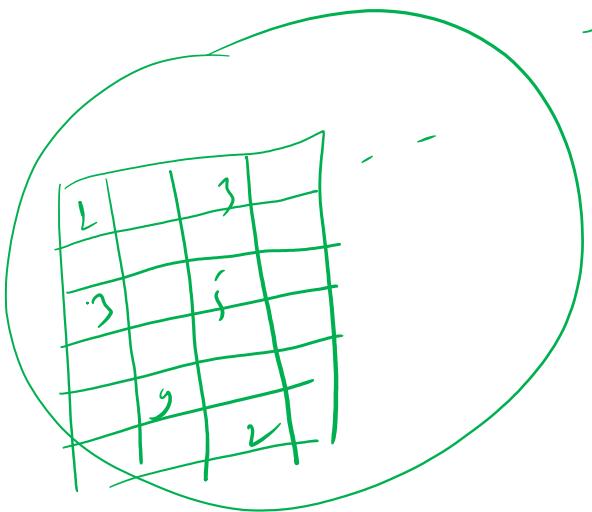


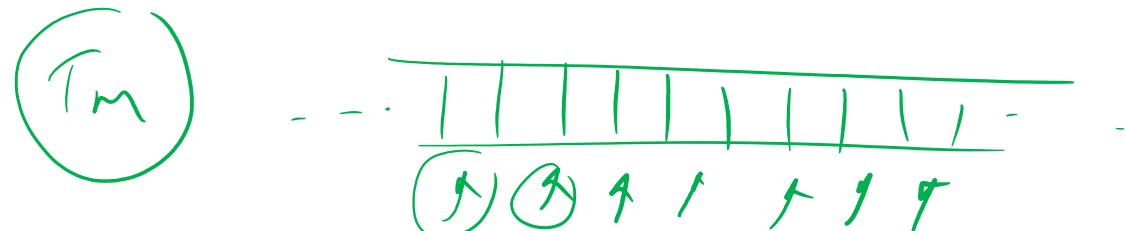
Computational Complexity



g: 3, 1, 5, 7, 8
sol: 1, 3, 5, 7, 8 $\hookrightarrow O(n^2)$

resources → space.
resources → time.

- Complexity theoretic study looks at a task (or a class of tasks) and at the computational resources required to solve this task, rather than at a specific algorithm or algorithmic scheme.
- The complexity of computational problems can be discussed by choosing a specific abstract machine as a model of computation and considering how much resource machine of that type require for the solution of that problem.



space / time



- Complexity Measure is a means of measuring the resource used during a computation.
- In case of Turing Machines, during any computation, various resources will be used, such as space and time.

Bubble sort

$n \times n$

\textcircled{n}^2

Time Complexity

The most critical computational resource is often **time**, so the most useful complexity measure is often **time complexity**

$T(x) = \text{output}$
? ?
Step? $\rightarrow T_C$

If we take Turing Machine as our model of computation, then we can give a precise measure of the time resources used by a computation

O ✓
 Ω ✗
 Θ ✓

Definition The **time complexity** of a Turing Machine T is the function Time_T such that $\text{Time}_T(x)$ is the number of steps taken by the computation $T(x)$

(Note that if $T(x)$ does not halt, then $\text{Time}_T(x)$ is undefined.)

looping

Space Complexity

Another important computational resource is amount of “memory” used by an algorithm, that is **space**. The corresponding complexity measure is **space complexity**

As with time, if we take Turing Machine as our model of computation, then we can easily give a measure of the space resources used by a computation

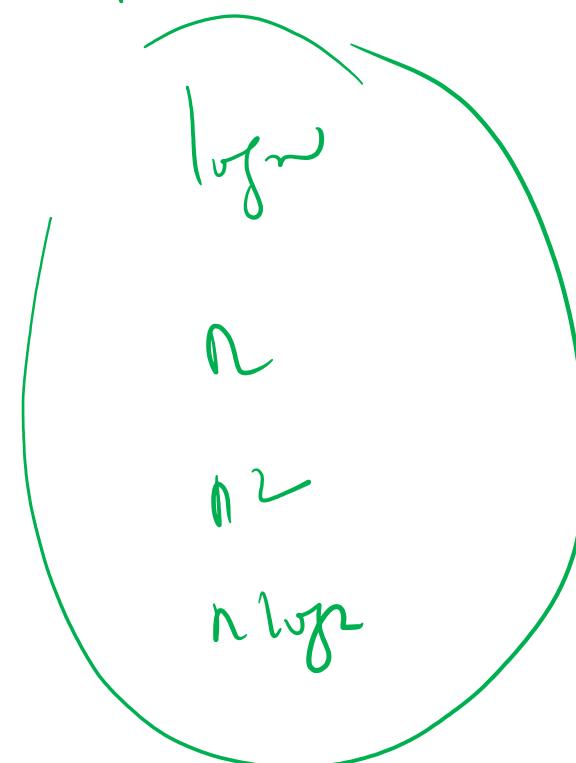
Definition The **space complexity** of a Turing Machine T is the function Space_T such that $\text{Space}_T(x)$ is the number of **distinct** tape cells visited during the computation $T(x)$



(Note that if $T(x)$ does not halt, then $\text{Space}_T(x)$ is undefined.)

Complexity Classes

- P
- NP
- NP Complete
- NP Hard



polynomial time by deterministic algo.

n^k , $k = \dots$

n^2

n^3

$n \cdot$

$\log n$.

The class P

- The class P consists of those problems that are solvable in polynomial time.
- More specifically, they are problems that can be solved in time $O(n^k)$ for some constant k, where n is the size of the input to the problem
- The key is that n is the **size of input**

NP

($\times \times \rightarrow$ non-polynomial) $\times \times$

- NP is not the same as non-polynomial complexity/running time. NP does not stand for not polynomial.
- NP = Non-Deterministic polynomial time
- NP means verifiable in polynomial time
- Verifiable?
 - If we are somehow given a 'certificate' of a solution we can verify the legitimacy in polynomial time.

P is a subset of NP $(P \subseteq NP)$

Solve in PT

Verify in PT

- Since it takes polynomial time to run the program, just run the program and get a solution

- But is NP a subset of P?

- No one knows if $P = NP$ or not

- Solve for a million dollars!

- <http://www.claymath.org/millennium-problems>

- The Poincare conjecture is solved today

Tractable

Hard to solve / easy to verify
[Exponential time]

Intractable

Easy to solve / easy to verify
[Polynomial time]

P vs NP Problem

- If it is easy to check that a solution to a problem is correct, is it also easy to solve the problem?
- This is the essence of the P vs NP question.
- Typical of the NP problems is that of the Hamiltonian Path Problem: given N cities to visit, how can one do this without visiting a city twice?
- If you give me a solution, I can easily check that it is correct. But I cannot so easily find a solution.

