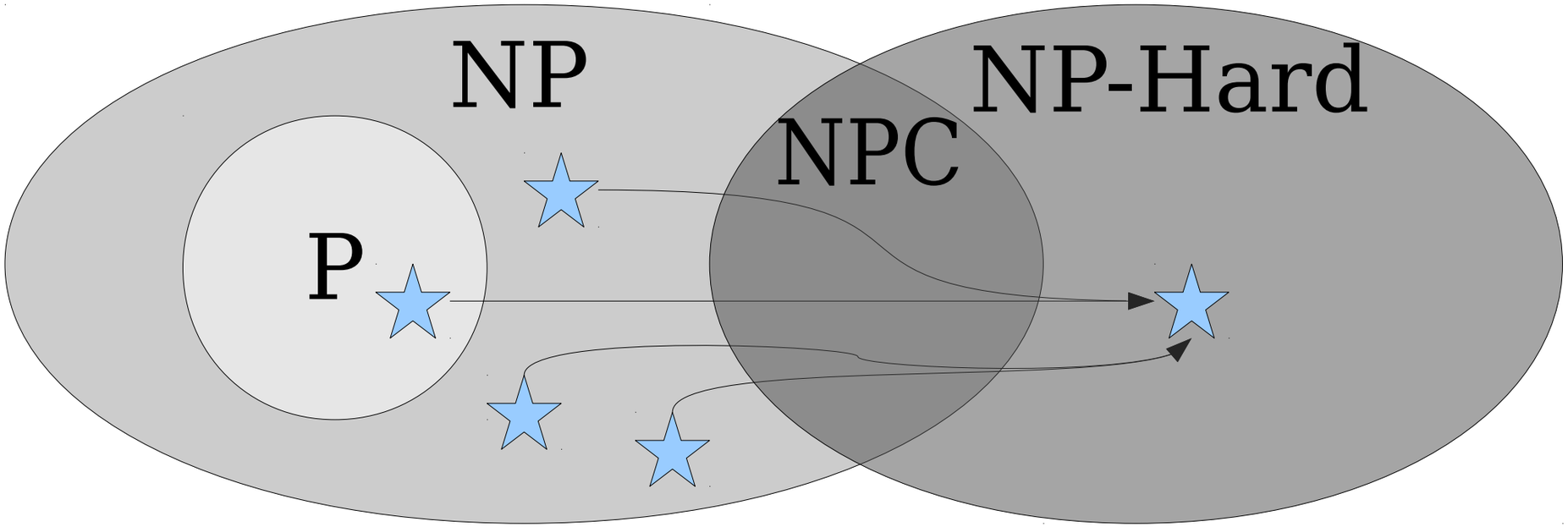
NP-Hardness

- A language L is called ***NP-hard*** if for *every* $A \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have $A \leq_{\mathrm{P}} L$.
- A language in L is called ***NP-complete*** if L is **NP**-hard and $L \in \mathbf{NP}$.
- The class ***NPC*** is the set of **NP**-complete problems.



NP-Hardness

- A language L is called ***NP-hard*** if for *every* $A \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have $A \leq_{\mathrm{P}} L$.
- A language in L is called ***NP-complete*** if L is **NP**-hard and $L \in \mathbf{NP}$.
- The class ***NPC*** is the set of **NP**-complete problems.

