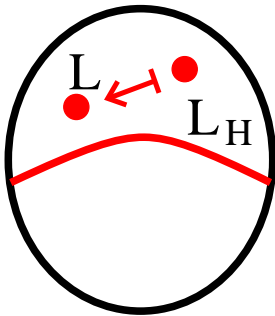


## Review of unsolvability

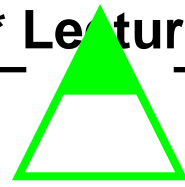


To prove unsolvability: show a reduction.

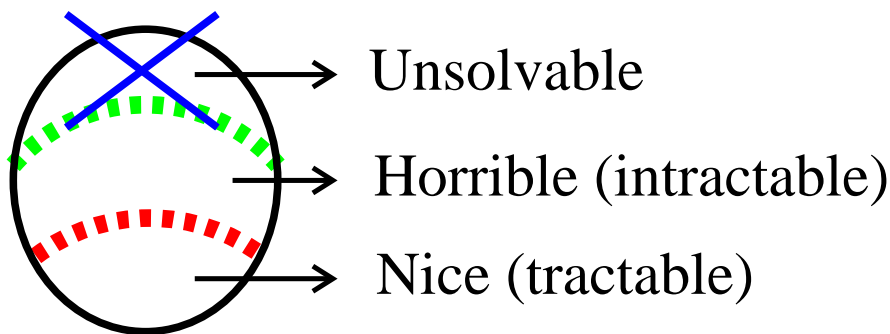
To prove solvability: show an algorithm.

Unsolvability problems (main insight)

- Turing machine (algorithm) properties
- Pattern matching and replacement (tiles, formal systems, proofs etc.)



## Complexity



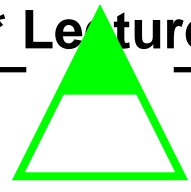
- Horrible problems are solvable by algorithms that take billions of years to produce a solution.
- Nice problems are solvable by “proper” algorithms.
- We want **techniques** and **insights**

**Complexity**  $\longleftrightarrow$  **resources**: time, space

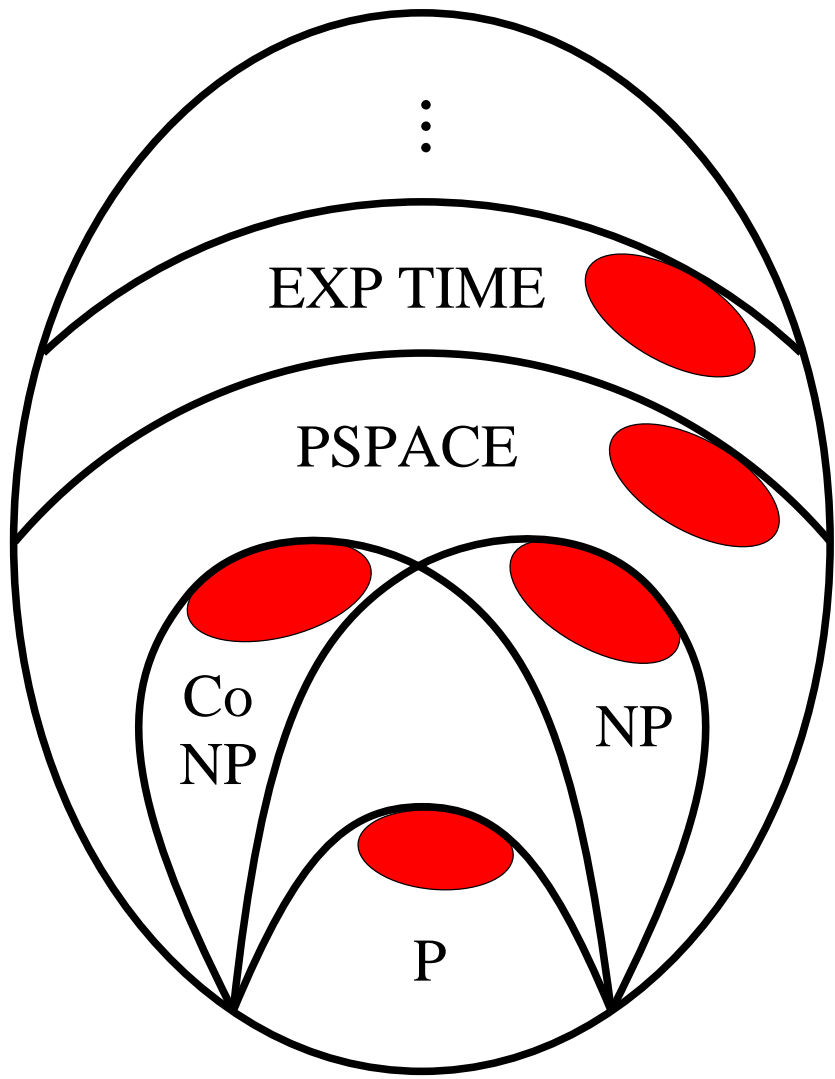


**complexity classes**:

P(olynomial time), NP-complete,  
Co-NP-complete, Exponential time,  
PSPACE, ...

