Complexity Theory

Dominic Moylett

Quantum Engineering CDT University of Bristol

dominic.moylett@bristol.ac.uk

15th December, 2015

Summary of Presentation

This presentation will consist of two parts:

- Part one will look at the building blocks of complexity classes
- And part two will look at the consequences of the complexity classes we defined

We'll finish by exploring other aspects of complexity theory, and giving examples of other complexity classes and open problems out there.

Complexity theory in a nutshell

"How hard can it be?", Clarkson, Hammond, May

Complexity theory is the study of what problems are easy to solve with a computer.

Complexity theory is the study of what problems are easy to solve with a computer.

How do we measure performance?

Complexity theory is the study of what problems are easy to solve with a computer.

What is a problem?

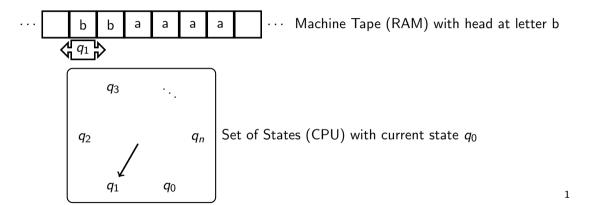
Complexity theory is the study of what problems are easy to solve with a computer.

What is a computer?

Structure of part one

- What is a computer?
- What is a problem?
- How do we measure performance?

Our model of a computer



1 http://www.texample.net/tikz/examples/turing-machine-2/

A Turing Machine (TM) is specified as a tuple of seven components ($Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, q_0, q_{accept}, q_{reject}, \delta$):

• Q is the set of all possible states

- Q is the set of all possible states
- \bullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup

- Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$

- Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state

- Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state
- $q_{accept} \in Q$ is the accept state

- Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state
- $q_{accept} \in Q$ is the accept state
- $q_{reject} \in Q$ is the reject state, where $q_{reject} \neq q_{accept}$

- Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state
- $q_{accept} \in Q$ is the accept state
- $q_{reject} \in Q$ is the reject state, where $q_{reject} \neq q_{accept}$
- $\delta: Q \times \Gamma \to Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\}$ is the transition function



But how do we run it?

The majority of computation time is spent repeating the following loop. Note that T_h is the h-th cell of the tape and $w \in \Sigma^*$ is the input we give the machine. $q = q_0$ h=0 $T = w || \sqcup^n$ // Tape starts as just input, followed by blank cells while $q \notin \{q_{accept}, q_{reiect}\}$ do $(q, T_h, i) = \delta(q, T_h)$ if i = L then h=h-1// Move tape head to the left else h=h+1// Move tape head to the right end

end

What happens when it stops?

When we reach either the accept or reject state, the machine has halted.

If M halts in the accept state, then M accepted the input.

If M halts in the reject state, then M rejected the input.

Integers



- Integers
- Rational numbers

- Integers
- Rational numbers
- Floating point numbers

- Integers
- Rational numbers
- Floating point numbers
- Boolean (True/False) statements

- Integers
- Rational numbers
- Floating point numbers
- Boolean (True/False) statements
- Text

- Integers
- Rational numbers
- Floating point numbers
- Boolean (True/False) statements
- Text
- Graphs

- Integers
- Rational numbers
- Floating point numbers
- Boolean (True/False) statements
- Text
- Graphs
- Other machines

Universal Turing Machines

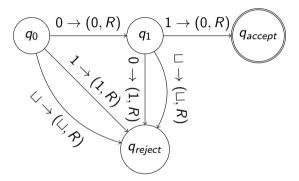
Turing showed in his PhD thesis that we could represent any TM after any number of transitions – including current state, tape contents and position of tape head – as an integer.

Not only that, but we could manipulate this integer such that it matched performing the next step of the computation.

This gave way to Universal Turing Machines; machines capable of running any *TM* given to them.

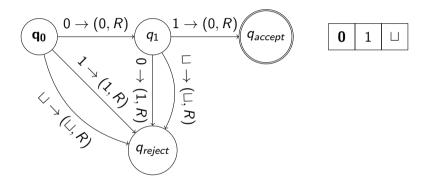
The Church-Turing Thesis

"[A]II effectively calculable sequences are computable", Turing



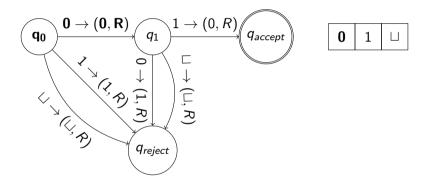
Question: Does M accept or reject 01?

16 / 80



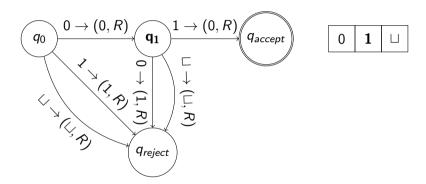
Question: Does M accept or reject 01?