NP

Solve by:
non-deterministic algo
polynomial time

Verification is
polynomial time

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

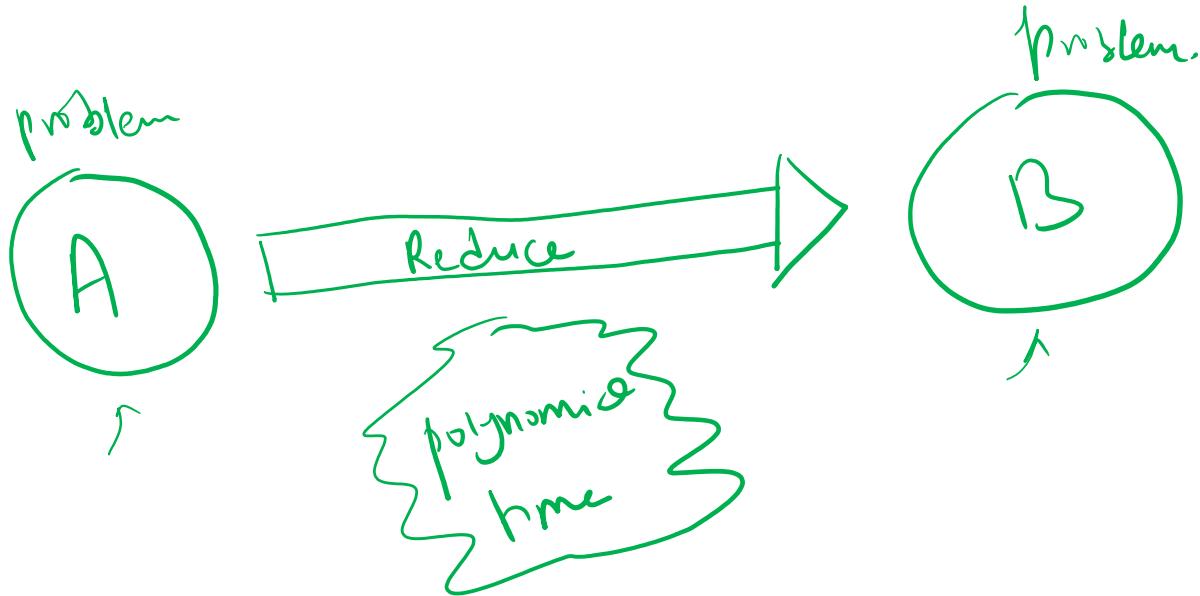
IS $P = NP$?

⇒ Online security is vulnerable to attack

IS $P \neq NP$?

⇒ There are some problems that can never be solved.

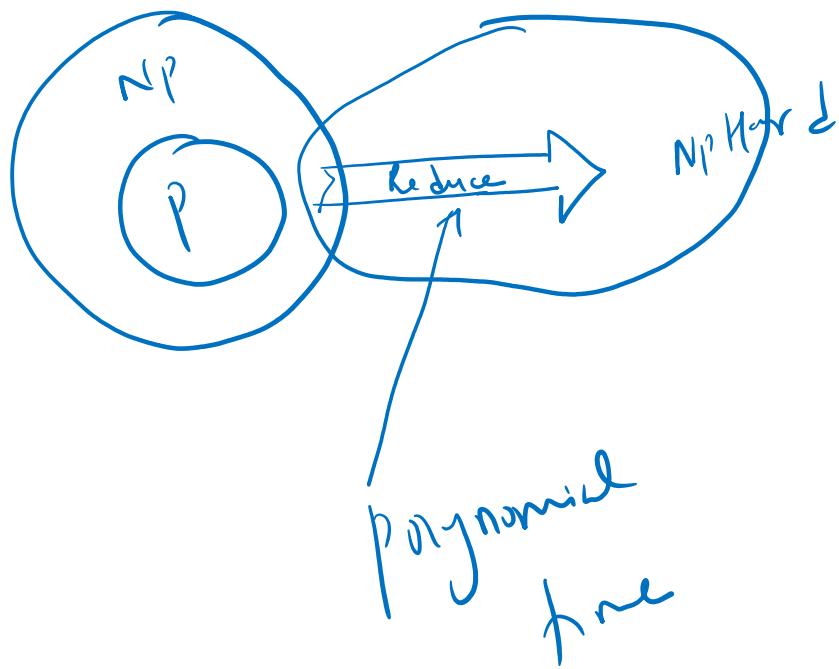
Reduction :



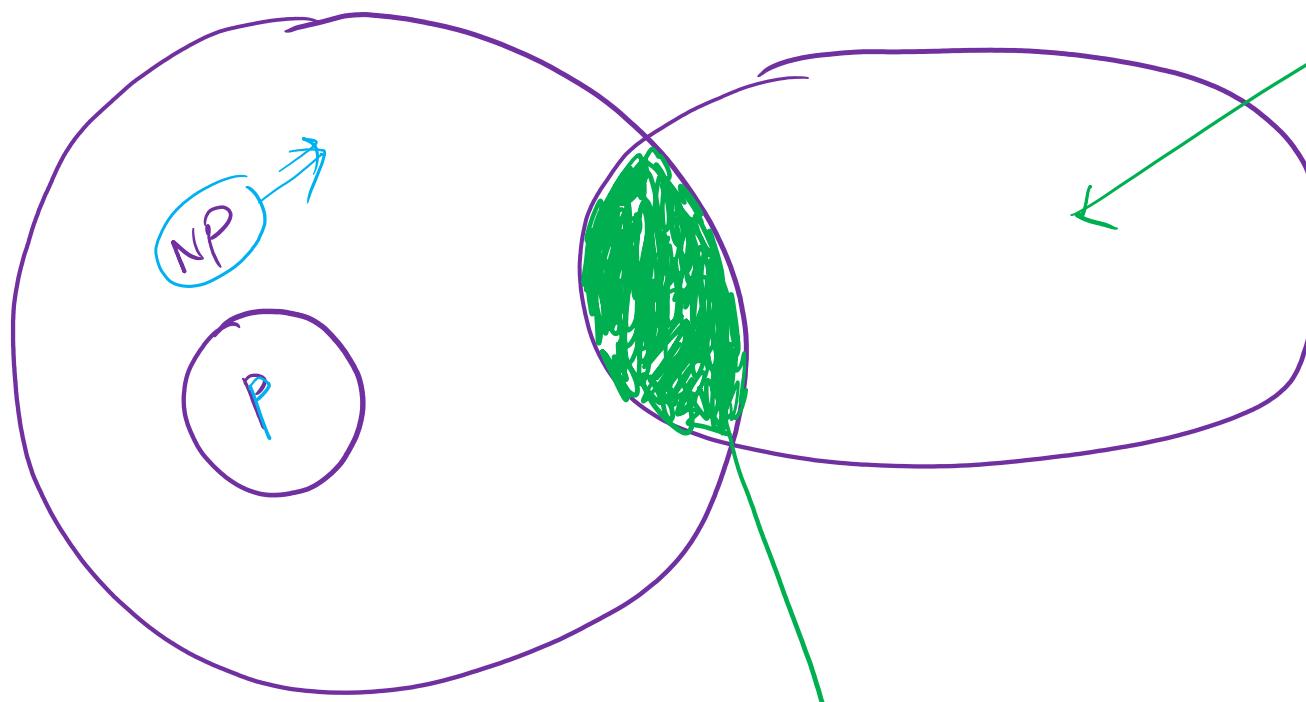
problem A reduces to problem B iff there is a way to solve A by deterministic algorithm that solve B in polynomial time.

NP-Hard problem:

A problem is NP-Hard if every problem in NP can be polynomial reduced to it.



