

## The Limits of Computing

## Intractability

Limits of Computing

## Announcement

- Final Exam is on Friday
  - 9:00am – 10:20am Part 1
  - 4:30pm – 6:10pm Part 2
- If you did not fill in the course evaluations please do it today. 7 August is the last day
- Thanks

## To wait or not to wait?

You are working on a very important problem and wrote a program to make lots of calculations. You expect that it may take a while to produce a result.

- ▣ How long will you wait?
- ▣ Should you wait or stop?
- ▣ You waited for a few days and decided to stop, but what if it will end/halt in the next 5 minutes?
  - ▣ Wouldn't it be good to know if it will end or not

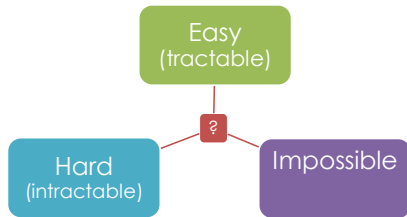
## More information would help

- ▣ Can you say if your program will return a result or not?
- ▣ Can you say anything about the hardness of the problem that you are trying to solve?

## Complexity and Computability Theories

- ▣ Computer scientists are interested in measuring the “**hardness**” of computational problems in order to understand **how much time, or some other resource** such as memory, is needed to solve it.
- ▣ What problems **can and cannot be solved** by mechanical computation?

## Can we **categorize** problems?



## Easy (Tractable)

- An “easy (i.e. tractable)” problem is one for which there exists a **mechanical procedure** (i.e. program or algorithm) that can solve it in a **reasonable amount of time**.

How do we measure this?

## Hard (Intractable)

- A “hard (i.e. intractable)” problem is one that is **solvable** by a mechanical procedure but every algorithm we can find is so slow that it is **practically useless**.

What does this mean?

## Impossible

- An “impossible” problem is one such that it is **provably impossible** to solve no matter how much time we are willing to use.

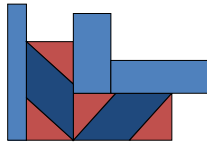
How can we prove something like that?

## Decision Problems

- A specific set of computations are classified as **decision problems**.
- An algorithm solves a **decision problem** if its output is simply YES or NO, depending on whether a certain property holds for its input. Such an algorithm is called a **decision procedure**.

### Example:

Given a set of  $n$  shapes, can these shapes be arranged into a rectangle?



## The Monkey Puzzle



### Given:

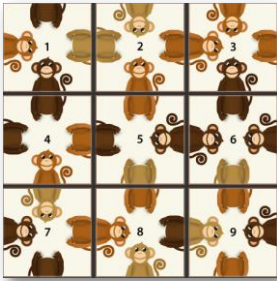
- A set of  $n$  square cards whose sides are imprinted with the upper and lower halves of colored monkeys.
- $n$  is a square number, such that  $n = m^2$ .
- Cards cannot be rotated.

decision problem

### Problem:

- Determine if an arrangement of the  $n$  cards in an  $m \times m$  grid exists such that each adjacent pair of cards display the upper and lower half of a monkey of the same color.

## Example



- Can we always compute a YES/NO answer to the problem?
- If we can, **is the problem tractable (easy to solve)** in general?

Principles of Computing, Carnegie Mellon University

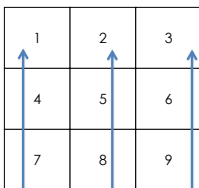
## Algorithm

Simple **brute-force (exhaustive search) algorithm**:

- ▣ Pick one card for each cell of  $m \times m$  grid.
- ▣ Verify if each pair of touching edges make a full monkey of the same color.
- ▣ If not, try another arrangement until a solution is found or all possible arrangements are checked.
- ▣ Answer "YES" if a solution is found. Otherwise, answer "NO" if all arrangements are analyzed and no solution is found.