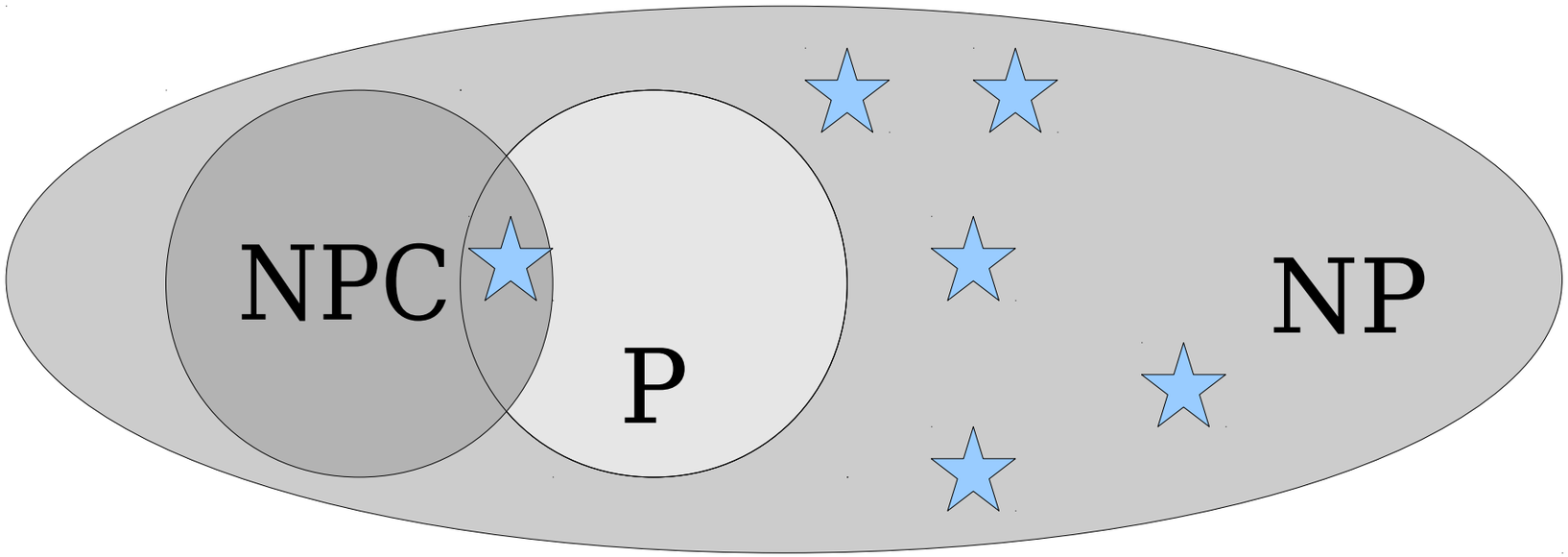


The Tantalizing Truth

Theorem: If *any* **NP**-complete language is in **P**, then **P = NP**.

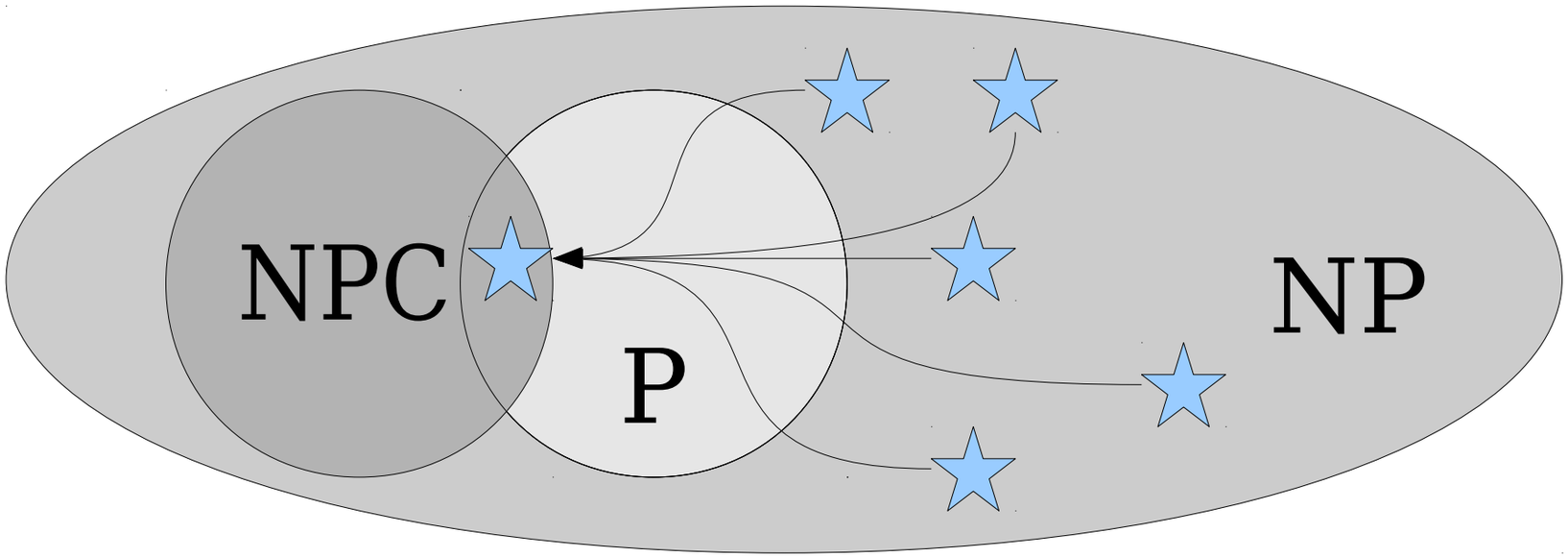
The Tantalizing Truth

Theorem: If *any* **NP**-complete language is in **P**, then **P = NP**.



