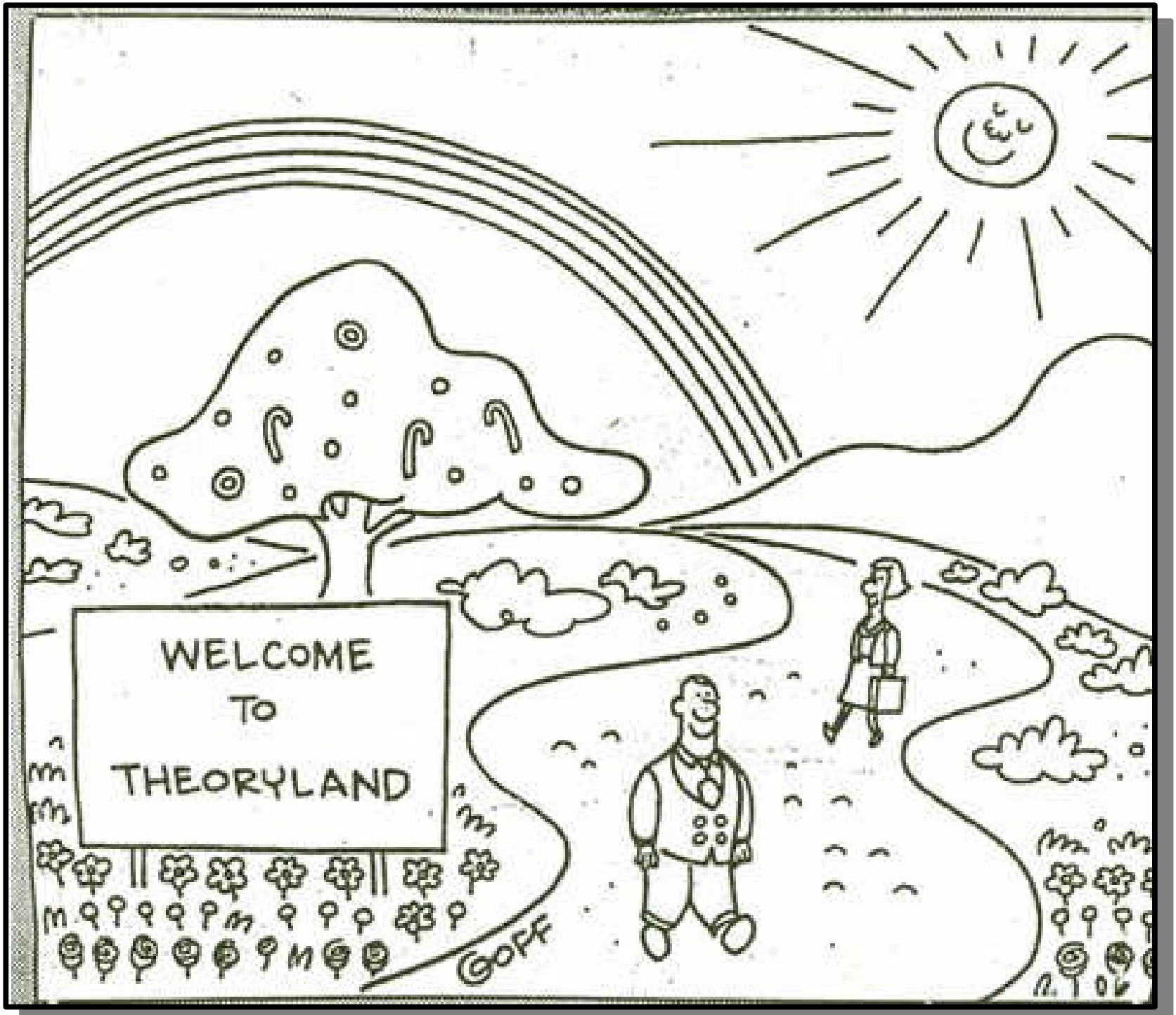
Complexity Theory

It may be that since one is customarily concerned with existence, [...] finiteness, and so forth, one is not inclined to take seriously the question of the existence of a *better-than-finite* algorithm.

- Jack Edmonds, “Paths, Trees, and Flowers”


WELCOME
TO
THEORYLAND
GOFF

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It may be that since one is customarily concerned with existence, [...] decidability, and so forth, one is not inclined to take seriously the question of the existence of a *better-than-decidable* algorithm.

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A Decidable Problem

- Consider the following problem:

  Given two regular expressions R_1 and R_2, determine whether R_1 and R_2 have the same language.

- This problem is indeed decidable.
  - We autograded your regular expressions in Problem Set Seven. The algorithm we used is 100% accurate.
- ***Theorem:*** There is no algorithm for solving this problem whose runtime is $O(2^{m+n})$, where m and n are the lengths of the input regular expressions.

The Limits of Decidability

- The fact that a problem is decidable does not mean that it is *feasibly* decidable.
- In ***computability theory***, we ask the question

  What problems can be solved by a computer?

- In ***complexity theory***, we ask the question

  What problems can be solved ***efficiently*** by a computer?

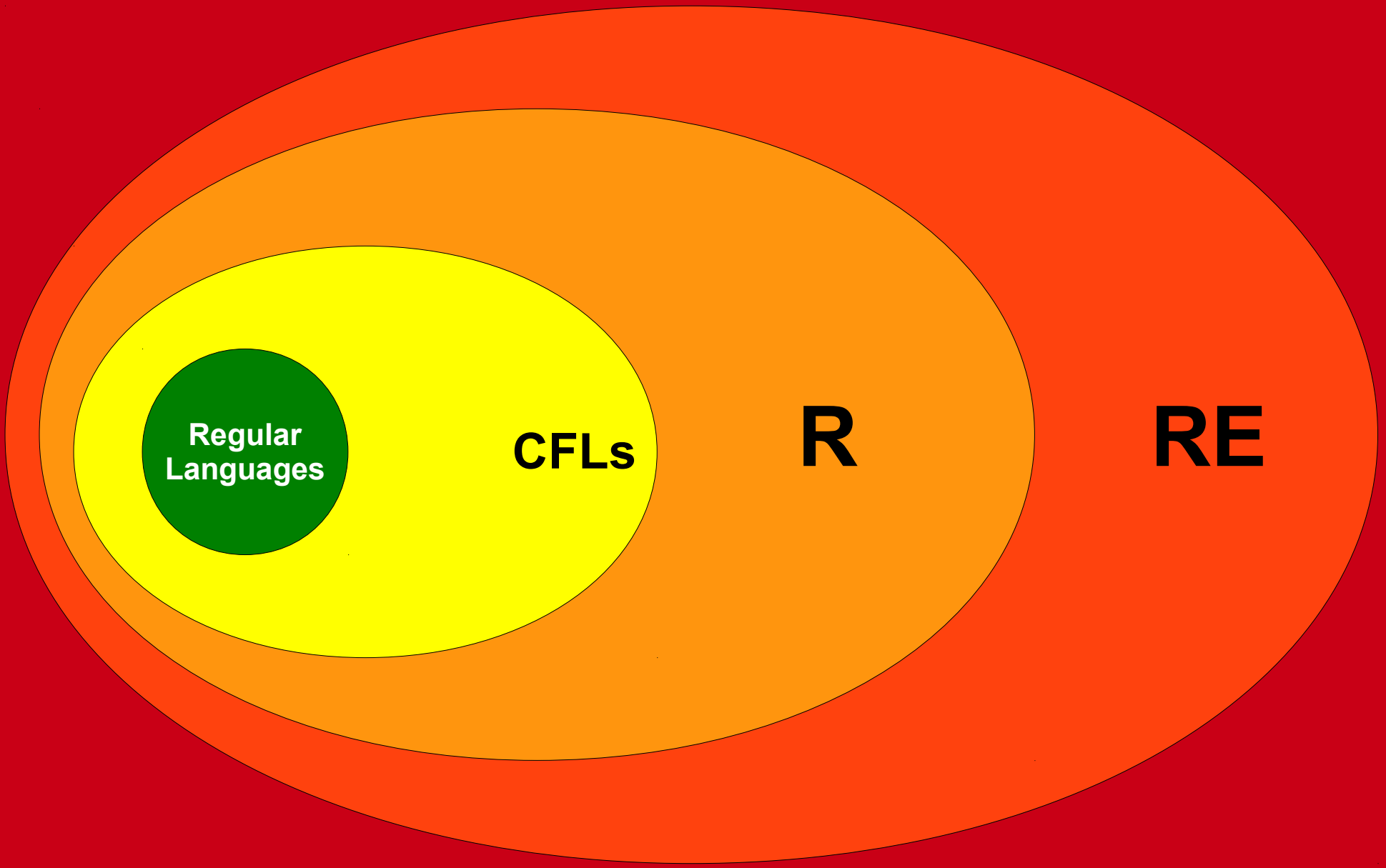
- In the remainder of this course, we will explore this question in more detail.

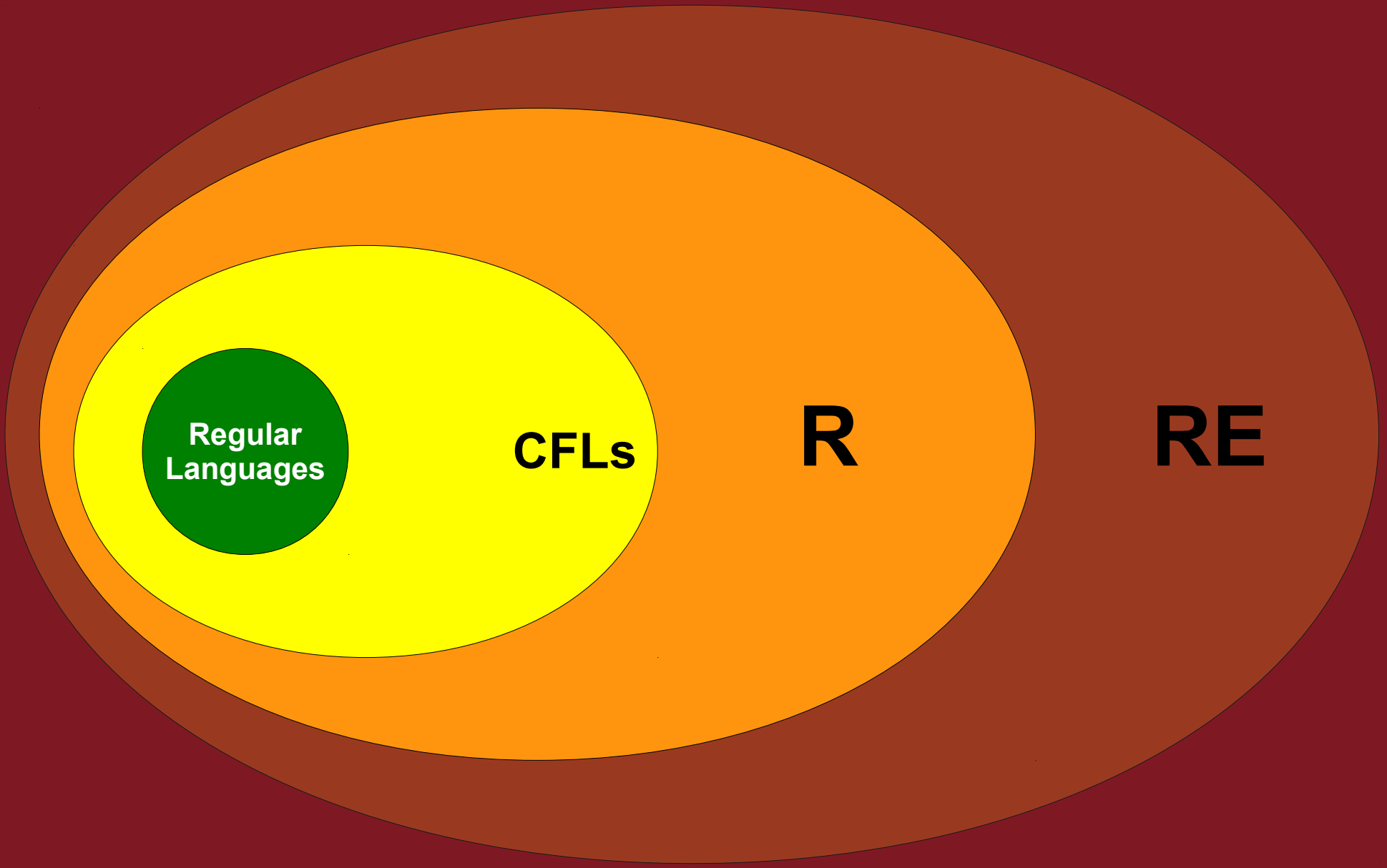
Where We've Been

- 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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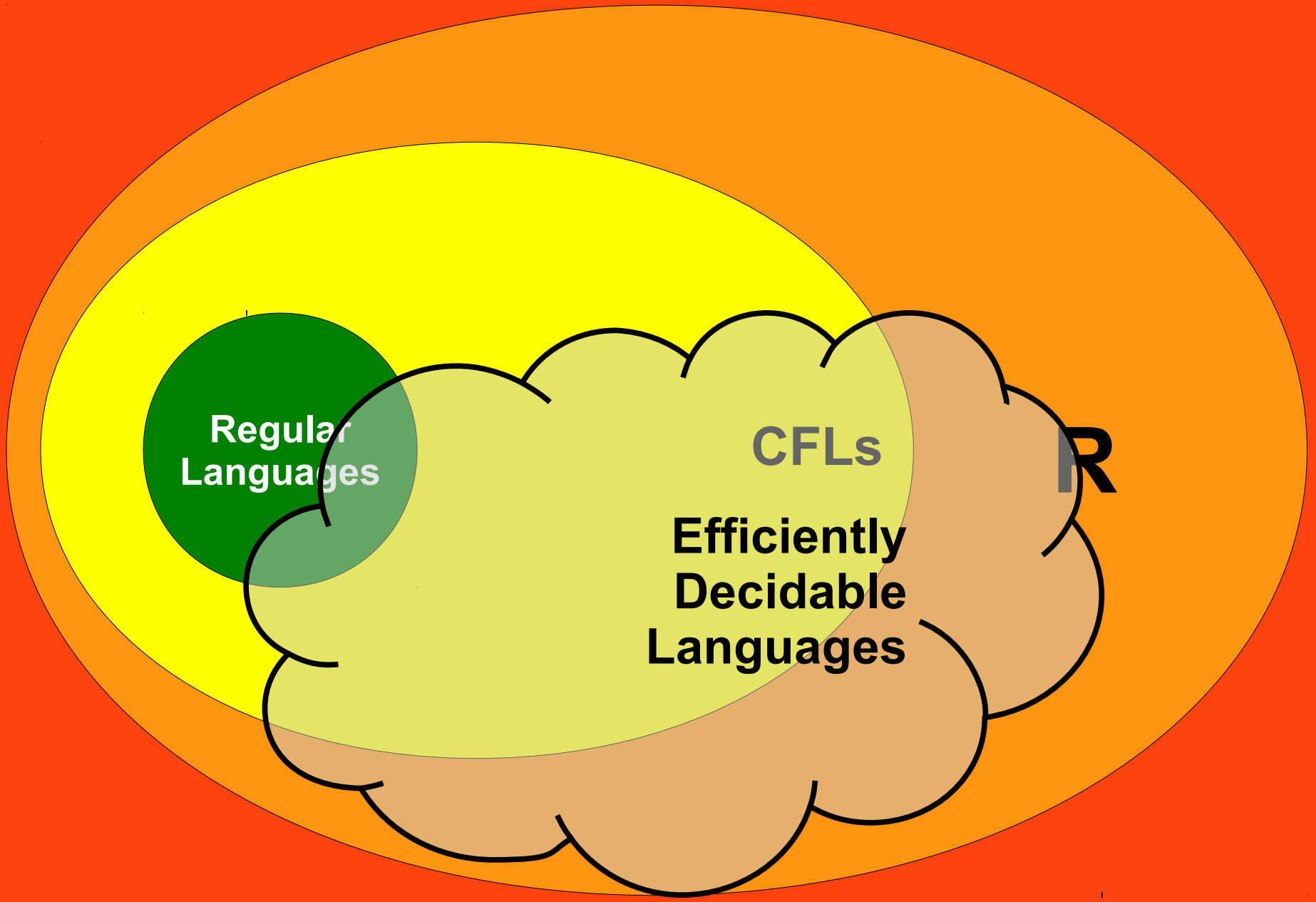
Regular Languages
CFLs
R
Efficiently Decidable Languages
Undecidable Languages

The Setup

- In order to study computability, we needed to answer these questions:
  - What is “computation?”
  - What is a “problem?”
  - What does it mean to “solve” a problem?
- To study complexity, we need to answer these questions:
  - What does “complexity” even mean?
  - What is an “efficient” solution to a problem?

Measuring Complexity

- We have a program written in your Favorite Programming Language that's a decider for some problem.
- The program is correct in the sense that it always produces the right output for any given input.
- How might we measure the "complexity" of that solution?
  - The number of lines of code in the program.
  - How deeply-nested the loops or recursion in the program are.
  - How much time it takes for the program to solve the problem.
  - How much memory it takes for the program to solve the problem.
  - How much power it takes for the program to solve the problem.
  - How much network communication it takes for the program to solve the problem.
  - …

Measuring Complexity

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- How much network communi
  solve the problem.
- …

We're going to focus on this measure of "complexity," but that doesn't mean these other ones aren't interesting! There's tons of research on them.

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.
- From a decidability perspective, this is totally fine.
- From a complexity perspective, this may be totally unacceptable.

A Sample Problem

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

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Goal: Find the length of the longest increasing subsequence of this sequence.

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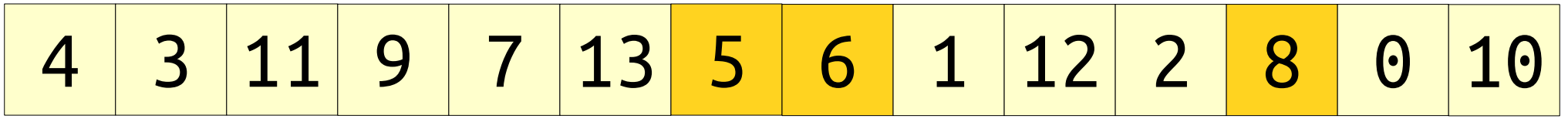

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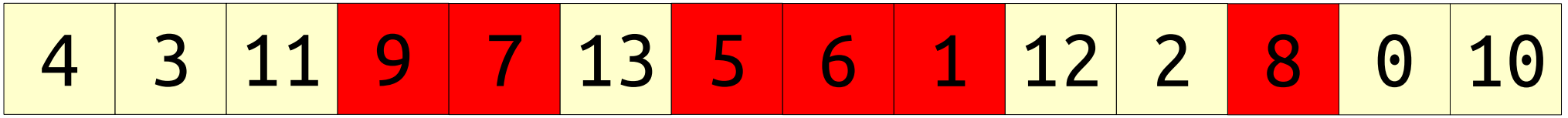

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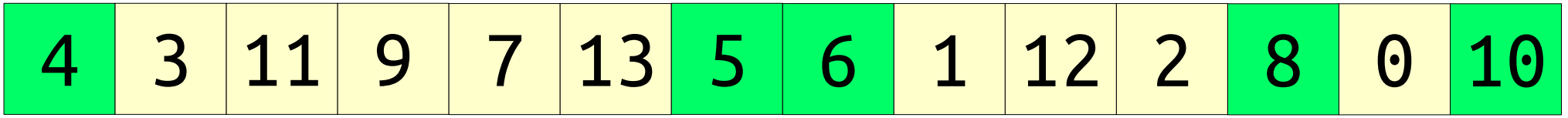


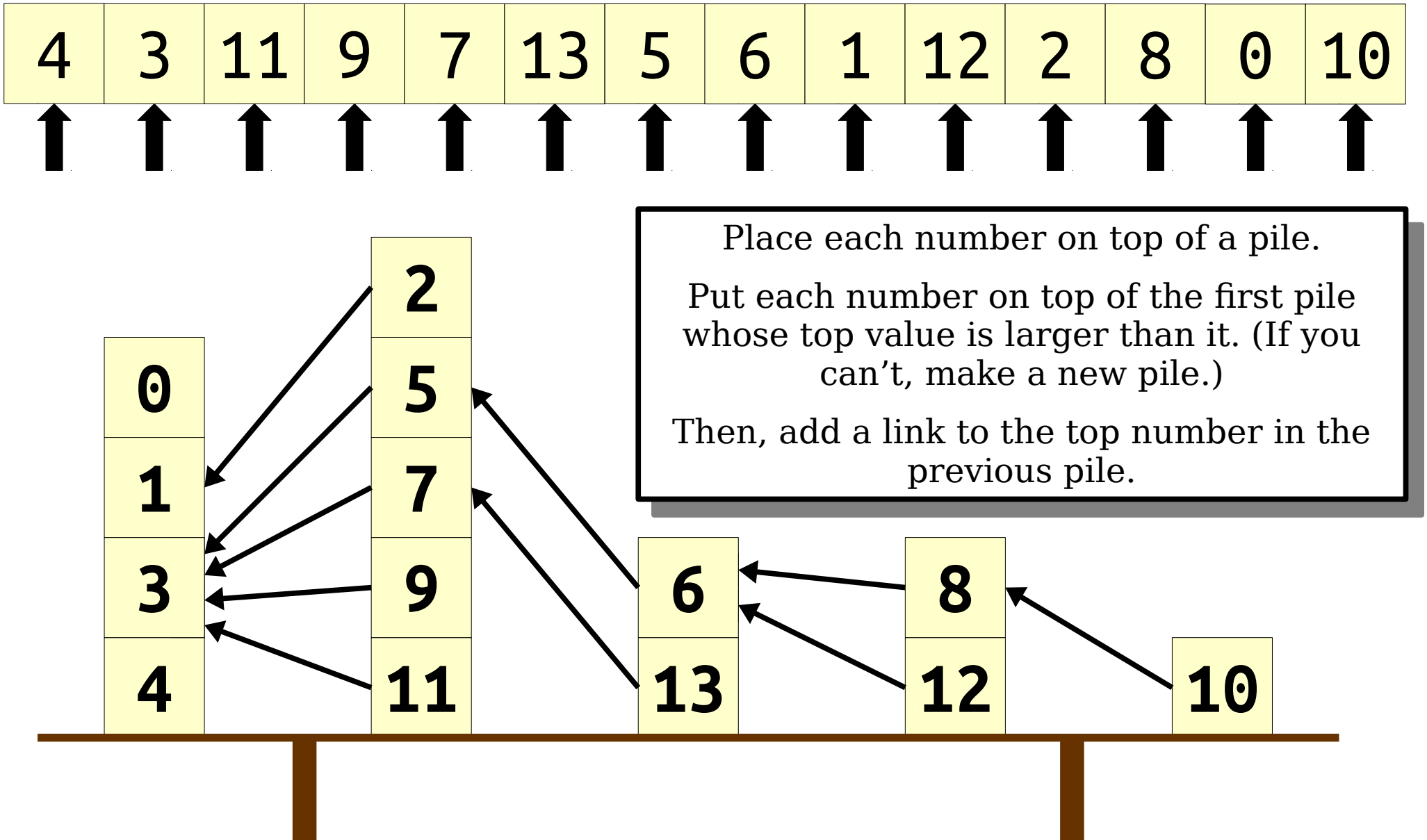
Goal: Find the length of the longest increasing subsequence of this sequence.

