## Introduction to Complexity Theory

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### **PROBLEMS AND PROBLEMS**

- When designing algorithms we think about problems individually
- Nice to know in advance what kind of algorithms we can design
  - Convenient then to consider classes or problems with similar algorithmic properties
  - Focus on decision problems = problems with true/false answers or positive/negative instances
- Example of meaningful complexity classes:
  - Semi-decidable problems, for which we have algorithms that can provide the correct answer to positive instances but not to negative instances
    - Includes exactly all specifiable problems
  - Decidable problems, for which algorithms exist
  - Intractable problems, for which it is proven that no polynomial algorithm exist (decidability in Presburger arithmetic, position evaluation in Go, etc.)
  - Tractable problems, for which polynomial algorithms exist (sorting, shortest path, optimal BST, etc.)



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  - Intractable problems, for which it is proven that no polynomial algorithm exist (decidability in Presburger arithmetic, position evaluation in Go, etc.)
  - Tractable problems, for which polynomial algorithms exist (sorting, shortest path, optimal BST, etc.)
  - Neither here nor there: problems with no known polynomial time algorithms but not proven to have no such an algorithm



## THE HALTING PROBLEM



Input: A string P describing an algorithm and a string w as input for P
Output: TRUE if P halts on w and FALSE if P runs forever on w

#### Theorem (Alan Mathison Turing, 1939)

The halting problem is undecidable (semi-decidable but not decidable)

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The halting problem is undecidable (semi-decidable but not decidable)

- Suppose that the problem is decidable and so is solved by HALT(P, w)
- Consider then the following algorithm:
  - algorithm DIAG(x):
    - if HALTS(x, x) then
      - while TRUE do nothing
    - else return TRUE
- Does DIAG(DIAG) halt?

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  - algorithm DIAG(x):
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- Does DIAG(DIAG) halt?
  - If it halts then HALTS(DIAG, DIAG) returns TRUE (since HALTS solves the halting problem), which means that DIAG(DIAG) does not halt, a contradiction
  - If it does not halt; then HALTS(DIAG, DIAG) returns FALSE (since HALTS solves the halting problem), which means that DIAG(DIAG) halts and returns TRUE, another contradiction

## Theorem (Henry Gordon Rice, 1951)

All nontrivial and extensional questions about algorithms are undecidable

## **PROBLEMS REDEFINED**

- Abstract problem: relation Q over the set I of problem instances and the set S of problem solutions: Q ⊆ I × S
  - Complexity theory deals with decision problems or languages ( $S = \{0, 1\}$ )
    - I partitioned into positive and negative problem instances
    - Technically a language is a set of strings
    - A problem Q ⊆ I × {0, 1} ca be rewritten as the language (set)
       L(Q) = {w ∈ I : (w, 1) ∈ Q}
  - Many abstract problems are optimization problems instead; however, we can usually restate an optimization problem as a decision problem which requires the same amount of resources to solve



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- Concrete problem: an abstract decision problem with I = {0, 1}\*
  - Abstract problem mapped on concrete problem using an encoding  $e: I \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$
  - $Q \subseteq I \times \{0,1\}$  mapped to the concrete problem  $e(Q) \subseteq e(I) \times \{0,1\}$
  - Encodings will not affect the performance of an algorithm as long as they are polynomially related
- An algorithm solves a concrete problem in time O(T(n)) whenever the algorithm produces in O(T(n)) time a solution for any problem instance *i* with |i| = n





- Complexity theory analyzes problems from the perspective of how many resources (e.g., time, storage) are necessary to solve them
  - Given some abstract problem that requires certain resource (time) bounds to solve, it is generally easy to find a language that requires the same resource bounds to decide
  - Sometime (but not always) finding an algorithm for deciding the language immediately implies an algorithm for solving the problem



