

National University of Singapore
School of Computing
CS3243

A Quick Guide to Computational Complexity

1 Decision Problems

The world is full of problems; some are harder than others. You may have previously seen problems with a polynomial time complexity in prior classes. In this class we will briefly explore problems that are *computationally intractable*.

Consider, for example, the following problem: we are given a social network graph; does this graph contain a group of $\geq k$ people that all know each other? More formally, we are given a graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$ and a number k ; does G contain a subset of vertices $C \subseteq V$ of size $\geq k$, such that for every two vertices $u, v \in C$, $\{u, v\} \in E$? This class of problems is known as CLIQUE, and is given by a graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$, and a number k . Note that CLIQUE is a *decision problem* since every instance (i.e. a triple of the form $\langle V, E, k \rangle$) is either a `yes` instance — the graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$ has a clique of size $\geq k$ — or a `no` instance — G does not have a clique of size $\geq k$.

More generally, a decision problem \mathcal{P} comprises of a number of *instances*. An instance $I \in \mathcal{P}$ is either a `yes` instance or a `no` instance; we let \mathcal{P}_{yes} be the set of `yes` instances in \mathcal{P} , and \mathcal{P}_{no} be the set of `no` instances. We are interested in algorithms that can distinguish between `yes` and `no` instances in \mathcal{P} , i.e. given an instance $I \in \mathcal{P}$, decide whether $I \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{yes}}$ or in \mathcal{P}_{no} .

2 Complexity Classes

The *size* of an instance of the CLIQUE problem refers to the number of bits one would need in order to encode this problem in binary. For example, if the graph G has n vertices, we may consider encoding it using an $n \times n$ incidence matrix, requiring n^2 bits; the number k , encoded in binary, will need $\log k$ bits; thus the size of the instance is thus $\mathcal{O}(n^2 + \log k)$; since k has to be less than n (otherwise the CLIQUE instance is trivially a `no` instance), the total size of an instance of the CLIQUE problem is $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$. More generally, let $|I|$ be the number of bits needed to represent the instance I .

An algorithm $f : \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \{\text{yes}, \text{no}\}$ *decides* \mathcal{P} if for every $I \in \mathcal{P}$, $f(I) = \text{yes}$ if and only if $I \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{yes}}$.

We say that the decision problem \mathcal{P} is in P (the *polynomial complexity class*) if there exists an algorithm f that decides \mathcal{P} , and a constant k such that for every instance $I \in \mathcal{P}$, the time it takes to compute $f(I)$ is in $\mathcal{O}(|I|^k)$. In other words, there is some algorithm that can efficiently decide whether $I \in \mathcal{P}$ is a `yes` or `no` instance.

There is no known efficient algorithm that decides the CLIQUE problem. A “brute-force” approach would take an instance $\langle V, E, k \rangle \in \text{CLIQUE}$ and check whether any of the $\binom{|V|}{k}$ subsets of k vertices is a clique; however, there are $\Omega(n^k)$ such subsets, so this approach would potentially take time exponential in the number of bits needed to represent $\langle V, E, k \rangle$! However, the CLIQUE problem has an interesting property: given a candidate solution (i.e. a subset $C \subseteq V$ of $\geq k$ vertices), it is easy to verify in polynomial time whether it is a clique in G . In other words, there is some verification procedure we can run on C and $\langle V, E, k \rangle$ that outputs `yes` if $\langle V, E, k \rangle$ is a `yes` instance.

More generally, we say that a problem \mathcal{P} can be verified in polynomial time if for every $I \in \mathcal{P}$ there exists some *witness* $w(I)$ such that $|w(I)|$ is polynomial in $|I|$, and $w(I)$ outputs `yes` on some poly-time verification procedure if $I \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{yes}}$. The class of problems that can be verified in polynomial time is called NP^1 .

It is important to note that `no` witnesses are trickier. Just because we observe one set of vertices $C \subseteq V$ that is not a clique, does *not* mean that *every* set of $\geq k$ vertices is not a clique!

3 NP Completeness

Problems in NP are problems for which it is easy to check whether a candidate solution is correct in polynomial time; problems in P are ones for which there exists a procedure that finds a solution in polynomial time. It is easy to verify that $\text{P} \subseteq \text{NP}$: for every instance $I \in \mathcal{P}$, the trace of the poly-time algorithm (with the `yes/no` bit appended to it) as your witness. The key question in computational complexity is whether:

$$\text{P} = \text{NP}$$

In other words, is checking solutions as difficult as actually coming up with them? There are some compelling reasons to believe that $\text{P} \neq \text{NP}$ (as well as compelling reasons to believe that $\text{P} = \text{NP}$!); however, there is currently no definitive proof that this is the case.