Longest Increasing Subsequences

- ***One possible algorithm:*** try all subsequences, find the longest one that's increasing, and return that.
- There are 2^n subsequences of an array of length n.
  - (Each subset of the elements gives back a subsequence.)
- Checking all of them to find the longest increasing subsequence will take time $O(n \cdot 2^n)$.
- ***Fact:*** the age of the universe is about 4.3×10^{26} nanoseconds. That's about 2^{85} nanoseconds.
- Practically speaking, this algorithm doesn't terminate if you give it an input of size 100 or more.

A Different Approach

Patience Sorting



Patience Sorting

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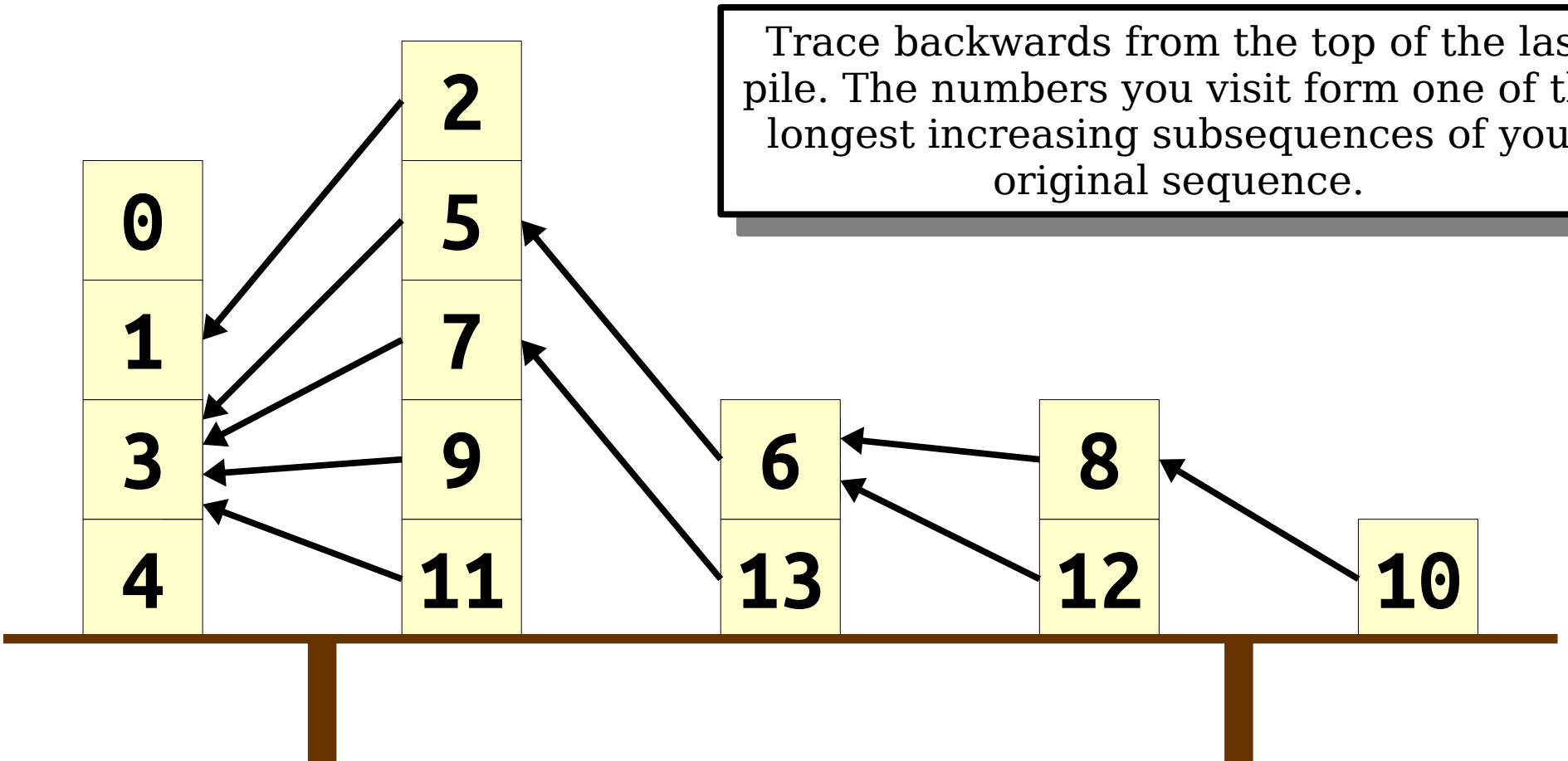

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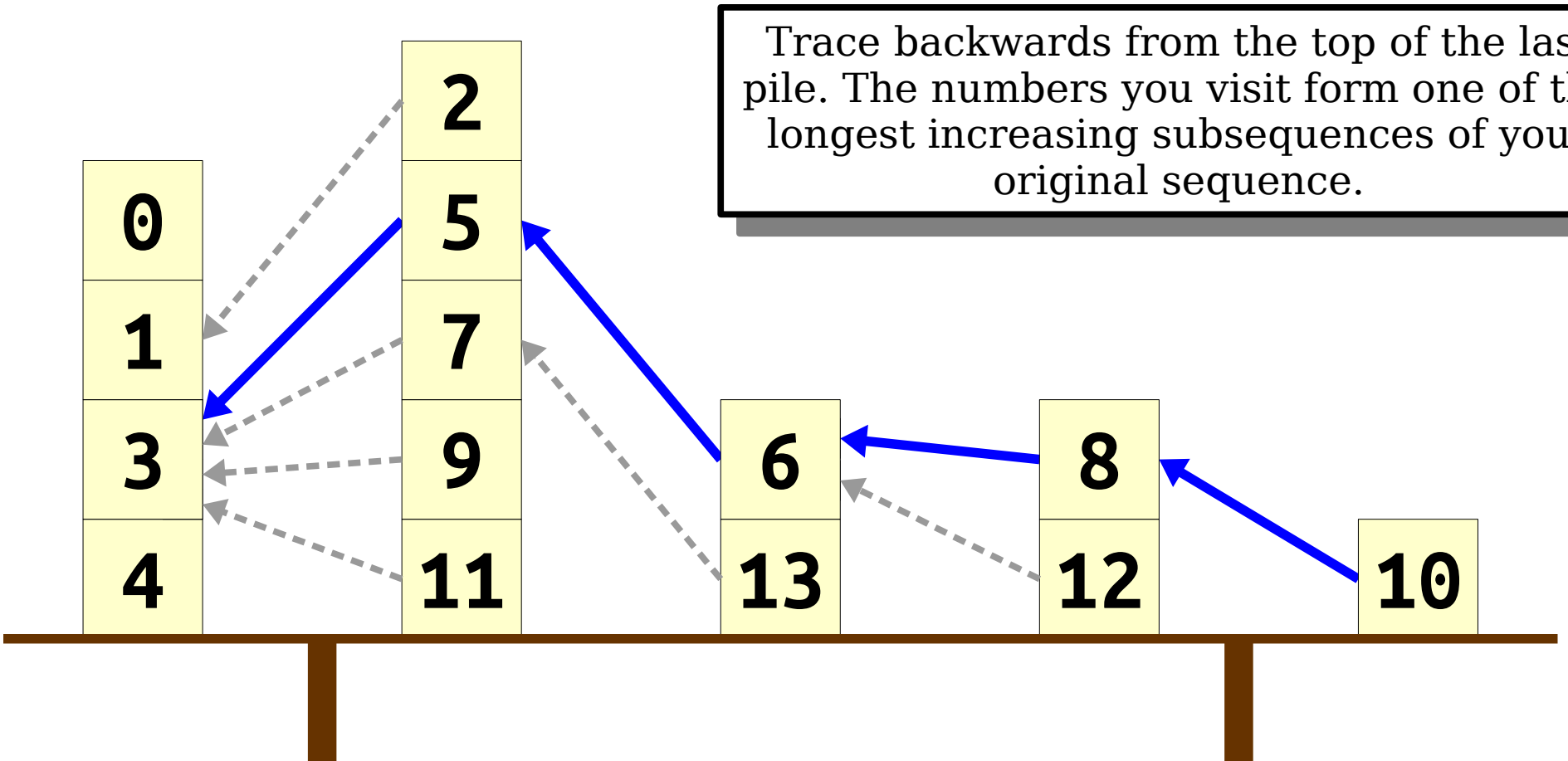

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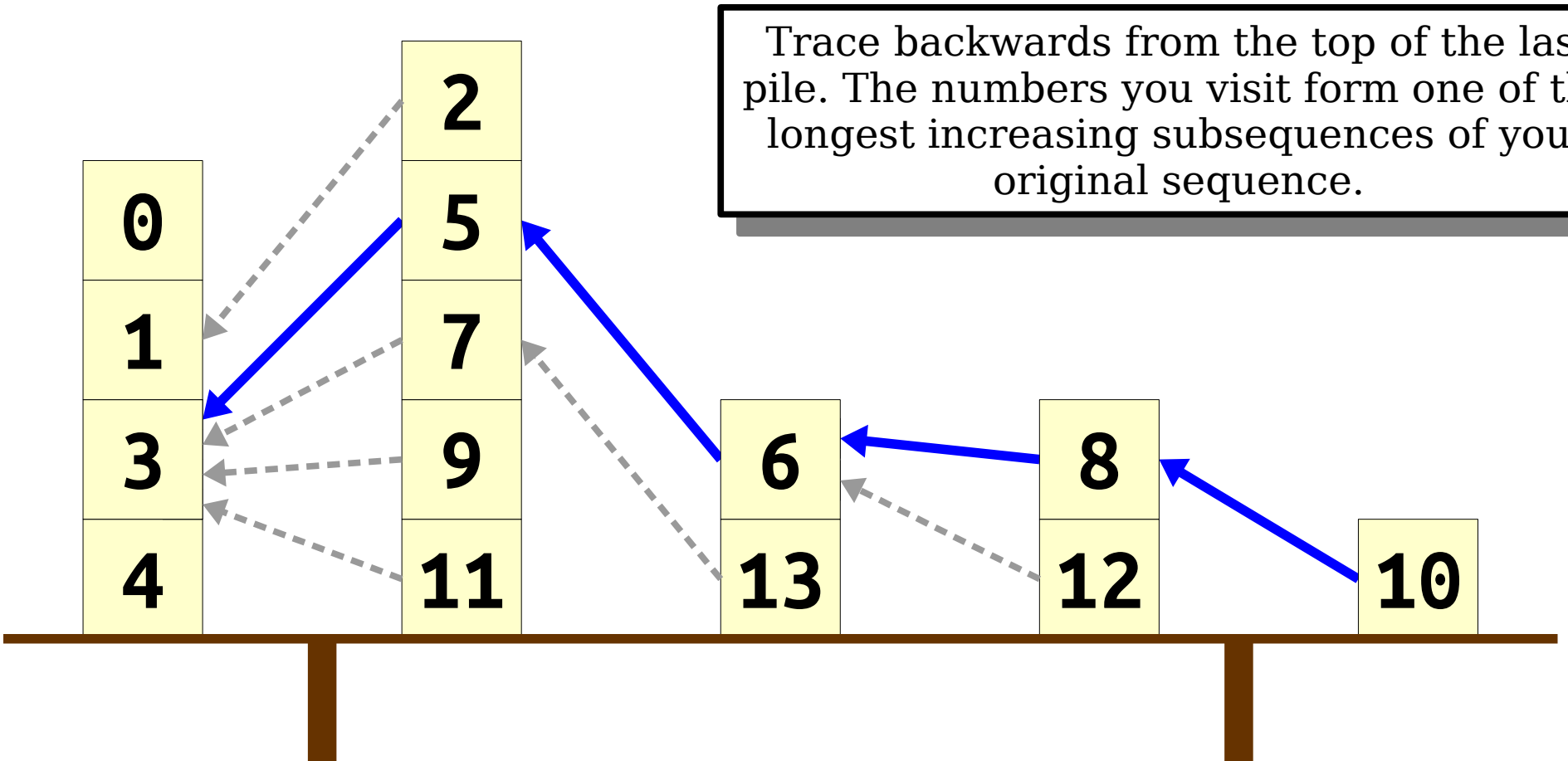
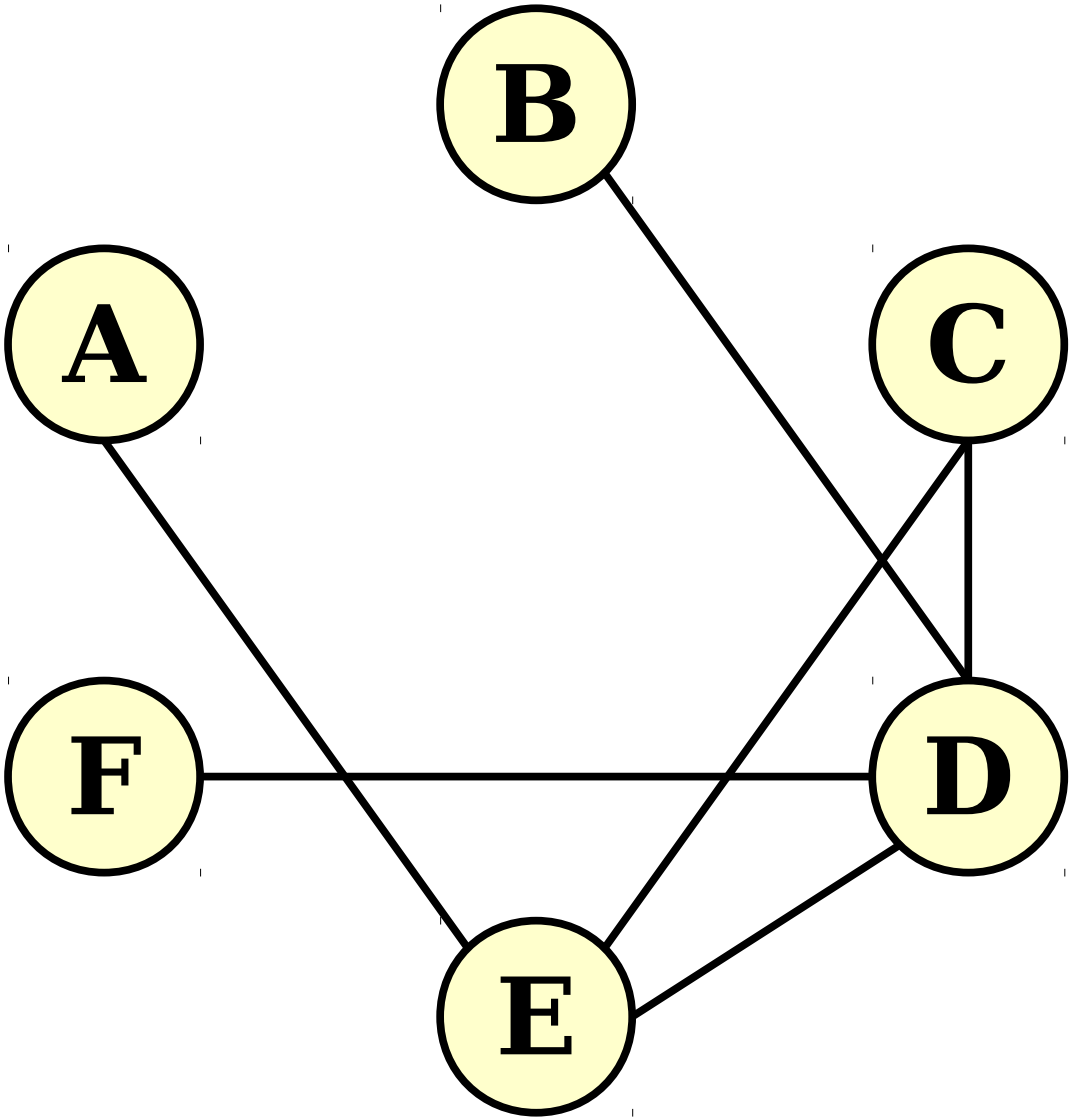


Longest Increasing Subsequences

- ***Theorem:*** There is an algorithm that can find the longest increasing subsequence of an array in time $O(n^2)$.
  - It's the previous ***patience sorting*** algorithm, with some clever implementation tricks.
- This algorithm works by exploiting particular aspects of how longest increasing subsequences are constructed. It's not immediately obvious that it works correctly.
- ***CS161-Style Exercise 1:*** Prove that this procedure always works!
- ***CS161-Style Exercise 2:*** Show that you can implement this algorithm in time $O(n \log n)$.

Another Problem



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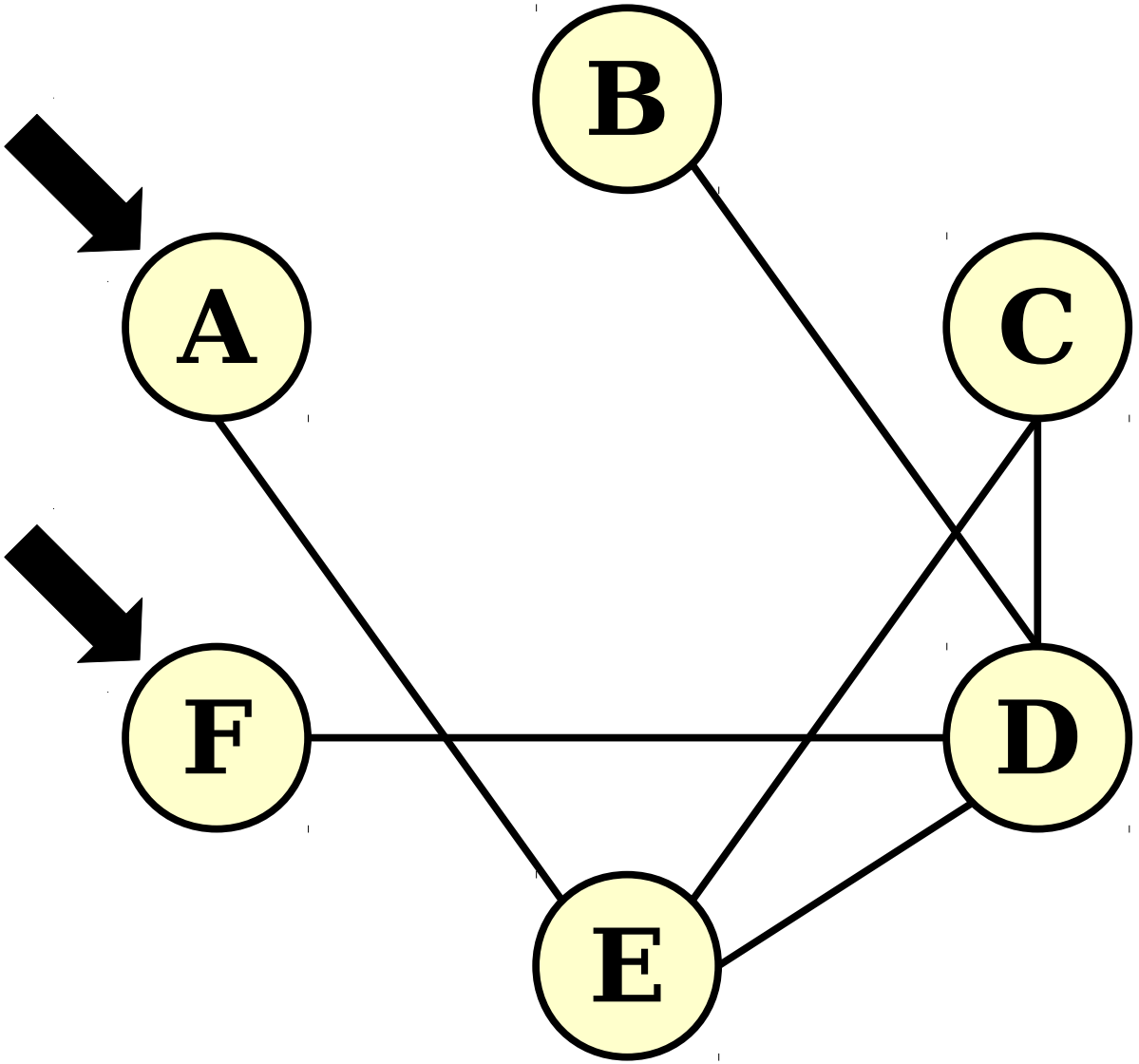

