Introduction to Computer Science Lecture 11: Theory of Computation

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Computability

- Well-defined input and output
- Computation of these functions lies beyond any algorithmic system → noncomputable.
- Hold it... but algorithms are defined on some particular primitives, and primitives are defined on some particular machine.
- We need a universal machine to define computation.

Turing Machine



- Alan Turing, 1936
- Finite state automata + infinite R/W tape
 - Finite states.
 - A tape with infinite cells.
 - R/W head moving one cell per time (left/right).
 - Finite alphabet (0,1,*).

Incrementing a Value

Current state	Current cell content	Value to write	Direction to move	New state to enter
START	*	*	Left	ADD
ADD	0	1	Right	RETURN
ADD	1	0	Left	CARRY
ADD	*	*	Right	HALT
CARRY	0	1	Right	RETURN
CARRY	1	0	Left	CARRY
CARRY	*	1	Left	OVERFLOW
OVERFLOW	*	*	Right	RETURN
RETURN	0	0	Right	RETURN
RETURN	1	1	Right	RETURN
RETURN	*	*	No move	HALT

Church-Turing Thesis

The functions that are computable by a Turing machine are exactly the functions that can be computed by any algorithmic means.

Bare Bones Language

- One of the universal programming languages
 - Simple imperative programming languages
 - Rich enough to compute all Turing-computable functions
 - Bare bones → minimal set
- clear name;
- incr name;
- decr name; /* remains 0 if already 0 !!!*/
- while name not 0 do; ... end;

Examples

```
clear Z;
while X not 0 do;
                            clear Aux;
   clear W:
                            clear Tomorrow;
   while Y not 0 do;
                            while Today not 0
      incr Z;
                            do;
      incr W;
                                incr Aux;
      decr Y;
                                decr Today;
   end;
                            end:
   while W not 0 do;
                            while Aux not 0 do;
       incr Y;
                                incr Today;
       decr W;
                                incr Tomorrow;
    end;
                                decr Aux;
    decr X;
                            end;
end:
```

The Halting Problem

- Are all algorithms (functions) computable?
- Input: encoding of a program.
- Output: 1 if the program halts; 0 otherwise.
- Is it possible to write such an algorithm?
 - Suppose S(p) is such an algorithm.
 - S(p) returns 1 if p halts.
 - S(p) returns 0 if p doesn't halt.

1st known incomputable problem

Proof (Short, Conceptual Version)

S(p): The solution to the halting problem

N(p)

- 1. x = S(p)
- 2. while x not 0 do
- 3. **end**

Does N(N) halt?

If N(N) halts $\rightarrow S(N)$ returns $1 \rightarrow N(N)$ does not halt

If N(N) doesn't halt $\rightarrow S(N)$ returns $0 \rightarrow N(N)$ halts

Gödel Number & Incomplete Theory

- All Turing machines (computable functions) can be mapped (1-to-1) to natural numbers.
 - The set of Turing machines is countable infinite.
 - The number is called the Gödel number.
- Gödel's incomplete theory (Kurt Gödel, 1931)
 - Later used by Turing.
 - "Any effectively generated theory capable of expressing elementary arithmetic cannot be both consistent and complete.
 - In particular, for any consistent, effectively generated formal theory that proves certain basic arithmetic truths, there is an arithmetical statement that is true, but not provable in the theory."

Halting Problem: 1st Incomputable

- Is the following function computable?
 - x and i are integers.

Procedure g(i)

1. **if**
$$h(i, i) == 0$$

- 2. return
- 3. **else**
- loop forever

$$h(x, i) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if program } x \text{ halts on input } i \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Let g's Gödel number be e

- Diagonalization proof
 - $h(e, e) = 0 \rightarrow g$ doesn't halts on $e \rightarrow$ but g actually halts.
 - $h(e,e) = 1 \rightarrow g$ halts on $e \rightarrow$ but g actually doesn't halts.

Diagonalization Proof

h(x,i)		Procedure x					
		1	2	3	4	5	
	1	1	0	1	0	1	
	2	1	1	0	0	0	
Input i	3	0	0	0	1	1	
	4	1	1	0	1	0	
	5	0	0	1	1	0	

h(i,i)	1	1	0	1	0
g(i): halt:1, otherwise:0	0	0	1	0	1

Invert the diagonal. So g can not be any procedure x.

Complexity Classes

- Developed by Cook & Karp in early 70.
- The class \mathcal{P} : class of problems that can be solved in polynomial time in the size of input.
 - Problems in \mathcal{P} is considered tractable.
 - Closed under addition, multiplication, composition, complement, etc. (closure property).
- The class NP (Nondeterministic Polynomial)
 - Polynomial time in the size of input on a nondeterministic Turing machine (nondeterministic finite state automata + infinite tape)

$\mathcal P$ vs. $\mathcal N\mathcal P$

- Finding max $\rightarrow \Theta(n)$
- Sorting $\rightarrow \Theta(n \log n)$
- Traveling salesman problem (TSP) $\rightarrow \Theta(n^n)$?