Principles of Computing, Carnegie Mellon University

## Analysis



Suppose there are  $n = 9$  cards ( $m = 3$ )

The total number of unique arrangements for  $n = 9$  cards is:

$$9 * 8 * 7 * \dots * 1 = 9! \text{ (9 factorial)} \\ = 362880$$

9 card choices for cell 1  
8 card choices for cell 2  
7 card choices for cell 3 goes on like this

## Analysis (cont'd)

For  **$n$  cards**, the number of arrangements to examine is  **$n!$**

**Assume that** we can analyze one arrangement in one microsecond ( $\mu\text{s}$ ), that is, we can analyze *1 million arrangements in one second*:

$n$  **Time to analyze all arrangements**

9 362,880  $\mu\text{s}$

16 20,922,789,888,000  $\mu\text{s}$  (app. 242 days)

25 15,511,210,043,330,985,984,000,000  $\mu\text{s}$   
(app. 500 billion years)

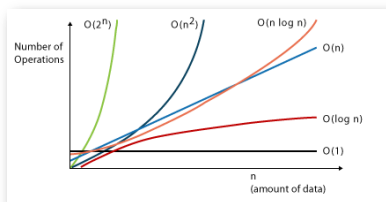


Age of the universe is about 14 billion years

## Reviewing the Big O Notation (1)

- ▣ We use big O notation
  - ▣ to indicate the relationship between the size of the input and the corresponding amount of work.
- ▣ For the Monkey Puzzle
  - ▣ Input size: Number of tiles ( $n$ )
  - ▣ Amount of work: Number of operations to check if any arrangement solves the problem ( $n!$ )
- ▣ For very large  **$n$  (size of input data)**, we express the number of operations as the **(time) order of complexity**.

## Growth of Some Functions



Big O notation:  
gives an asymptotic upper bound  
ignores constants

Any function  $f(n)$  such that  $f(n) \leq c \cdot n^2$  for large  $n$  has  $O(n^2)$  complexity

## Quiz on Big O

- What is the order of complexity in big O

The amount of computation does not depend on the size of input data

$O(1)$

If we double the input size the work is doubles, if we triple it the work is 3 times as much

$O(n)$

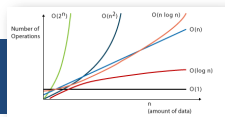
If we double the input size the work is 4 times, if we triple it the work is 9 times as much

$O(n^2)$

If we double the input size, the work has 1 additional operation

$O(\log n)$

## Classifications



- Algorithms that are  $O(n^k)$  for some fixed  $k$  are **polynomial-time\*** algorithms.

$O(1)$ ,  $O(\log n)$ ,  $O(n)$ ,  $O(n \log n)$ ,  $O(n^2)$   
reasonable, **tractable**

- All other algorithms are **super-polynomial-time** algorithms.

$O(2^n)$ ,  $O(n^n)$ ,  $O(n!)$   
unreasonable, **intractable**

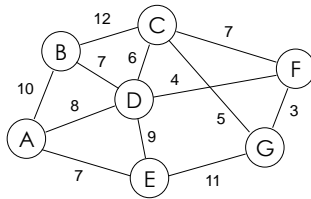
\*A **polynomial** is an expression consisting of variables and coefficients that involves only the operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and non-negative integer exponents.

## A Famous (Hard) Problem

## Traveling Salesperson

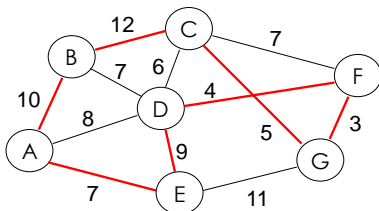
- **Given:** a weighted graph of nodes representing cities and edges representing flight paths (weights represent cost)
- **Is there a route that takes the salesperson through every city and back to the starting city with cost no more than  $k$ ?**
  - The salesperson can visit a city only once (except for the start and end of the trip).

## An Instance of the Problem



Is there a route that takes the salesperson through every city and back to the starting city with cost no more than 52?

## Traveling Salesperson



Is there a route with cost at most 52? YES (Route above costs 50.)