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- Traveling salesman (TSP): Given  $n \ge 2$ , a matrix  $(d_{ij})_{1 \le i,j \le n}$  with  $d_{ij} > 0$ and  $d_{ii} = 0$ , find a permutation  $\pi$  of  $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$  such that  $c(\pi)$ , the cost of  $\pi$  is minimal, where  $c(\pi) = d_{\pi_1\pi_2} + d_{\pi_2\pi_3} + \cdots + d_{\pi_{n-1}\pi_n} + d_{\pi_n\pi_1}$ 
  - TSP the language (take 1): { $((d_{ij})_{1 \le i,j \le n}, B) : n \ge 2, B \ge 0$ , there exists a permutation  $\pi$  such that  $c(\pi) \le B$ }
  - TSP the language (take 2), or the Hamiltonian graphs: Exactly all the graphs that have a (Hamiltonian) cycle that goes through all the vertices exactly once

# LANGUAGES? PROBLEMS? (CONT'D)



- Clique: Given an undirected graph G = (V, E), find the maximal set  $C \subseteq V$  such that  $\forall v_i, v_j \in C : (v_i, v_j) \in E$  (*C* is a clique of *G*)
  - Clique, the language: {(G = (V, E), K) : K ≥ 2 : there exists a clique C of V such that |C| ≥ K}

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- SAT: Fix a set of variables  $X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  and let

$$\overline{X} = \{\overline{x_1}, \overline{x_2}, \dots, \overline{x_n}\}$$

- An element of  $X \cup \overline{X}$  is called a literal
- A formula (or set/conjunction of clauses) is  $\alpha_1 \land \alpha_2 \land \cdots \land \alpha_m$  where

 $\alpha_i = x_{a_1} \vee x_{a_2} \vee \cdots \vee x_{a_k}, 1 \leq i \leq m, \text{ and } x_{a_i} \in X \cup \overline{X}$ 

- An interpretation (or truth assignment) is a function  $I: X \to \{\top, \bot\}$
- A formula *F* is satisfiable iff there exists an interpretation under which *F* evaluates to  $\top$ .
- SAT = {F : F is satisfiable }
- 2-SAT, 3-SAT are variants of SAT (with the number of literals in every clause restricted to a maximum of 2 and 3, respectively)

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- 2-SAT, 3-SAT are variants of SAT (with the number of literals in every clause restricted to a maximum of 2 and 3, respectively)
- Note in passing: Sometimes SAT (2-SAT, 3-SAT) is called CNF (2-CNF, 3-CNF) because the input formulae are written in conjunctive normal form



- A nondeterministic algorithm is an algorithm that can be in more places at once while deciding a problem
  - Sole additional operation is the nondeterministic guess of a bit: GUESS returns 0 and 1 at the same time
  - After a guess the algorithm continues in parallel for both cases 0 and 1
  - The algorithm returns TRUE iff at least one of the parallel paths return TRUE
  - Running time: the running time of the longest parallel path
  - Example:

```
algorithm IsCOMPOSITE(k):
```

```
\begin{array}{l} f_1 \leftarrow 1 \\ f_2 \leftarrow 1 \\ \text{for } i = 1 \text{ to } \log k \text{ do } f_1 \leftarrow 2 \times f_1 + \text{GUESS} \\ \text{for } i = 1 \text{ to } \log k \text{ do } f_2 \leftarrow 2 \times f_2 + \text{GUESS} \end{array}
```

- return  $k = f_1 \times f_2$
- Running time: O(n + t<sub>×</sub>(n)), with t<sub>×</sub>(n) the time it takes to multiply *n*-bit numbers
- Correctness: f<sub>1</sub> and f<sub>2</sub> range over all log k-bit numbers = all possible factors of n
- If  $f_1 \times f_2$  is never equal to *n* then all paths return FALSE (so ISCOMPOSITE returns FALSE), otherwise at least one path returns TRUE (so ISCOMPOSITE returns TRUE)



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- In the worst case every step is a guess, hence the O(2<sup>r(n)</sup>) overall running time



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- Alternatively, think about the running paths of a deterministic algorithm as a sequence of states
  - The length of the sequence is the running time
- By contrast the running time of a nondeterministic algorithm branches at each guess forming a binary tree
  - The running time is the height of the tree
  - A deterministic algorithm has to traverse the whole tree

## A FEW COMPLEXITY CLASSES

- $\mathcal{P}$ : The class of exactly all problems solved by (deterministic) algorithms running in poly(n) =  $n^{O(1)}$  time
- *NP*: The class of exactly all problems solved by nondeterministic algorithms running poly(*n*) time
- $\mathcal{EXP}$ : The class of exactly all problems solved by (deterministic) algorithms running in  $2^{n^{O(1)}}$  time