NP-Complete



Np-Complete/SAT

NP-Hard

1) NP-Complete problem :
Decision problem (Y/N)

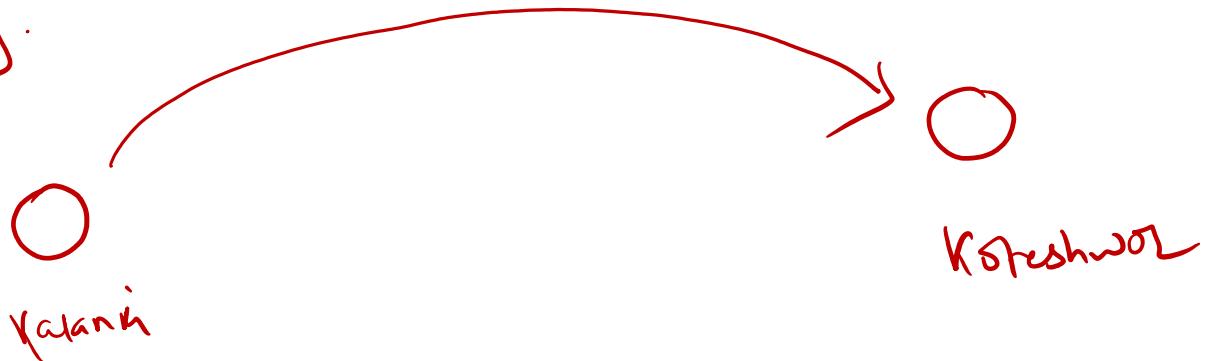
2) NP-Hard problem :
optimization problem (Minimum/
Maximum)

3) All NP-Complete problems are
NP-Hard but all NP-Hard
problems are not NP-Complete

1) Decision problem:

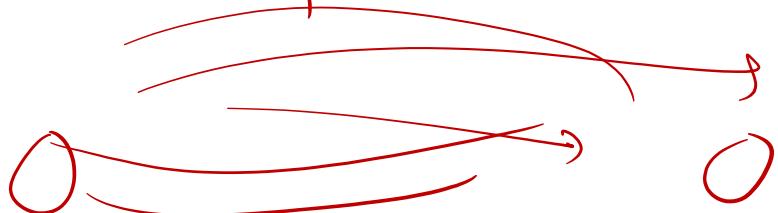
Is there shortest path to reach to Kateshwor? $\rightarrow \text{Yes/No}$

e.g.



2) Optimization problem:

Find out the best route.



Computational Complexity

problem

P-class
tractable

Intractable.

NP-hard
Optimization prob

NP-complete
Decision problem

Reducibility



- Reducibility is a way of converging one problem into another in such a way that, a solution to the second problem can be used to solve the first one.
- For instance, if a problem X can be solved using an algorithm for Y , X is no more difficult than Y , and we say that X reduces to Y .
- The most commonly used reduction is a polynomial-time reduction.
- For example, the problem of squaring an integer can be reduced to the problem of multiplying two integers.
- This means an algorithm for multiplying two integers can be used to square an integer.



- Indeed, this can be done by giving the same input to both inputs of the multiplication algorithm.
- Thus we see that squaring is not more difficult than multiplication, since squaring can be reduced to multiplication.

~~SAT~~ SAT Problem / Satisfiability

eg. 1 $F = (a \vee b) \wedge (\bar{a} \vee \bar{b}) \wedge (\bar{a} \vee c) \wedge$

$$(\bar{c} \vee b) = 1$$

$$a=1, b=1, c=1, F=1$$

eg. 2 $F = (\bar{a} \vee \bar{b}) \wedge (\bar{a} \vee \bar{b}) \wedge (\bar{a} \vee \bar{c}) \wedge$

$$(\bar{c} \vee \bar{a}) = 0$$

Given:

Boolean exp' (\wedge , \vee , \neg)

Assign Boolean value to operand (0, 1)

Check : False | True of entire expression

g) $F = 1$ (satisfiable)

$F = 0$ (not satisfiable)

Boolean SAT $\xrightarrow{\hspace{1cm}}$ SAT

e.g.

$$\neg(p \wedge q)$$

p	q	$\neg(p \wedge q)$
1	0	1
1	1	0
0	0	1
0	1	1

satisfy.

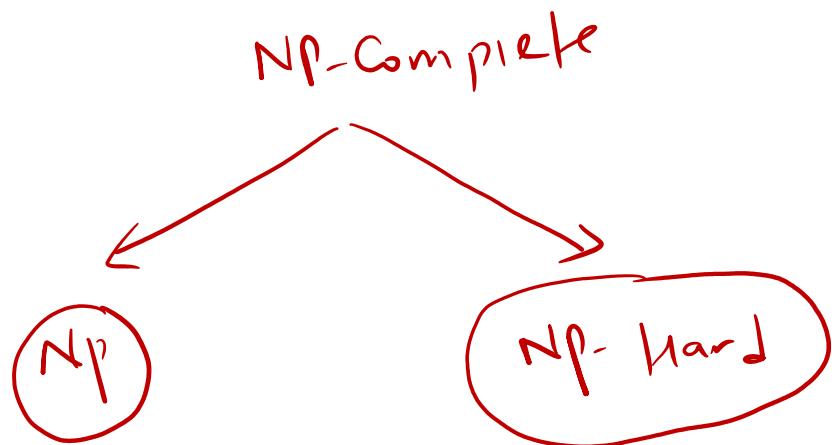
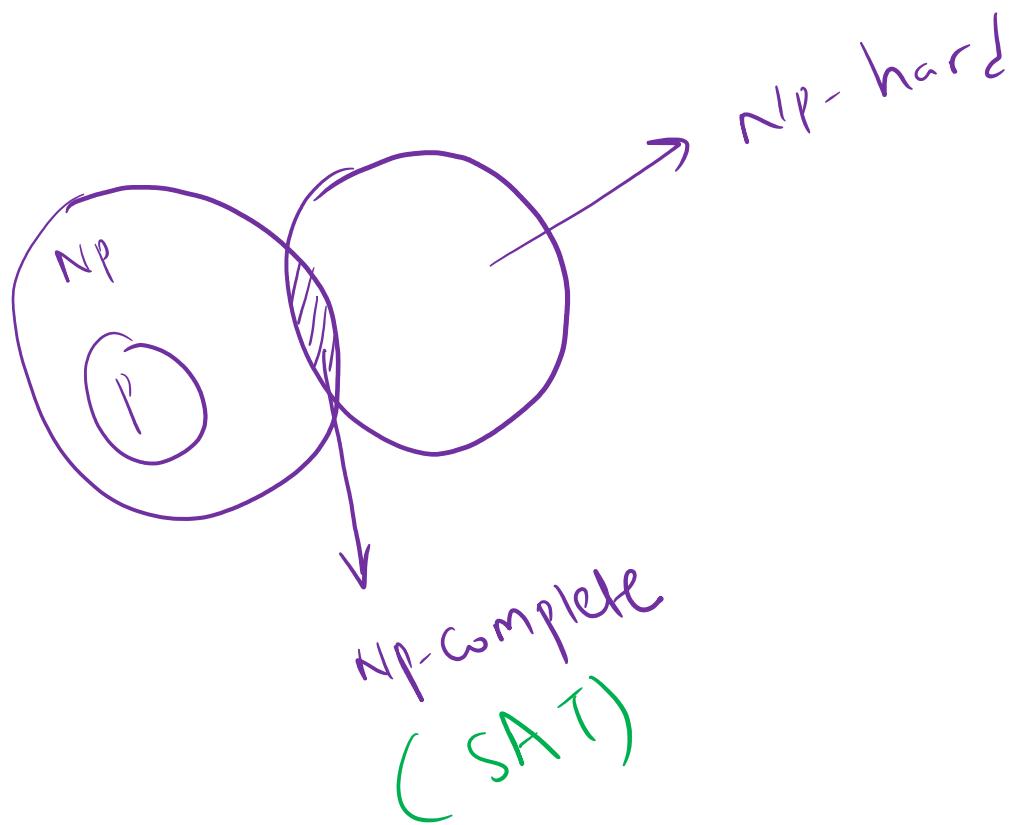
$$P \wedge \neg P$$