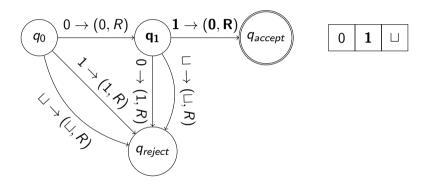
16 / 80

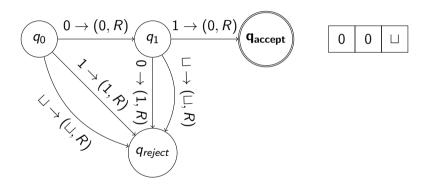


Question: Does M accept or reject 01?

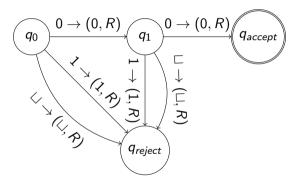
16 / 80

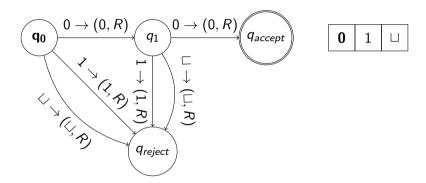


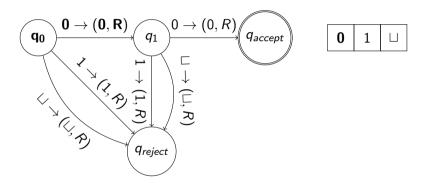


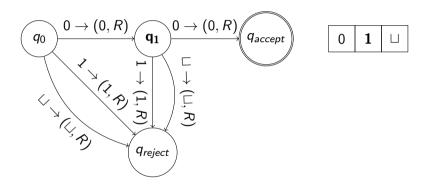


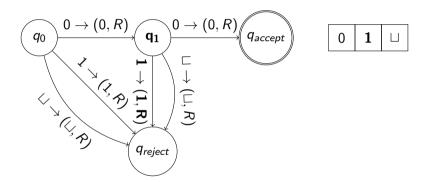
Answer: M accepts 01!

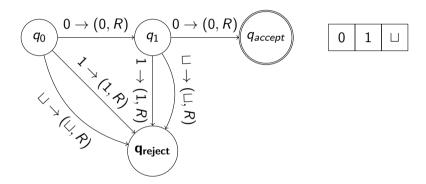




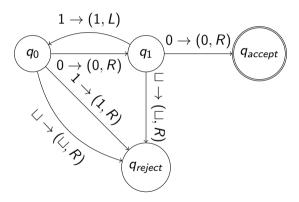


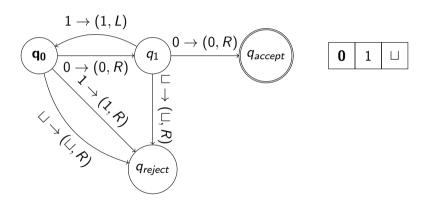




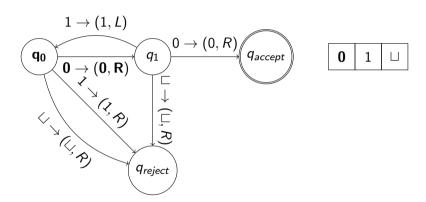


Answer: M rejects 01!

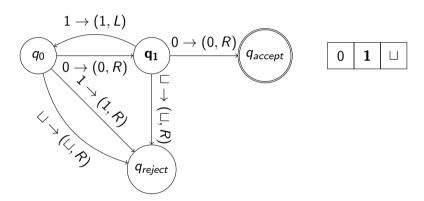


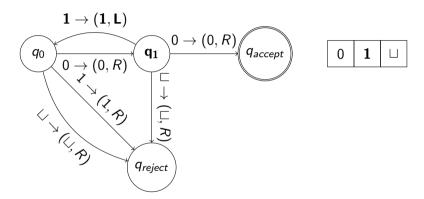


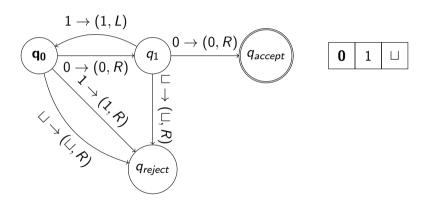
Question: Does M accept or reject 01?



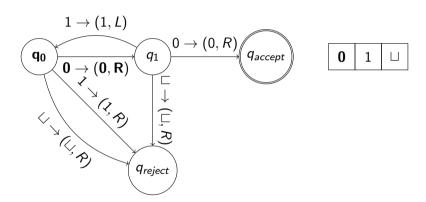
Question: Does M accept or reject 01?