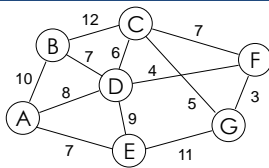
If I am given a candidate solution I can verify that to say yes or no, but otherwise I have to search for it. By a brute-force approach, I enumerate all possible routes visiting every city once and check for the cost.



## Analysis

- ▣ If there are  $n$  cities, what is the maximum number of routes that we might need to compute?
- ▣ **Worst-case:** There is a flight available between every pair of cities.
- ▣ Compute cost of every possible route.
  - ▣ Pick a starting city
  - ▣ Pick the next city ( $n-1$  choices remaining)
  - ▣ Pick the next city ( $n-2$  choices remaining)
  - ▣ ...
- ▣ Maximum number of routes: \_\_\_\_\_

## Number of Paths to Consider



Number of all possible routes = Number of all possible permutations of  $n$  nodes =  $n!$

Observe ABCGFDE is equivalent to BCGFDEA (starting from a point and returning to it going through the same nodes)

Number of all possible unique route =  $n! / n = (n-1)!$

Observe also that ABCGFDE has the same cost as EDFGCBA

Number of all possible paths to consider =  $(n-1)! / 2$  Still  $O(n!)$

## Analysis

- ▣ If there are  $n$  cities, what is the maximum number of routes that we might need to compute?
- ▣ **Worst-case:** There is a flight available between every pair of cities.
- ▣ Compute cost of every possible route.
  - ▣ Pick a starting city
  - ▣ Pick the next city ( $n-1$  choices remaining)
  - ▣ Pick the next city ( $n-2$  choices remaining)
  - ▣ ...
- ▣ Worst-case complexity:  $O(n!)$

Note:  $n! > 2^n$  for every  $n > 3$ .

*Exponential complexity (super-polynomial time)*

## Map Coloring

- Given a map of  $N$  territories, can the map be colored using **3** colors such that no two adjacent territories are colored with the same color?



## Analysis

- Given a map of  $N$  territories, can the map be colored using **3** colors such that no two adjacent territories are colored with the same color?
- Pick a color for territory 1 (3 choices)
  - Pick a color for territory 2 (3 choices)
  - ...
- There are  $3^N$  possible colorings.

## Satisfiability

Given a Boolean formula with  $n$  variables using the operators AND, OR and NOT:

**Is there an assignment of Boolean values for the variables so that the formula is true (satisfied)?**

Example:  $(X \text{ AND } Y) \text{ OR } (\text{NOT } Z \text{ AND } (X \text{ OR } Y))$   
 Truth assignment:  $X = \text{True}, Y = \text{True}, Z = \text{False}$ .

**How many assignments do we need to check for  $n$  variables?**

Each symbol has 2 possibilities  $2^n$  assignments

## Polynomial vs. Exponential Growth

**Assumption:** Computer can perform **one billion operations for second**

Running Time	Size n = 10	Size n = 20	Size n = 30	Size n = 40
$n$	0.00000001	0.00000002	0.00000003	0.00000004
$n^2$	0.00000010	0.00000040	0.00000090	0.00000160
$n^3$	0.00000100	0.00000800	0.00002700	0.00006400
$n^5$	0.00010000	0.00320000	0.02430000	0.10240000
$n!$	0.0036	77.1 years	8400 trillion years	$2.5 \times 10^{31}$ Years

Source: <http://www.cs.hmc.edu/csforall>

Principles of Computing, Carnegie Mellon University

## The Big Picture

- **Intractable problems** are solvable if the amount of data ( $n$ ) that we are processing **is small**.

**Polynomial time** e.g.  $3n^4 + n - 5$

- If  $n$  is **not small**, then the amount of computation grows exponentially. Computers can solve these **intractable problems**, but it will take far too long for the result to be generated.

**super-polynomial time** e.g.  $4^n$



We would be long dead before the result is computed.

Principles of Computing, Carnegie Mellon University

## P vs NP

### The Limits of Computing

## Decision Problems

- We have seen different decision problems with simple **brute-force algorithms** that are **intractable**.