P	$\neg P$	$P \wedge \neg P$
0	1	0
1	0	0

not satisfiable

Cook's Theorem:

stmt: SAT is NP-Complete problem.



How SAT is NP ?

→ Solve by NDA / NDTM in PT. (exponential)

→ Verifiable in PT.

eg. $F = (a \vee b) \wedge (a \vee \neg b) \wedge (\neg a \vee c) \wedge (\neg c \vee b)$

$2^3 = 8$

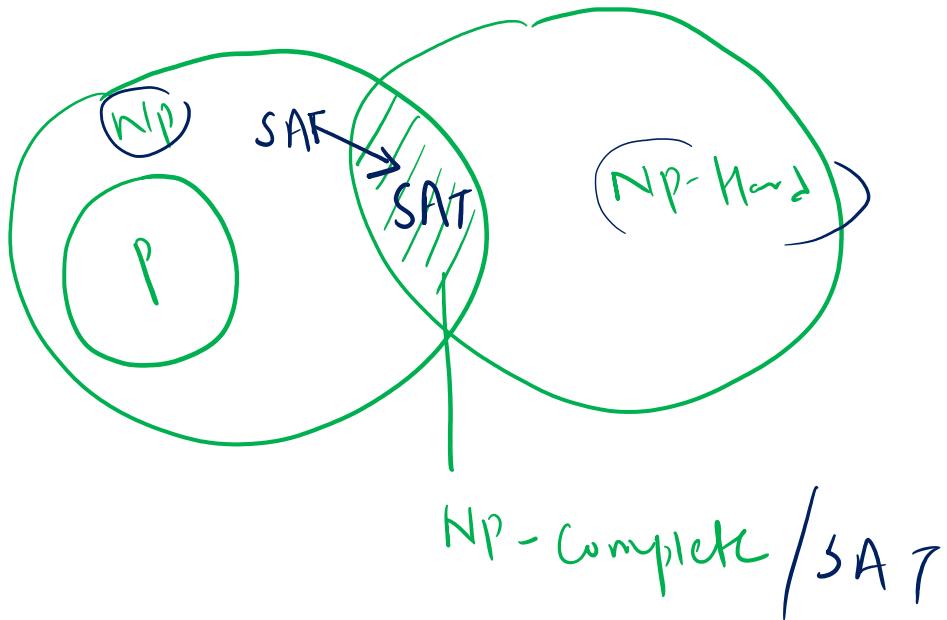
a	b	c
0	0	0
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	0	1
1	1	0
1	1	1

for n variable

$2^n \rightarrow \text{exponential}$

How SAT is NP-Hard ?

→ reduce in polynomial time



Continue.

Reduction in NP-Complete:

if A and B are two lang. And if A is reducible to B in
polynomial time then B is NP-Hard.

if B is ~~is~~ in NP also, then B is NP-Complete.

steps for proving NP-complete:

- 1) prove that B is in NP.
- 2) Select an NP-complete language A .
- 3) Construct a function f that maps members of A to members of B .
- 4) show that x is in A iff $f(x)$ is in B .
- 5) show that f can be computed in polynomial time.

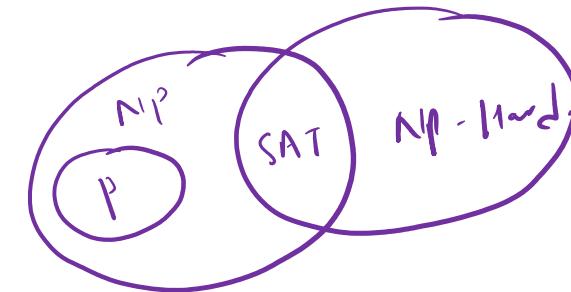
Cook's theorem:

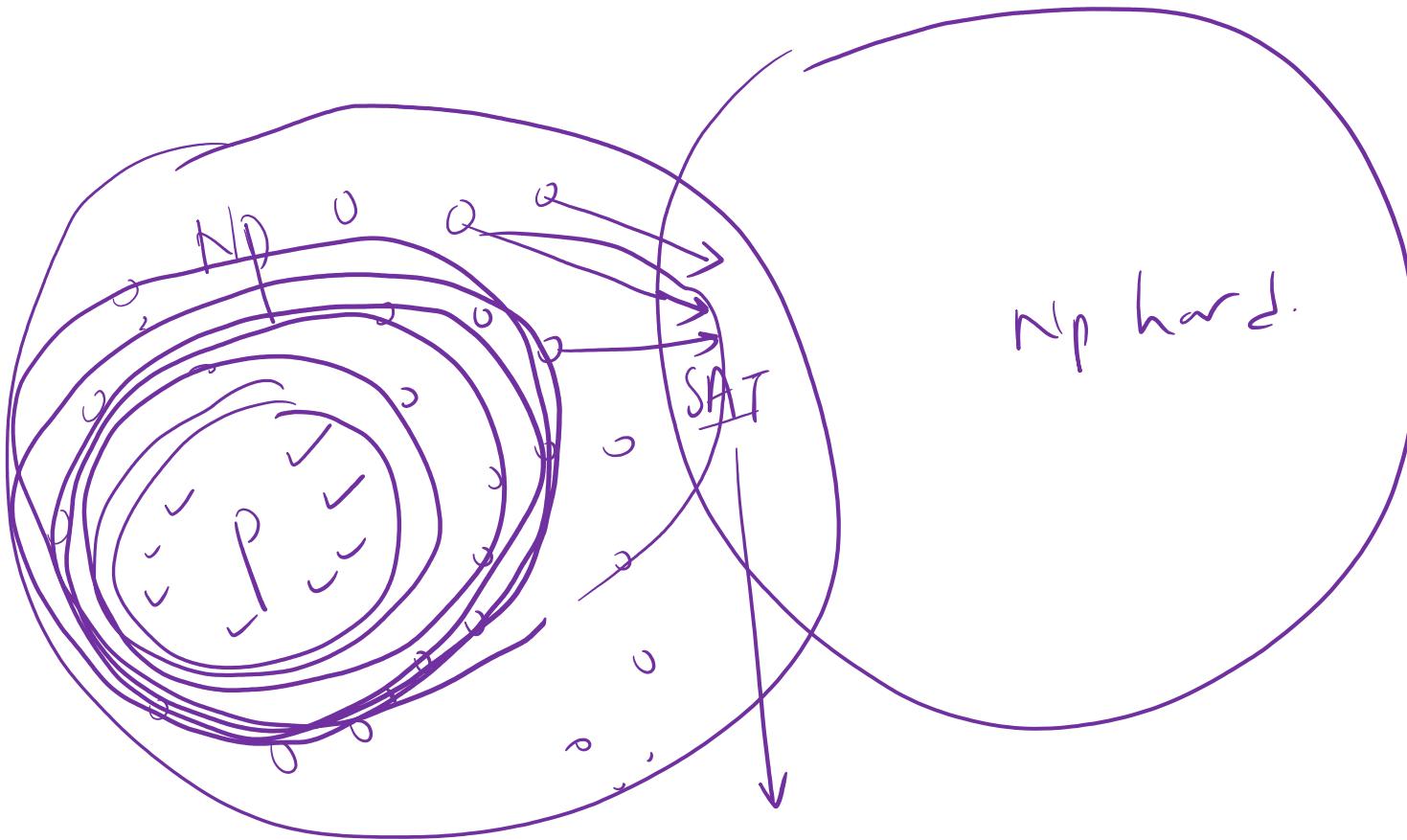
↳ SAT is NP Complete.