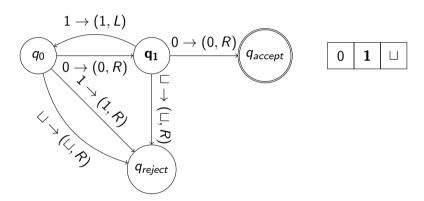


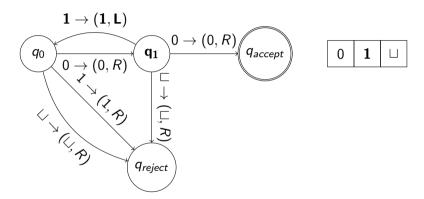


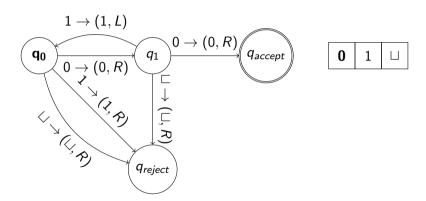
Question: Does M accept or reject 01?



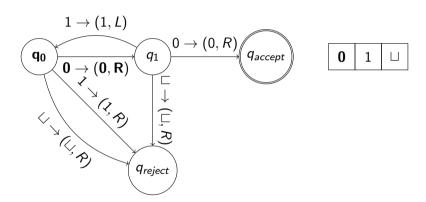
Question: Does M accept or reject 01?



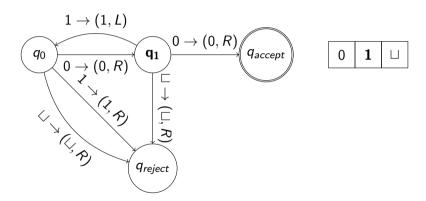


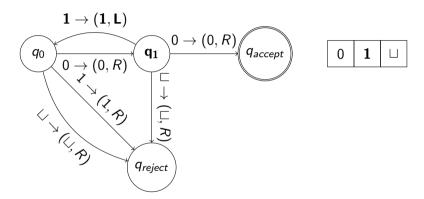


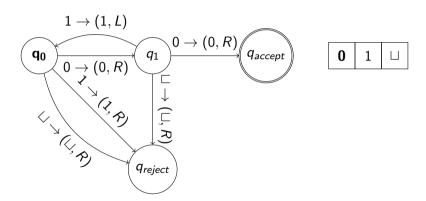
Question: Does M accept or reject 01?



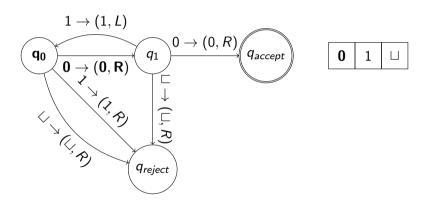
Question: Does M accept or reject 01?



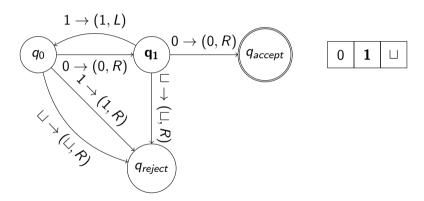


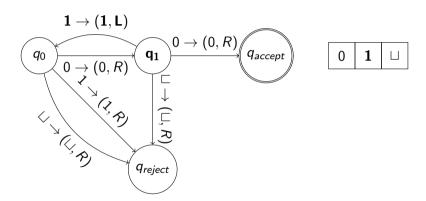


Question: Does M accept or reject 01?

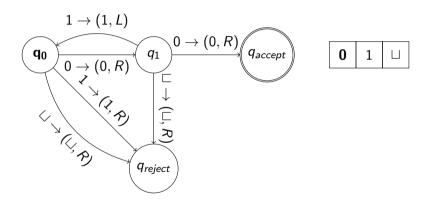


Question: Does M accept or reject 01?





Question: Does M accept or reject 01?

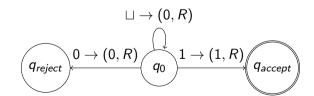


Answer: M doesn't halt on 01.

You might think it would be useful if we could tell when a machine was going to halt.

Formally, we want a TMH such that given TMM and $w \in \Sigma_M^*$:

- H halts in the accept state if M halts on w and
- H halts in the reject state if M does not halt on w.



Assume H exists. Let's build another machine H' which starts with a machine M on its tape.

What happens if we run H' on H'?

Assume H exists. Let's build another machine H' which starts with a machine M on its tape.

What happens if we run H' on H'?