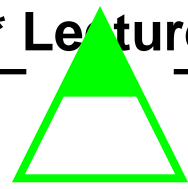


Goal

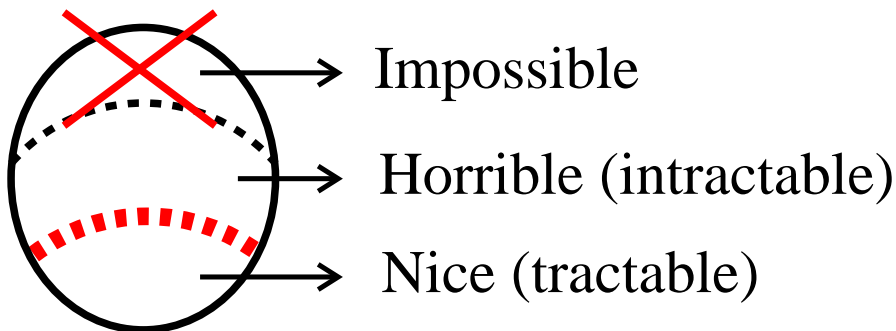


Map of classes

 = complete or "hardest" problems in a class



## Complexity: techniques



**Intractable** , best algorithms are infeasible

**Tractable** , solved by feasible algorithms

### Problems

### Complexity classes

Horrible  $\rightsquigarrow$   $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete,  $\mathcal{NP}$ -hard,  
PSPACE-complete,  
EXP-complete, ...

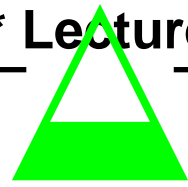
Nice  $\rightsquigarrow$   $\mathcal{P}$  (Polynomial time)

## Goal of complexity theory

Organize problems into **complexity classes**.

- Put problems of a similar complexity into the same class.
- Complexity reveals what approaches to solution should be taken.

Complexity theory will give us an organized view of both problems and algorithms.



## Time complexity and the class $\mathcal{P}$

We say that Turing machine  $M$  **recognizes language  $L$  in time  $t(n)$**  if given any  $x \in \Sigma^*$  as input  $M$  halts after at most  $t(|x|)$  steps scanning 'Y' or 'N' on its tape, scanning 'Y' if and only if  $x \in L$ .

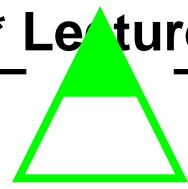
( $|x|$  is the input length – the number of TM tape squares containing the characters of  $x$ )

**Note:** We are measuring **worst-case** behavior of  $M$ , i.e. the number of steps used for the most “difficult” input.

We say that **language  $L$  has time complexity  $t(n)$**  and write  $L \in \text{TIME}(t(n))$  if there is a Turing machine  $M$  which recognizes  $L$  in time  $\mathcal{O}(t(n))$ .

**Polynomial time  $\mathcal{P} = \bigcup_k \text{TIME}(n^k)$**

**Note:**  $\mathcal{P}$  (as well as every other complexity class) is a class (a set) of formal languages.



“Nice” or “tractable”  $\rightsquigarrow \mathcal{P}$

Real time on a PC/Mac/Cray/Hypercube/...  $\rightsquigarrow$  Turing machine **time** (number of steps)

### Computation Complexity Thesis

All **reasonable** computer models are **polynomial-time equivalent** (i.e. they can simulate each other in polynomial time).

**Consequence:**  $\mathcal{P}$  is **robust** (i.e. machine independent).

Worst-case complexity  $\rightsquigarrow$  Real-world difficulty

Feasible solution  $\rightsquigarrow$  Polynomial-time algorithm

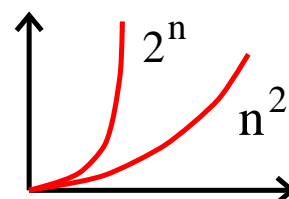
- $t(n) \rightsquigarrow \mathcal{O}(t(n))$

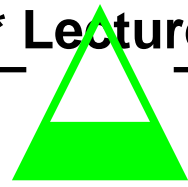
**Argument:** “for large-enough  $n...$ ”

- $n^{100} \leq n^{\log n}$ . Yes, but only for  $n > 2^{100}$ .

**Argument:** Functions like  $n^{100}$  or  $n^{\log n}$  don't tend to arise in practice.

$n^2 \ll 2^n$  already for small or medium-sized inputs:



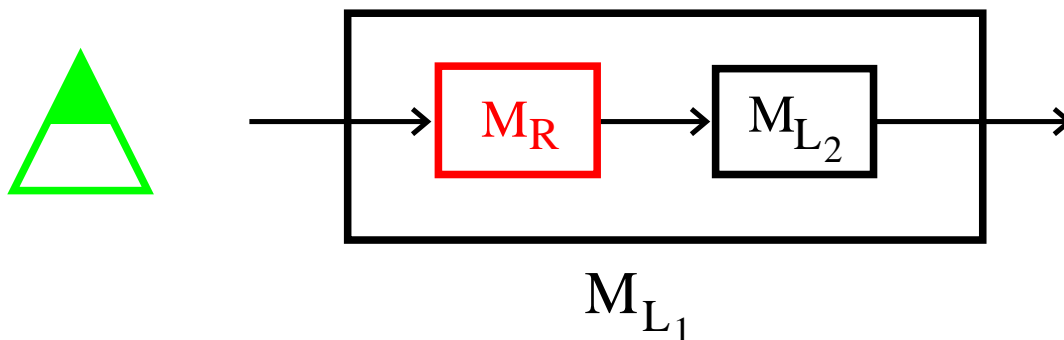


## Polynomial-time simulations & reductions

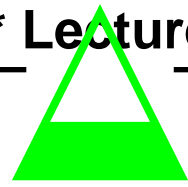
We say that Turing machine  $M$  **computes function  $f(x)$  in time  $t(n)$**  if, when given  $x$  as input,  $M$  halts after  $t(|x|) = t(n)$  steps with  $f(x)$  as output on its tape.