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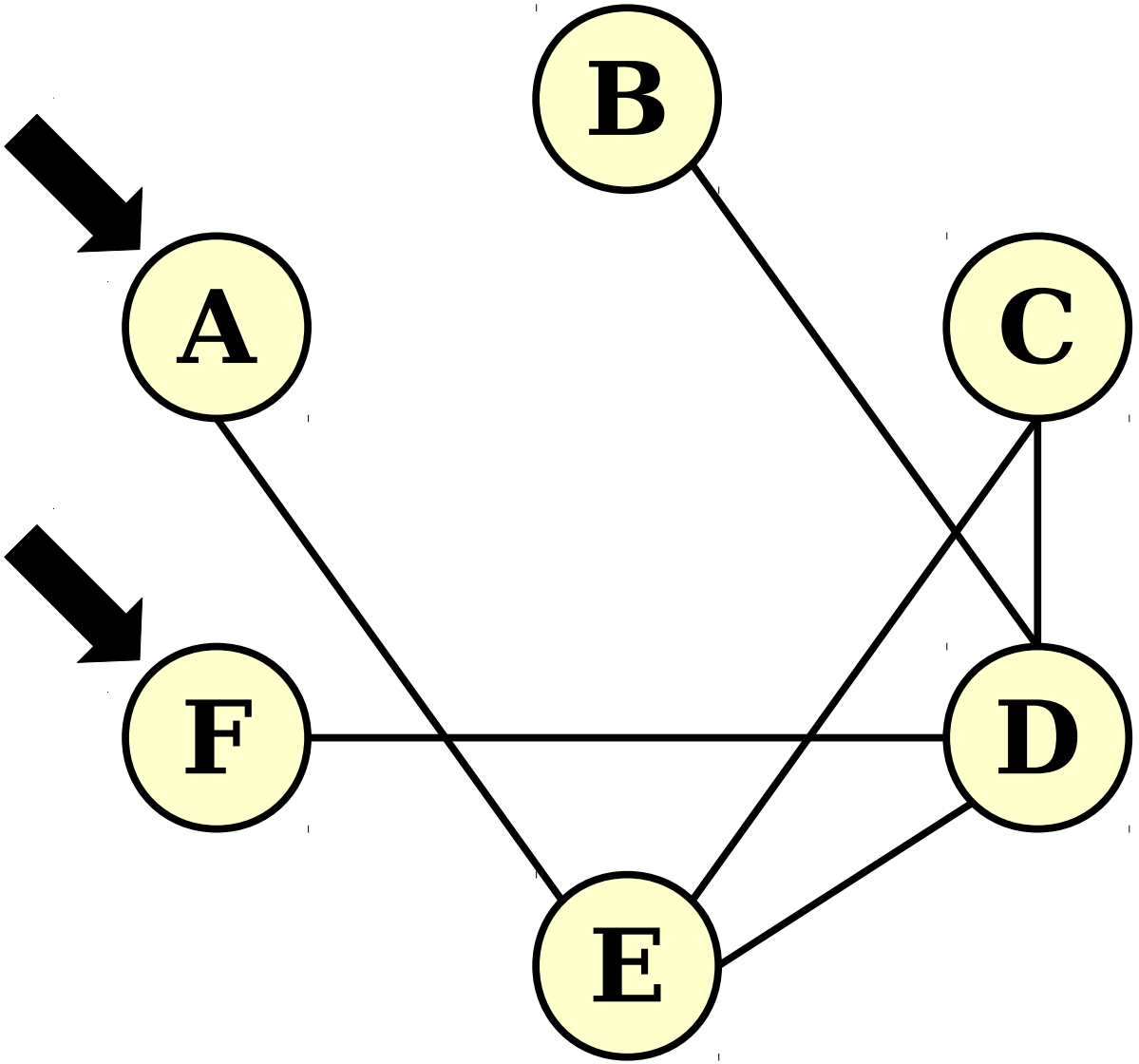


Goal: Determine the length of the shortest path from **F** to **A** in this graph.

Shortest Paths

- It is possible to find the shortest path in a graph by listing off all sequences of nodes in the graph in ascending order of length and finding the first that's a path.
- This takes time $O(n \cdot n!)$ in an n-node graph.
- For reference: 29! nanoseconds is longer than the lifetime of the universe.

Shortest Paths

- ***Theorem:*** It's possible to find the shortest path between two nodes in an n-node, m-edge graph in time $O(m + n)$.
- ***Proof idea:*** Use breadth-first search!
- The algorithm is a bit nuanced. It uses some specific properties of shortest paths and the proof of correctness is nontrivial.

For Comparison

- ***Longest increasing subsequence:***
  - Naive: $O(n \cdot 2^n)$
  - Fast: $O(n^2)$
- ***Shortest path problem:***
  - Naive: $O(n \cdot n!)$
  - Fast: $O(n + m)$.

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

- Efficient runtimes:
  - $4n + 13$
  - $n^3 - 2n^2 + 4n$
  - $n \log \log n$
- "Efficient" runtimes:
  - $n^{1,000,000,000,000}$
  - 10^{500}
- Inefficient runtimes:
  - 2^n
  - $n!$
  - n^n
- "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**

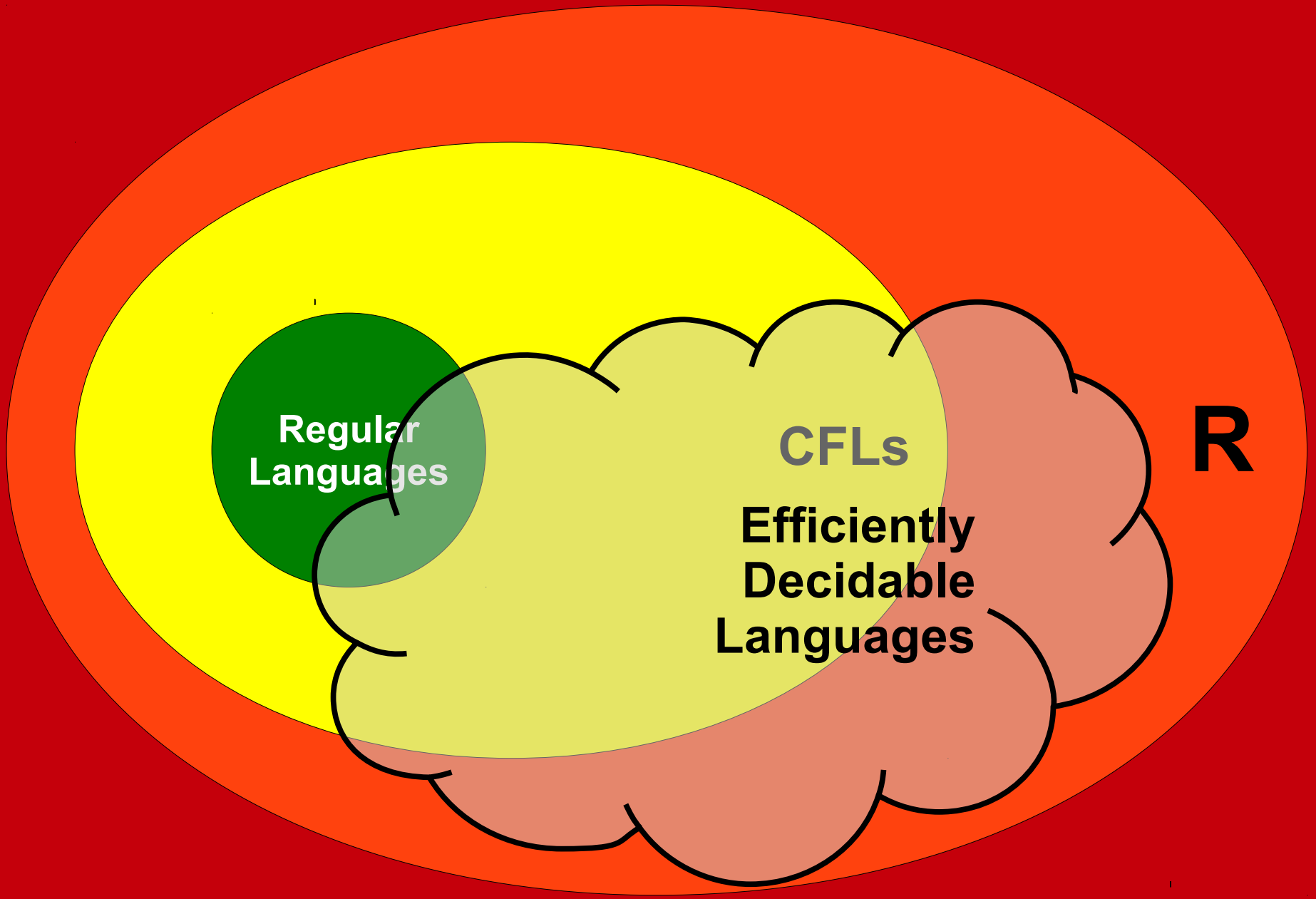
- The ***complexity class* P** (for ***p***olynomial time) contains all problems that can be solved in polynomial time.
- Formally:

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

- 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!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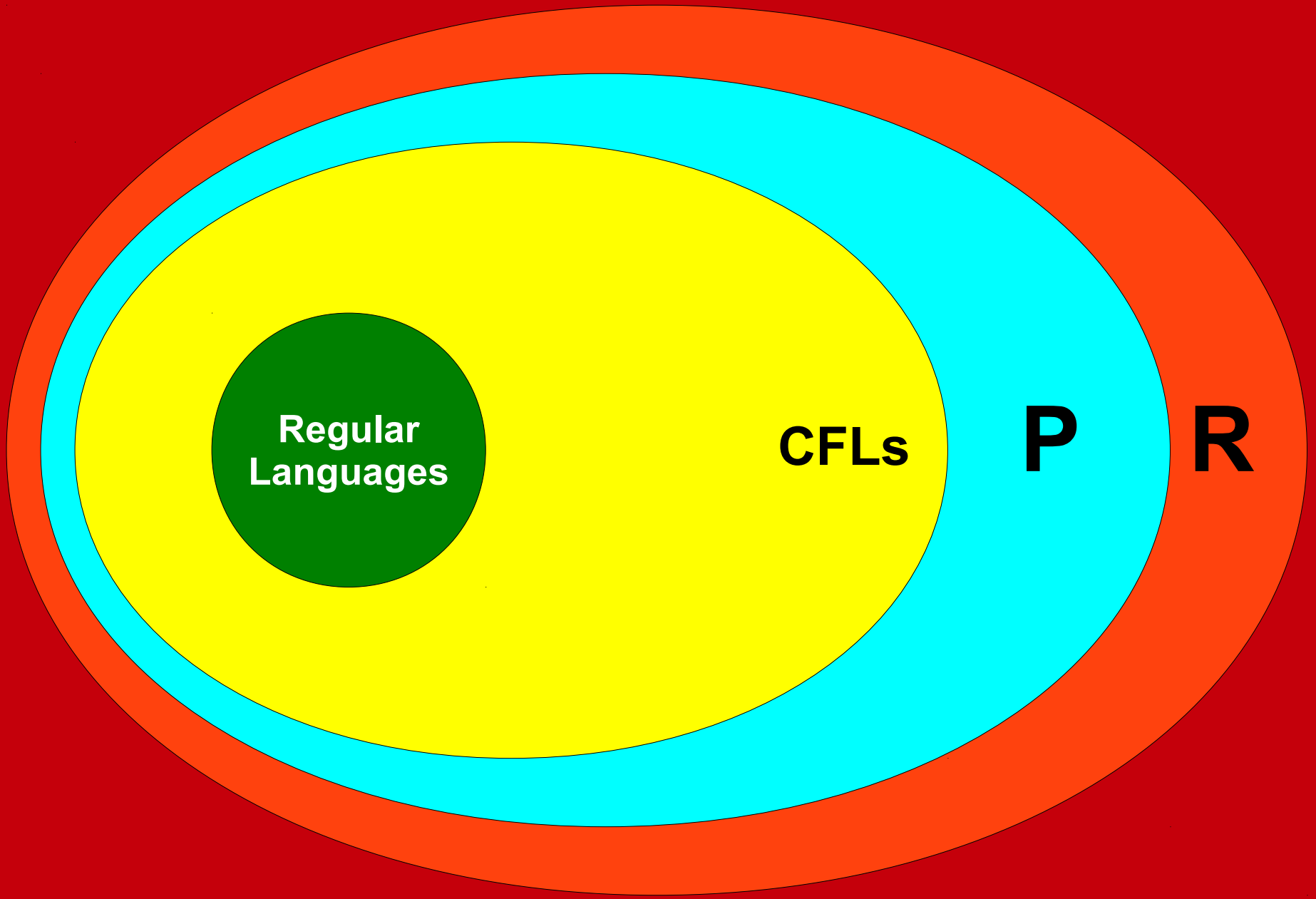
Regular Languages
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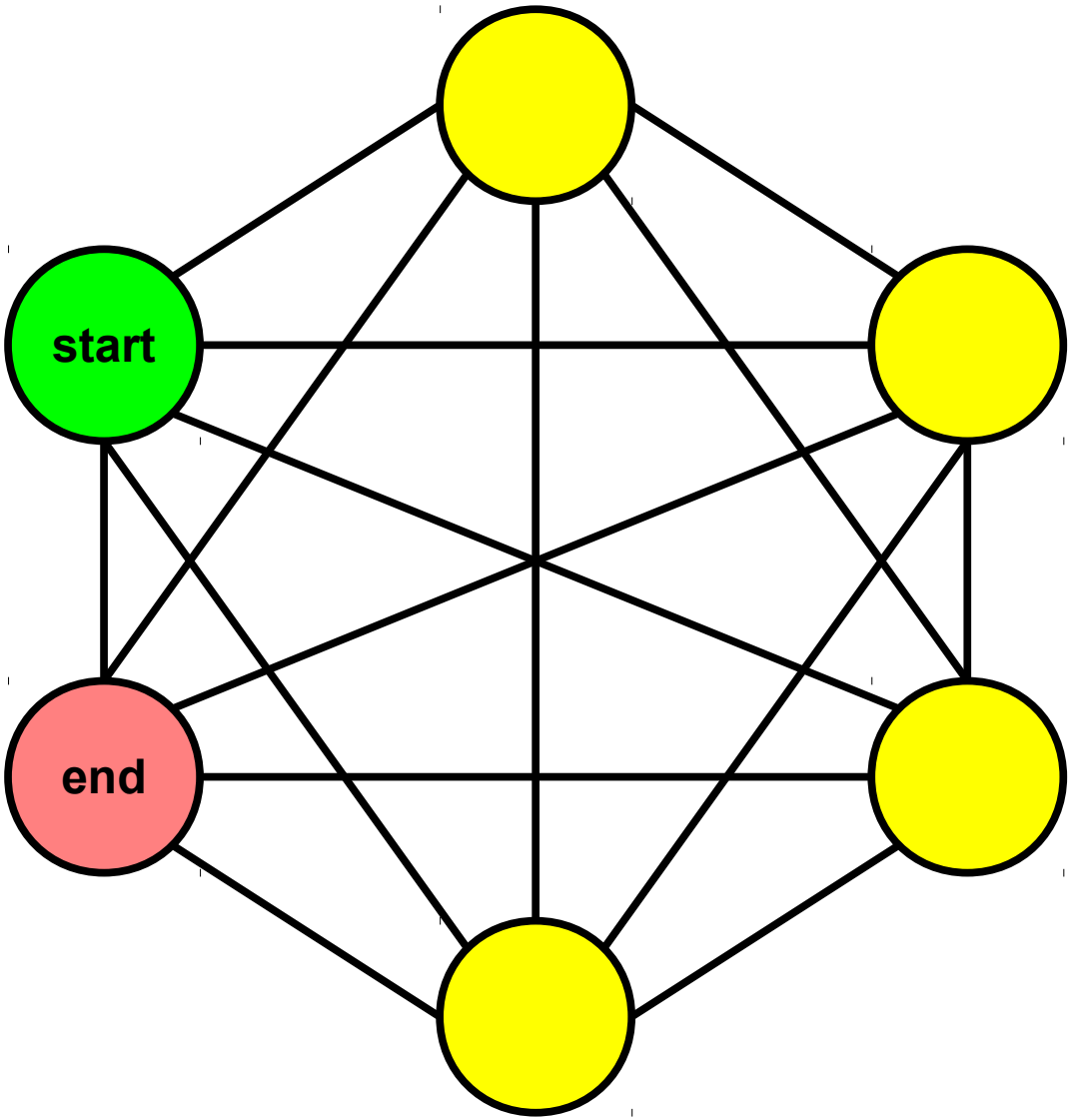
What *can't* you do in polynomial time?



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

{ 

, 

, 

, 

}

How many subsets of this set are there?

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

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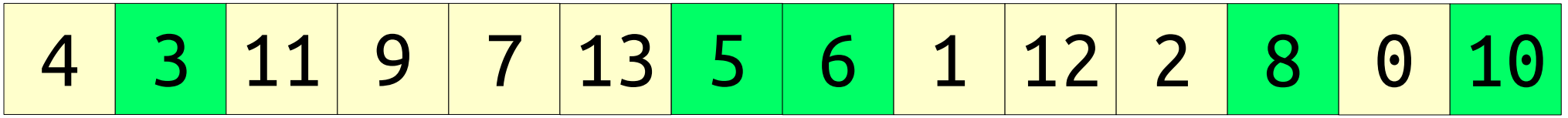
Is there an ascending subsequence of length at least 5?

Verifiers – Again



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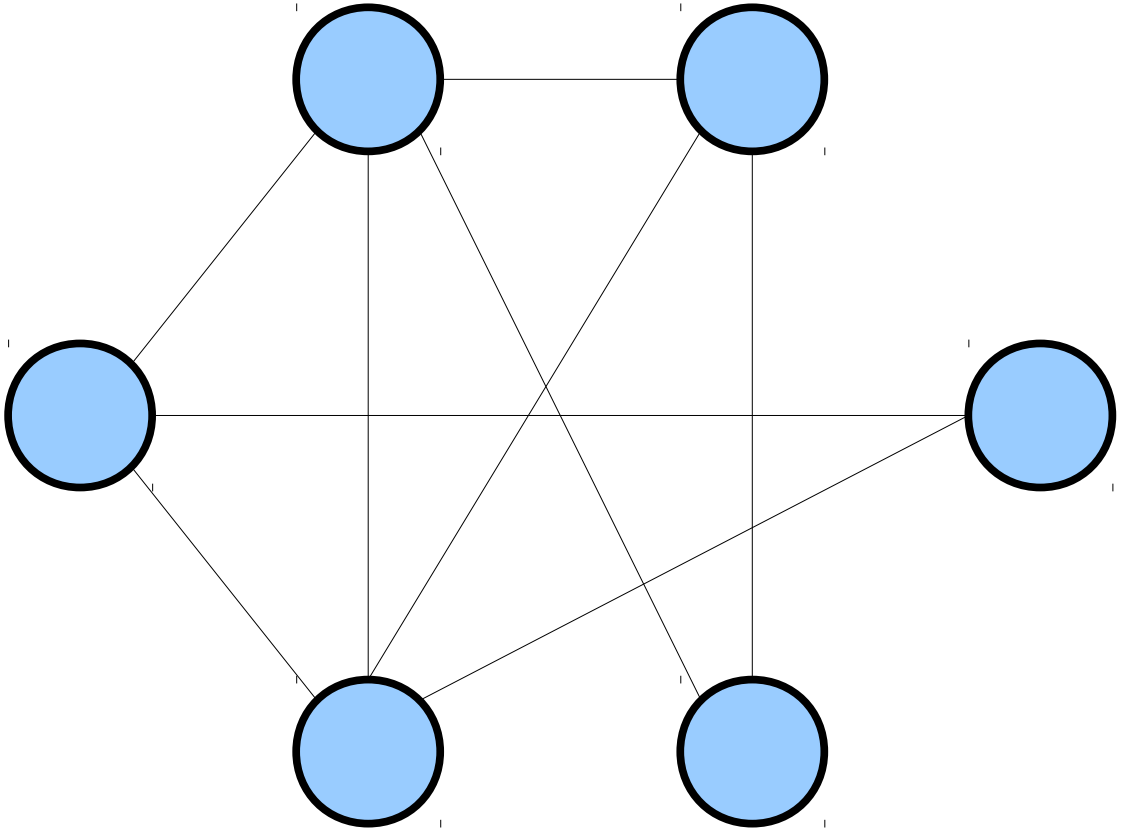
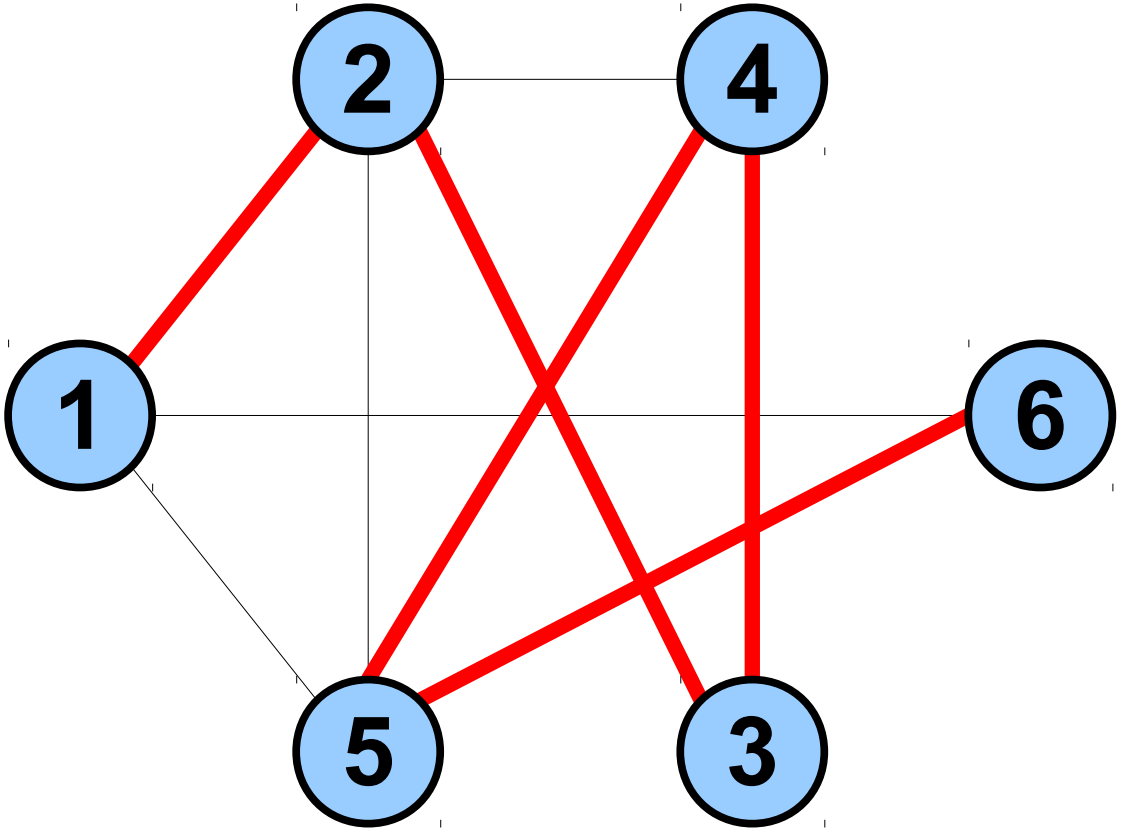


Is there a path that goes through every node exactly once?