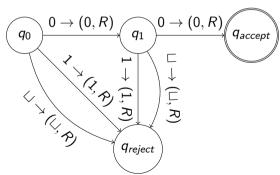
H cannot determine whether or not H' halts on H', so H does not solve the halting problem for every possible machine and input. Thus the halting problem cannot be solved by a TM.

There are many other unsolvable problems as well within the area of computability theory.

The reject state

The reject state is often defined implicitly for convenience.

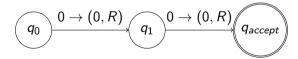
For any state except the accept state that doesn't have transitions for every symbol in the tape alphabet, it is assumed that there is a transition to the reject state.



The reject state

The reject state is often defined implicitly for convenience.

For any state except the accept state that doesn't have transitions for every symbol in the tape alphabet, it is assumed that there is a transition to the reject state.



A Nondeterministic Turing Machine (*NTM*) is specified as a tuple of seven components $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, q_0, q_{accept}, q_{reject}, \delta)$:

• Q is the set of all possible states

- Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup

- Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$

- Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state

- Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state
- $q_{accept} \in Q$ is the accept state

- ullet Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state
- $q_{accept} \in Q$ is the accept state
- ullet $q_{reject} \in Q$ is the reject state, where $q_{reject}
 eq q_{accept}$

- ullet Q is the set of all possible states
- ullet Σ is the input alphabet for the tape. Note that Σ cannot contain the blank symbol \sqcup
- Γ is tape alphabet, where $\Sigma \subseteq \Gamma$ and $\sqcup \in \Gamma$
- $q_0 \in Q$ is the start state
- $q_{accept} \in Q$ is the accept state
- $q_{reject} \in Q$ is the reject state, where $q_{reject} \neq q_{accept}$
- $\delta: Q \times \Gamma \to (Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\})^+$ is the transition function

What, what's the difference?

NTMs are different because of the transition function.

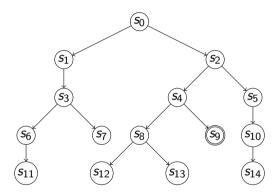
In deterministic *TMs*, the transition goes from one machine setup to another.

In NTMs, the transition function goes from one to many setups.

These setups are run simultaneously, and the machine accepts if one setup halts in an accepting state, or rejects if all setups halt in the rejecting state.

$$0
ightarrow (0,R)$$
 q_0 $0
ightarrow (0,R)$ q_1 $1
ightarrow (0,R)$ q_{accept}

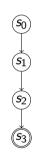
Computation Tree



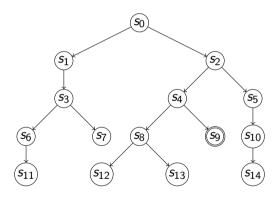
Vertices are single setups (current state, tape contents and head position) for an NTM running on an input $w \in \Sigma^*$. Edges are transitions.

Power of Nondeterminism

Any TM is by definition also an NTM. The computation tree for a TM looks like this:



Question: Is there any problem that can be solved by an NTM that cannot be solved by a TM?



We can use Breadth-First Search² to search the computation tree until we find an accept state.

²https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Breadth-first_search

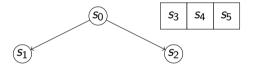
*S*0

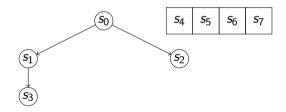


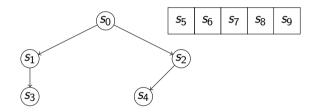


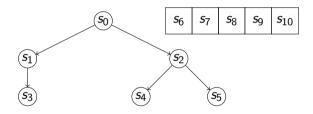
 $s_1 \mid s_2$

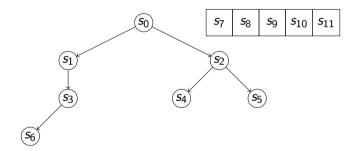


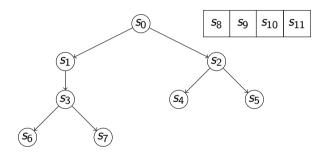


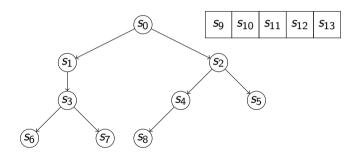


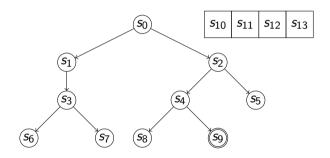












Structure of part one

- What is a computer? Deterministic Turing Machine, Nondeterministic Turing Machine
- What is a problem?
- How do we measure performance?

A language L is a (potentially infinite) set.

Example languages:

• Text strings that contain the word "Hello"

A language L is a (potentially infinite) set.

- Text strings that contain the word "Hello"
- Satisfiable boolean expressions

A language L is a (potentially infinite) set.