Function  $f(x)$  is **computable in time  $t(n)$**  if there is a TM that computes  $f(x)$  in time  $\mathcal{O}(t(n))$ .

For constructing the complexity theory we need a suitable notion of an efficient 'reduction':



We say that  $L_1$  is **polynomial-time reducible** to  $L_2$  and write  $L_1 \propto L_2$  if there is a polynomial-time computable reduction from  $L_1$  to  $L_2$ .



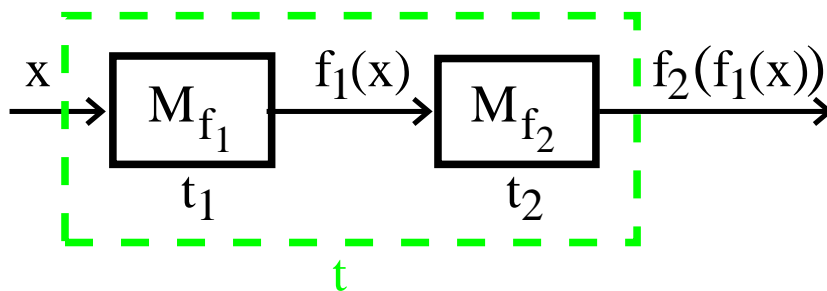
For arguments of the type

$L_1$  is hard/complex  $\Rightarrow L_2$  is hard/complex

we need the following lemma:

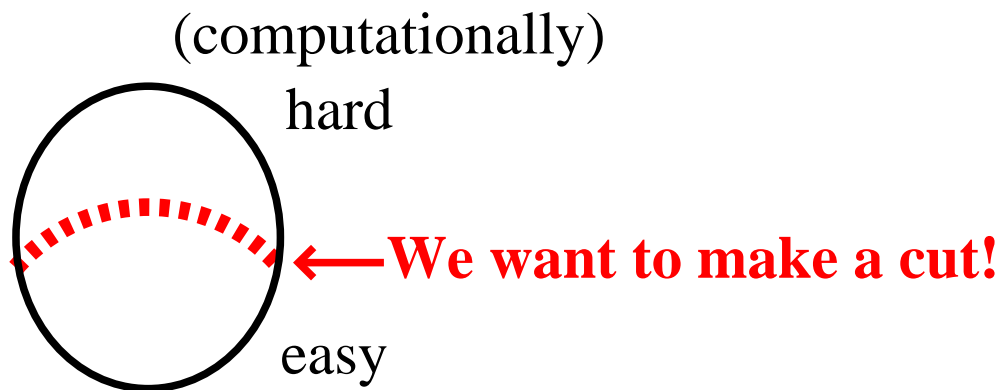
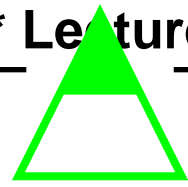
**Lemma 1** *A composition of polynomial-time computable functions is polynomial-time computable.*

**Proof:**



- $|f_1(x)| \leq t_1(|x|)$  because a Turing machine can only write one symbol in each step.
- “polynomial polynomial = polynomial” or  $(n^k)^l = n^{k \cdot l}$
- $t_2(|f_1(x)|)$  is a polynomial.
- $\text{TIME}(t) = t_1(|x|) + t_2(|f_1(x)|)$  is a polynomial because the sum of two polynomials is a polynomial.





**all solvable  
problems**

## Strategy

It is the same as before (in uncomputability):

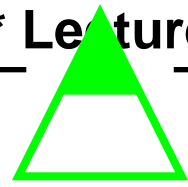
- Prove that a problem  $L$  is easy by showing an efficient (polynomial-time) algorithm for  $L$ .
- Prove that a problem  $L$  is hard by showing an efficient (polynomial-time) reduction ( $L_1 \propto L$ ) from a known hard problem  $L_1$  to  $L$ .

## Difficulty

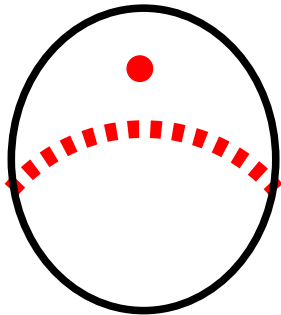
Finding the first truly/provably “hard” problem.

## Way out

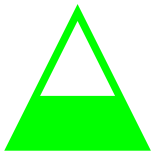
**Completeness & Hardness**



## $\mathcal{NP}$ -completeness



How to prove that  
a problem is hard?