Supporting statements.

↳ SAT is in P iff $P = NP$.

↳ $P = NP$ if SAT belongs to P.





1st NP .Complete. problem

P → class of problems that can be solved by

D.N in PT

(sorting, Searching) - -)

NP →

solve in exponential time / verify PT

TSP, MC

Nondeterministic sorting

$B \leftarrow 0$ $B = 0$

/* guessing */

for $i = 1$ to n do

$j \leftarrow \text{choice}(1 : n)$

 if $B[j] \neq 0$ then failure

$B[j] = A[i]$

/* checking */

for $i = 1$ to $n-1$ do

 if $B[i] > B[i+1]$ then failure

succes

choose . (ND)

ND.

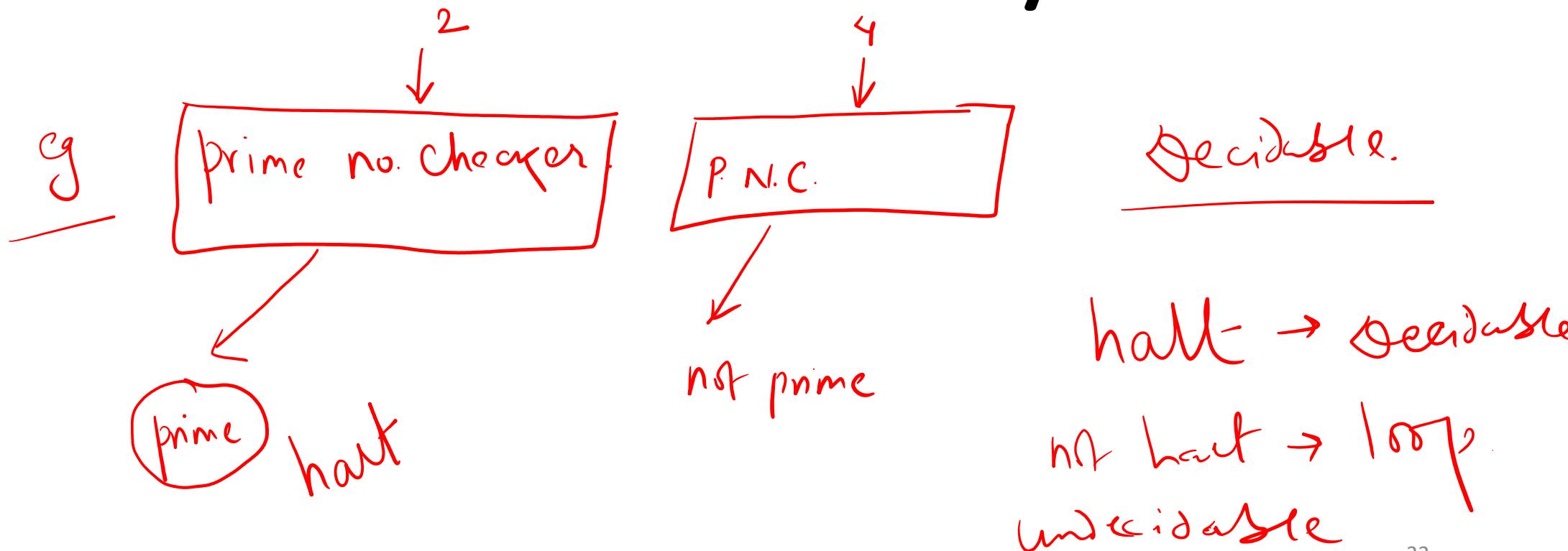
for

for

{ } }

P.N.C. Alg/program/TM.