- Text strings that contain the word "Hello"
- Satisfiable boolean expressions
- Eulerian graphs

A *language L* is a (potentially infinite) set.

- Text strings that contain the word "Hello"
- Satisfiable boolean expressions
- Eulerian graphs
- Hamiltonian graphs

A language L is a (potentially infinite) set.

- Text strings that contain the word "Hello"
- Satisfiable boolean expressions
- Eulerian graphs
- Hamiltonian graphs
- \bullet (M, w) such that M halts when given input w

Decidable languages

A language L is *decidable* if there exists a machine M such that:

- $\forall w \in L, M \text{ accepts } w$
- $\forall w \notin L, M \text{ rejects } w$

Verifiable languages

A language L is *verifiable* if there exists a machine V such that:

- $\forall w \in L, \exists c \in \Sigma^* \text{ s.t. } V \text{ accepts } (w, c)$
- $\forall w \notin L, \forall c \in \Sigma^*, V \text{ rejects } (w, c)$

Structure of part one

- What is a computer? Deterministic Turing Machine, Nondeterministic Turing Machine
- What is a problem? Decidable languages, Verifiable languages
- How do we measure performance?

Performance of a machine

We want to talk about how much time it takes for a machine to solve a problem.

To do this, we'll assume δ takes a constant amount of time to run and count the number of times we call δ .

To remain general, we will focus on how the number of times we call δ scales in the worst case as the input becomes larger.

We can represent this time complexity as a function of the size of the input.

Problem: Time complexity might be complicated to work out

```
((1 << (i + 1)) < m max) {
matcher->rows[i].row_size = 1 << i:
lookup size = \theta:
 or (j = 0; j < num patterns; j++) {
      ((periods[i] > num patterns) && (m[i] > num patterns << 1) && (m[i] - num patterns > matcher->rows[i].row size << 1)) {
       set fingerprint(matcher->printer, &P[i][matcher->rows[i].row size], matcher->rows[i].row size, matcher->tmp):
       fingerprint concat(matcher->printer, old patterns[prev row[i]], matcher->tmp, patterns[lookup size]);
       prev row[i] = lookup size;
        if (m[i] - num patterns <= (matcher->rows[i].row size << 2)) {
           end pattern[lookup size] = num progressions;
           set fingerprint(matcher > printer, &P[j][matcher -> rows[i].row size << 1], m[j] - num patterns - (matcher -> rows[i]
                row size << 1). matcher->tmp):
           fingerprint concat(matcher->printer, patterns[lookup size], matcher->tmp, prefix[num prefixes]):
           progression index[num prefixes] = num progressions;
           prefix length[num prefixes] = m[i] - num patterns:
           num suffixes[num prefixes] = 1:
           set fingerprint(matcher->printer, &P[i][m[i] - num patterns], num patterns, suffixes[num prefixes][0]):
            for (k = 0: k < num prefixes: k++) +
                if (fingerprint equals(prefix[k], prefix[num prefixes])) {
                    end pattern[lookup size] = progression index[k]:
                    for (1 = 0: 1 < \text{num suffixes[k]: 1++) }
                        if (fingerprint equals(suffixes[k][]], suffixes[num prefixes][0])) {
                    if () == num suffixes[k]) {
                        fingerprint assign(suffixes[num prefixes][0], suffixes[k][l]);
                        num suffixes[k]++:
                 == num prefixes) num prefixes++:
            end patternflookup sizel = -1:
```

Solution: Approximate!

Let f and g be functions over the real numbers. We say that:

•
$$f(n) \in O(g(n))$$
 iff $\exists c, n_0 > 0$ s.t. $\forall n \geq n_0, f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$

We use this notation, called *Big-O*, *Big-Omega* and *Big-Theta*, to simplify our complexity functions by rounding up for upper bounds (Big-O) and down for lower bounds (Big-Omega).

Solution: Approximate!

Let f and g be functions over the real numbers. We say that:

- $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ iff $\exists c, n_0 > 0$ s.t. $\forall n \geq n_0, f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$
- $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ iff $\exists c, n_0 > 0$ s.t. $\forall n \geq n_0, f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n)$

We use this notation, called *Big-O*, *Big-Omega* and *Big-Theta*, to simplify our complexity functions by rounding up for upper bounds (Big-O) and down for lower bounds (Big-Omega).

Solution: Approximate!