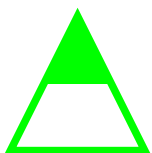


### Completeness

We say that language  $L$  is **hard for class  $C$**  with respect to polynomial-time reductions<sup>†</sup>, or  **$C$ -hard**, if every language in  $C$  is polynomial-time reducible to  $L$ .

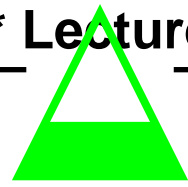
We say that language  $L$  is **complete for class  $C$**  with respect to polynomial-time reductions<sup>†</sup>, or  **$C$ -complete**, if  $L \in C$  and  $L$  is  $C$ -hard.

† Other kinds of reductions may be used



### Note:

- If  $L$  is  $C$ -complete/ $C$ -hard and  $L$  is **easy** ( $L \in \mathcal{P}$ ) then every language in  $C$  is easy.
- $L$  is  $C$ -complete means that  $L$  is “hardest in”  $C$  or that  $L$  “characterizes”  $C$ .



## $\mathcal{NP}$ (non-deterministic polynomial time)

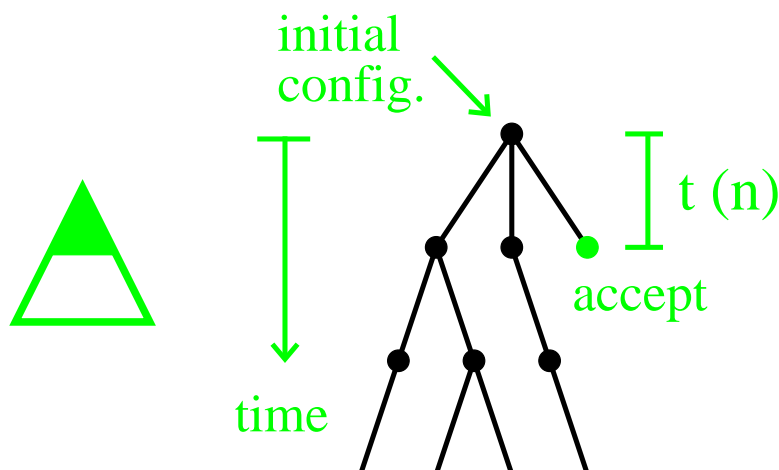
A **non-deterministic Turing machine (NTM)** is defined as deterministic TM with the following modifications:

- NTM has a **transition relation**  $\Delta$  instead of transition function  $\delta$

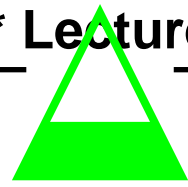
$$\Delta : \left\{ ((s, 0), (q_1, b, R)), ((s, 0), (q_2, 1, L)), \dots \right\}$$

- NTM says 'Yes' (accepts) by halting

**Note:** A NTM has many possible computations for a given input. That is why it is non-deterministic.



- Mathematician doing a proof  $\rightsquigarrow$  NTM
- The original TM was a NTM



We say that a non-deterministic Turing machine  $M$  **accepts language  $L$**  if there exists a halting computation of  $M$  on input  $x$  if and only if  $x \in L$ .

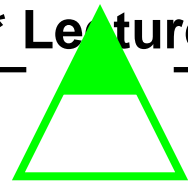
**Note:** This implies that NTM  $M$  never stops if  $x \notin L$  (all paths in the tree of computations have infinite lengths).

We say that a NTM  $M$  **accepts language  $L$  in (non-deterministic) time  $t(n)$**  if  $M$  accepts  $L$  and for every  $x \in L$  there is at least one accepting computation of  $M$  on  $x$  that has  $t(|x|)$  or fewer steps.

We say that  $L \in \mathbf{NTIME}(t(n))$  if  $L$  is accepted by some non-deterministic Turing machine  $M$  in time  $\mathcal{O}(t(n))$ .

$$\mathcal{NP} = \bigcup_k \mathbf{NTIME}(n^k)$$

**Note:** All problems in  $\mathcal{NP}$  are decision problems since a NTM can answer only 'Yes' (there exists a halting computation) or 'No' (all computations "run" forever).



## The meaning of “ $L$ is $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete”

### Complexity

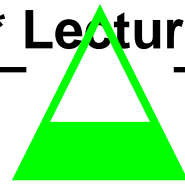
Many people have tried to solve  $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete problems efficiently without succeeding, so most people believe  $\mathcal{NP} \neq \mathcal{P}$ , but nobody has **proven** yet that  $\mathcal{NP}$  problems need exponential time to be solved.

$L$  is computationally hard ( $L \in \mathcal{NP}$ -complete):

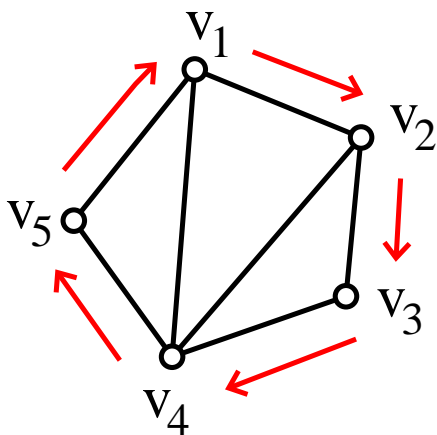
$$L \in \mathcal{P} \Rightarrow \mathcal{NP} = \mathcal{P}$$

### Physiognomy

Checking if  $x \in L$  is easy, given a certificate.



