

CoCoNuT - Complexity - Lecture 1

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Outline

Is PATH in P?

Problems With Easily Checkable Solutions

The Class NP

Reductions, and NP-Completeness

Why are TM's So Important

Almost any model of computing we come up with (especially practical ones) are equivalent to a TM.

Church-Turing Thesis

Anything that can be computed, can be computed by a Turing Machine

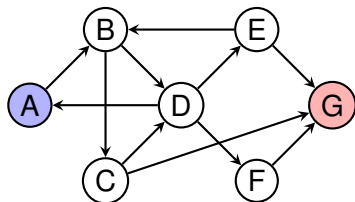
More importantly for almost all models of computation the notion of P is the same as P on a Turing Machine.

So P really is quite fundamental as a class of problems in computing.

PATH \in P

Consider the language PATH defined by

PATH = $\{\langle G, s, t \rangle \mid G \text{ is a directed graph that has a path from } s \text{ to } t\}$

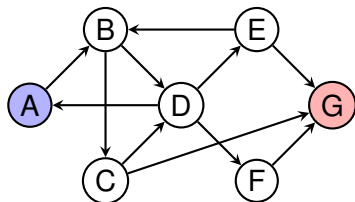


- ▶ PATH is a formalisation of the problem of determining whether there is a path between two specified points in a directed graph.
- ▶ A naïve algorithm would be to **try every possible path** from s to t in turn to see if that path exists.
- ▶ But if G has m vertices, in the worst case this could involve checking $\sim m^m$ paths!!!!

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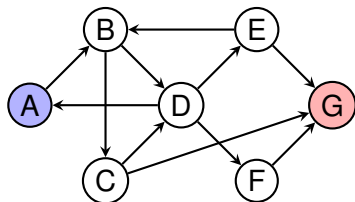


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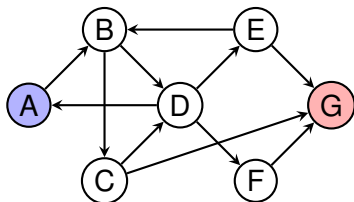


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A polynomial-time algorithm deciding PATH

On input $\langle G, s, t \rangle$:

1. Place a mark on vertex s .
2. Repeat until no further vertices are found:
 - ▶ Check all the edges in G . If an edge is found from a marked vertex to an unmarked vertex, mark the target of the edge.
3. If t is marked, accept; otherwise reject.

Assume the input graph G is on m vertices and is provided as an adjacency matrix, so the input size $n = O(m^2)$.

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A rough upper bound on the running time of this algorithm:

- ▶ Step 2 is repeated at most m times and checks at most m^2 edges.
- ▶ Checking each edge in step 2 can be done in time $O(m^k)$ for some fixed k (depending on the computational model).
- ▶ So the running time of the algorithm is $O(m^{k+3})$, which is $\text{poly}(n)$.

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Other examples of languages in P

Many other important problems are known to be in P. For example:

- ▶ The language

$\text{PRIMES} = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* \mid x \text{ is a prime number written in binary}\}$

is in P but this was only proven in 2002 (by two undergraduate students and a professor).

- ▶ Every context-free language is in P.
- ▶ Other examples include evaluation of circuits, finding shortest paths, pattern matching, linear programming, . . .

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Problems With Easily Checkable Solutions

We can think of P as the set of problems for which it is **easy to come up with a solution**.

We will now consider problems for which **once you have a solution** it can be **checked easily**.

The former problems are the ones which students like in exams (easy to do).

The latter are the ones which lecturers like (easy to mark)

We can think of a **solution** as a **proof** of some statement.

Thus we are essentially asking: Are some proofs (which can be easily verified) hard to find?

- ▶ i.e. Is Maths hard?

Sudoku

Sudoku is a problem which is hard to solve, but easy to check.

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

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

Pics: Wikipedia/Sudoku

FACTORING

FACTORING

$= \{ \langle x, y \rangle \mid x \text{ is an integer with a prime factor lower than } y \}$.

For example, $15, 4$ is in the language, but $15, 2$ is not.

For any x , a prime factor z of x less than y can be used to prove whether $\langle x, y \rangle$ is in the language.

- ▶ We can check primality of z in poly-time via the AKS algorithm.

FACTORING

$= \{ \langle x, y \rangle \mid x \text{ is an integer with no prime factor lower than } y \}$.

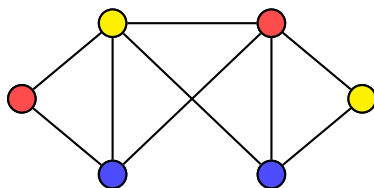
Given some claimed prime factors p_1, \dots, p_t of x , we can multiply them together to determine whether we get x .

If so, we check whether the smallest of them is larger than y .

The value t is bounded by $\log x$, so the proof is poly-size in the input.

Graph Colouring

We say a graph can be **properly k -coloured** if each vertex can be assigned one of k colours, such that all pairs of adjacent vertices have different colours.