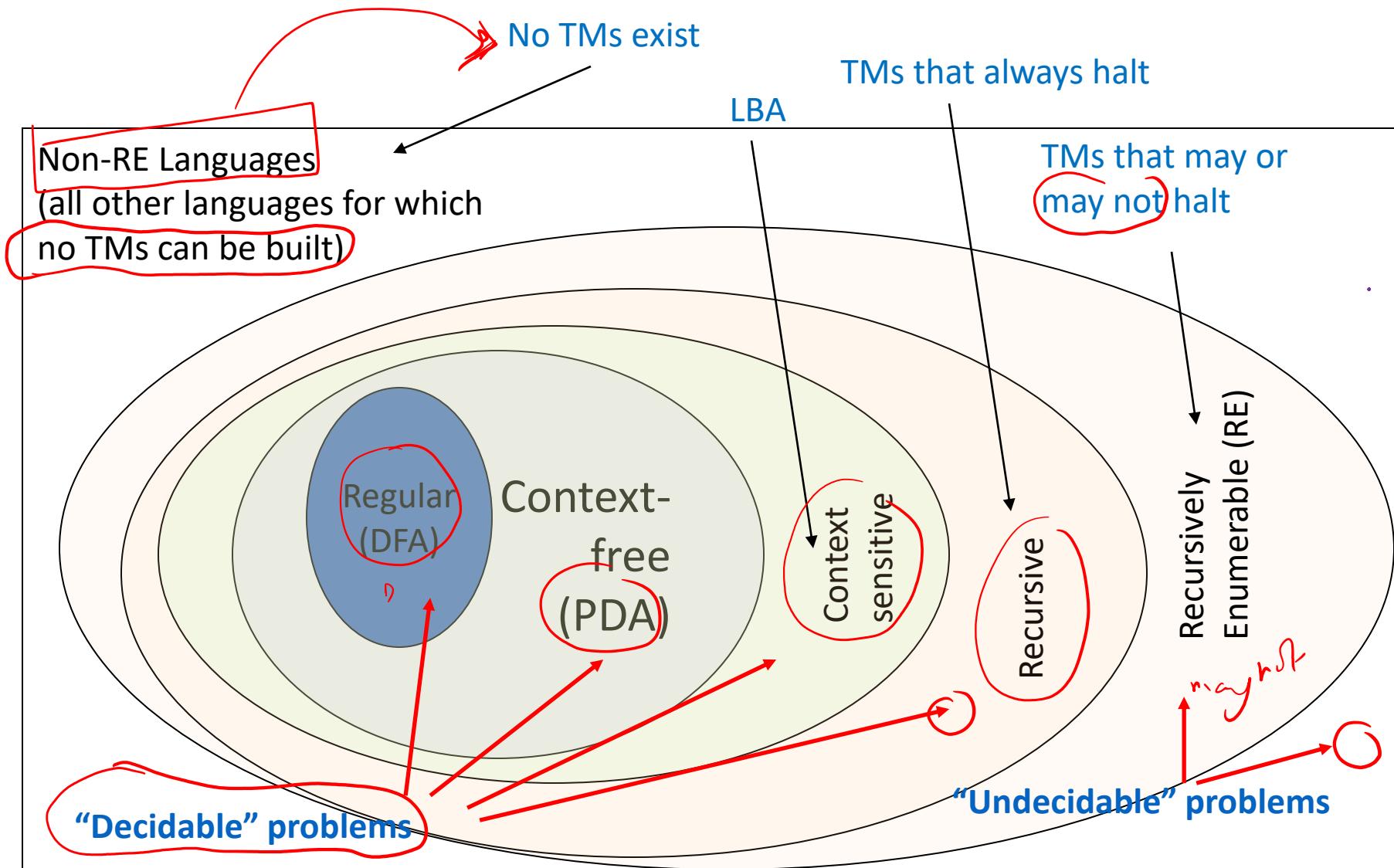
Undecidability



Decidability vs. Undecidability

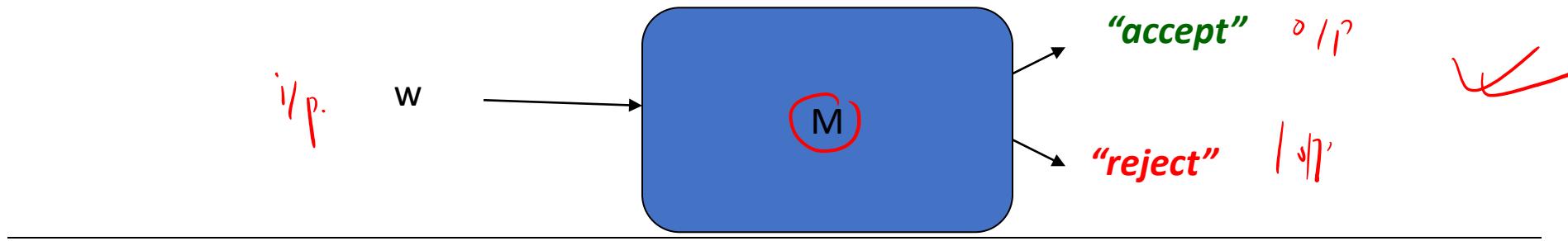
- There are two types of TMs (based on halting):
(Recursive)
TMs that **always halt**, no matter accepting or non-accepting \equiv **DECIDABLE PROBLEMS**
(Recursively enumerable)
TMs that **are guaranteed to halt only on acceptance**. If non-accepting, it may or may not halt (i.e., could loop forever).
- **Undecidability:**
 - Undecidable problems are those that are not recursive

Recursive, RE, Undecidable languages

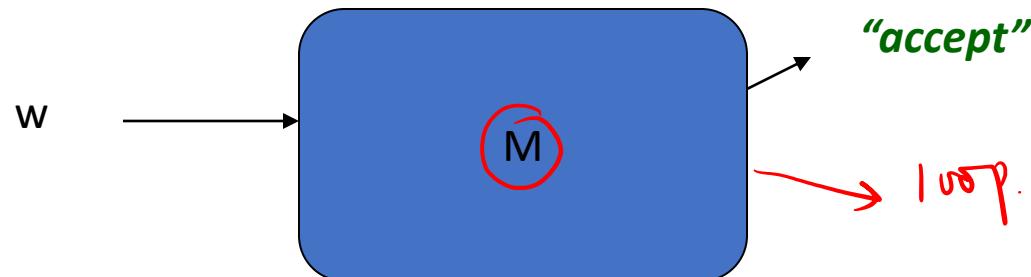


Recursive Languages & Recursively Enumerable (RE) languages

- Any TM for a Recursive language is going to look like this:



- Any TM for a Recursively Enumerable (RE) language is going to look like this:

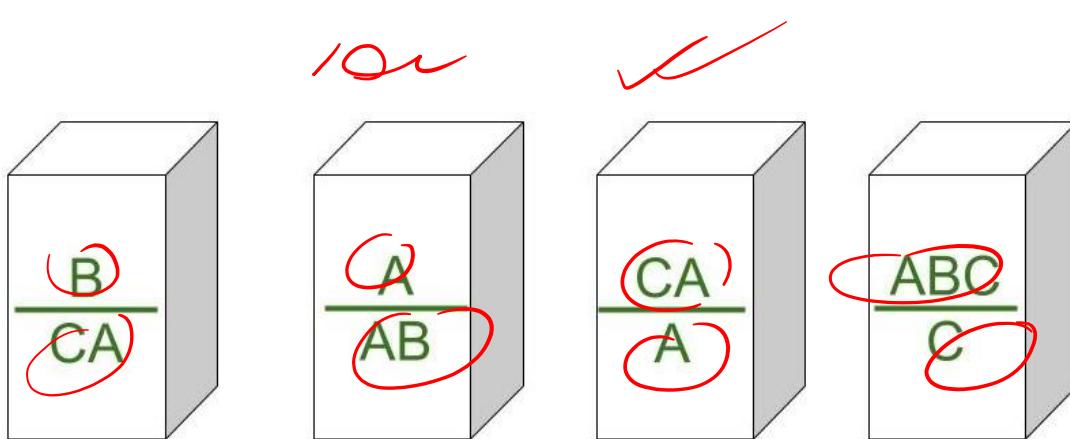


Undecidable Problems

- {
 - 1. Post Correspondence Problem (PCP)
 - Illustration ✗
 - 2. Halting Problem (Question rather than a problem) ??
 - Illustration ✗
 - Proof ✓

1. Post Correspondence Problem:

- Post Correspondence Problem is a popular undecidable problem that was introduced by **Emil Leon Post** in **1946**.
- In this problem we have N number of Dominos (tiles). The aim is to arrange tiles in such order that string made by Numerators is same as string made by Denominators.