Verifiers – Again



Is there a 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.
  - $w \in L \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \exists c \in \Sigma^*.\ V$ 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.
  - $w \in L \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \exists c \in \Sigma^*$. V accepts $\langle w, c \rangle$.
  - V runs "efficiently" (its runtime is $O(|w|^k)$ for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$).
  - All strings in L have "short" certificates (their lengths are $O(|w|^r)$ for some $r \in \mathbb{N}$).

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.
- ***Useful fact:*** **NP** $\subsetneq$ **R**. Come talk to me after class if you're curious why!

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

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

$$\mathbf{R} = \{ L \mid \text{there is a } \sout{\text{polynomial-time}} \text{ decider for } L \}$$

$$\mathbf{RE} = \{ L \mid \text{there is a } \sout{\text{polynomial-time}} \text{ verifier for } L \}$$

We know that **R ≠ RE**.

So does that mean **P ≠ NP**?

Time-Out for Announcements!

Please evaluate this course in Axess.

Your comments really make a difference.

Final Review Session

- Your wonderful TAs Benson and Annika are organizing a final review session.
- It will be the first part of Wednesday's class (8/16).
- Come on by to ask questions live!

Back to CS103!

And now…

The

Biggest Question

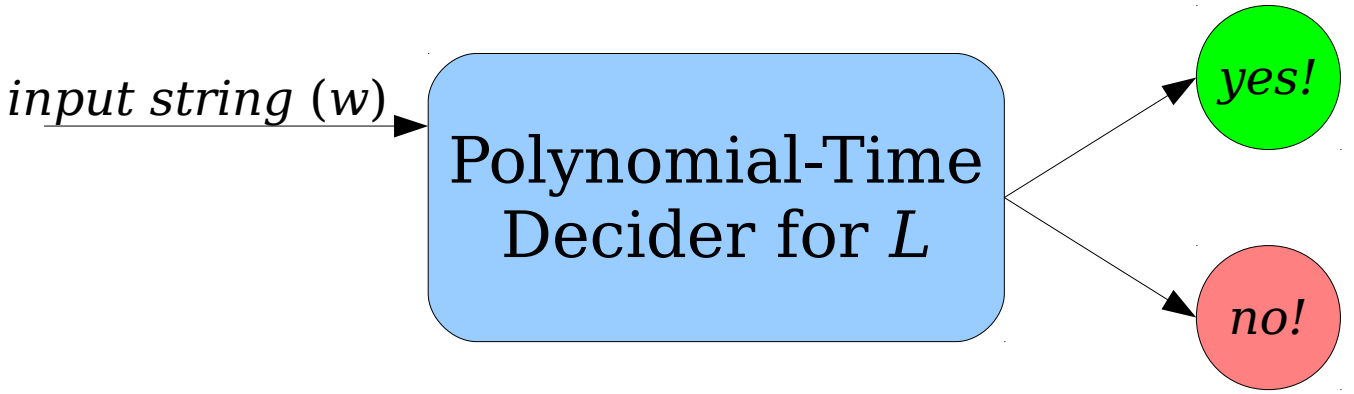
in

Theoretical Computer Science

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

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

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

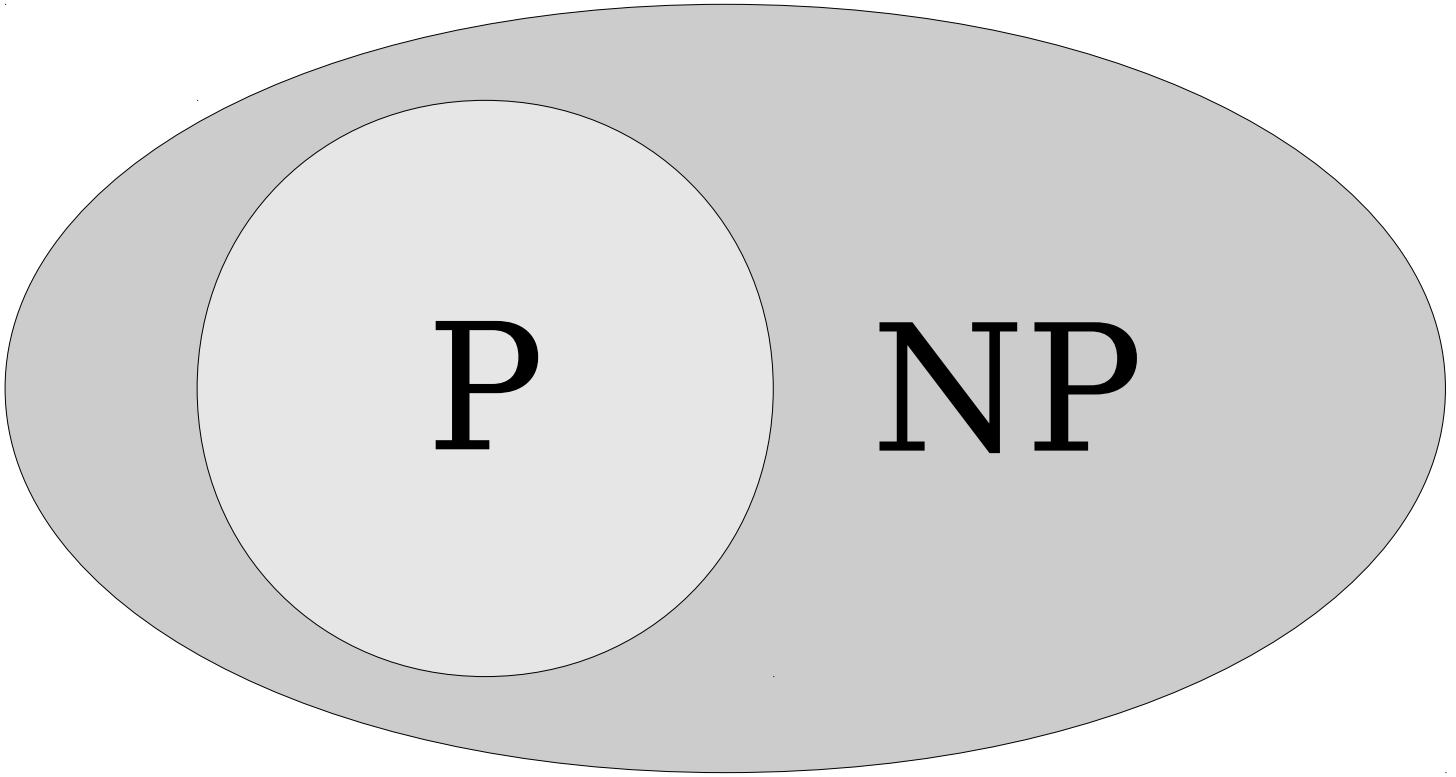


P = { L | There is a polynomial-time decider for L }

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

P ⊆ NP

Which Picture is Correct?



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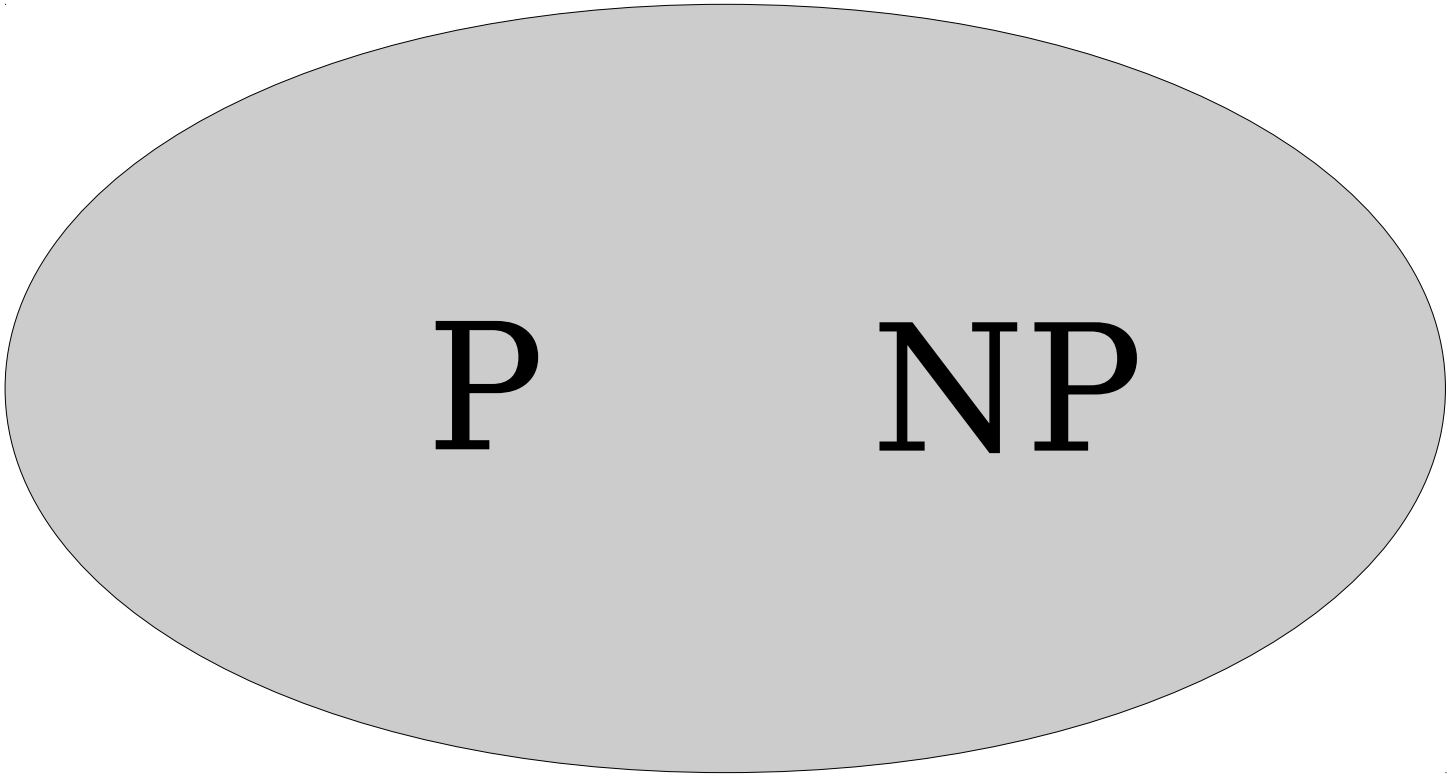

$\mathbf{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{NP}$

- The $\mathbf{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{NP}$ 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 49 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**:
  - https://www.cs.umd.edu/~gasarch/papers/poll.pdf

The Million-Dollar Question

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

“My hunch is that [**P** $\stackrel{?}{=}$ **NP**] will be solved by a young researcher who is not encumbered by too much conventional wisdom about how to attack the problem.”

– Prof. Richard Karp

(The guy who first popularized the* P $\stackrel{?}{=}$ NP *problem.)

Do you think **P = NP**?

Respond at pollev.com/cs103

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

Adapting our Techniques

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

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

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So does that mean **P ≠ NP**?

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 simulate other TMs.
  - ***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**?

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.

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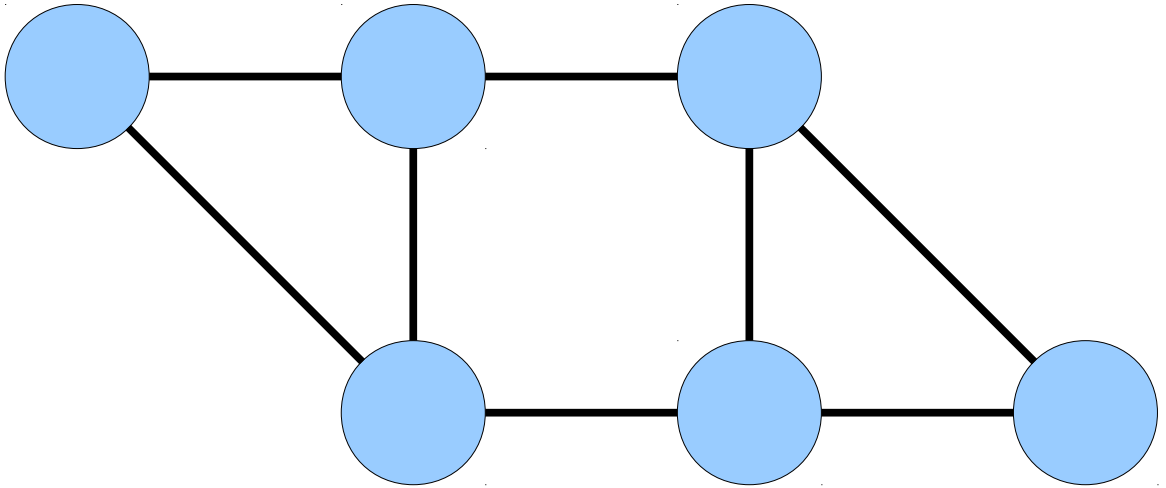

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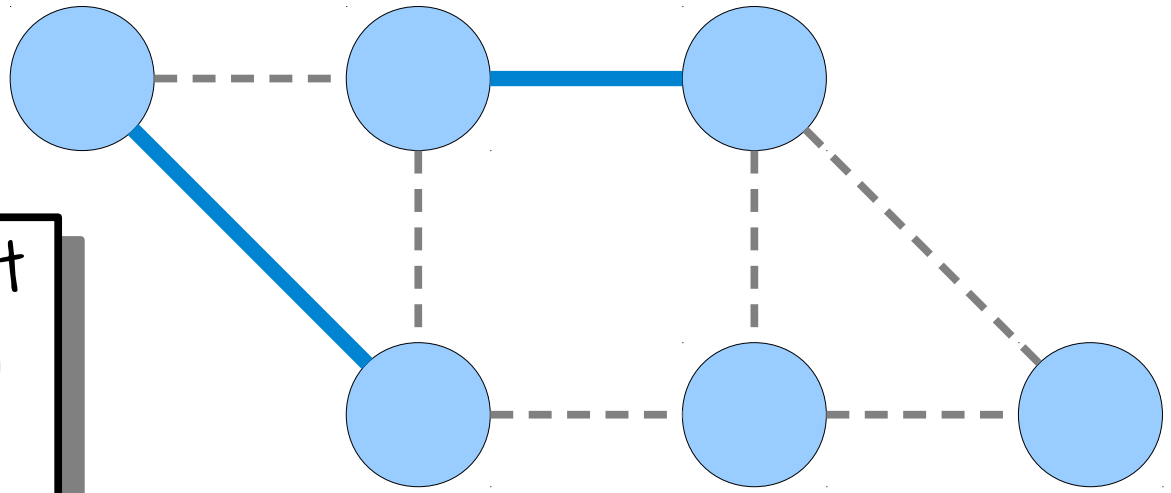

A matching, but not a maximum matching.

Maximum Matching

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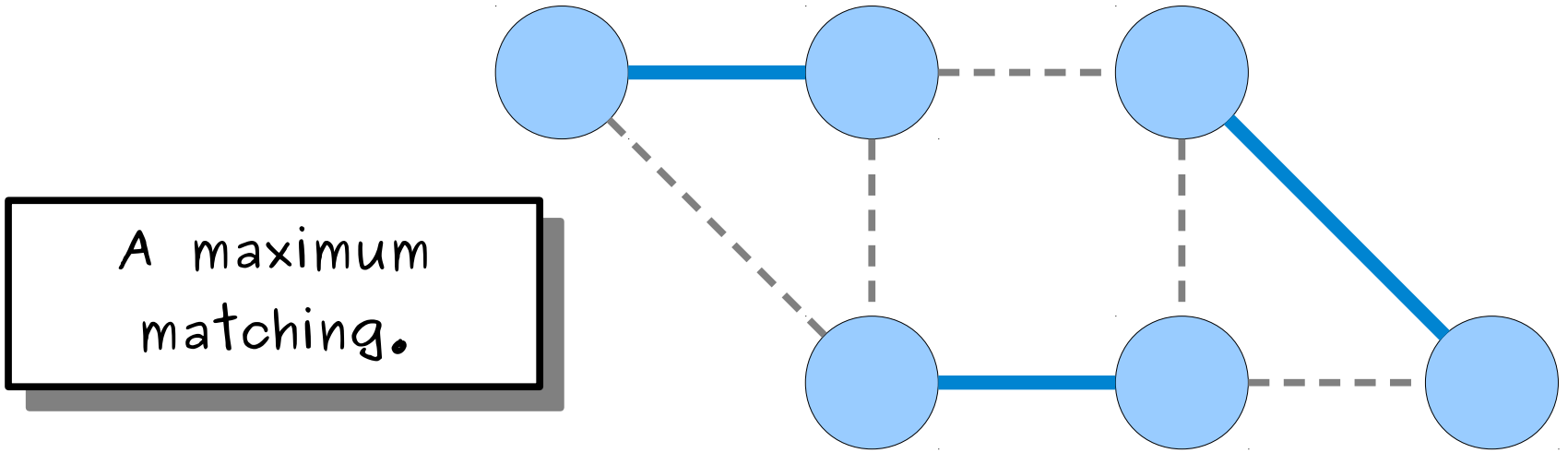

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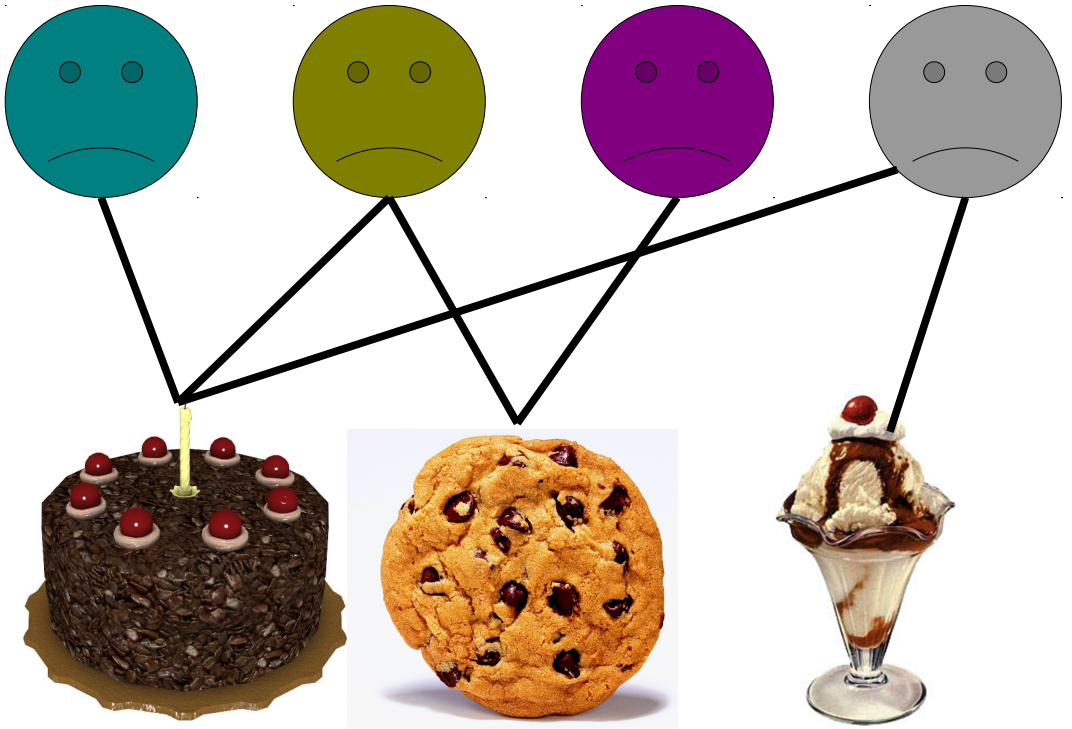