#### Corollary

 $\mathcal{P}\subseteq\mathcal{NP}\subseteq\mathcal{EXP}$ 

• True or false:  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$ 



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#### Corollary

 $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{NP} \subseteq \mathcal{EXP}$ 

- True or false:  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$  open question (since 1971, arguably earlier)
- Algorithms for problems in NP consist of a nondeterministic guessing step followed by a deterministic verification step
  - Clique: guess a set of vertices, then verify that the guessed set is a clique
  - Hamiltonian cycle: guess a permutation of vertices, then verify that the guessed permutation forms a cycle

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 $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{NP} \subseteq \mathcal{EXP}$ 

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  - Clique: guess a set of vertices, then verify that the guessed set is a clique
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- Alternative definition for *NP*: A problem *Q* ⊆ *I* × {0, 1} is in *NP* iff the following problem is in *P*: Given *w* ∈ *I*, determine whether (*w*, 1) ∈ *Q*
  - The problem becomes easy if we take the guess out



## EXAMPLES OF NONDETERMINISTIC ALGORITHMS



#### algorithm KNAPSACK(C, n, p, w, K):

```
// guess a set of objects
     O \leftarrow \emptyset
     for i = 1 to n do
          if GUESS = 1 then O \leftarrow O \cup \{i\}
     // calculate the weight and profit
     W \leftarrow 0
     P \leftarrow 0
     foreach i \in O do
          W \leftarrow W + W_i
          P \leftarrow P + p_i
     return W < C \land P > K
algorithm CLIQUE(G = (V, E), K):
     // guess a set of vertices
     C \leftarrow \emptyset
     foreach v \in V do
          if GUESS = 1 then C \leftarrow C \cup \{v\}
     // check if C is a clique
     foreach u \in C do
          foreach v \in C do
                if u \neq v \land (u, v) \notin E then
```

FALSE

```
algorithm GUESSNUMBER(n):
     k \leftarrow 0
     for i = 1 to log n do
      k \leftarrow 2 \times k + GUESS
     return k
algorithm TSP(d_{1...n,1...n}, K):
     // quess n numbers
     \pi \leftarrow \langle \rangle
     for i \stackrel{\sim}{=} 1 to n do
      | \pi \leftarrow \pi + \langle \mathsf{GUESSNUMBER}(n) \rangle
     // verify that \pi is a permutation
     for i = 1 to n do
           for j = 1 to n do
                 if \pi_i = \pi_i then return FALSE
     // calculate the cost of cycle \pi
     c \leftarrow 0
     for i = 1 to n do
           c \leftarrow c + d_{\pi_i,\pi_{(i+1) \mod n}}
```

return  $c \leq K$ 

return |C| > K

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algorithm CLIQUE(G = (V, E), K):
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for i = 1 to log n do

\  \  k \leftarrow 2 \times k + \text{GUESS}

return k
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 All the "brute force" solutions discussed earlier are effectively polynomial time nondeterministic algorithms!

return |C| > K



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- Polynomial reduction: A language  $L_1$  is polynomial-time reducible to a language  $L_2$  ( $L_1 \leq_P L_2$ ) iff there exists a polynomial algorithm F that computes the function  $f : \{0, 1\}^* \to \{0, 1\}^*$  such that

 $\forall x \in \{0, 1\}^* : x \in L_1 \text{ iff } f(x) \in L_2$ 

• Polynomial reductions show that a problem is not harder to solve than another within a polynomial-time factor



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#### Lemma

 $\bigcirc \leq_P$  is a preorder (reflexive and transitive but not necessarily symmetric or antisymmetric)

 $2 L_1 \leq_P L_2 \land L_2 \in P \Rightarrow L_1 \in P$ 



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 $\forall x \in \{0, 1\}^* : x \in L_1 \text{ iff } f(x) \in L_2$ 

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#### Lemma

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- - A problem *L* is NP-hard iff  $\forall L' \in \mathcal{NP} : L' \leq_P L$
- A problem *L* is NP-complete ( $L \in NPC$ ) iff *L* is NP-hard and  $L \in NP$

