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a, and Virginia Williams Lecture 22: Complexity

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Lecture 22: Complexity

Decision Problems

• **Decision problem**: assignment of inputs to Yes (1) or No (0)

• Inputs are either **No instances** or **Yes instances** (i.e. satisfying instances)

Problem	Decision
s-t Shortest Path	Does a given G contain a path from s to t with weight at most d ?
Negative Cycle	Does a given G contain a negative weight cycle?
Longest Path	Does a given G contain a simple path with weight at least d ?
Subset Sum	Does a given set of integers A contain a subset with sum S ?
Tetris	Can you survive a given sequence of pieces?
Chess	Can a player force a win from a given board?
Halting problem	Does a given computer program terminate for a given input?

- Algorithm/Program: constant length code (working on a word-RAM with $\Omega(\log n)$ -bit words) to solve a problem, i.e. it produces correct output for every input and the length of the code is independent of the instance size
- Problem is **decidable** if there exists a program to solve the problem in finite time

Decidability

- Program is finite constant string of bits, problem is function $p: \mathbb{N} \to \{0,1\}$, i.e., infinite string of bits
- (# of programs $|\mathbb{N}|$, countably infinite) \ll (# of problems $|\mathbb{R}|$, uncountably infinite)
- (Proof by Cantor's diagonal argument, probably covered in 6.042)
- Proves that most decision problems not solvable by any program (undecidable)
- e.g. the Halting problem is undecidable (many awesome proofs in 6.045)
- Fortunately most problems we think of are algorithmic in structure and are decidable

Decidable Decision Problems

R	problems decidable in finite time	'R' comes from recursive languages
EXP	problems decidable in exponential time $2^{n^{O(1)}}$	most problems we think of are here
P	problems decidable in polynomial time $n^{O(1)}$	efficient algorithms, the focus of this class

• These sets are distinct, i.e. $P \subseteq EXP \subseteq R$ (via time hierarchy theorems, see 6.045)

Nondeterministic Polynomial Time (NP)

- **P** is the set of decision problems for which there is an algorithm A such that for every instance I of size n, A on I runs in poly(n) time and solves I correctly
- NP is the set of decision problems for which there is an algorithm V, a "verifier", that takes as input an instance I of the problem, and a "certificate" bit string of length polynomial in the size of I, so that:
 - V always runs in time polynomial in the size of I,
 - if I is a YES-instance, then there is some certificate c so that V on input (I,c) returns YES, and
 - if I is a NO-instance, then no matter what c is given to V together with I, V will always output NO on (I, c).
- You can think of the certificate as a proof that *I* is a YES-instance. If *I* is actually a NO-instance then no proof should work.

Problem	Certificate	Verifier
s-t Shortest Path	A path P from s to t	Adds the weights on P and checks if $\leq d$
Negative Cycle	A cycle C	Adds the weights on C and checks if < 0
Longest Path	A path P	Checks if P is a simple path with weight at least d
Subset Sum	A set of items A'	Checks if $A' \in A$ has sum S
Tetris	Sequence of moves	Checks that the moves allow survival

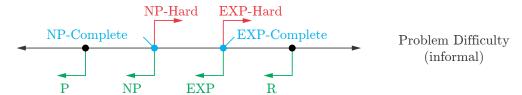
- $P \subset NP$: the verifier V just solves the instance ignoring any certificate
- NP \subset EXP: try all possible certificates! At most $2^{n^{O(1)}}$ of them, run verifier V on all of them
- Open: Does P = NP? NP = EXP?
- Most people think $P \subseteq NP$ ($\subseteq EXP$), i.e. generating solutions harder than checking
- If you prove either way, people will give you lots of money. (\$1M Millennium Prize)
- Why do we care? If can show a problem is hardest problem in **NP**, then problem cannot be solved in polynomial time if $P \neq NP$
- How do we relate difficulty of problems? Reductions!

Reductions

- Suppose you want to solve problem A
- One way to solve is to convert A into a problem B you know how to solve
- Solve using an algorithm for B and use it to compute solution to A
- This is called a **reduction** from problem A to problem $B (A \rightarrow B)$
- Because B can be used to solve A, B is at least as hard $(A \le B)$
- General algorithmic strategy: reduce to a problem you know how to solve

A	Conversion	$\mid B \mid$
Unweighted Shortest Path	Give equal weights	Weighted Shortest Path
Product Weighted Shortest Path	Logarithms	Sum Weighted Shortest Path
Sum Weighted Shortest Path	Logarithms	Product Weighted Shortest Path

- ullet Problem A is **NP-Hard** if every problem in **NP** is polynomially reducible to A
- i.e. A is at least as hard as (can be used to solve) every problem in NP ($X \le A$ for $X \in NP$)
- NP-Complete = NP \cap NP-Hard
- All **NP-Complete** problems are equivalent, i.e. reducible to each other
- First **NP-Complete** problem? Every decision problem reducible to satisfying a logical circuit, a problem called "Circuit SAT".
- Longest Path, Tetris are NP-Complete, Chess is EXP-Complete



Knapsack is NP-Hard

- Reduce known NP-Hard Problem to Knapsack: **Partition** known to be NP-Hard
 - Input: List of n numbers a_i
 - Output: Does there exist a partition into two sets with equal sum?
- Reduction: $s_i = v_i = a_i, s = \frac{1}{2} \sum a_i$
- Knapsack at least as hard as Partition, so since Partition is NP-Hard, so is Knapsack
- Knapsack in NP, so also NP-Complete