## Example: HAMILTONICITY



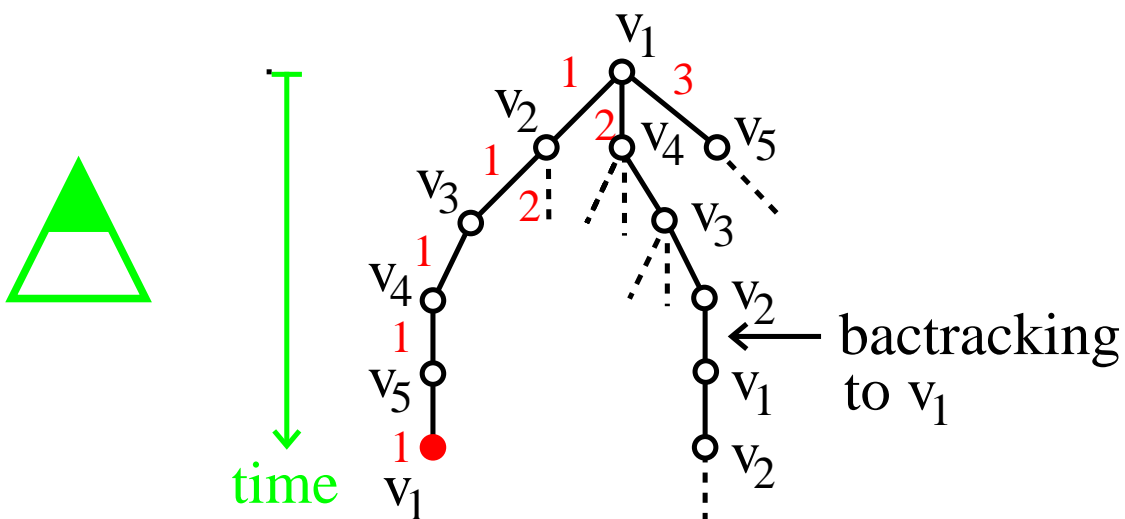
- A deterministic algorithm “must” do exhaustive search:

$v_1 \rightarrow v_4 \rightarrow v_3 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow$  **backtrack**

$\swarrow v_2 \rightarrow$

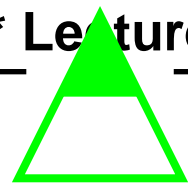
$n!$  possibilities (exponentially many!)

- A non-deterministic algorithm can **guess** the solution/**certificate** and verify it in polynomial time.



Certificate: **(1,1,1,1,1)**

**Note:** A certificate is like a ticket or an ID.



## Proving $\mathcal{NP}$ -completeness

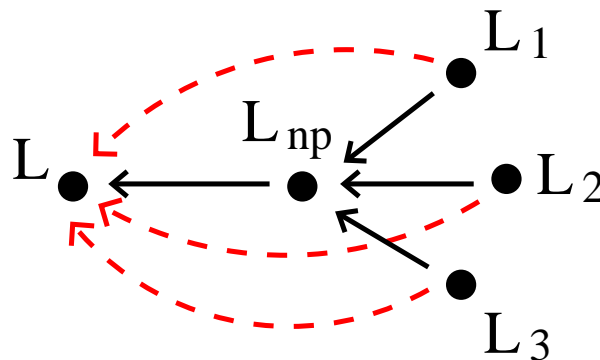
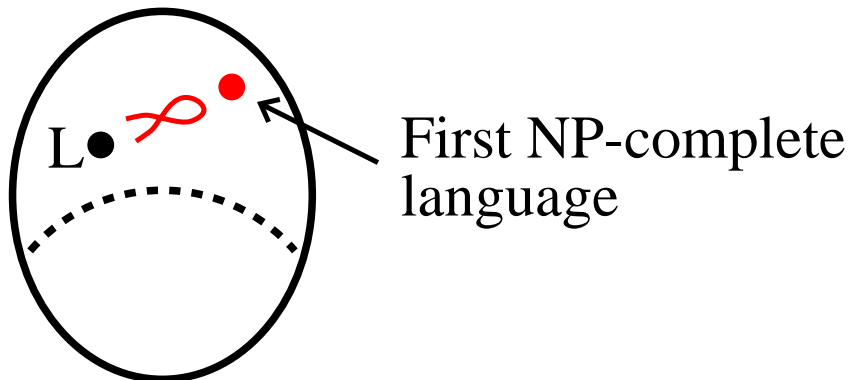
1.  $L \in \mathcal{NP}$

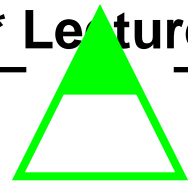
Prove that  $L$  has a “short certificate of membership”.

Ex.: HAMILTONICITY certificate = Hamiltonian path itself.

2.  $L \in \mathcal{NP}$ -hard

Show that a known  $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete language (problem) is polynomial-time reducible to  $L$ , the language we want to show  $\mathcal{NP}$ -hard.