■ The Monkey Puzzle	$O(n!)$
■ Traveling Salesperson	$O(n!)$
■ Map Coloring	$O(3^N)$
■ Satisfiability	$O(2^n)$

**Can avoid brute-force in many problems?**

## Special cases of an intractable problem may be tractable

- **We can avoid brute-force** in many problems and obtain polynomial time solutions, **but not always**.
- For example, Satisfiability of Boolean expressions of **certain forms** have polynomial time solutions.  
Example:  $(X \text{ OR } Y) \text{ AND } (Z \text{ OR NOT } Y)$

**2-satisfiability:** determining whether a conjunction of disjunctions (AND of ORs), where each disjunction (OR) has 2 arguments that may either be variables or the negations of variables, **is satisfiable**.

## Are These Problems Tractable?

- For any one of these problems, is there a single tractable (polynomial) algorithm to **solve any instance of the problem**?
  - Haven't been found so far.
  - Haven't been proved that they do not exist
- Possible reasons are that these problems
  - have undiscovered polynomial-time solutions.
  - are intrinsically difficult – we can't hope to find polynomial solutions.

## Are These Problems Tractable?

### Important discovery:

- ▣ Complexities of some of these problems are linked.
- ▣ If we can solve one, we can solve the other problems in that class.

## Verifiability

- ▣ No known tractable algorithm to decide, however it is easy to verify a candidate (i.e. proposed) solution.

## P and NP

Polynomial  
decidability

The class **P** consists of all those decision problems that **can be solved** on a *deterministic sequential machine* in **an amount of time that is polynomial** in the size of the input

Polynomial  
verifiability

*N in NP comes from nondeterministic*

The class **NP** consists of all those decision problems whose positive **solutions can be verified in polynomial time** given the right information, or equivalently, whose solution can be found in polynomial time on a *non-deterministic machine*.

## Decidability vs. Verifiability

**P** = the class of problems that can be **decided (solved) quickly**

**NP** = the class of problems for which candidate solutions can be **verified quickly**

## Example

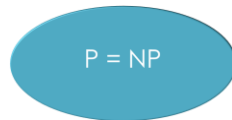
	Verifiable in Polynomial Time	Solvable in Polynomial Time
	<b>NP</b>	<b>P</b>
Finding the maximum value in an array	YES	YES
Satisfiability problem	YES	?
Map coloring problem	YES	?

- If a problem is in **P**, it must also be in **NP**.
- If a problem is in **NP**, is it also in **P**?

## Two Possibilities



If  $P \neq NP$ , then some decision problems can't be solved in polynomial time.



If  $P = NP$ , then all polynomially verifiable problems can be solved in polynomial time.

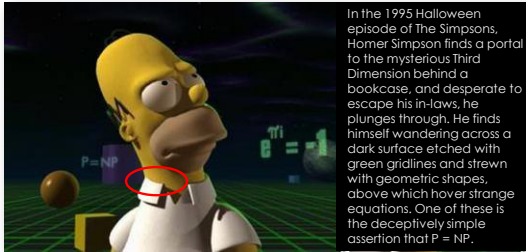


The Clay Mathematics Institute is offering a **\$1M** prize for the first person to prove  $P = NP$  or  $P \neq NP$ .

([http://www.claymath.org/millennium/P\\_vs\\_NP/](http://www.claymath.org/millennium/P_vs_NP/))

Principles of Computer Science, Princeton University

## Watch out, Homer!



Principles of Computing, Carnegie Mellon University

## NP-Complete Problems

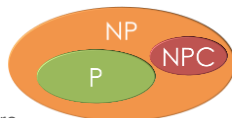
- An important advance in the P vs. NP question was the discovery of a class of problems in NP whose **complexity is related to the whole class** [Cook and Levin, '70]:

if one of these problems is in P then  $NP = P$ .

Principles of Computing, Carnegie Mellon University

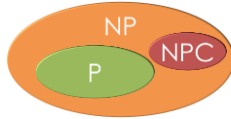
## NP-Complete

- The class **NP-Complete** consists of all those problems in NP that are **least likely to be in P**.
  - Monkey puzzle,
  - Traveling salesperson,
  - Map coloring, and
  - Satisfiability
- Each of these problems are called **NP-Complete**
- Informally, NP-complete problems are the hardest problems in NP.