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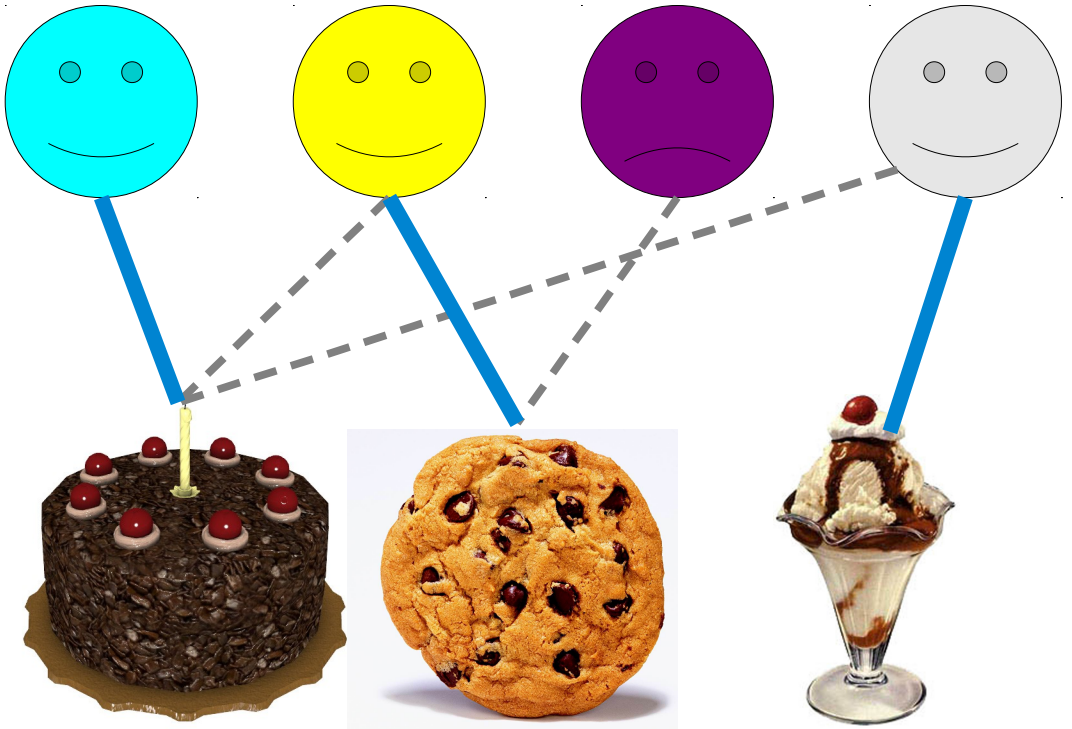
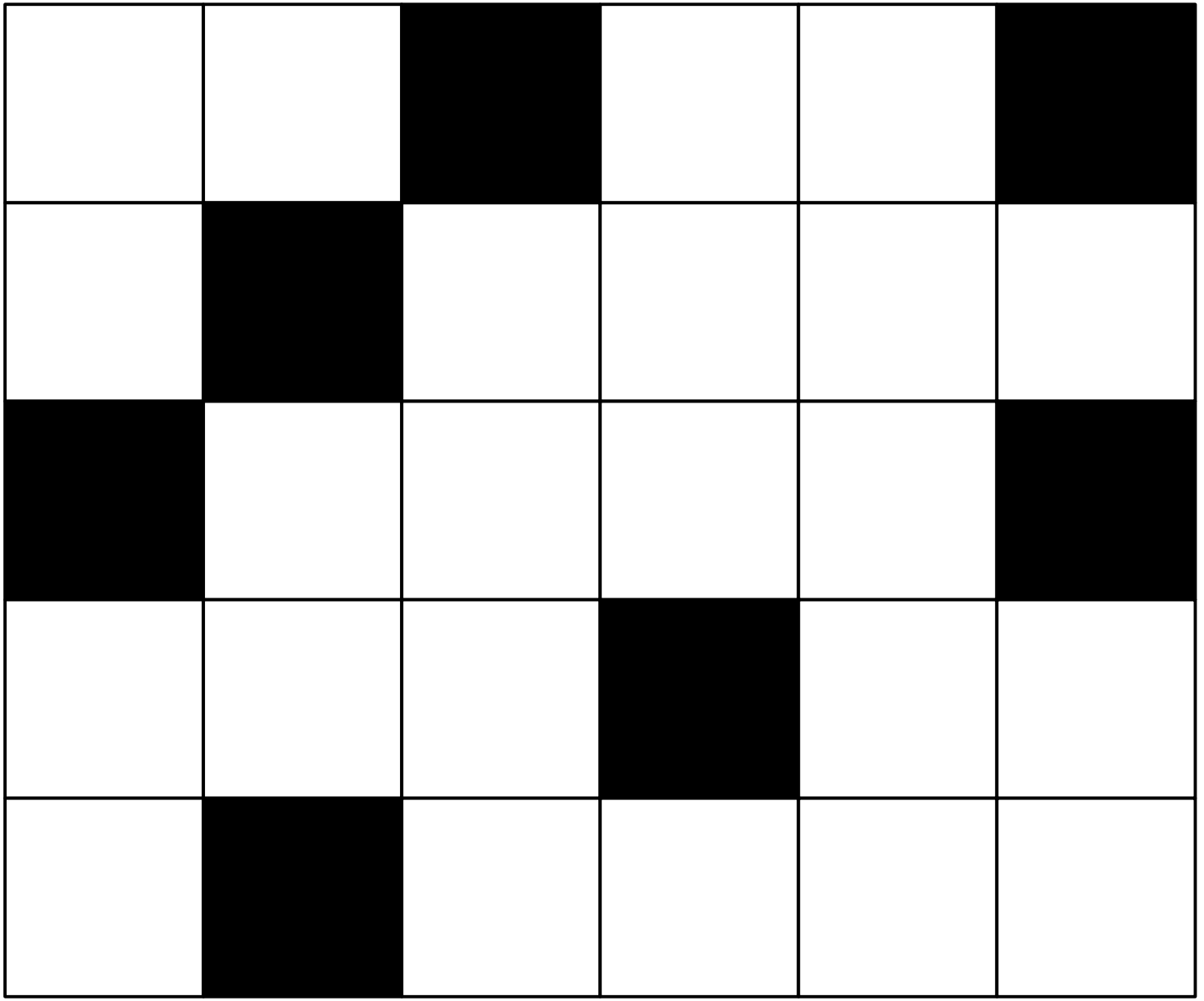


Maximum Matching

- Jack Edmonds' paper “Paths, Trees, and Flowers” gives a polynomial-time algorithm for finding maximum matchings.
  - He’s the guy from last time with the quote about “better than decidable.”
- Using this fact, what other problems can we solve?

Domino Tiling



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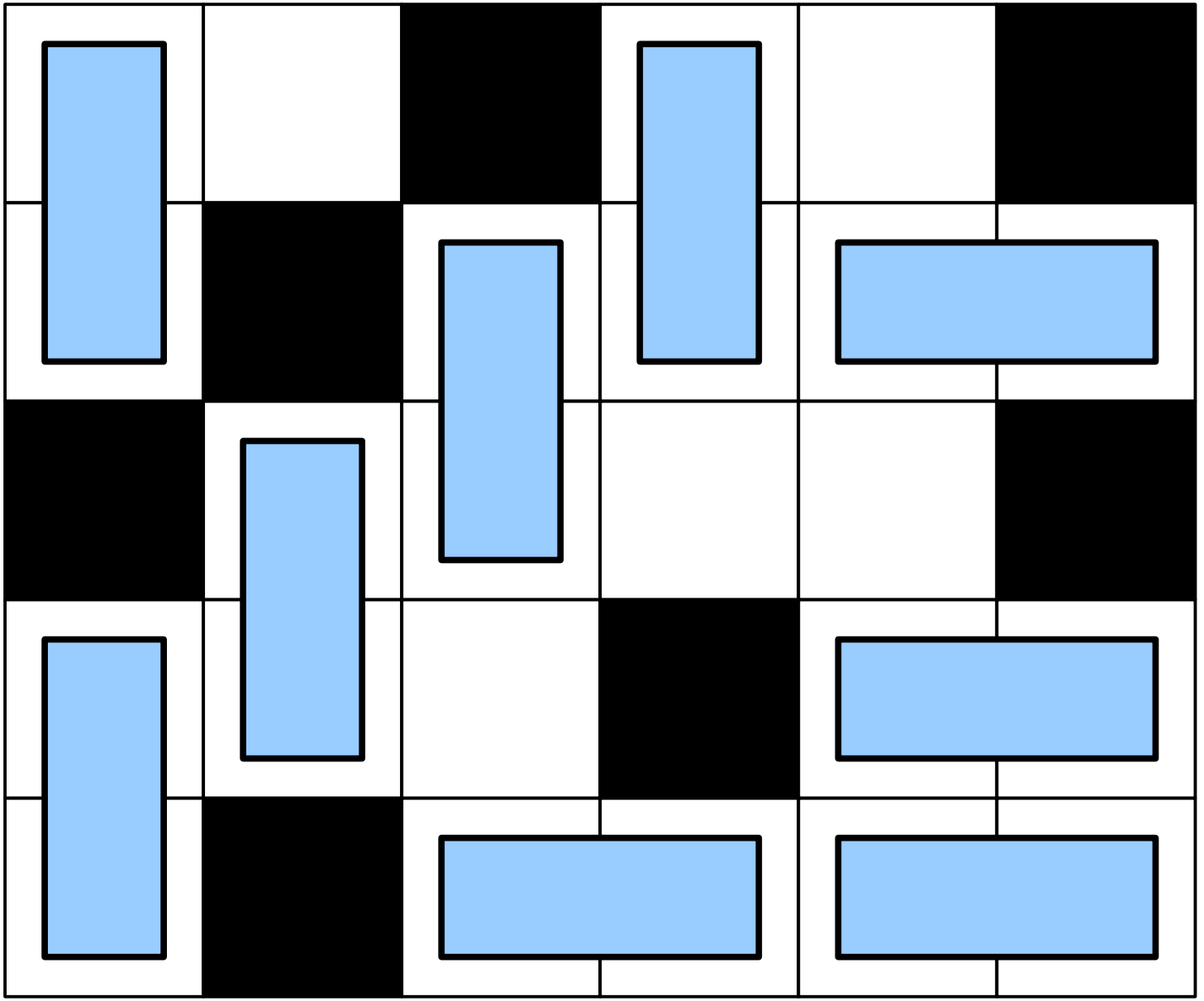

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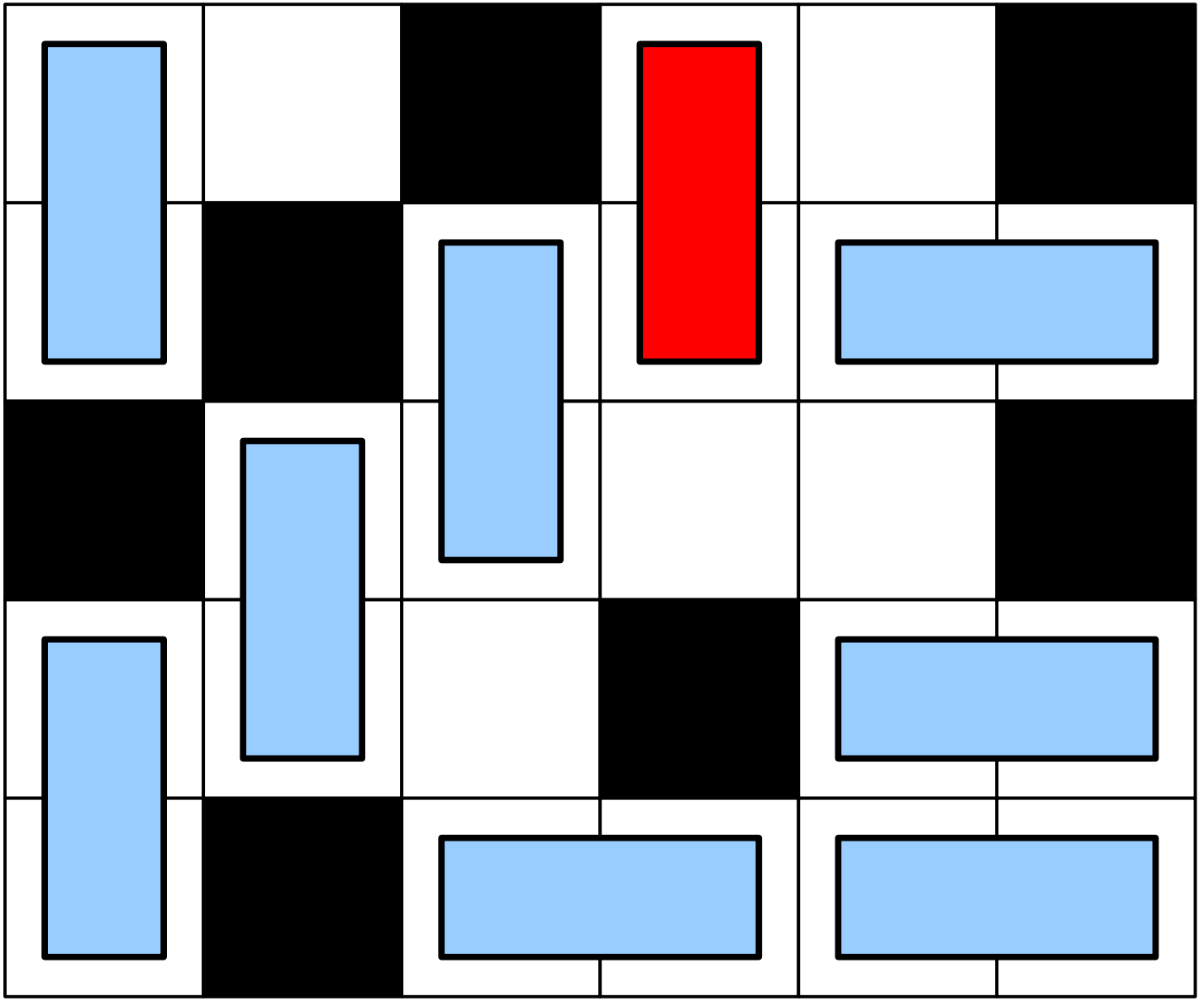

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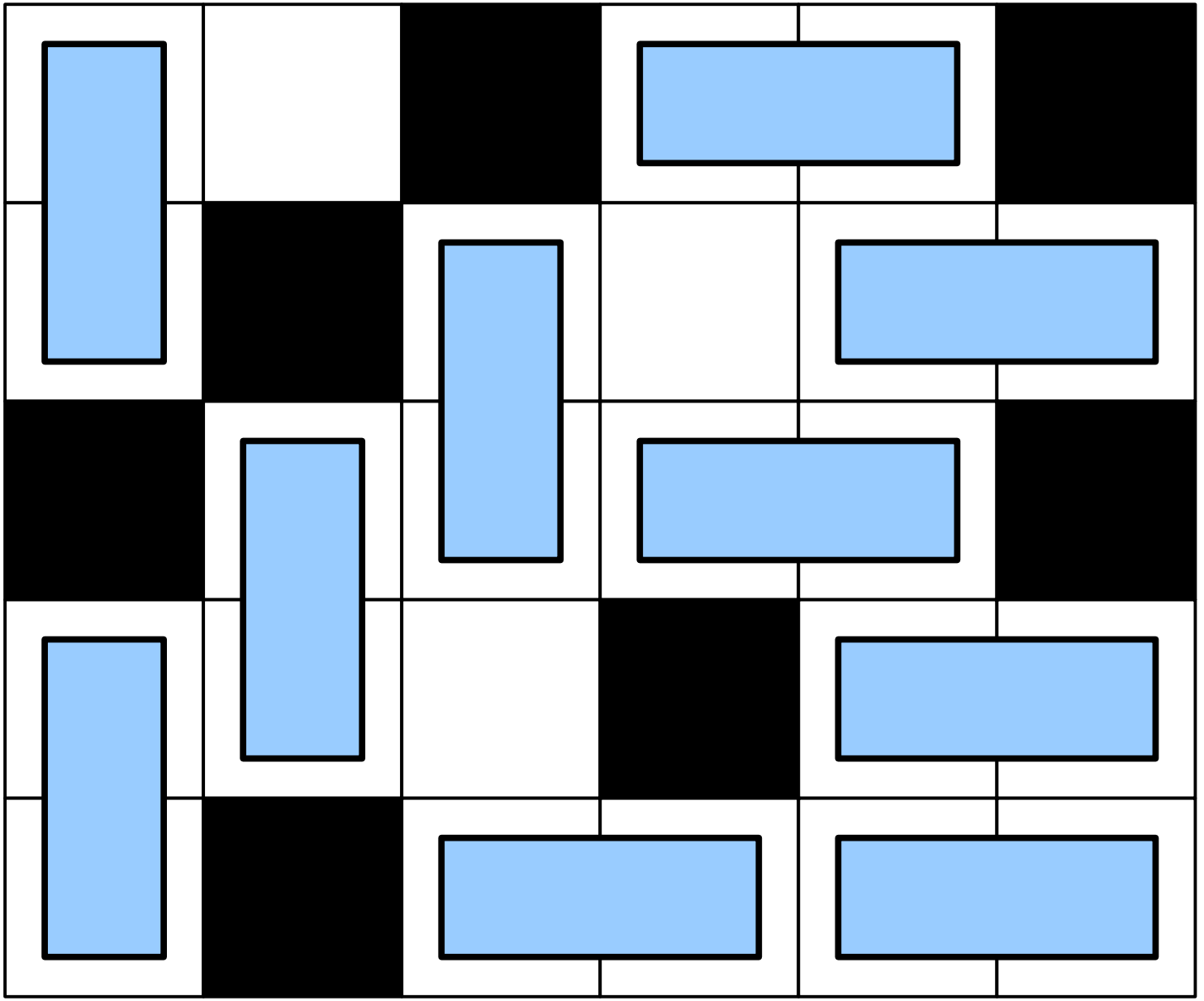

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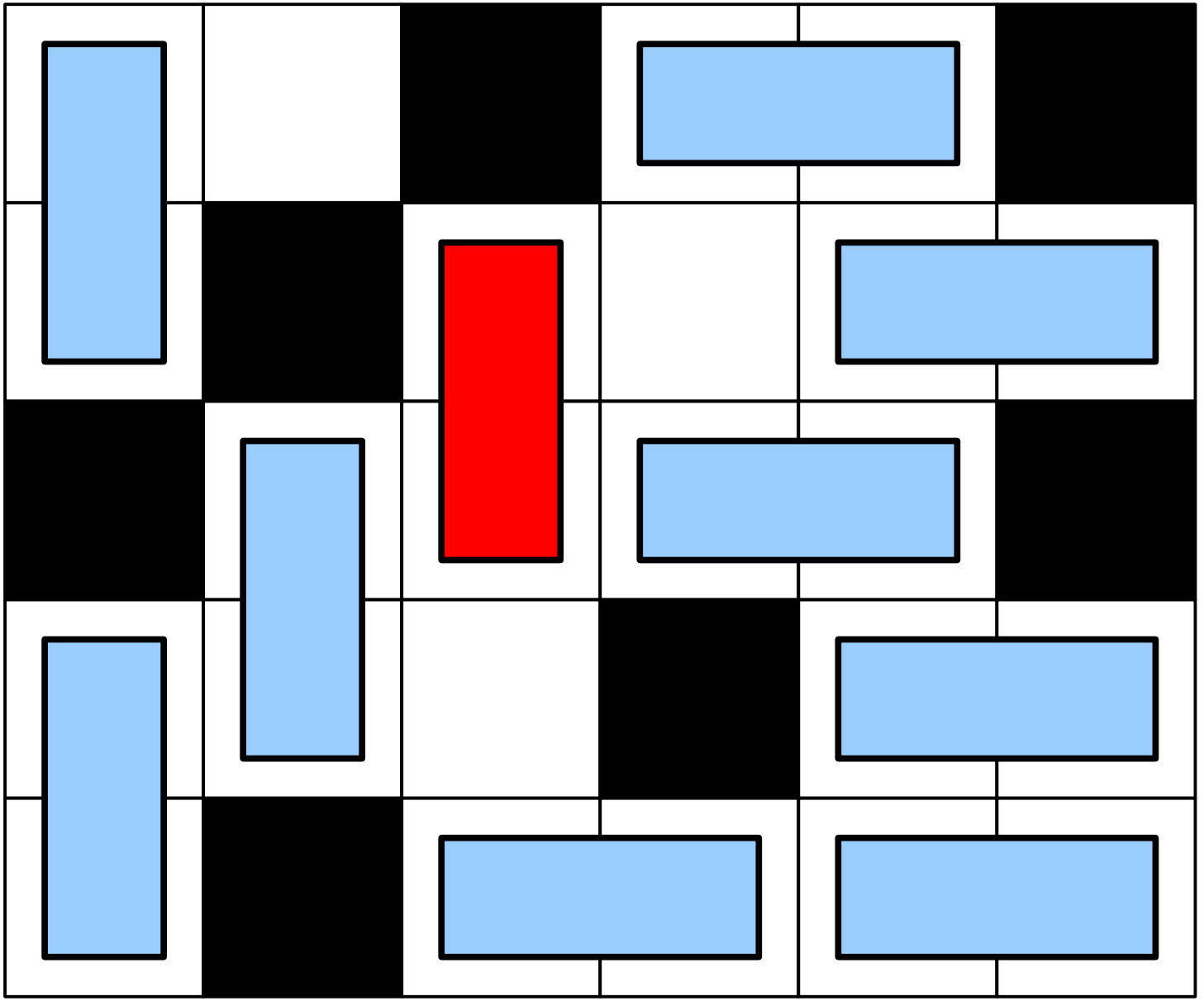