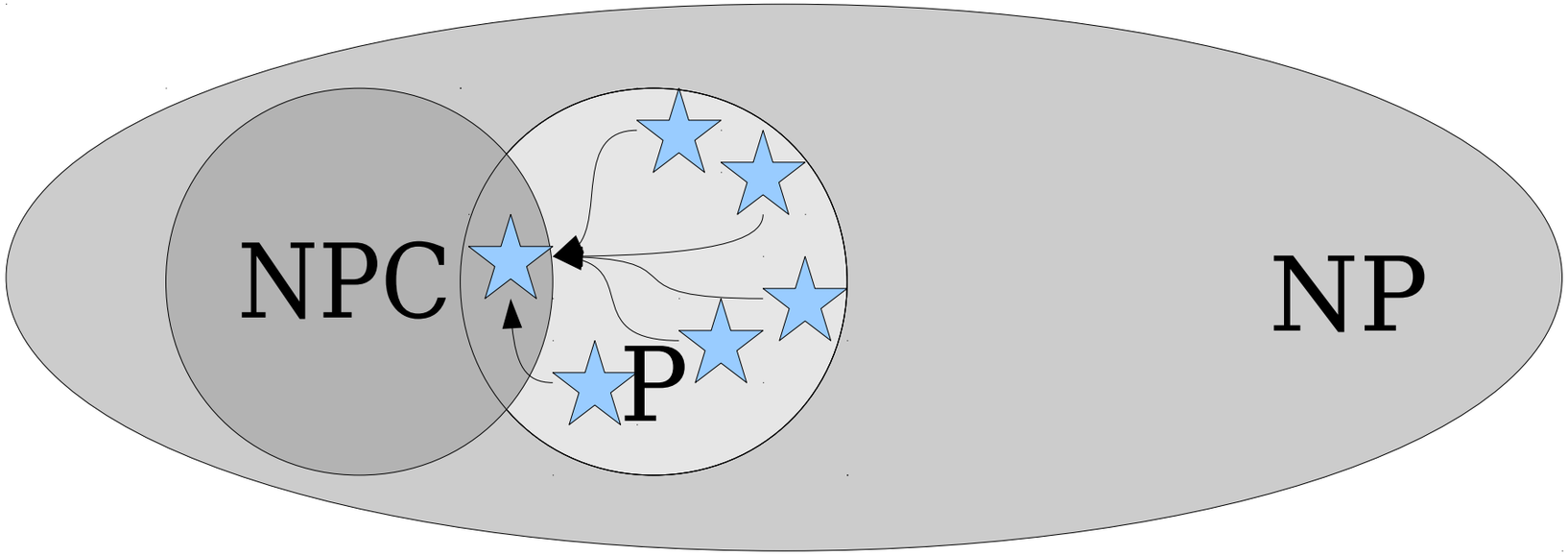
The Tantalizing Truth

Theorem: If *any* **NP**-complete language is in **P**, then **P** = **NP**.



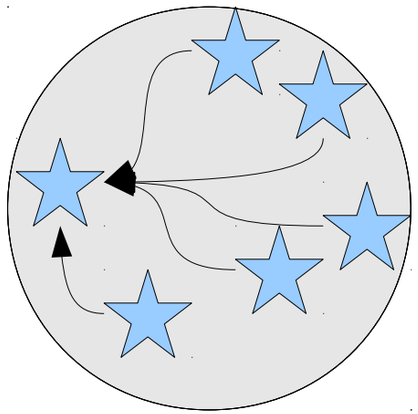
The Tantalizing Truth

Theorem: If *any* **NP**-complete language is in **P**, then **P** = **NP**.



The Tantalizing Truth

Theorem: If *any* **NP**-complete language is in **P**, then **P** = **NP**.

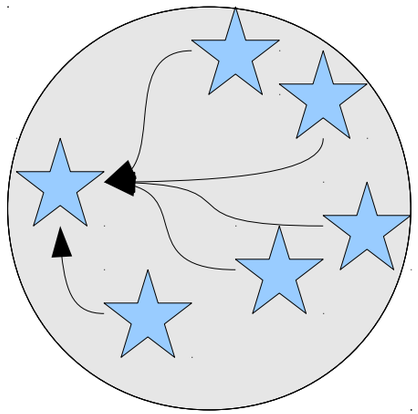


P = NP

The Tantalizing Truth

Theorem: If *any* **NP**-complete language is in **P**, then **P** = **NP**.