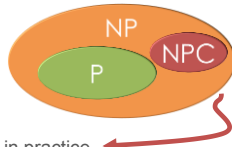
## NP-Complete

- Every problem in NP-Complete can be transformed to another problem in NP-Complete.
- If there were some way to solve one of these problems in polynomial time, we should be able to solve all of these problems in polynomial time.



## Why is NP-completeness of Interest?

- Theorem: If any NP-complete problem is in P then all are and  $P = NP$ .



- Most believe  $P \neq NP$ . So, in practice NP-completeness of a problem prevents wasting time from trying to find a polynomial time solution for it.

## Examples of NP-complete Problems

- Bin Packing.** You have  $n$  items and  $m$  bins. Item  $i$  weighs  $w[i]$  pounds. Each bin can hold at most  $W$  pounds. Can you pack all  $n$  items into the  $m$  bins without violating the given weight limit?
- Machine Scheduling.** Your goal is to process  $n$  jobs on  $m$  machines. For simplicity, assume each machine can process any one job in 1 time unit. Also, there can be precedence constraints: perhaps job  $j$  must finish before job  $k$  can start. Can you schedule all of the jobs to finish in  $L$  time units?
- Crossword puzzle.** Given an integer  $N$ , and a list of valid words, is it possible to assign letters to the cells of an  $N$ -by- $N$  grid so that all horizontal and vertical words are valid?

Source: <http://algs4.cs.princeton.edu/66intractability/>



## Noncomputable Functions

The Limits of Computing

## Computability

- ▣ A problem is computable (i.e. decidable, solveable) if there is a mechanical procedure that
  1. Always terminates
  2. Always gives the correct answer

## Program Termination

- ▣ Can we determine if a program will terminate given a valid input?
- ▣ Example:

```
def mystery1(x):  
    while (x != 1):  
        x = x - 2
```

  - ▣ Does this algorithm terminate when  $x = 15$ ?
  - ▣ Does this algorithm terminate when  $x = 110$ ?

## Another Example

```
def mystery2(x):
    while (x != 1):
        if x % 2 == 0:
            x = x // 2
        else:
            x = 3 * x + 1
```

If you test this program, it seems to terminate even though it sometimes reaches unpredictable values for  $x$ .

In the absence of a proof of why it works this way, we cannot be sure whether there is any  $x$  for which it won't terminate.

- ▣ Does this algorithm terminate when  $x = 15$ ?
- ▣ Does this algorithm terminate when  $x = 110$ ?
- ▣ Does this algorithm terminate for any positive  $x$ ?

## Halting Problem

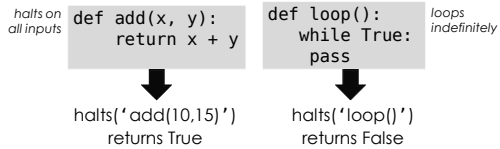
- Alan Turing proved that **noncomputable functions** exist by finding a noncomputable function, known as **the Halting Problem**.
- **Halting Problem:**  
Does a universal program **H** exist that can take **any** program **P** and **any** input **I** for program **P** and determine if **P** terminates/halts when run with input **I**?

## Halting Problem Cast in Python

- **Input:** A string representing a Python program
- **Output:**
  - True, if evaluating the input program would ever finish
  - False, otherwise

## A Halt Checker

- ▣ Suppose we had a function **halts** that solves the Halting Problem. Given the functions below



## Proving Uncomputability

- ▣ To prove the Python function **halts** does not exist, we will show that **if it exists it leads to a contradiction**. (such as "This sentence is false")

```
def paradox():
    if halts('paradox()'):
        while True:
            pass
```

Infinite loop

## Proving Uncomputability

```
def paradox():
    if halts('paradox()'):
        while True:
            pass
```

**Contradiction!**

If halts('paradox()') returns True, paradox() never halts  
 If halts('paradox()') returns False, paradox() halts.