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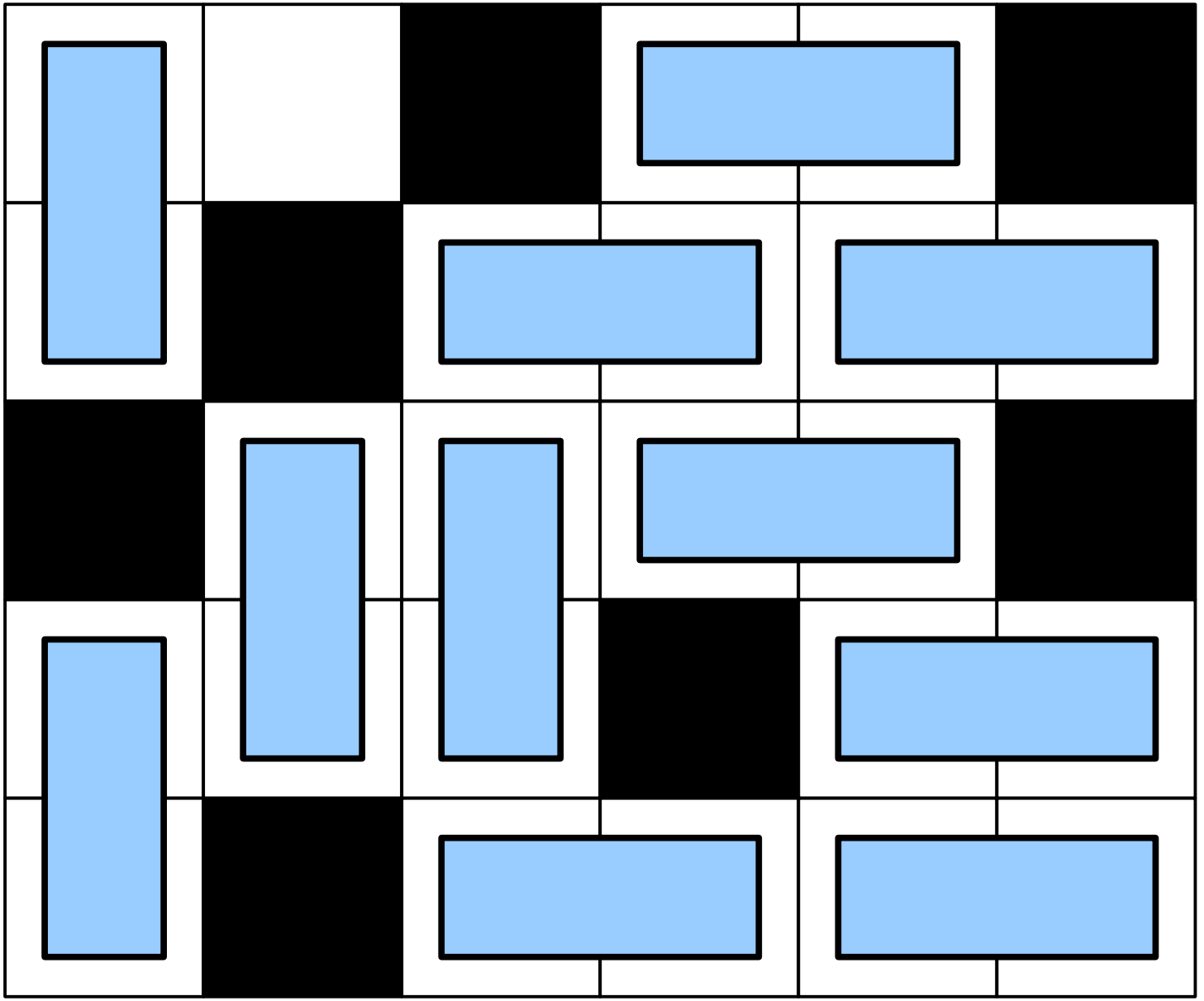
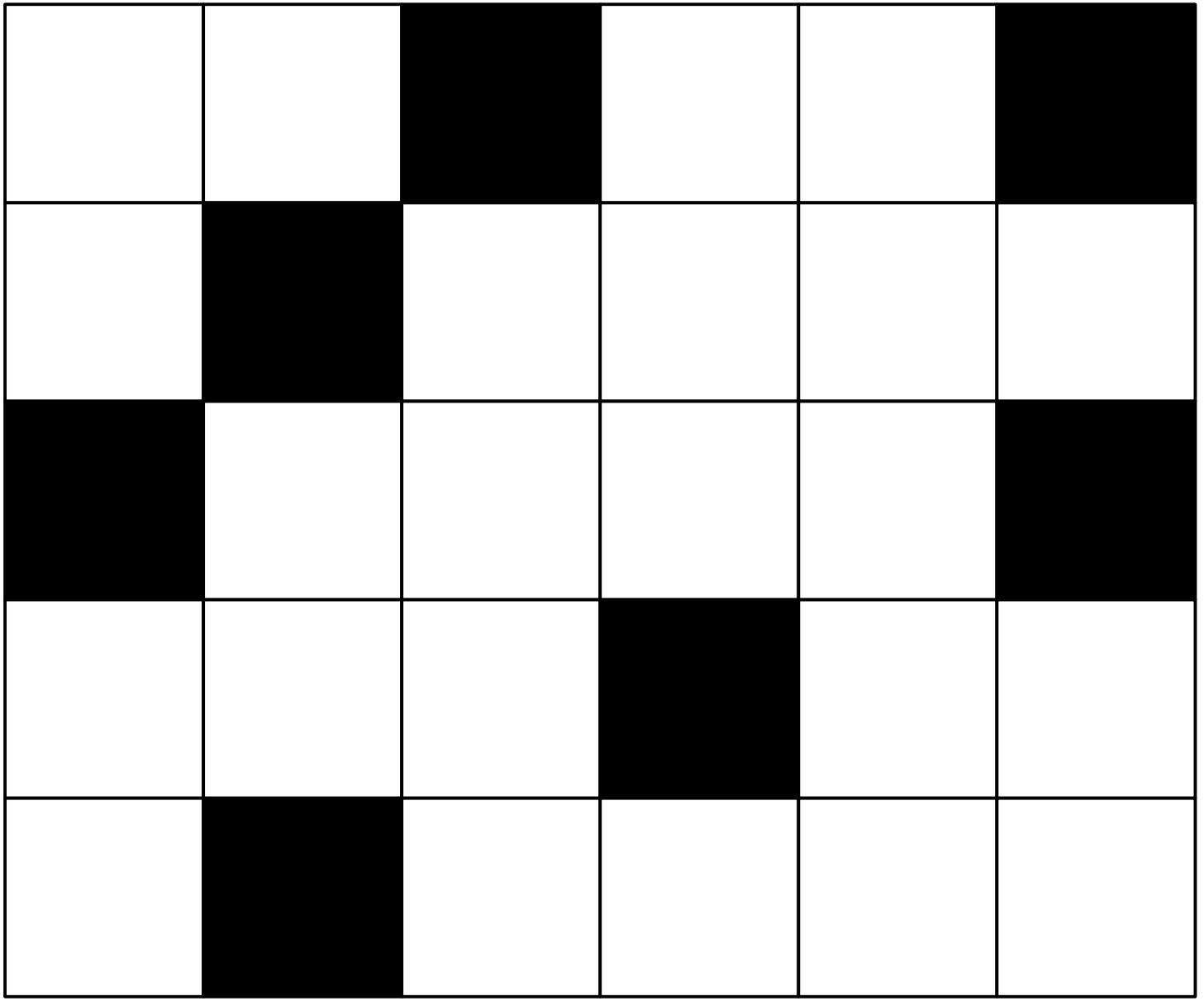


Solving Domino Tiling



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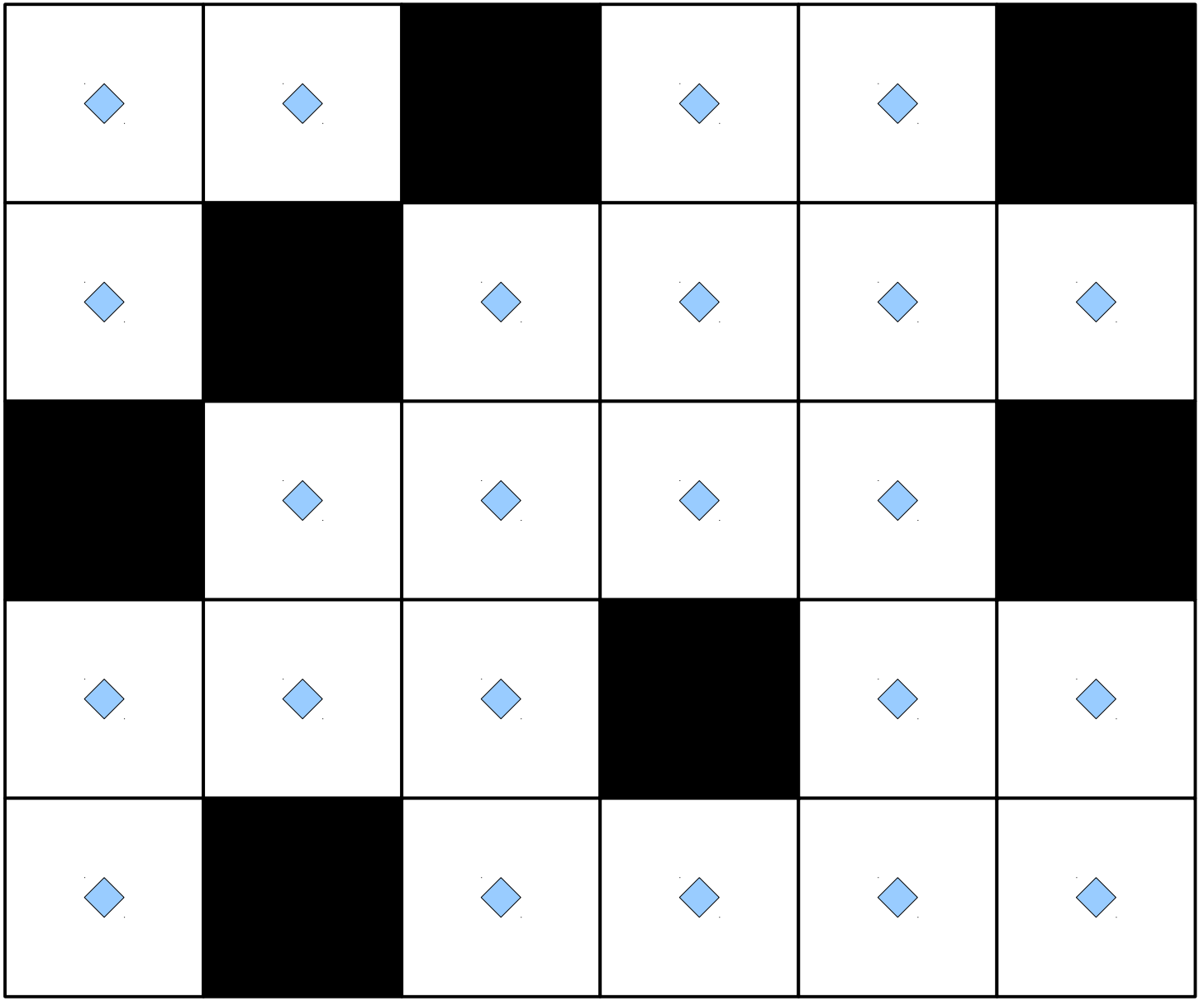

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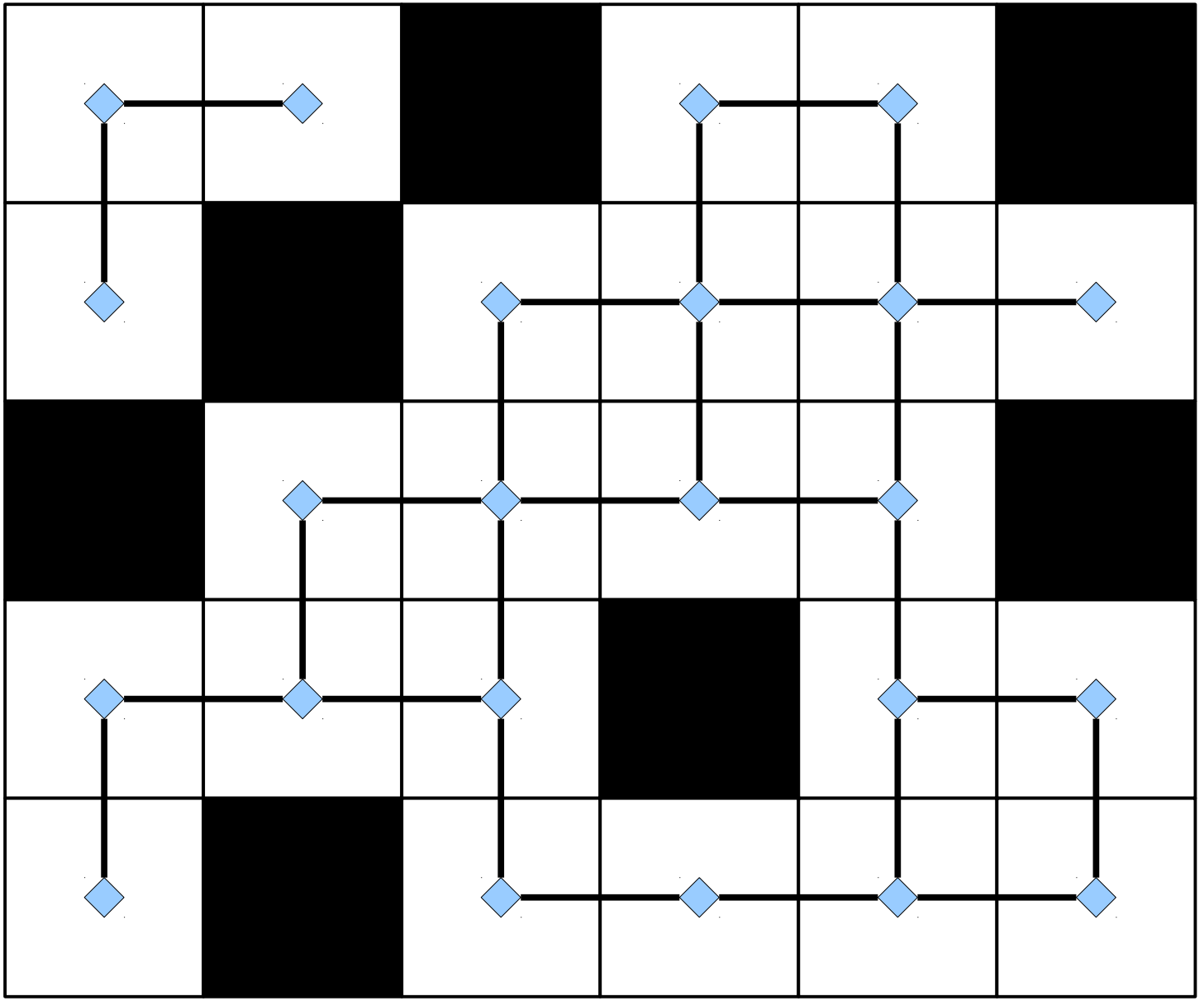

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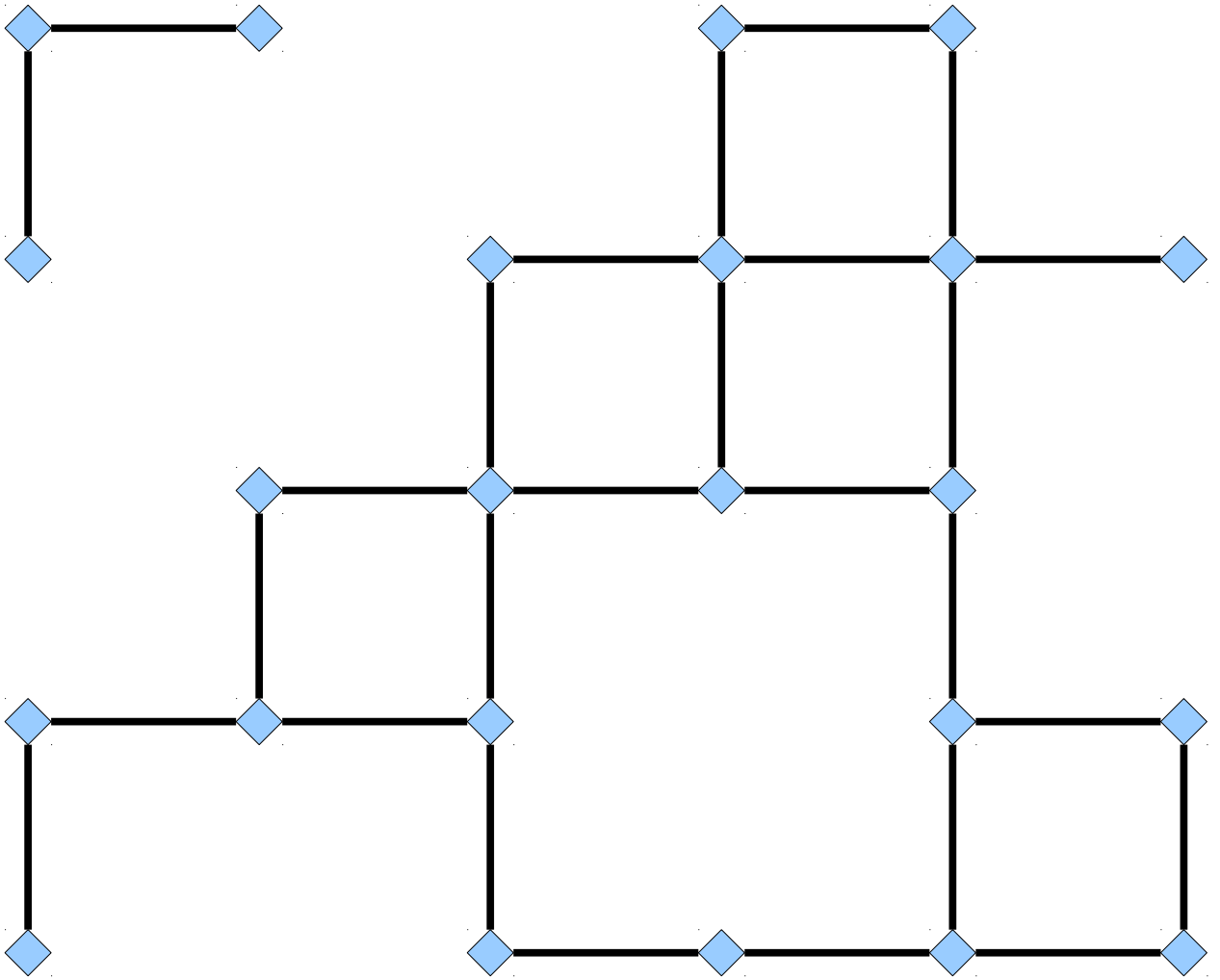

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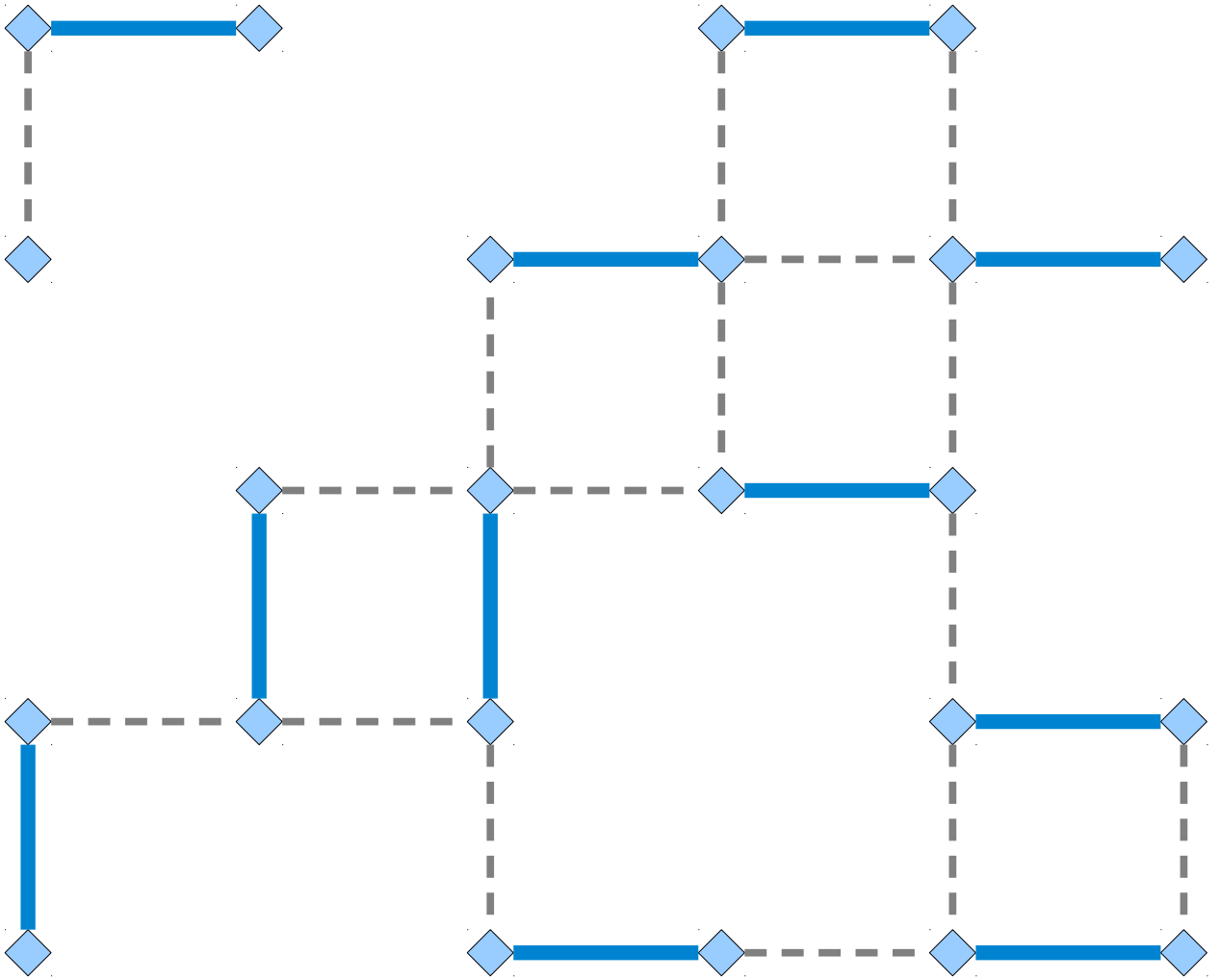