Traveling Salesman Problem

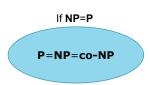
- Traveling salesman problem (TSP)
 - Instance: A set of *n* cities, distance between each pair of cities, and a bound *B*.
 - Question: Is there a route that starts and ends at a given city, visits every city exactly once, and has total distance ≤ B?
- TSP $\in \mathcal{NP}$?
 - Guess a tour, verify if it visits every city exactly once, returns to the start, and total distance ≤ *B*.
- co-TSP
 - Are all tours that start and end at a given city, visit every city exactly once, and have total distance > B?

Subset Sum Problem

- Subset sum problem (SSP)
 - Given a finite set of integers, is there a non-empty subset which sums to 0?
- SSP $\in \mathcal{NP}$?
 - Guess a set (certificate), verify if it is a subset and sums to 0.
- co-SSP
 - Yes/No → No/Yes
 - Does every non-empty subset have a nonzero sum?

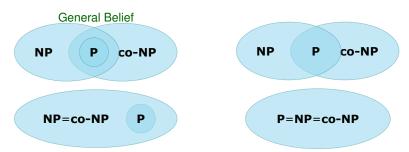
Properties of \mathcal{NP}

- All problems in \mathcal{P} are also in \mathcal{NP} .
 - $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{NP}$
 - $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{NP}$? No one knows yet. A 7-million dollar question.
- Solutions to problems in NP can be verified in polynomial time in the size of input.
- \mathcal{NP} is not known to be closed under complement.
 - co- \mathcal{NP}
 - $x \in \text{co-}\mathcal{NP}$ iff "complement of x" $\in \mathcal{NP}$



\mathcal{NP} , co- \mathcal{NP} , and \mathcal{P}

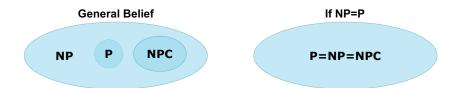
• All these are possible.



- In 2002, a survey of 100 researchers
 - 61 think No, 9 think Yes, 22 uncertain, 8 think impossible to prove.

\mathcal{NP} -Completeness

- The class \mathcal{NP} -complete (\mathcal{NPC})
 - Intuitively, if any \mathcal{NPC} problem can be solved in polynomial time \Rightarrow All problems in \mathcal{NP} can be solved in polynomial time.

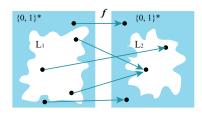


NPC

- Intuitively, \mathcal{NPC} are problems that are the most difficult ones in \mathcal{NP} .
- How do we define "difficulty" when we don't know their complexity?
- Key: reduction

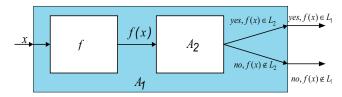
Polynomial-Time Reduction

- Motivation:
 - Let L₁ and L₂ be two decision problems. Suppose algorithm A₂ can solve L₂. Can we use A₂ to solve L₁?
- Polynomial-time reduction f from L_1 to L_2 : $L_1 \leq_{\mathcal{P}} L_2$
 - x is an "yes" input for L_1 iff f(x) is an yes input for L_2 .
 - f is \mathcal{P} -time computable.
 - L_1 is \mathcal{P} -time reducible to L_2
 - L2 is at least as hard as L1
 - f is reduction function.



Significance of Reduction

- $L_1 \leq_{\varphi} L_2$ implies
 - $\exists \mathcal{P}$ -time algorithm for $L_2 \to \exists \mathcal{P}$ -time algorithm for L_1 $(L_2 \in \mathcal{P} \to L_1 \in \mathcal{P})$
 - No \mathcal{P} -time algorithm for $L_1 \to \text{no } \mathcal{P}$ -time algorithm for L_2 $(L_1 \notin \mathcal{P} \to L_2 \notin \mathcal{P})$



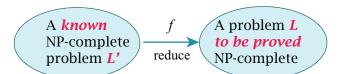
• $\leq_{\mathcal{P}}$ is transitive, i.e., $L_1 \leq_{\mathcal{P}} L_2 \& L_2 \leq_{\mathcal{P}} L_3 \Rightarrow L_1 \leq_{\mathcal{P}} L_3$

Definition of NPC, NP-Hard

- $L \in \mathcal{NPC}$ iff
 - $L \in \mathcal{NP}$ and $\forall L' \in \mathcal{NP}, L' \leq_{p} L$
- $L \in \mathcal{NP}$ -hard iff
 - $\forall L' \in \mathcal{NP}, L' \leq_P L$
- To prove a problem is \mathcal{NPC} , we need one very first \mathcal{NPC} problem and then use \mathcal{P} -reduction
- Now, it's easily seen that the optimization version of a \mathcal{NPC} problem is \mathcal{NP} -hard.