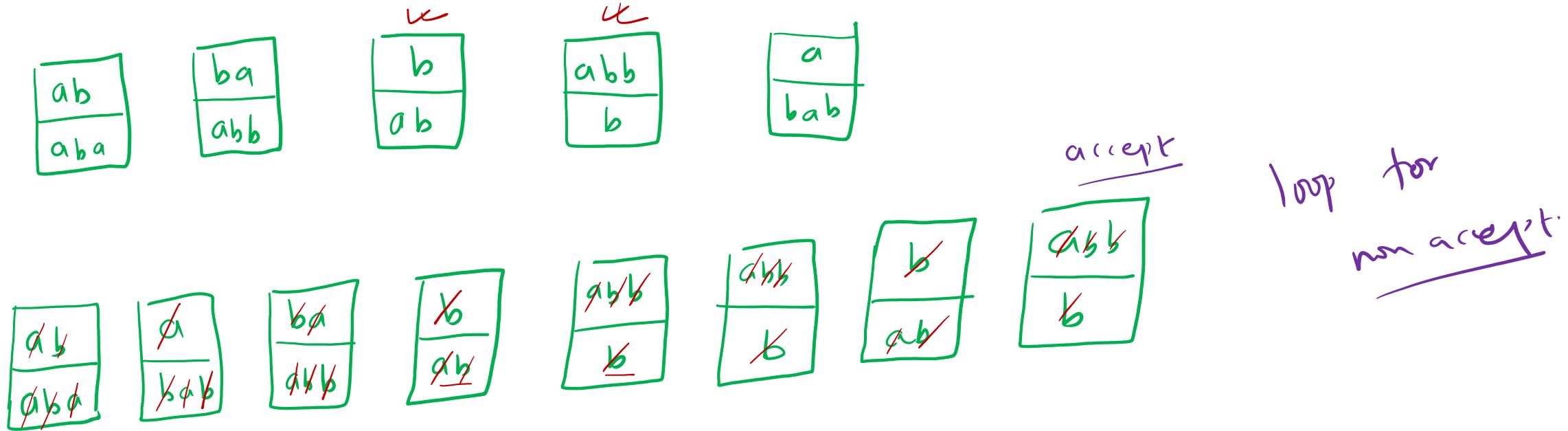


	Numerator	Denominator
1	B	CA
2	A	AB
3	CA	A
4	ABC	C

b, (b_n) b_n

a, abb, ab

Illustration



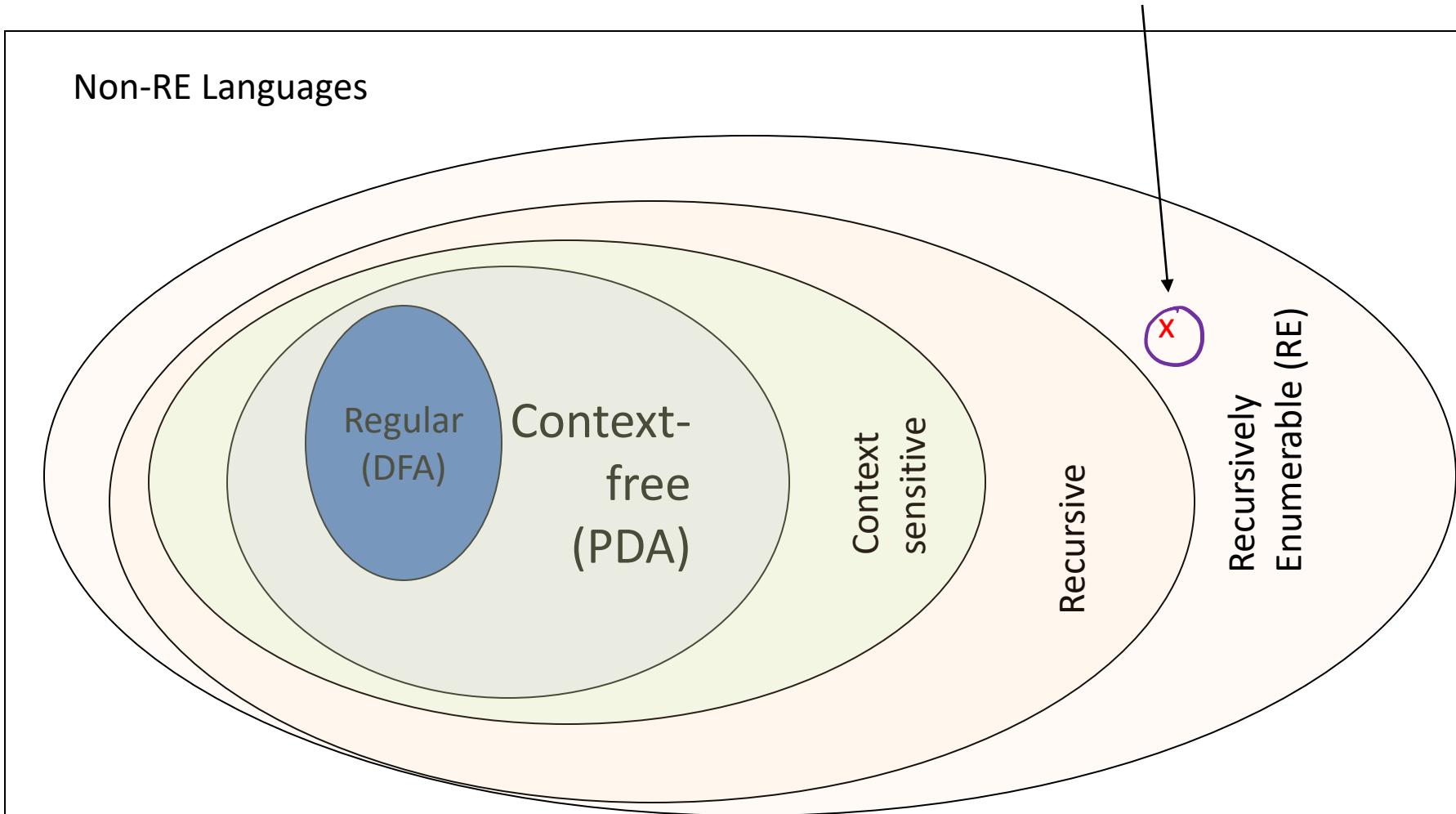
ab a b a b a b b a b b a b b
ab a b a b a b b a b b a b b

The Halting Problem

An example of a recursive enumerable problem that is also
undecidable

may | may not.

The Halting Problem

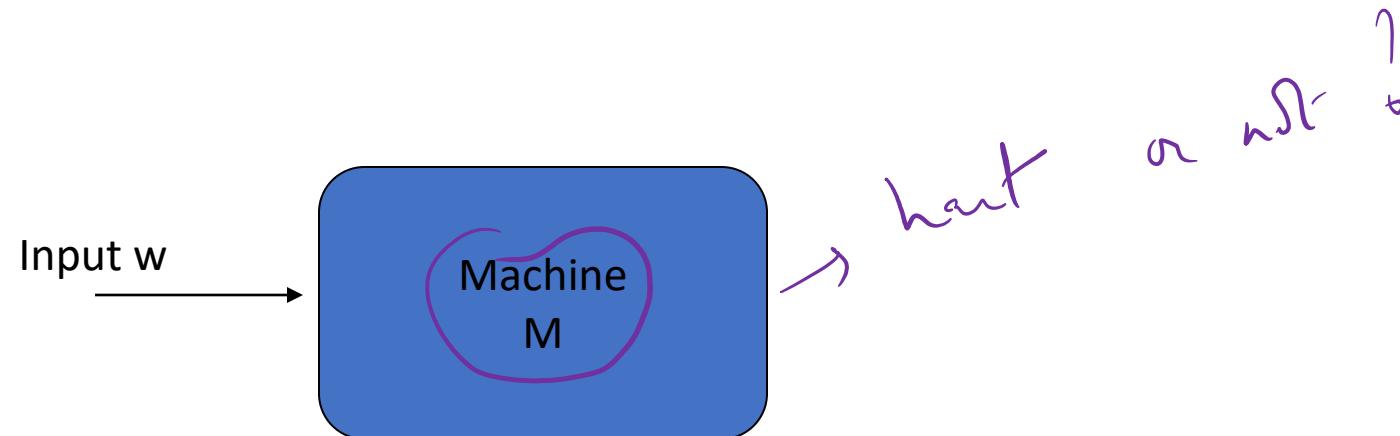


What is the Halting Problem?

question rather
than a prob.