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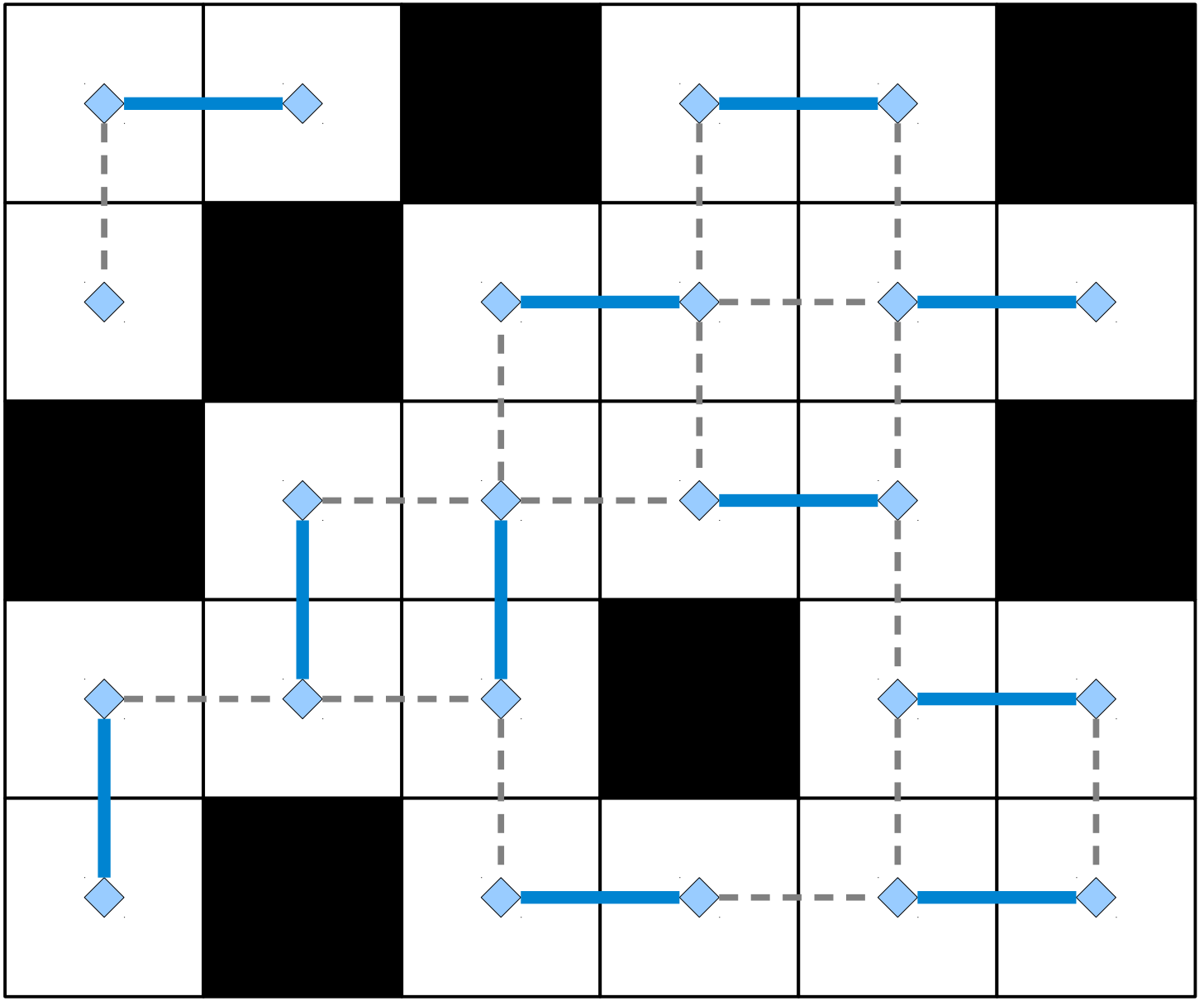

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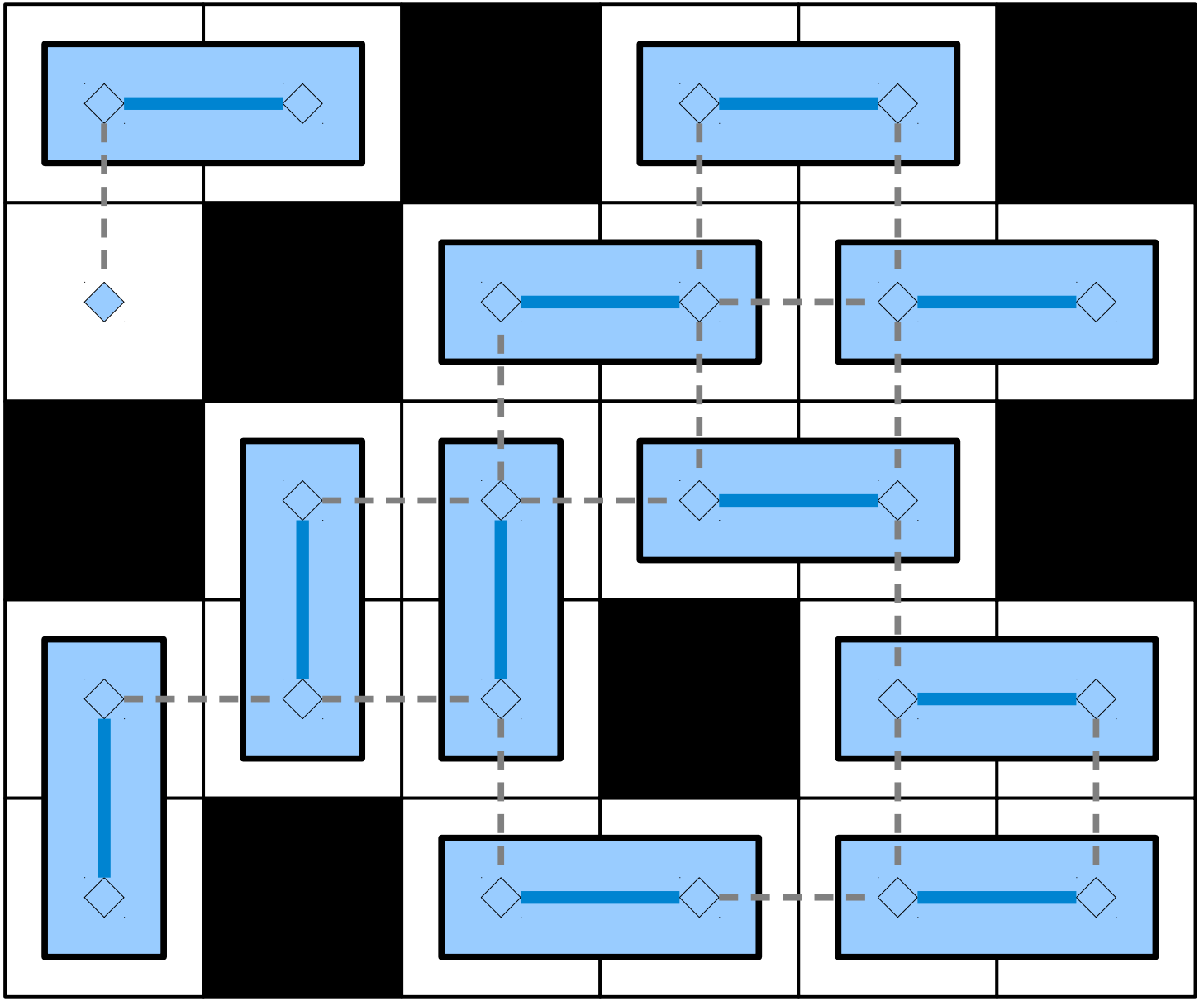

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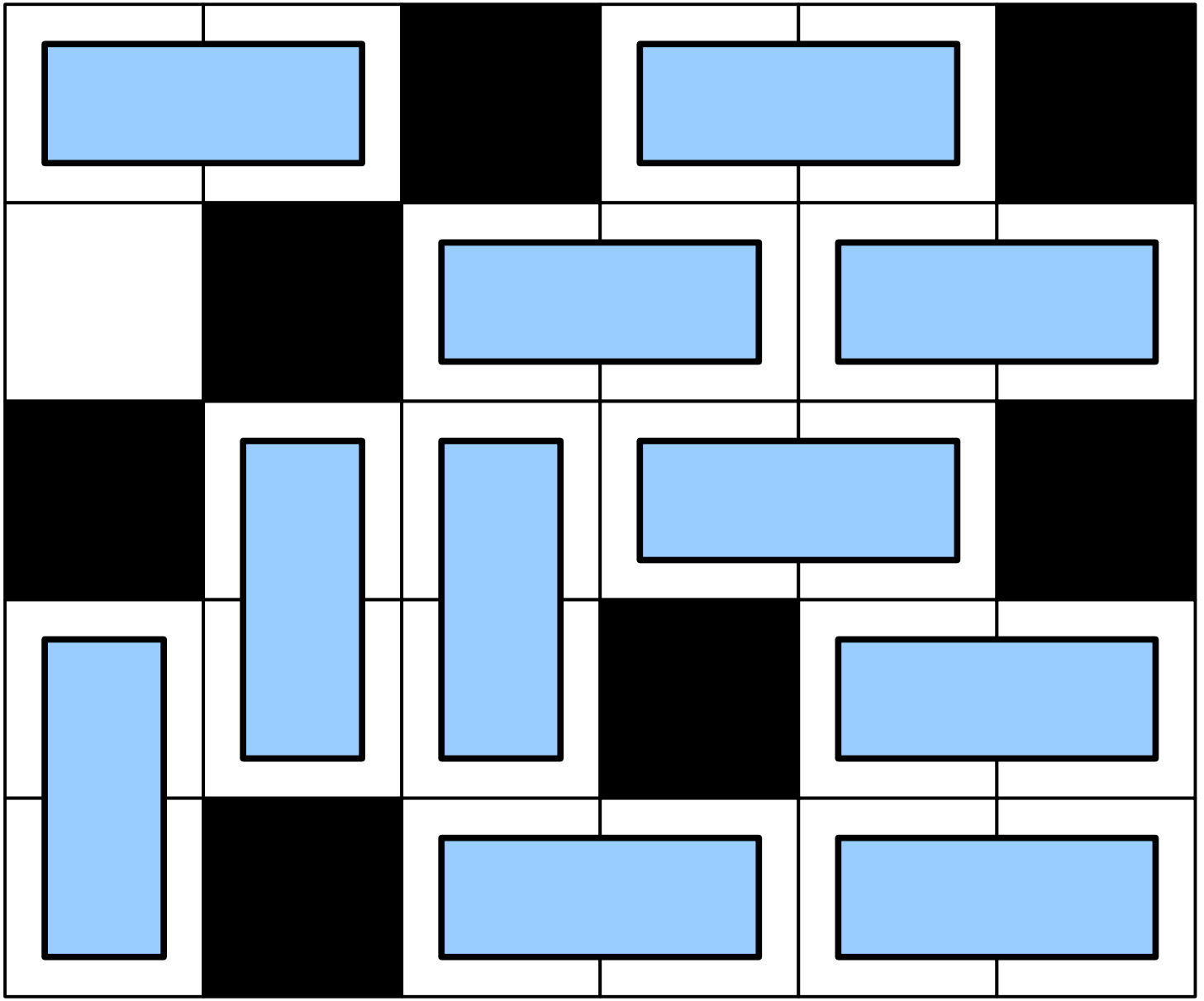