Let f and g be functions over the real numbers. We say that:

- $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ iff $\exists c, n_0 > 0$ s.t. $\forall n \geq n_0, f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$
- $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ iff $\exists c, n_0 > 0$ s.t. $\forall n \geq n_0, f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n)$
- $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ iff $\exists c_1, c_2, n_0 > 0$ s.t. $\forall n \geq n_0, c_1 \cdot g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 \cdot g(n)$

We use this notation, called *Big-O*, *Big-Omega* and *Big-Theta*, to simplify our complexity functions by rounding up for upper bounds (Big-O) and down for lower bounds (Big-Omega).

$$n \in O(n^2)$$

$$2^n \in \Omega(n^2)$$

$$n \in \Theta(2n)$$

$$n \in O(n^2)$$
: $c = 1$, $n_0 = 1$
 $2^n \in \Omega(n^2)$
 $n \in \Theta(2n)$

$$n \in O(n^2) : c = 1, n_0 = 1$$

 $2^n \in \Omega(n^2) : c = 1, n_0 = 1$
 $n \in \Theta(2n)$

$$n \in O(n^2) : c = 1, n_0 = 1$$

 $2^n \in \Omega(n^2) : c = 1, n_0 = 1$
 $n \in \Theta(2n) : c_1 = 0.5, c_2 = 1, n_0 = 1$

Simplifying

Big-O notation allows us to simplify what would be complicated time complexities into approximate upper bounds.

$$5n^3 + 7n^2 + 28n - 9876 + 5\log^2 n \in O(n^3)$$

Summary of part one

- What is a computer? Deterministic Turing Machine, Nondeterministic Turing Machine
- What is a problem? Decidable languages, Verifiable languages
- How do we measure performance? Upper bound of time for an input of length n

End of part one



39 / 80

⁴http://www.cs.utah.edu/~draperg/cartoons/2005/turing.html

Structure of part two

- Putting it all together!
- ...only to get another (very difficult) problem.
- How might we try to solve this new problem?

Complexity Classes

Now that we have provided our definitions for a computer, a problem and performance, we can look at what problems can be solved under these restrictions.

These are called *complexity classes*.

Time Complexity Classes

Let $t: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function.

TIME(t(n)) is all the languages that can be decided by a TM in O(t(n)) time.

NTIME(t(n)) is all the languages that can be decided by a *NTM* in O(t(n)) time.

Deterministic polynomial time

One example of a complexity class is the set of languages that can be decided by a TM in polynomial time.

$$\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathrm{TIME}(n^k)$$

We shall refer to the set of these problems as P.

Nondeterministic polynomial time

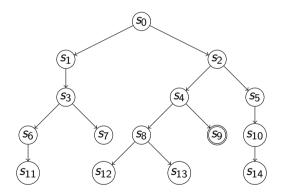
Another example is the set of languages that can be decided by a *NTM* in polynomial time.

$$\bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathrm{NTIME}(n^k)$$

We shall refer to the set of these problems as NP.

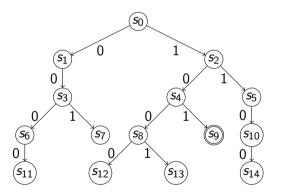
We can also define NP as the set of languages that can be verified by a TM in polynomial time.

Recall the computation tree for an NTM.



We label each branch with an integer such that the labels are unique between siblings.

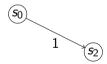
Recall the computation tree for an NTM.

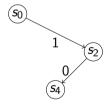


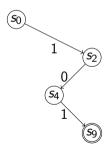
We label each branch with an integer such that the labels are unique between siblings.









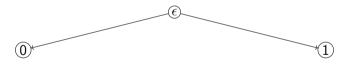


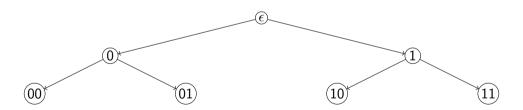
Since the verifier runs in polynomial time, at most a polynomial number of characters can be read from the certificate.

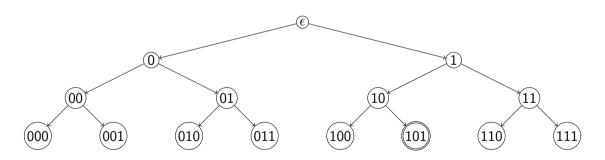
We use nondeterminism to brute force and verify every certificate of length k for $0 \le k \le p(n)$.











Structure of part two

- Putting it all together! Complexity classes, P, NP
- ...only to get another (very difficult) problem.
- How might we try to solve this new problem?

Exercise Left For the Student

Does
$$P = NP$$
?

The P versus NP problem

Arguably first proposed by Gödel in a letter to von Neumann in 1956.⁵

Became known as P versus NP after Cook's work in 1971.

Solving the problem will earn you a million dollars, courtesy of the Clay Mathematics Institute. 6

⁵https://ecommons.cornell.edu/bitstream/handle/1813/6910/89-994.pdf

 $^{^6}$ http://www.claymath.org/millennium-problems/p-vs-np-problem

The easy side: $P \subseteq NP$

Recall that any *TM* is by definition nondeterministic.