Polynomial reductions between classes are a way of establishing a hierarchy of problem complexity. Given two decision problems \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{P}' , we say that \mathcal{P} reduces to \mathcal{P}' if there exists a function $r : \mathcal{P} \rightarrow \mathcal{P}'$ (i.e. r takes as input some instance $I \in \mathcal{P}$, and outputs an instance $r(I) \in \mathcal{P}'$) such that for every instance $I \in \mathcal{P}$

1. $|r(I)|$ is polynomial in $|I|$.
2. the time that it takes to construct $r(I)$ is polynomial in $|I|$.
3. $r(I) \in \mathcal{P}'_{\text{yes}}$ if and only if $I \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{yes}}$.

¹As an aside, the letters in NP stand for non-deterministic polynomial time. This echos the original definition of the class, which comprises of all decision problems that can be encoded on non-deterministic Turing machines that terminate in polynomial time. Amazingly, the (more intuitive) poly-time witness definition is equivalent.

In other words, a reduction takes an instance I and transforms it into an instance $r(I)$ that is of approximately the same size as I , and requires a reasonable time to compute. In addition, $r(I)$ is a `yes` instance if and only if I is.

Example 3.1. An instance of the *independent set* (INDSET) problem is given by an undirected, unweighted graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$ and an integer k ; it is a `yes` instance if and only if G contains an independent set of size $\geq k$. We say that a set of vertices $C \subseteq V$ is independent if for every $u, v \in C$, $\{u, v\} \notin E$.

Let us now describe a reduction from the INDSET problem to the CLIQUE problem: we map an instance $\langle V, E, k \rangle$ of the INDSET problem to an instance $\langle V, \bar{E}, k \rangle$ of the CLIQUE problem; V and k remain the same, but the set of edges \bar{E} is the complement of E , i.e. $\{u, v\} \in \bar{E}$ if and only if $\{u, v\} \notin E$ (this is also unimaginatively referred to as the complement graph of $\langle V, E \rangle$). If $\langle V, E, k \rangle$ is a `yes` instance of INDSET, then there is some set $C \subseteq V$ of $\geq k$ vertices that have no common edge; under $\langle V, \bar{E} \rangle$, every two vertices in C will share an edge as \bar{E} is the complement of E . Similarly, if $\langle V, \bar{E}, k \rangle$ is a `yes` instance of CLIQUE, then $\langle V, E, k \rangle$ is a `yes` instance of INDSET (the argument is symmetric).

Example 3.1 tells us that the INDSET is *at least as hard* as the CLIQUE problem: suppose that we have some efficient algorithm (call it A) that decides the CLIQUE problem; we can use the reduction $r : \text{INDSET} \rightarrow \text{CLIQUE}$ described in Example 3.1 to transform an instance $I \in \text{INDSET}$ to an instance $r(I) \in \text{CLIQUE}$, and then compute $A(r(I))$ to decide whether $r(I)$ is a `yes` or `no` instance. Since $r(I)$ is a `yes` instance if and only if I is, the output of $A(r(I))$ is `yes` if and only if I is a `yes` instance. Since computing $r(I)$ takes polynomial time, $|r(I)|$ is polynomial in I , and A is a poly-time algorithm, the whole procedure takes polynomial time to compute!

We say that a decision problem \mathcal{P} is NP hard if every problem in NP can be reduced to \mathcal{P} ; we say that \mathcal{P} is NP complete if it is NP hard and in addition, it is in NP. Many problems are NP complete; of particular note is the Boolean satisfiability (known as SAT) problem (the first problem proven to be NP complete): given a CNF formula ϕ over n Boolean variables x_1, \dots, x_n , does there exist some true/false assignment to the variables (say $x_1 = \ell_1, \dots, x_n = \ell_n$ for some $\ell_1, \dots, \ell_n \in \{0, 1\}$) such that $\phi(\ell_1, \dots, \ell_n)$ is true? It is easy to verify whether a candidate solution (i.e. truth assignment) to $I \in \text{SAT}$ is correct, thus SAT is NP complete. Other problems have been subsequently proven to be NP complete (the CLIQUE and INDSET are just two examples of such problems).

If we can show that even one of these NP complete problems can be decided by a poly time algorithm, then we have resolved P vs. NP in the affirmative! If one NP complete problem is poly-time decidable, then *every* problem in NP is! Some NP complete problems seem deceptively easy, yet no one has found a poly-time algorithm to solve them. Alternatively, if one can show that at least one NP complete problem is not poly-time decidable, then this will establish that $P \neq NP$. In general, proving that a problem is NP complete makes a compelling case that it is highly non-trivial to solve.