Definition of the “halting problem”:

- Does a given Turing Machine M halt on a given input w ?



- Halting Problem Proof Animation

A Turing Machine simulator

The Universal Turing Machine

- Given: TM M & its input w
- Aim: Build another TM called “ H ”, that will output:
 - “accept” if M accepts w , and
 - “reject” otherwise

- An algorithm for H :

- Simulate M on w

- $H(\langle M, w \rangle) = \begin{cases} \text{accept,} & \text{if } M \text{ accepts } w \\ \text{reject,} & \text{if } M \text{ does not accept } w \end{cases}$

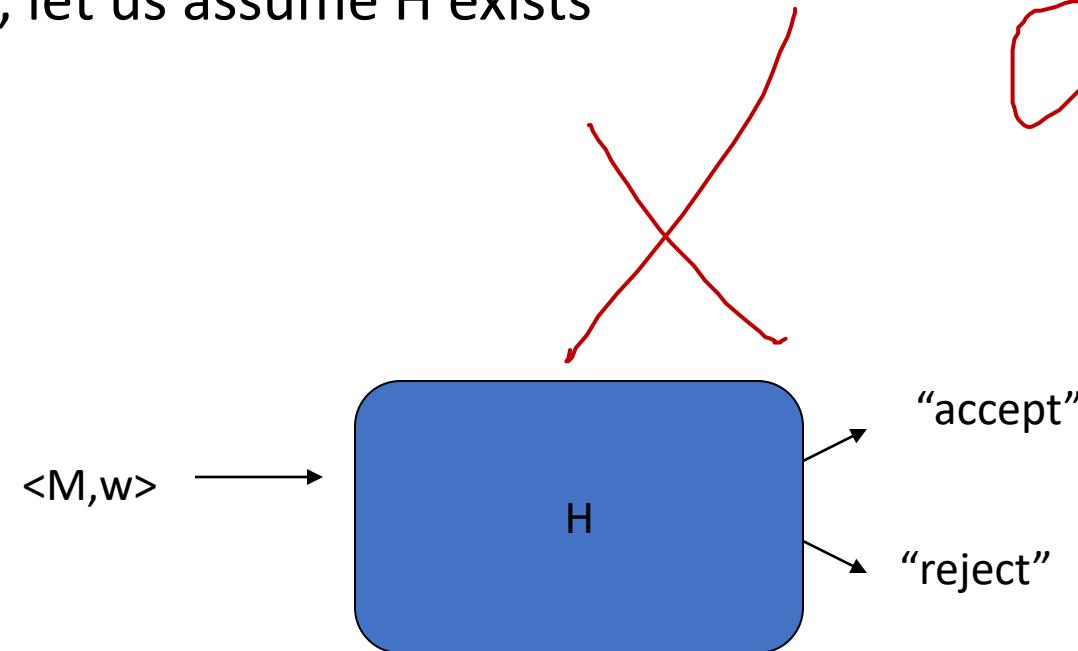
Implies: H is in RE

Question:

If M does *not* halt on w , what will happen to H ?

A Claim

- Claim: No H that is always guaranteed to halt, can exist!
- Proof: (Alan Turing, 1936)
 - By contradiction, let us assume H exists

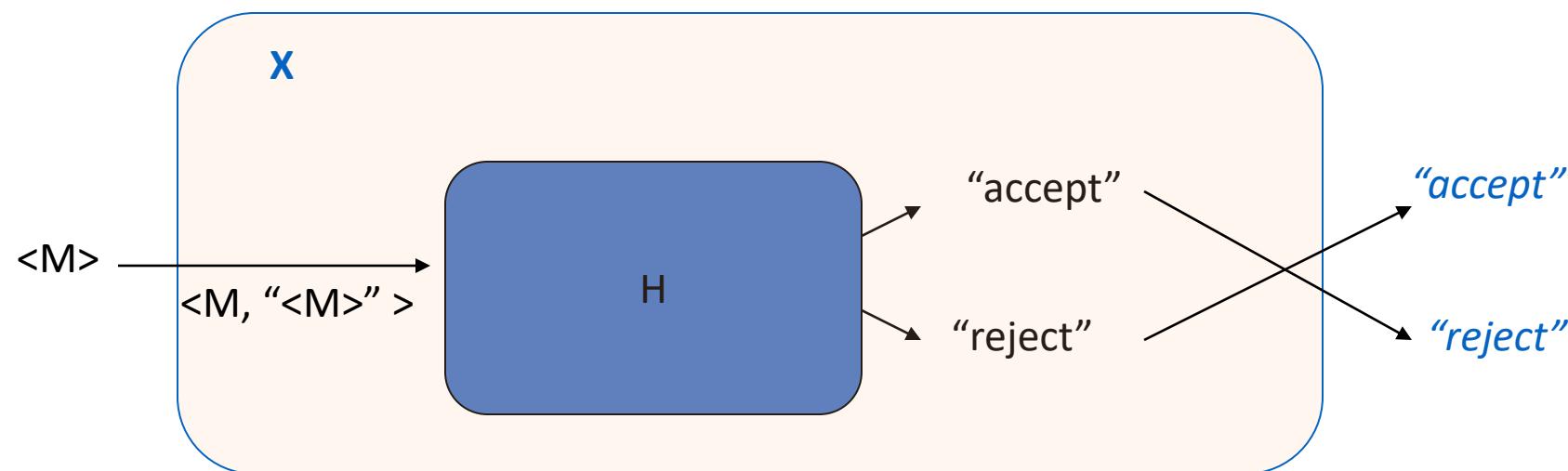


Therefore, if H exists \rightarrow X also should exist.

But can such a X exist? (if not, then H also cannot exist)

HP Proof (step 1)

- Let us construct a new TM **X** using H as a subroutine:
 - On input $\langle M \rangle$:
 - Run H on input $\langle M, \langle M \rangle \rangle$; // (i.e., run M on M itself)
 - Output the *opposite* of what H outputs;



HP Proof (step 2)

- The notion of inputting “ $\langle M \rangle$ ” to M itself
 - A program can be input to itself (e.g., a compiler is a program that takes any program as input)

$$X(\langle M \rangle) = \begin{cases} \text{accept,} & \text{if } M \text{ does not accept } \langle M \rangle \\ \text{reject,} & \text{if } M \text{ accepts } \langle M \rangle \end{cases}$$

Now, what happens if X is input to itself?

$$X(\langle X \rangle) = \begin{cases} \text{accept,} & \text{if } X \text{ does not accept } \langle X \rangle \\ \text{reject,} & \text{if } X \text{ accepts } \langle X \rangle \end{cases}$$

A contradiction!!! ==> Neither X nor H can exist.