Proof: Suppose that L is **NP**-complete and $L \in \mathbf{P}$. Now consider any arbitrary **NP** problem A. Since L is **NP**-complete, we know that $A \leq_p L$. Since $L \in \mathbf{P}$ and $A \leq_p L$, we see that $A \in \mathbf{P}$. Since our choice of A was arbitrary, this means that $\mathbf{NP} \subseteq \mathbf{P}$, so **P** = **NP**. ■

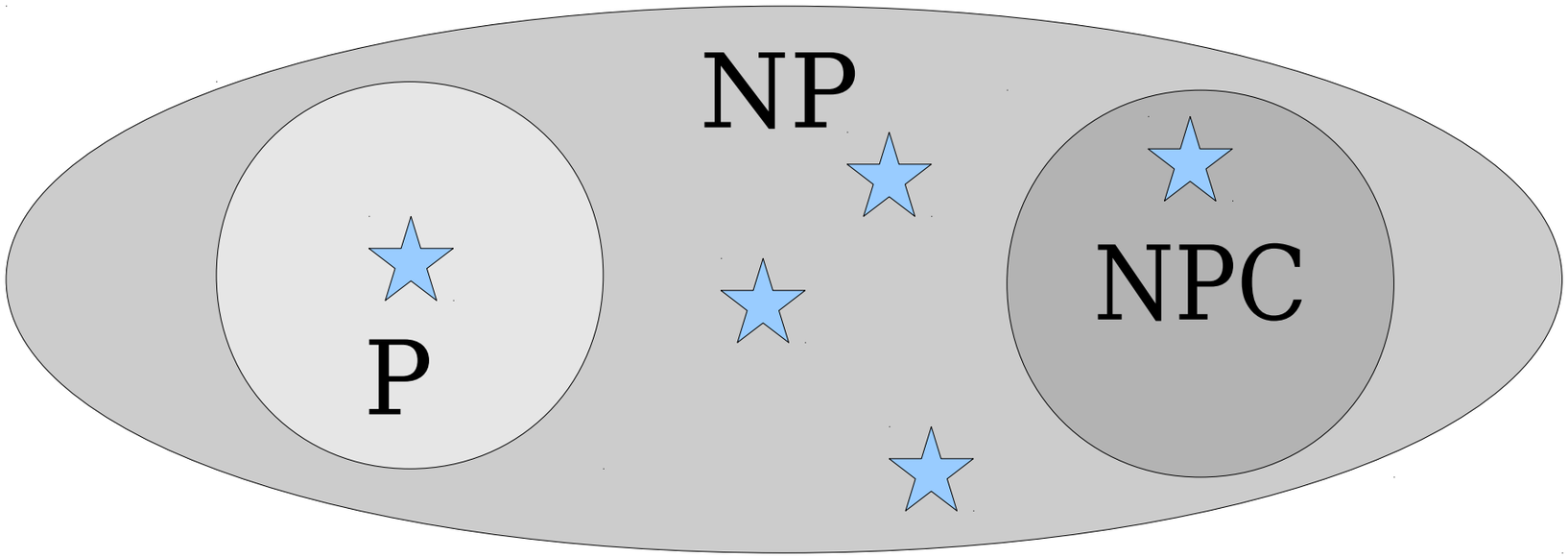


P = NP

The Tantalizing Truth

Theorem: If *any* **NP**-complete language is not in **P**, then **P** ≠ **NP**.

Proof: Suppose that L is an **NP**-complete language not in **P**. Since L is **NP**-complete, we know that $L \in$ **NP**. Therefore, we know that $L \in$ **NP** and $L \notin$ **P**, so **P** ≠ **NP**. ■



How do we even know NP-complete problems exist in the first place?

Satisfiability

- A propositional logic formula φ is called ***satisfiable*** if there is some assignment to its variables that makes it evaluate to true.
  - $p \wedge q$ is satisfiable.
  - $p \wedge \neg p$ is unsatisfiable.
  - $p \rightarrow (q \wedge \neg q)$ is satisfiable.
- An assignment of true and false to the variables of φ that makes it evaluate to true is called a ***satisfying assignment***.

SAT

- The ***boolean satisfiability problem*** (***SAT***) is the following:

  Given a propositional logic formula φ, is φ satisfiable?