Likewise, any polynomial-time *TM* is also nondeterministic.

Hence $P \subseteq NP$.

The harder side: Is $NP \subseteq P$?

Another way to think of this problem: If a problem can be easily verified, can it be easily solved?

Summary of part two

- Putting it all together! Complexity classes, P, NP
- ...only to get another (very difficult) problem. Are easy to verify problems easy to solve?
- How might we try to solve this new problem?

How might we answer this question?

Why not look at the hardest problems in NP?

If P = NP, then even the hardest problems in NP will be solvable in polynomial time.

And if $P \subset NP$, then these are the problems that won't have a polynomial time solution, as could be checked by lower-bound analysis.

But how can we determine the hardest problems in NP?

Polynomial time computable functions

A function $f: \Sigma^* \to \Sigma^*$ is polynomial time computable if there exists a polynomial time Turing machine M that, when started with input w on its tape, halts with only f(w) on its tape.

Polynomial time reducible

Take two languages A and B. We say that $A \leq_P B$ if there exists a polynomial time computable function f such that:

- $\forall w \in A, f(w) \in B$
- $\forall w \notin A, f(w) \notin B$

This means that if we have a polynomial time solution for B, then we also have a polynomial time solution for A.

Note that this property is transitive: If $A \leq_P B$ and $B \leq_P C$ then $A \leq_P C$



NP-Complete

A language *B* is *NP*-Complete iff:

- B ∈ NP
- and $\forall A \in NP, A \leq_P B$

If one NP-Complete language is proven to be in P, then every NP problem is also in P, so P would be equal to NP.

Problem: There are lots of NP problems

It is very difficult if not impossible to provide a reduction to each individual problem.

So how can we reduce all of them to a specific problem?



Satisfiable boolean formulae

Take a boolean formula such as $f = a \lor b \land \bar{c}$.

We say that f is *satisfiable* (also known as a tautology) if we can assign \bot or \top to each variable such that $f = \top$.

Examples:

- f is satisfiable: $(a = \top, b = \top, c = \bot)$
- but $f' = x \wedge \bar{x}$ is not satisfiable

We call SAT the language of all satisfiable boolean formulae.



$SAT \in NP$

SAT can be verified in polynomial time:

• Make the certificate the values we assign to each variable.



$SAT \in NP$

SAT can be verified in polynomial time:

- Make the certificate the values we assign to each variable.
- Have V substitute the value for each variable into the formula.



$SAT \in NP$

SAT can be verified in polynomial time:

- Make the certificate the values we assign to each variable.
- Have V substitute the value for each variable into the formula.
- Accept if the formula evaluates to ⊤, otherwise reject.



Cook-Levin Theorem

Recall that any language in NP can be decided by an NTM in polynomial time.

Cook showed that any NTM M that halts in polynomial time running on input w can be converted in polynomial time to a boolean formula such that:

- If M accepts w, then the formula is satisfiable
- and if M rejects w, then the formula cannot be satisfied.

As a result, it was proven that $SAT \in NP$ -Complete.



Proving other NP-Complete problems

Now that we have one NP-Complete problem, proving others is a lot easier.

Recall that polynomial-time reducibility is transitive.

So now if our problem B is in NP and we can find one problem $A \in NP$ -Complete such that $A \leq_P B$, then $B \in NP$ -Complete

• 3*SAT*



- 3*SAT*
- Hamiltonian graphs



- 3*SAT*
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Sudokus



- 3*SAT*
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Sudokus
- Knapsack

- 3*SAT*
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Sudokus
- Knapsack
- Tetris

- 3SAT
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Sudokus
- Knapsack
- Tetris
- Super Mario Brothers

- 3SAT
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Sudokus
- Knapsack
- Tetris
- Super Mario Brothers
- Lemmings



- 3SAT
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Sudokus
- Knapsack
- Tetris
- Super Mario Brothers
- Lemmings
- Bejeweled

- 3SAT
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Sudokus
- Knapsack
- Tetris
- Super Mario Brothers
- Lemmings
- Bejeweled
- Candy Crush Saga



- 3SAT
- Hamiltonian graphs
- Sudokus
- Knapsack
- Tetris
- Super Mario Brothers
- Lemmings
- Bejeweled
- Candy Crush Saga
- Flood-It



Summary of part two

- Putting it all together! Complexity classes, P, NP
- ...only to get another (very difficult) problem. Are easy to verify problems easy to solve?
- How might we try to solve this new problem? NP-Complete problems

What else is there?

Recall our three questions from part one:

- What is a computer?
- What is a problem?
- How do we measure performance?