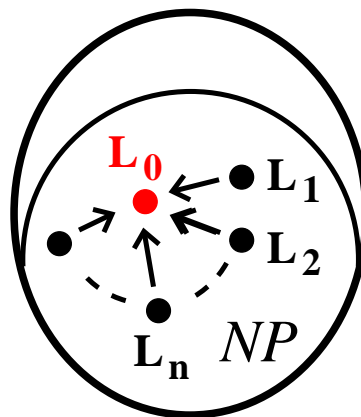
### Skills to learn

- Transforming problems into each other.

### Insight to gain

- Seeing unity in the midst of diversity: A variety of graph-theoretical, numerical, set & other problems are just variants of one another.

But before we can use reductions we need **the first  $\mathcal{NP}$ -hard problem**.

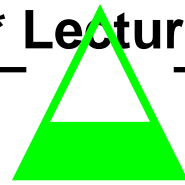


### Strategy

As before:

- 'Cook up' a complete Turing machine problem
- Turn it into / reduce it to a natural/known real-world problem (by using the familiar techniques).





## BOUNDED HALTING problem

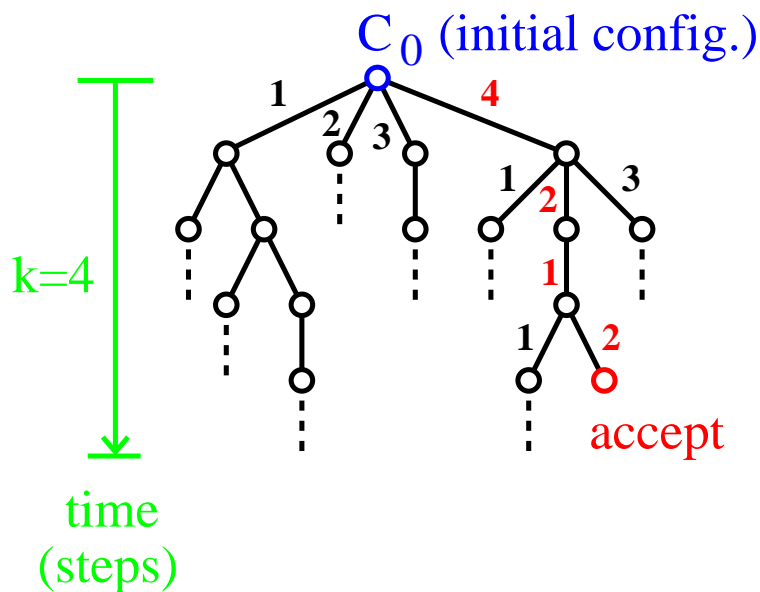
$$L_{BH} = \{ (M, x, 1^k) \mid \text{NTM } M \text{ accepts string } x \text{ in } k \text{ steps or less} \}$$

**Note:**  $1^k$  means  $k$  written in unary, i.e. as a sequence of  $k$  1's.

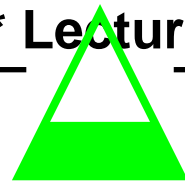
**Theorem 1**  $L_{BH}$  is  $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete.

**Proof:**

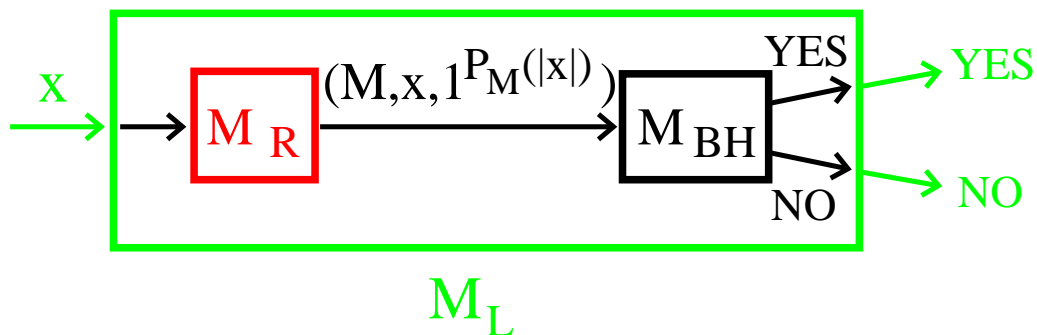
- $L_{BH} \in \mathcal{NP}$



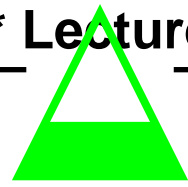
Certificate:  $(4, 2, 1, 2)$ . The certificate, which consists of  $k$  numbers, is “short enough” (polynomial) compared to the length of the input because  $k$  is given in unary in the input!



- $L_{BH} \in \mathcal{NP}$ -hard



- For **every**  $L \in \mathcal{NP}$  there exists by definition a pair  $(M, P_M)$  such that NTM  $M$  accepts every string  $x$  that is in  $L$  (and only those strings) in  $P_M(|x|)$  steps or less.
- Given an instance  $x$  of  $L$  the reduction module  $M_R$  computes  $(M, x, 1^{P_M(|x|)})$  and feeds it to  $M_{BH}$ . This can be done in time polynomial in the length of  $x$ .
- If  $M_{BH}$  says 'YES',  $M_L$  answers 'YES'. If  $M_{BH}$  says 'NO',  $M_L$  answers 'NO'.