We can formalise this decision problem as the language

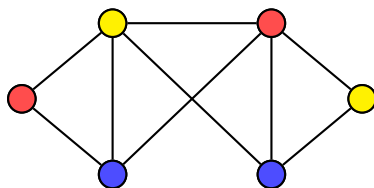
3-COLOURING

$= \{ \langle G \rangle \mid G \text{ is a graph which can be properly 3-coloured} \}.$

Given a graph, we can be convinced that it can be properly 3-coloured by being given a 3-colouring and checking that it is proper; so a solution to 3-COLOURING can be checked quickly.

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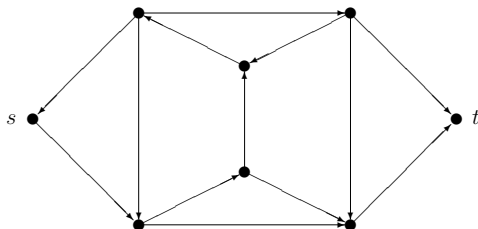
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Hamiltonian Path



$HAMPATH = \{(G, s, t) \mid G \text{ is directed graph with a Hamiltonian path from } s \text{ to } t\}$

A Hamiltonian path is one which visits each vertex exactly once

Easy to check that $(G, s, t) \in HAMPATH$ when given a path;

Efficiently Verify Solutions

Many computational problems:

- ▶ Can be solved by **brute-force**, testing exp. many *candidates*.
- ▶ **Verification** of desired property on a candidate is **easy**.

We can formalise problems which are easy to verify a solution in the following way:

Definition: Verifier

A **verifier** for a language \mathcal{L} is a Turing machine V such that

$$\mathcal{L} = \{x \mid \text{there exists a string } c \text{ such that } V \text{ accepts } \langle x, c \rangle\}.$$

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We think of c as a **proof** or **witness** or **certificate** that $x \in \mathcal{L}$, which V can check.

V should accept a correct proof (correctness), but not be fooled by any claimed incorrect proof (soundness).

A **polynomial-time verifier** is a verifier which runs in time polynomial in the length of the input x , i.e. $O(|x|^k)$ for some fixed k .

Definition: NP

NP is the class of languages which have a polynomial-time verifier.

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More on NP

P = class of languages that can be **decided** “quickly”

NP = class of languages that can be **verified** “quickly”

Definition: co-C

For a class of languages C , we define **co-C** as the class of all complements \overline{A} of languages A in C .

See our examples FACTORING and $\overline{\text{FACTORING}}$ from earlier.

Properties

- ▶ $P = \text{co-}P$
- ▶ $NP \stackrel{?}{=} \text{co-}NP$

NP Examples

$HAMPATH \in NP$

$COMPOSITES = \{x \mid x = pq, \text{ for integers } p, q > 1\} \in NP$

$PRIMES \in \text{co-NP}$

- ▶ Actually: $PRIMES \in NP$ (not obvious)
- ▶ $PRIMES \in P$ (shown in 2003)

$\overline{HAMPATH} \overset{?}{\in} NP$

$SAT \in NP, \quad SAT \overset{?}{\in} \text{co-NP}$

P vs. NP

Every language in **P** is also in **NP**. For any language in **P**, the verifier can ignore any claimed proof and just decide the language directly.

Also, every language in **NP** is also in **EXP**. If there exists an m -bit witness that the input is in a language, by looping over all possible witnesses a Turing machine can find that witness in time $O(2^m)$.

So $P \subseteq NP \subseteq EXP$.

It is **not known** whether $P = NP$ and this question is considered the most important open problem in computer science!

- Resolving it would win you everlasting fame (as well as \$1M).

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$P = NP?$

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

*“Can every problem whose solution is quickly verifiable
be solved quickly?”*

Implications?

Reducibility

Informally: If A reduces to B then B is “harder” than A (cf. undecidability)

Definition : Poly-Time Computable

$f: \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ is **polynomial-time computable** if there is a poly-time TM, which on input w halts with $f(w)$ on its tape.

Definition : Poly-Time Reducible

A language A is **polynomial-time reducible** to B if there is a poly-time computable $f: \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ with

$$w \in A \quad \text{iff} \quad f(w) \in B.$$

We write $A \leq_p B$.

Cannot necessarily “find” f , just says one exists!

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NP-completeness

Read $A \leq_p B$ as “A is no harder than B” (up to poly-time factors).

- ▶ For “someone” but maybe not “me”, as depends on knowing f .

So

- ▶ If B **can** be solved quickly so can A .
- ▶ If A **cannot** be solved quickly neither can B .

Theorem. If $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in P$ then $A \in P$.

Definition: NP-complete

A language B is **NP-complete** if

- ▶ $B \in \text{NP}$, and
- ▶ Every A in NP is polynomial-time reducible to B

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NP-complete problems are the “hardest” problems in NP

Theorem. If B is NP-complete and $B \in P$ then $P = NP$.

Theorem. If B is NP-complete and $B \leq_p C$, for $C \in NP$, then C is NP-complete.

Theorem. (Cook-Levin) SAT is NP-complete.

Alternative wording:

$$SAT \in P \text{ iff } P = NP$$

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