In Pseudocode

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

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.

```
bool solveProblemA(string input) {
    return solveProblemB(translate(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(translate(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***.

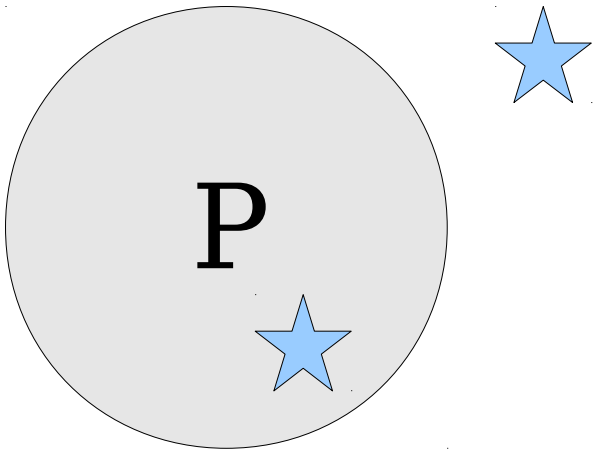
* Assuming that `translate` runs in polynomial time.

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

- This is a powerful general problem-solving technique. You'll see it a lot in CS161.

Polynomial-Time Reductions

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



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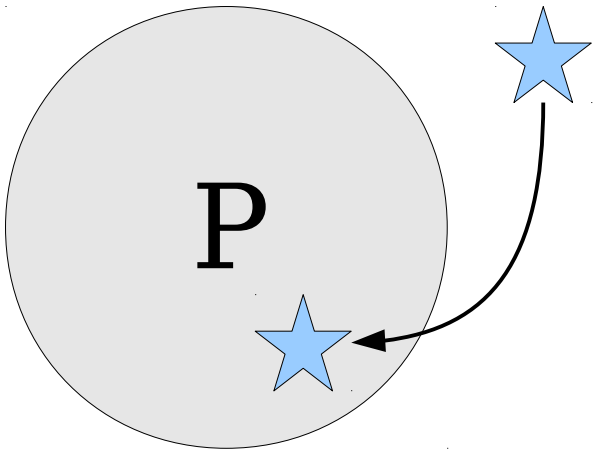

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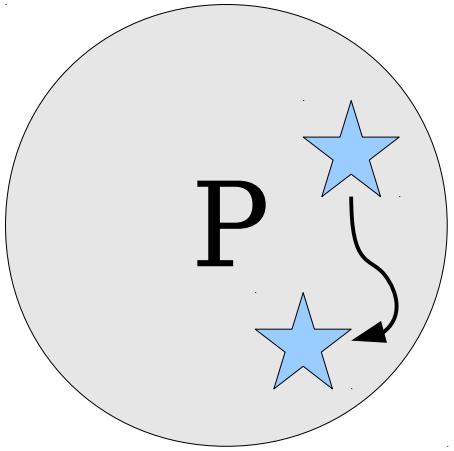
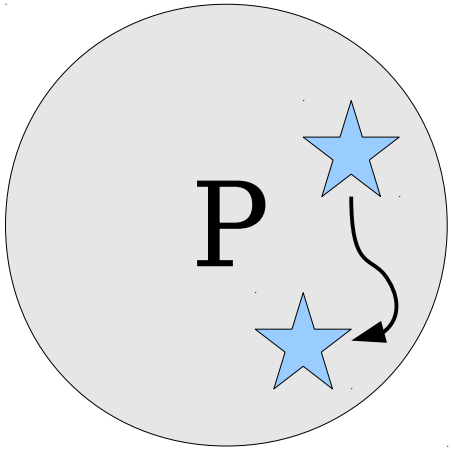


Polynomial-Time Reductions

- 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 $A \in \mathbf{NP}$.



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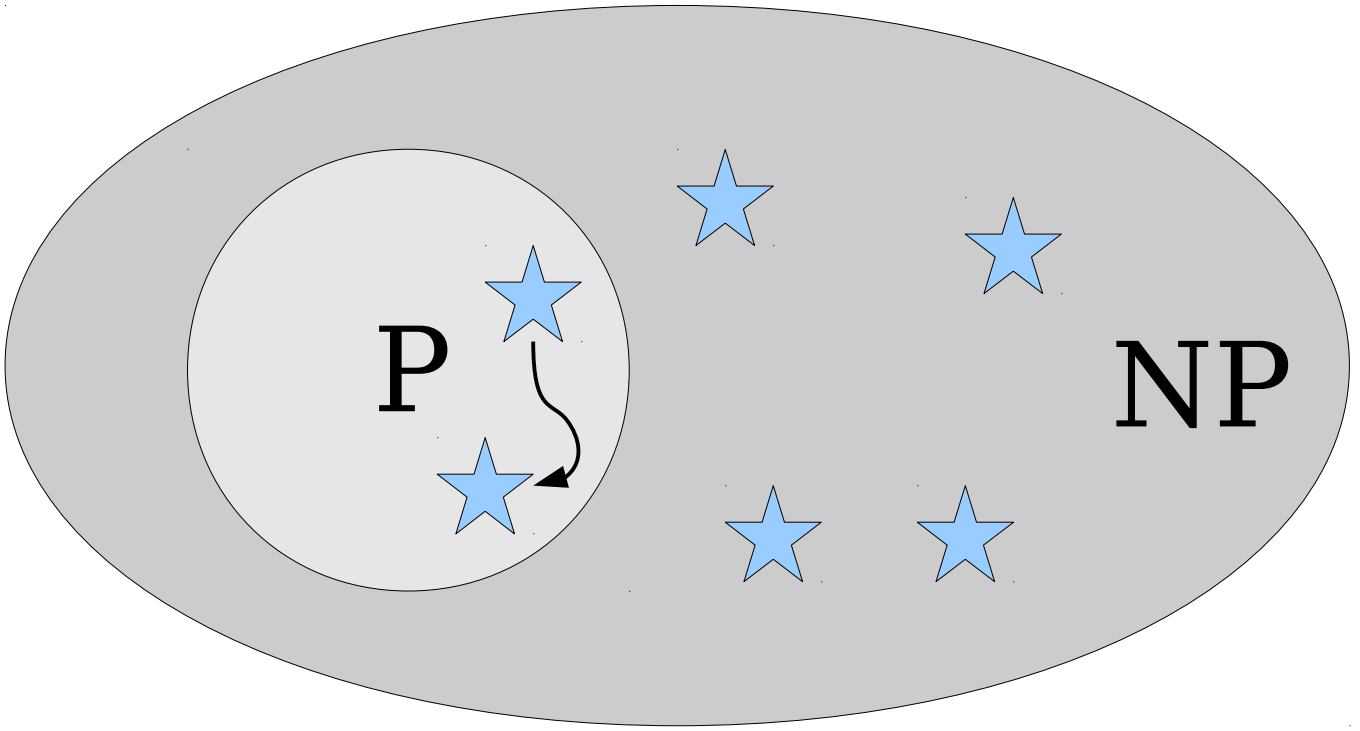

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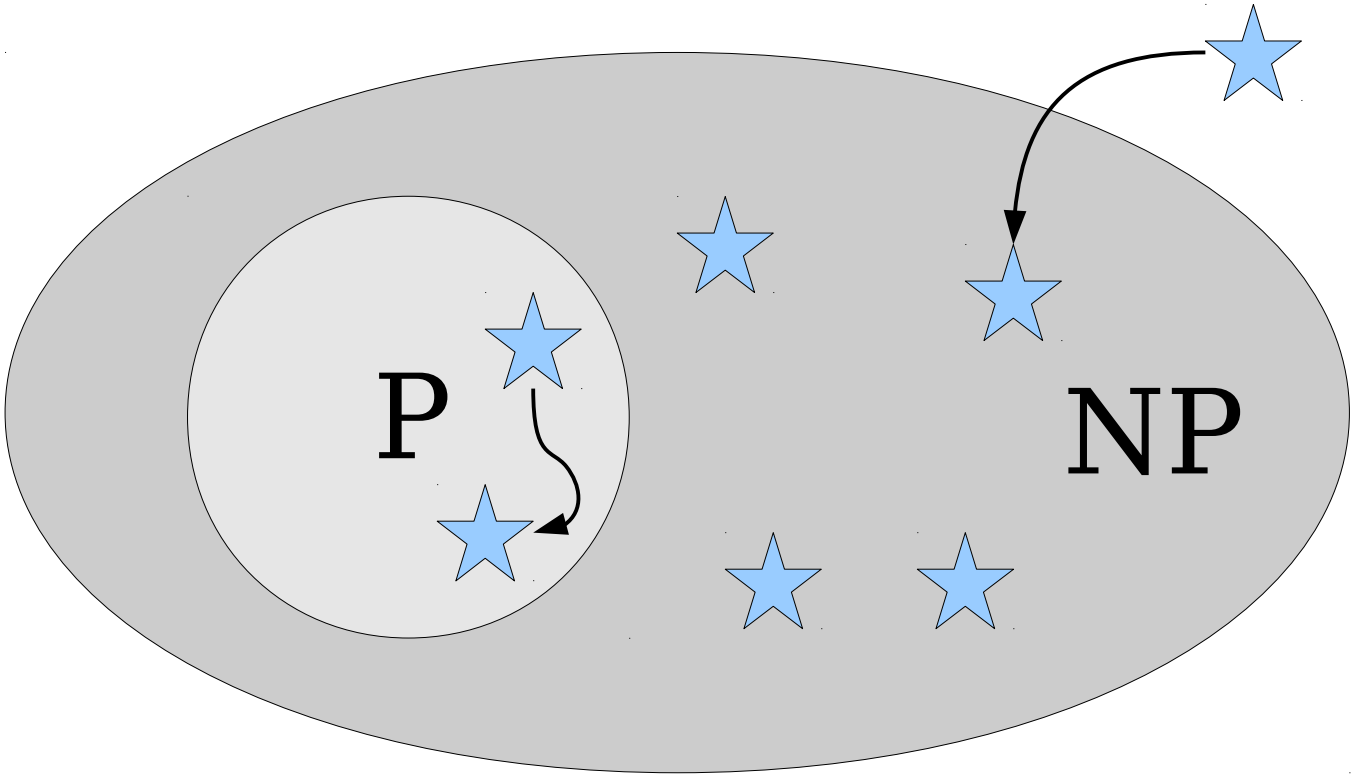

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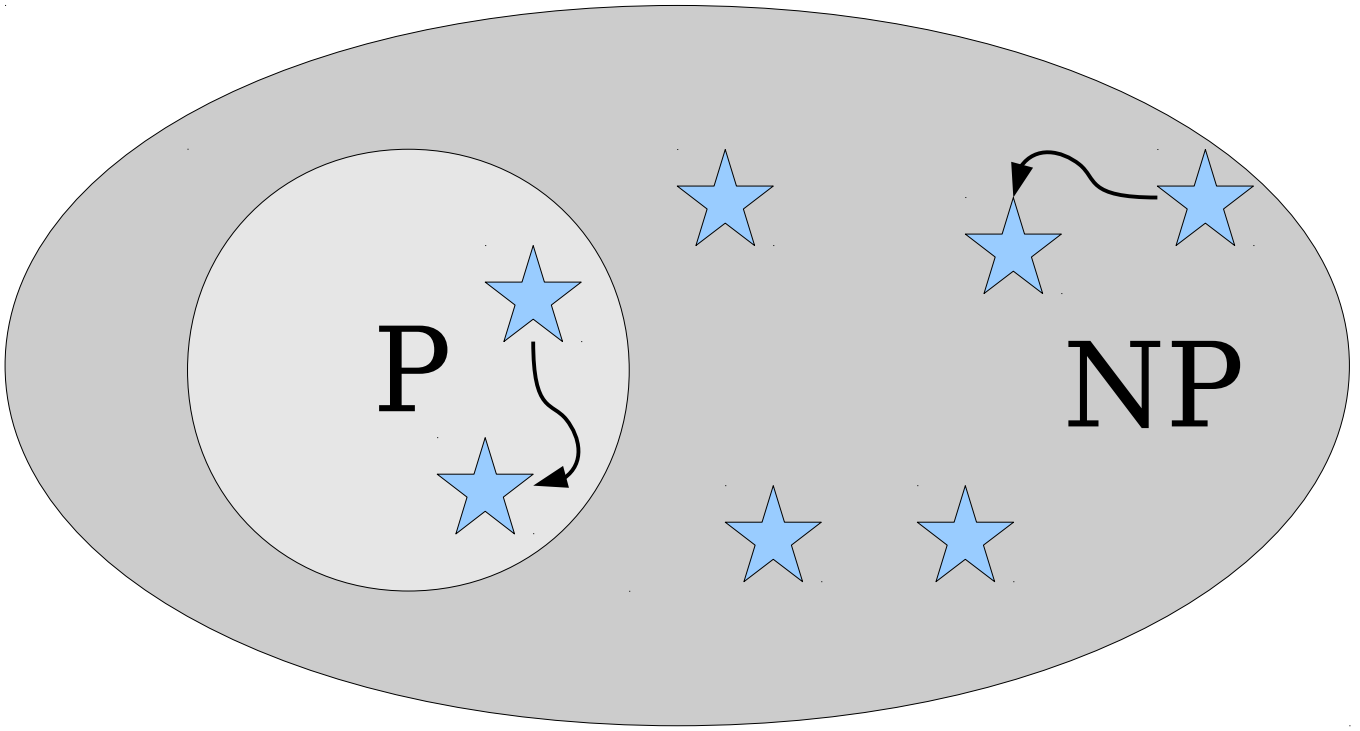
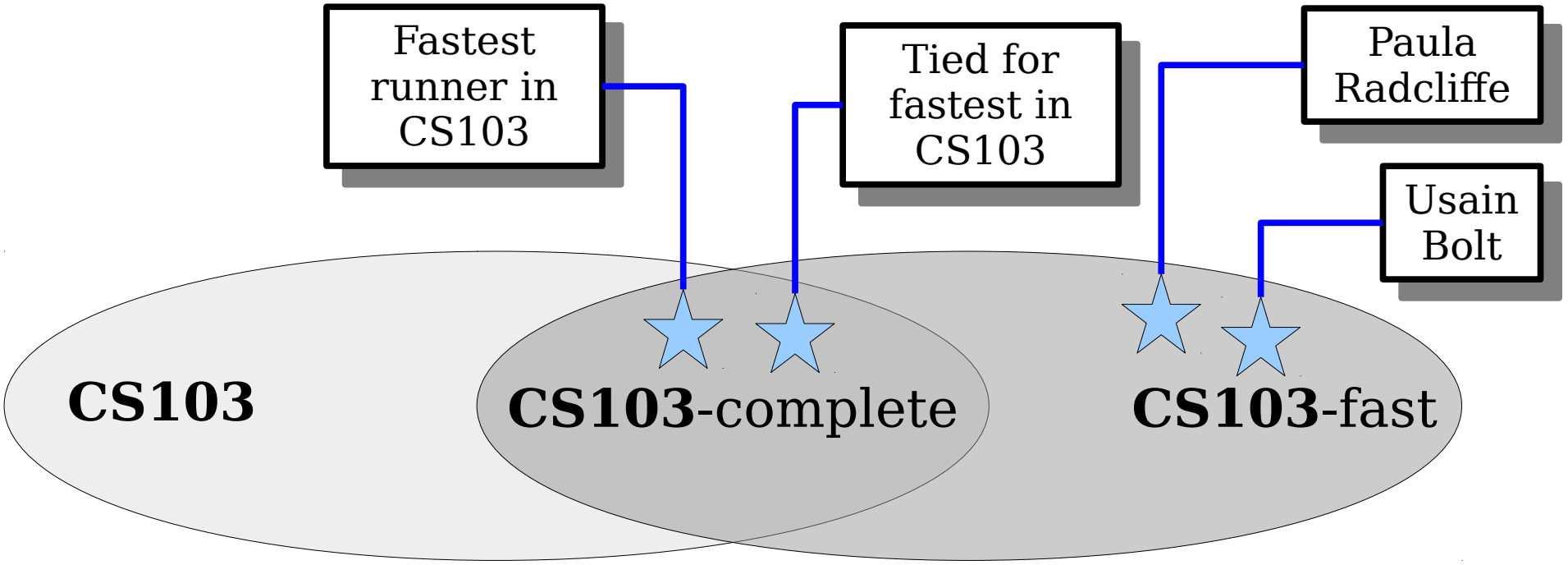


An Analogy: Running Really Fast



For people A and B, we say $A \leq_r B$ if A's top running speed is at most B's top speed.

(Intuitively: B can run at least as fast as A.)

We say that person P is ***CS103-fast*** if

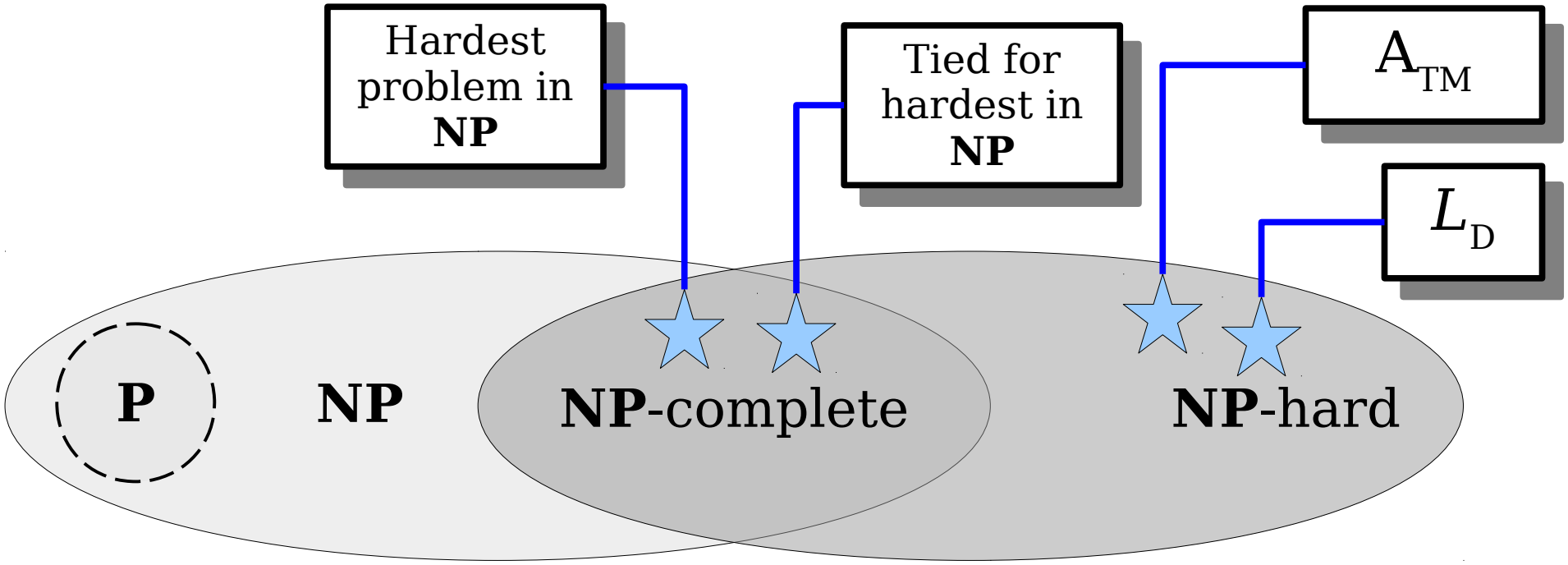
$\forall A \in \textbf{CS103}.\ A \leq_r P.$

(How fast are you if you're CS103-fast?)

We say that person P is ***CS103-complete*** if

$P \in \textbf{CS103}$ and P is **CS103**-fast.

(How fast are you if you're CS103-complete?)



For languages A and B, we say $\boldsymbol{A \leq_p B}$ if A reduces to B in polynomial time.

(Intuitively: B is at least as hard as A.)

We say that a language L is ***NP-hard*** if

$\forall A \in \mathbf{NP}.\ A \leq_p L.$

(How hard is a problem that's NP-hard?)

We say that a language L is ***NP-complete*** if

$L \in \mathbf{NP}$ and L is **NP**-hard.

(How hard is a problem that's NP-complete?)

Intuition: The **NP**-complete problems are the hardest problems in **NP**.

If we can determine how hard those problems are, it would tell us a lot about the **P** $\stackrel{?}{=}$ **NP** question.

The Tantalizing Truth

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

Intuition: This means the hardest problems in **NP** aren't actually that hard. We can solve them in polynomial time. So that means we can solve all problems in **NP** in polynomial time.

The Tantalizing Truth

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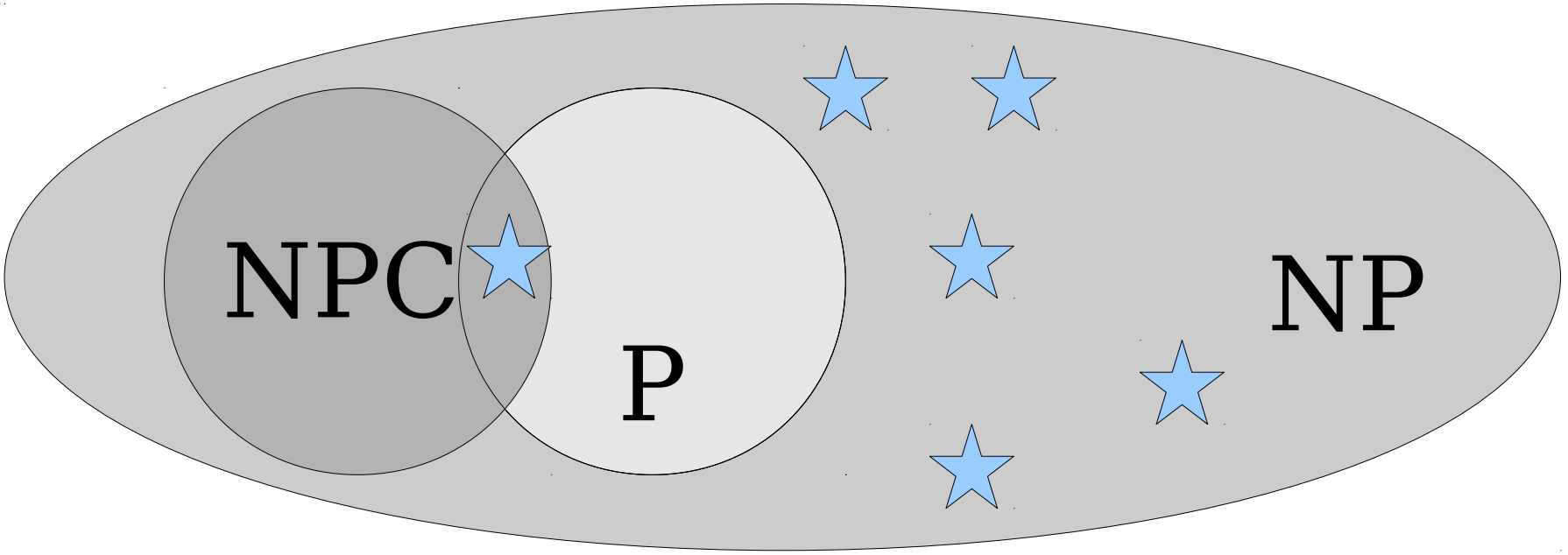

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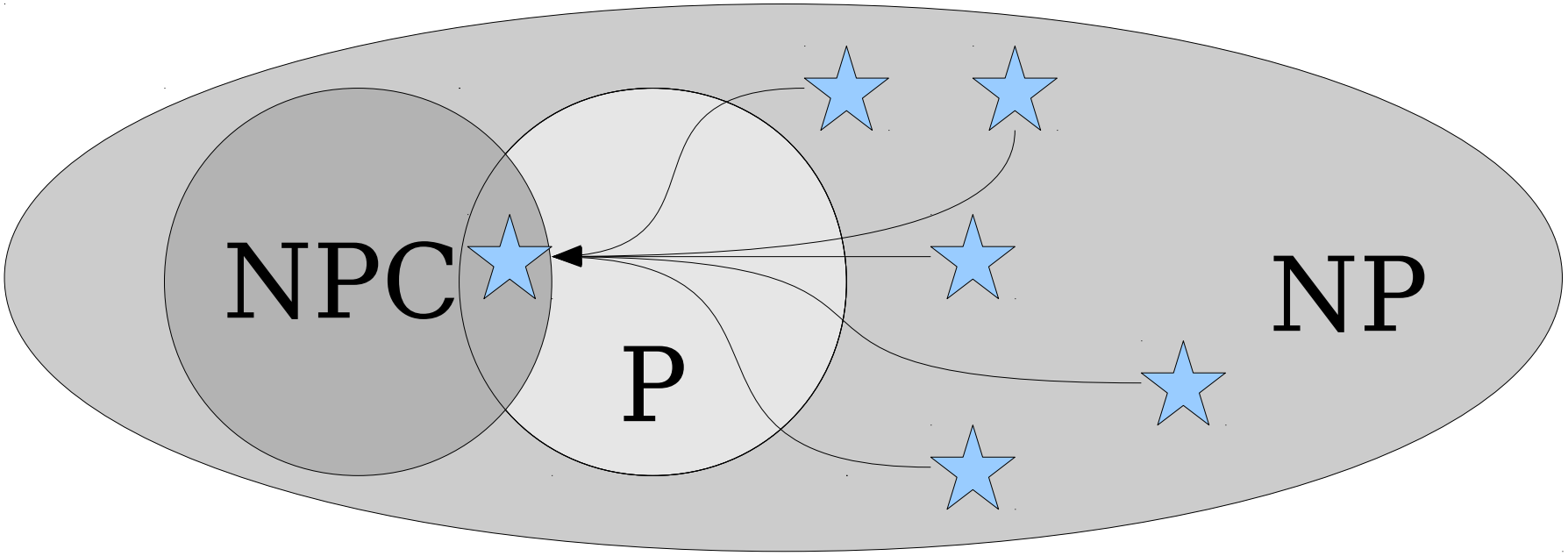

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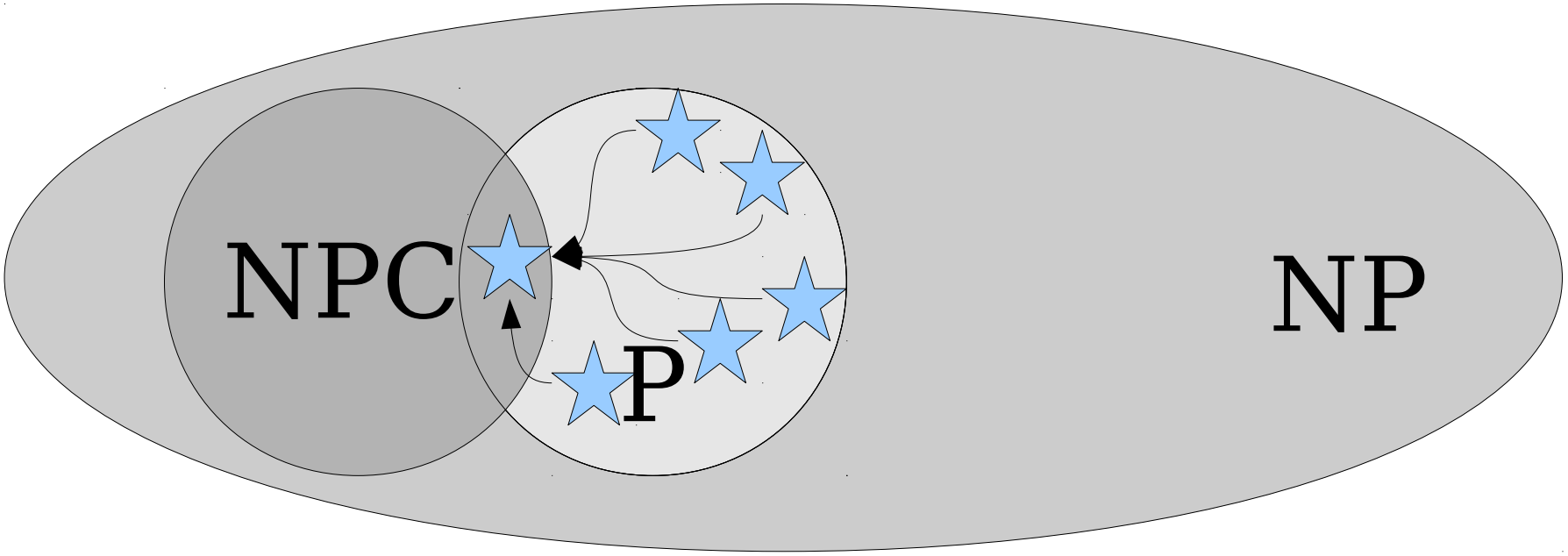

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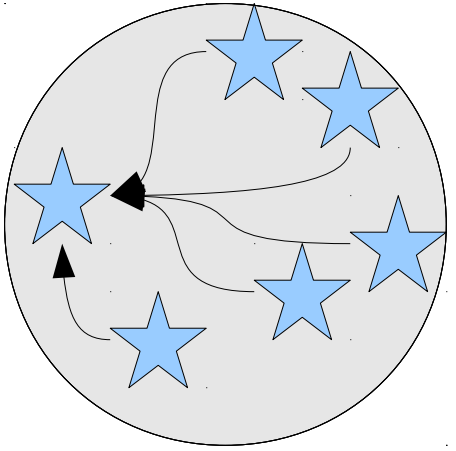
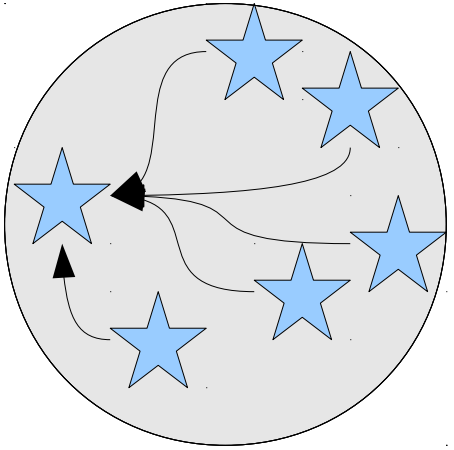


P = NP

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 $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$. ■



P = NP

The Tantalizing Truth

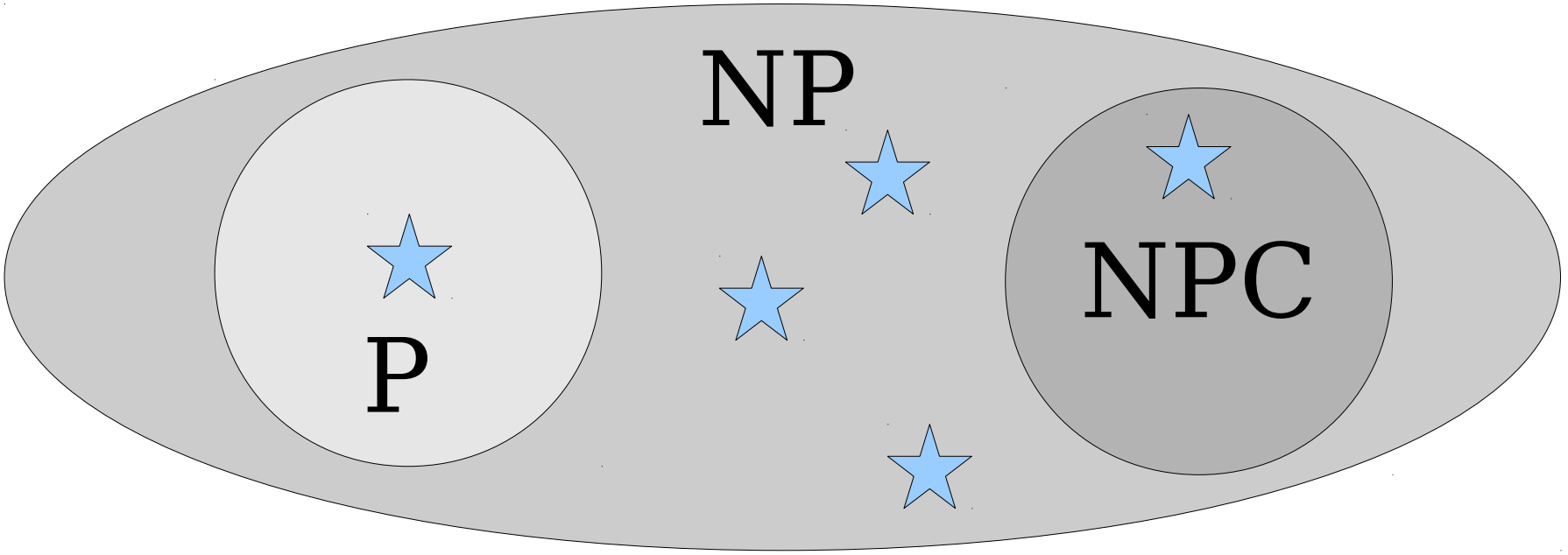
Theorem: If *any* **NP**-complete language is not in **P**, then **P ≠ NP**.

Intuition: This means the hardest problems in **NP** are so hard that they can't be solved in polynomial time. So the hardest problems in **NP** aren't in **P**, meaning **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 }**

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. ■-*ish*

Proof: Take CS154!

Why All This Matters

- Resolving $\mathbf{P} \stackrel{?}{=} \mathbf{NP}$ is equivalent to just figuring out how hard SAT is.

$$\text{SAT} \in \mathbf{P} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{P = NP}$$

- We've turned a huge, abstract, theoretical problem about solving problems versus checking solutions into the concrete task of seeing how hard one problem is.
- You can get a sense for how little we know about algorithms and computation given that we can't yet answer this question!

Why All This Matters

- You will almost certainly encounter **NP**-hard problems in practice – they're everywhere!
- If a problem is **NP**-hard, then there is no known algorithm for that problem that
  - is efficient on all inputs,
  - always gives back the right answer, and
  - runs deterministically.
- ***Useful intuition:*** If you need to solve an **NP**-hard problem, you will either need to settle for an approximate answer, an answer that's likely but not necessarily right, or have to work on really small inputs.

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, two-player 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 receive transplants. *(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)*

Next Time

- ***Final Review Session***
- ***Where To Go From Here***
- ***Parting Words!***