#### Theorem

Let L be some NP-complete problem; then  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$  iff  $L \in \mathcal{P}$ 



- Are there NP-complete problems at all?
  - SAT  $\in \mathcal{NPC}$  (Stephen Cook, 1971)
- The first is the hard one: need to show that every problem in  $\mathcal{NP}$  reduces to our problem
- Then in order to find other NP-complete problems all we need to do is to find problems such that some problem already known to be NP-complete reduces to them
  - This works because polynomial reductions are closed under composition = are transitive
- Then it is apparently easy to use the theorem stated earlier:

Let *L* be some NP-complete problem; then  $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$  iff  $L \in \mathcal{P}$ 

## Some well-known NP-complete problems







- 3-Dimensional Matching (3DM):
  - Input: A set M ⊆ W × X × Y where W, X and Y are disjoint sets having the same number q of elements
  - Question: Does *M* contain a matching?
  - A matching is a subset M' ⊆ M such that |M'| = q and no two elements in M' agree in any position
- Vertex Cover (VC):
  - Input: A Graph G = (V, E) and an integer  $k, 0 \le k \le |V|$
  - Question: Is there a vertex cover of size less than k that is, a subset  $V' \subseteq V$ ,  $|V'| \leq k$  such that for all edges  $(u, v) \in E$  we have  $u \in V' \lor v \in V'$ ?
- Independent Set (IS):
  - Input: A Graph G = (V, E) and an integer  $k, 0 \le k \le |V|$
  - Question: Does G contain an independent set of size larger than k that is, a subset V' ⊆ V, |V'| ≥ k such that (u, v) ∉ E for all u, v ∈ V'?
- Partition:
  - Input: A finite set A and a size  $s(a) \in \mathbb{N}$  for each  $a \in A$
  - Question: Is there  $A' \subseteq A$  such that  $\sum_{a \in A'} s(a) = \sum_{a \notin A'} s(a)$ ?

# SOME NP-COMPLETE PROBLEMS (CONT'D)

- Sum of Subsets (SoS):
  - Input: A finite set A, a size  $s(a) \in \mathbb{N}$  for each  $a \in A$ , and  $B \in \mathbb{N}$
  - Question: Is there  $A' \subseteq A$  such that  $\sum_{a \in A'} s(a) = B$ ?
- Graph 3-Colorability (G3C):
  - Input: A graph G
  - Question: Is the chromatic number of G less than 3?
- Subgraph Isomorphism (SI):
  - Input: Two graphs  $G = (V_1, E_1)$  and  $H = (V_2, E_2)$
  - Question: Does G contain a subgraph isomorphic to H that is, a subgraph G' = (V, E) such that V ⊆ V<sub>1</sub>, E ⊆ E<sub>1</sub>, |V| = |V<sub>2</sub>|, |E| = |E<sub>2</sub>|, and there is a one-to-one correspondence between E and E<sub>2</sub>?
- Exact Covering by 3 Sets (X3C):
  - Input: A finite set X with |X| = 3q and a collection C of 3-element subsets of X
  - Does *C* contain an exact cover for *X* that is, a subcollection  $C' \subseteq C$  s.t. |C'| = q and every element in *X* occurs in exactly one member of *C*?
- Partition into Triangles:
  - Input: A Graph G = (V, E) such that |V| = 3q
  - Question: Is there a partition of *V* into *q* disjoint sets  $V_1, V_2, \ldots, V_q$  of 3 vertices each such that for each  $V_i = v_{i1}, v_{i2}, v_{i3}$  we have  $\{(v_{i1}, v_{i2}), (v_{i2}, v_{i3}), (v_{i3}, v_{i1})\} \subseteq E$ ?



- There are problems that are known to be in neither  $\mathcal{P}$  nor  $\mathcal{NPC}$
- Example: the language of composite numbers (aka the integer factorization problem)
  - $\bullet \ \, \text{In} \, \mathcal{NP}$
  - Its complement also in  $\mathcal{NP}$
  - $\bullet \ \, \text{Suspected outside } \mathcal{P}$
  - Suspected outside  $\mathcal{NPC}$
  - Its placement outside  ${\mathcal P}$  crucial to modern cryptography