What if we answered these differently?

Different restrictions on time

Exponential time: EXP, 2EXP, ELEMENTARY

Linear time: LIN

How do we measure performance?

Space complexity: PSPACE, EXPSPACE

Working space: L



What is a problem?

Computational problems: NP-Hard

Counting problems: #P

Complementary problems: co-NP

What is a computer?

Probabilistic Turing Machines: BPP, RP

Parallel Computing: NC

Quantum computers: EQP, BQP

Time travel: P_{CTC}

• Does P = NP?



- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?
- Does BQP = BPP?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?
- Does BQP = BPP?
- Does NC = P?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?
- Does BQP = BPP?
- Does NC = P?
- Does P = PSPACE?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?
- Does BQP = BPP?
- Does NC = P?
- Does P = PSPACE?
- Does NP = co-NP?

- Does P = NP?
- Does L = NL?
- Does BPP = P?
- Does BQP = BPP?
- Does NC = P?
- Does P = PSPACE?
- Does NP = co-NP?
- And lots more...

The Conclusion

Complexity theory is a large area about what problems are solvable under different models of a computer and different performance requirements.

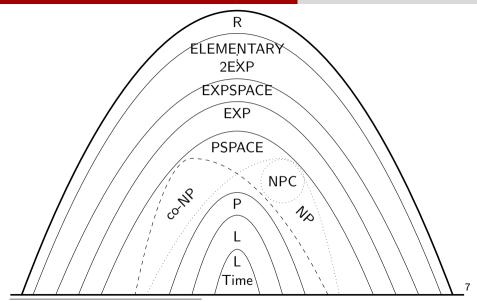
There are lots of complexity classes out there – far more than have been mentioned in this presentation – and very quickly relating them in a simple equation like this:

$$P \subseteq NP$$

Becomes this:

$$L \subseteq \mathit{NL} \subseteq \mathit{P} \subseteq \mathit{NP} \subseteq \mathit{PSPACE} = \mathit{NPSPACE} = \mathit{P}_{\mathit{CTC}} \subseteq \mathit{EXP} \subseteq \mathit{EXPSPACE}$$





⁷http://www.texample.net/tikz/examples/complexity-classes/

The end

8

The end



⁹http://www.smbc-comics.com/?id=3919

Suggested books

- Introduction to the Theory of Computation by Michael Sipser is the recommended textbook for most computability and complexity theory courses
- Computers and Intractability: A Guide to the Theory of NP-Completeness by Michael R.
 Garey and David S. Johnson covers a lot about NP-Complete problems, including a very
 large collection of NP-Complete problems.
- Quantum Computing Since Democritus by Scott Aaronson offers a broad overview of many complexity classes

Suggested papers

- On Computable Numbers, with an Application to the Entscheidungsproblem by Alan Turing is Turing's PhD thesis, which provides the original definition of Turing Machines, a formal definition of the Universal Turing Machine, and a proof that the Halting problem is undecidable
- The Complexity of Theorem Proving Procedures by Stephen Cook provides the proof that $SAT \in NP$ -Complete
- Reducibility Among Combinatorial Problems by Richard Karp provides 21 of the earliest problems proven to be NP-Complete

Suggested websites

• https://complexityzoo.uwaterloo.ca/ is a Wiki originally developed by Scott Aaronson which provides a list of every complexity class ever stated

Proofs for NP-Complete problems

- Takayuki Yato and Takahiro Seta: Complexity and Completeness of Finding Another Solution and Its Application to Puzzles, IEICE TRANSACTIONS on Fundamentals of Electronics, Communications and Computer Sciences, Vol.E86-A, No.5, pp.1052-1060
- Erik D. Demaine, Susan Hohenberger and David Liben-Nowell: Tetris is Hard, Even to Approximate, http://arxiv.org/abs/cs/0210020
- Graham Cormode: The Hardness of the Lemmings Game, or Oh no, more NP-Completeness Proofs, Proceedings of the 3rd International Conference on Fun with Algorithms, May 2004, pages 65-76
- Greg Aloupis, Erik D. Demaine, Alan Guo and Giovanni Viglietta: Classic Nintendo Games are (Computationally) Hard, http://arxiv.org/abs/1203.1895
- Luciano Gual, Stefano Leucci and Emanuele Natale: Bejeweled, Candy Crush and other Match-Three Games are (NP-)Hard, http://arxiv.org/abs/1403.5830
- Raphaël Clifford, Markus Jalsenius, Ashley Montanaro and Benjamin Sach: The Complexity of Flood Filling Games, http://arxiv.org/abs/1001.4420

Post-credits

"You're still here? It's over. Go home. Go.", Bueller



80 / 80