## SATISFIABILITY (SAT)

The first real-world problem shown to be  $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete.

**Instance:** A set  $C = \{C_1, \dots, C_m\}$  of **clauses**. A clause consists of a number of **literals** over a finite set  $U$  of Boolean variables. (If  $u$  is a variable in  $U$ , then  $u$  and  $\neg u$  are literals over  $U$ .)

**Question:** A clause is **satisfied** if at least one of its literals is TRUE. Is there a **truth assignment  $T$** ,  $T : U \rightarrow \{\text{TRUE}, \text{FALSE}\}$ , which satisfies all the clauses?

### Example

$$I = C \cup U$$

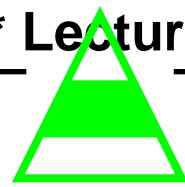
$$C = \{(x_1 \vee \neg x_2), (\neg x_1 \vee \neg x_2), (x_1 \vee x_2)\}$$

$$U = \{x_1, x_2\}$$

$T = x_1 \mapsto \text{TRUE}, x_2 \mapsto \text{FALSE}$  is a satisfying truth assignment. Hence the given instance  $I$  is **satisfiable**, i.e.  $I \in \text{SAT}$ .

$$I' = \begin{cases} C' = \{(x_1 \vee x_2), (x_1 \vee \neg x_2), (\neg x_1)\} \\ U' = \{x_1, x_2\} \end{cases}$$

is not satisfiable.



**Theorem 2 (Cook 1971)** SATISFIABILITY is  $\mathcal{NP}$ -complete.

**Proof – main ideas:**

**BOUNDED HALTING**

“There is a computation”



**SATISFIABILITY**

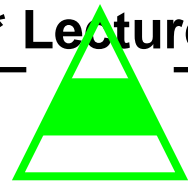
“There is a truth assignment”

computation  $\rightsquigarrow$  (computation) matrix

Example: input  $(M, 010, 1^4)$

 k	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	h Y	b
	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	q <sub>3</sub> b	b
	b	b	b	b	b	b	q <sub>2</sub> 0	b	b
	b	b	b	b	b	q <sub>1</sub> 1	0	b	b
	b	b	b	b	s 0	1	0	b	b
	 k					 k			

Computation matrix  $A$  is polynomial-sized (in length of input) because a TM moves only one square per time step and  $k$  is given in unary.



**tape squares**  $\mapsto$  **boolean variables**

**Ex.** Square  $A(2, 6)$  gives variables  $B(2, 6, 0)$ ,  $B(2, 6, b)$ ,  $B(2, 6, \frac{q_0}{0})$ , etc. – but only polynomially many.

**input symbols**  $\mapsto$  **single-variable clauses**

**Ex.**  $A(1, 5) = \frac{s}{0}$  gives clause  $(B(1, 5, \frac{s}{0})) \in C$ .

Note that any satisfying truth assignment must map  $B(1, 5, \frac{s}{0})$  to TRUE.

**rules/templates**  $\mapsto$  **“if-then clauses”**

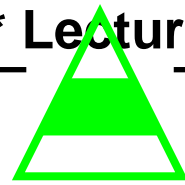
**Ex.**

	$d$	
$a$	$b$	$c$

 gives  $\left( (B(i-1, j, a) \wedge B(i, j, b) \wedge B(i+1, j, c)) \Rightarrow B(i, j+1, d) \right) \in C$ .

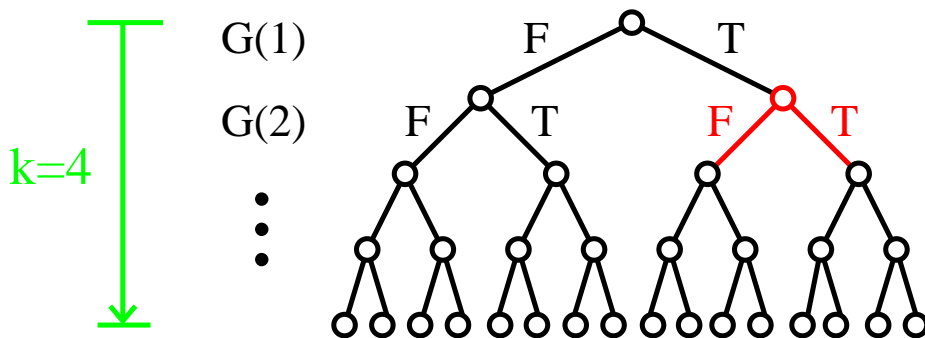
**Note:**  $(u \wedge v \wedge w) \Rightarrow z \equiv \neg u \vee \neg v \vee \neg w \vee z$

Since the tile can be anywhere in the matrix, we must create clauses for all  $2 \leq i \leq 2k$  and  $1 \leq j \leq k$ , but only polynomially many.



non-determinism  $\mapsto$  “choice” variables

Ex.