Proving \mathcal{NP} -Completeness

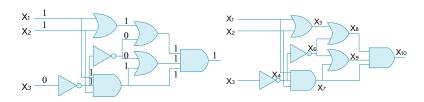
- Five steps for proving that L is NPC:
 - Prove $L \in \mathcal{NP}$.
 - Choose a known \mathcal{NPC} problem L'.
 - Construct a reduction f transforming every instance of L' to an instance of L.
 - Prove that $x \in L'$ if $f(x) \in L$ for all x.
 - Prove that f is polynomial-time computable.



1st NPC Problem

- Circuit-SAT (Stephen Cook, 1971)
 - Probably the 1st. He proved 21 \mathcal{NPC} problems in the same paper.
 - Instance: A combinational circuit C composed of AND, OR, and NOT gates.
 - Question: Is there an assignment of Boolean values to the inputs that makes the output of *C* to be 1?
- Satisfiability (SAT) (Stephen Cook, 1971)
 - Determining if the variables of a given Boolean formula can be assigned in such a way as to make the formula evaluate to TRUE.

Circuit-SAT $\leq_{\mathcal{P}}$ SAT

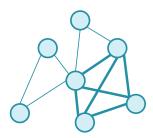


$$\varphi = x_{10} \wedge (x_4 \leftrightarrow \neg x_3) \wedge (x_5 \leftrightarrow (x_1 \vee x_2)) \wedge (x_6 \leftrightarrow \neg x_4) \\ \wedge (x_7 \leftrightarrow (x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge x_4)) \wedge (x_8 \leftrightarrow (x_5 \vee x_6)) \\ \wedge (x_9 \leftrightarrow (x_6 \vee x_7)) \wedge (x_{10} \leftrightarrow (x_7 \wedge x_8 \wedge x_9))$$

- **1** SAT ∈ \mathcal{NPC}
- 2 Circuit C is satisfiable iff φ is satisfiable
- **3** φ is \mathcal{P} -time constructible and maps every instance.

Clique

- A clique in G is a complete subgraph of G.
- The clique problem
 - Instance: G = (V, E) and a positive integer $k \le |V|$.
 - Question: Is there a clique $V' \subseteq V$ of size $\geq k$?
- Clique $\in \mathcal{NP}$
 - Can be verified in $O(k^2)$ time.

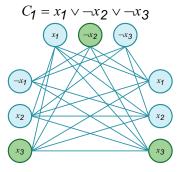


$3SAT \leq_{\mathcal{P}} Clique$

- Let $\varphi = C_1 \wedge C_2 \wedge ... \wedge C_k$ be a Boolean formula in 3-CNF with k clauses.
- For each $C_r = (l_1^r \vee l_2^r \vee l_3^r)$, introduce a triple of vertices v_1^r, v_2^r, v_3^r in V.
- Build an edge between v_i^r , v_i^s if both of the following hold:
 - v_i^r , v_i^s are in different triples $(r \neq s)$
 - I_i^r is not the negation of I_i^s
- Claim: G can be computed from φ in \mathcal{P} -time.

Reduction Example

$$\varphi = (x_1 \vee \neg x_2 \vee \neg x_3) \wedge (\neg x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3)$$

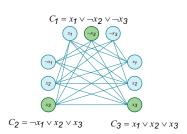


$$C_2 = \neg x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3$$

$$C_3 = x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3$$

φ Satisfiable \Leftrightarrow G Has a k-Clique

- φ satisfiable \Rightarrow each C_r contains at least one $I_i^r = 1$ and each such literal corresponds to a vertex v_i^r .
- Picking a "true" literal from each C_r forms a set of V' of k vertices.
- For any two vertices $v_i^r, v_j^s \in V', r \neq s, l_i^r = l_j^s = 1$ and thus l_i^r, l_j^s cannot be complements. \Rightarrow edge $(v_i^r, v_i^s) \in E$.



Coping with \mathcal{NP} -Complete/-Hard

- Approximation algorithms:
 - Guarantee to be "not-too-bad."
- Pseudo-polynomial time algorithms:
 - e.g., DP for the 0-1 Knapsack problem.
- Probabilistic algorithms:
 - Assume some probabilistic distribution of the instances.
- Randomized algorithms/heuristics:
 - Make use of a randomizer/heuristic:
 - No guarantee of performance.
 - Simulated annealing, genetic algorithms, etc.
- \mathcal{EXP} -algorithms/branch & bound/exhaustive:
 - Feasible only when the problem is small.