- Formally:

  SAT **= { ⟨φ⟩ | φ is a satisfiable PL formula }**

SAT = { ⟨φ⟩ | φ is a satisfiable PL formula }

The language SAT happens to be in **NP**. Think about how a polynomial-time verifier for SAT might work. Which of the following would work as certificates for such a verifier, given that the input is a propositional formula φ?

A. The truth table of φ.
B. One possible variable assignment to φ.
C. A list of all possible variable assignments for φ.
D. None of the above, or two or more of the above.

Answer at **PollEv.com/cs103** or
text **CS103** to **22333** once to join, then ***A***, ***B***, ***C***, or ***D***.

Theorem (Cook-Levin): SAT is **NP**-complete.

Proof Idea: To see that **SAT** ∈ **NP**, show how to make a polynomial-time verifier for it. Key idea: have the certificate be a satisfying assignment.

To show that **SAT** is **NP**-hard, given a polymomial-time verifier V for an arbitrary **NP** language L, for any string w you can construct a polynomially-sized formula $\varphi(w)$ that says "there is a certificate c where V accepts $\langle w, c \rangle$." This formula is satisfiable if and only if $w \in L$, so deciding whether the formula is satisfiable decides whether w is in L.

Proof: Take CS154!

Why All This Matters

- Resolving **P** $\stackrel{?}{=}$ **NP** is equivalent to just figuring out how hard SAT is.
  - If SAT $\in$ **P**, then **P** = **NP**.

    If SAT $\notin$ **P**, then **P** $\neq$ **NP**.

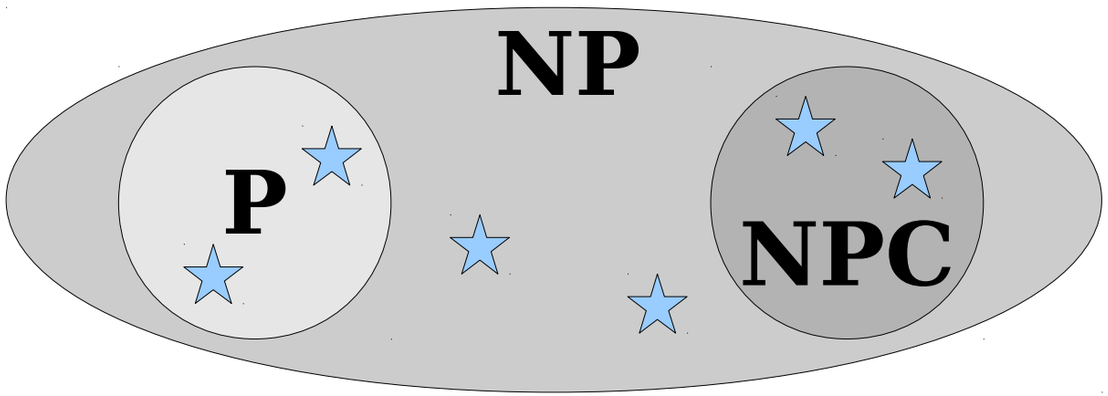
Sample **NP**-Hard Problems

- ***Computational biology:*** Given a set of genomes, what is the most probable evolutionary tree that would give rise to those genomes? *(Maximum parsimony problem)*
- ***Game theory:*** Given an arbitrary perfect-information, finite, twoplayer game, who wins? *(Generalized geography problem)*
- ***Operations research:*** Given a set of jobs and workers who can perform those tasks in parallel, can you complete all the jobs within some time bound? *(Job scheduling problem)*
- ***Machine learning:*** Given a set of data, find the simplest way of modeling the statistical patterns in that data *(Bayesian network inference problem)*
- ***Medicine:*** Given a group of people who need kidneys and a group of kidney donors, find the maximum number of people who can end up with kidneys *(Cycle cover problem)*
- ***Systems:*** Given a set of processes and a number of processors, find the optimal way to assign those tasks so that they complete as soon as possible *(Processor scheduling problem)*

Coda: What if $\mathbf{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{NP}$ is resolved?

Intermediate Problems

- With few exceptions, every problem we've discovered in **NP** has either
  - definitely been proven to be in **P**, or
  - definitely been proven to be **NP**-complete.
- A problem that's **NP**, not in **P**, but not **NP**-complete is called ***NP-intermediate***.
- ***Theorem (Ladner):*** There are **NP**-intermediate problems if and only if **P ≠ NP**.



What if **P ≠ NP**?

A Good Read:

"A Personal View of Average-Case Complexity" by Russell Impagliazzo

What if **P = NP**?

And a Dismal Third Option
... we never prove it either way :-(