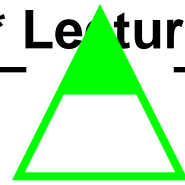


$G(t)$  tells us what non-deterministic choice was taken by the machine at step  $t$ . We extend the “if-then clauses” with  $k$  choice variables:

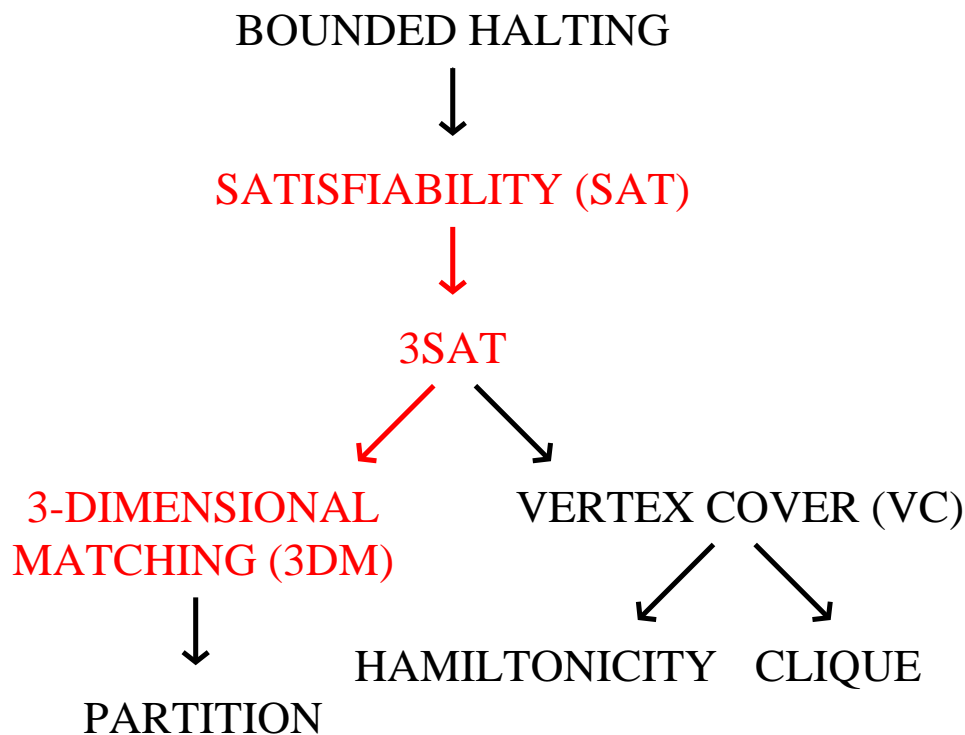
$$(G(t) \wedge \text{“a”} \wedge \text{“b”} \wedge \text{“c”} \Rightarrow \text{“d”}) \vee (\neg G(t) \wedge \dots)$$

**Note:** We assume a **canonical NTM** which

- has exactly 2 choices for each (state,scanned symbol)-pair.
- halts (if it does) after exactly  $k$  steps.



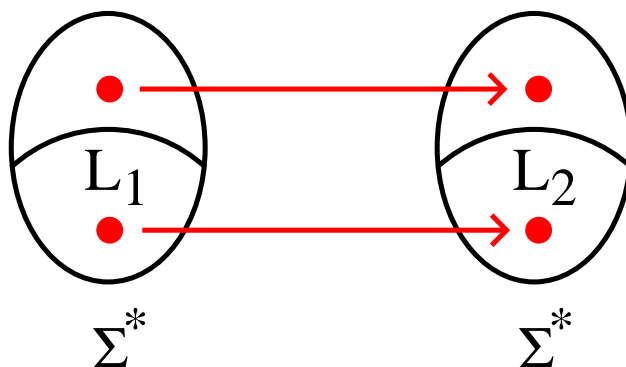
## Further (basic) reductions



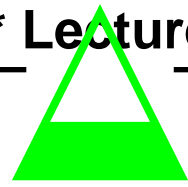
## Polynomial-time reductions (review)

$L_1 \propto L_2$  means that

- $R : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$  such that  
 $x \in L_1 \Rightarrow f_R(x) \in L_2$  and  
 $x \notin L_1 \Rightarrow f_R(x) \notin L_2$



- $R \in P_f$ , i.e.  $R(x)$  is polynomial computable



## SATISFIABILITY $\propto$ 3-SATISFIABILITY

### SAT

Clauses with any number of literals



### 3SAT

Clauses with exactly 3 literals

- $C_j$  is the  $j$ 'th SAT-clause, and  $C_j'$  is the corresponding 3SAT-clauses.
- $y_j$  are new, fresh variables, only used in  $C_j'$ .

$C_j$	$\mapsto$	$C_j'$
$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3)$		$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3)$
$(x_1 \vee x_2)$		$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee y_j), (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee \neg y_j)$
$(x_1)$		$(x_1 \vee y_j^1 \vee y_j^2), (x_1 \vee \neg y_j^1 \vee y_j^2),$ $(x_1 \vee y_j^1 \vee \neg y_j^2), (x_1 \vee \neg y_j^1 \vee \neg y_j^2)$
$(x_1 \vee \dots \vee x_8)$		$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee y_j^1), (\neg y_j^1 \vee x_3 \vee y_j^2),$ $(\neg y_j^2 \vee x_4 \vee y_j^3), (\neg y_j^3 \vee x_5 \vee y_j^4),$ $(\neg y_j^4 \vee x_6 \vee y_j^5), (\neg y_j^5 \vee x_7 \vee x_8)$

**Question:** Why is this a proper reduction?