## Turning into a general statement

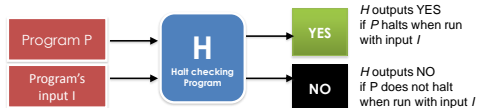
- We proved that a Python function **halts** cannot exist.
- How can we turn this into a general statement about any halts function?

## Telling the Story in a Python-independent Way

## Proof by Contradiction (first step)

Assume a program  $H$  exists that requires a program  $P$  and an input  $I$ .

- $H$  determines if program  $P$  will halt when  $P$  is executed using input  $I$ .

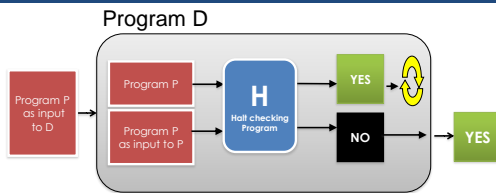


We will show that  $H$  cannot exist by showing that if it did exist we would get a logical contradiction.

## Proof by contradiction (first step)

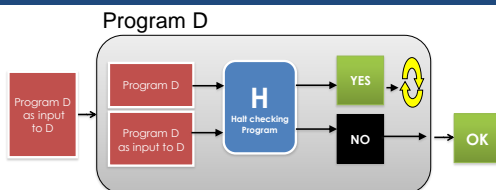
- Construct a new Program  $D$  that takes as input any program  $P$
- $D$  asks the halt checker  $H$  what happens if  $P$  runs with its own copy as input?
- If  $H$  answers that  $P$  will halt if it runs with itself as input, then  $D$  goes into an infinite loop (and does not halt).
- If  $H$  answers that  $P$  will not halt if it runs with itself as input, then  $D$  halts.

## New Program $D$



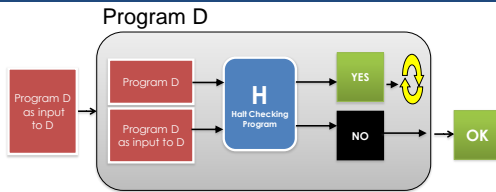
$D$  asks  $H$  what happens if we run program  $P$  on  $P$ .  
 Loops if it says YES.  
 Stops and returns YES if it says no.

## $D$ testing itself



If  $H$  answers yes ( $D$  halts),  
 then  $D$  goes into an infinite loop and does not halt.

## Proof by contradiction (last step)



What happens if D tests itself?

If D does not halt on D, then D halts on D.  
If D halts on D, then D does not halt on D.

**CONTRADICTION!**

## Contradiction

- No matter what *H* answers about *D*, *D* does the opposite, so *H* can never answer the halting problem for the specific program *D*.
  - Therefore, a universal halting checker *H* cannot exist.
- We can **never** write a computer program that determines if ANY program halts with ANY input.
  - It doesn't matter how powerful the computer is.
  - It doesn't matter how much time we devote to the computation.

## Why Is Halting Problem Special?

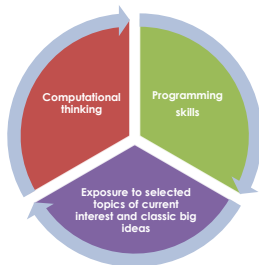
- One of the first problems to be shown to be noncomputable (i.e. undecidable, unsolvable)
- A problem can be shown to be noncomputable by reducing the halting problem into that problem.
- Examples of other nonsolvable problems: Software verification, Hilbert's tenth problem, tiling problem

## What Should You Know?

- The fact that there are limits to what we can compute and what we can compute efficiently all using a mechanical procedure (algorithm).
  - What do we mean when we call a problem tractable/intractable?
  - What do we mean when we call a problem solveable (i.e., computable, decidable) vs. unsolveable (noncomputable, undecidable)?
- What the question P vs. NP is about.
- Name some NP-complete problems and reason about the work needed to solve them using brute-force algorithms.
- The fact that Halting Problem is unsolveable and that there are many others that are unsolveable.

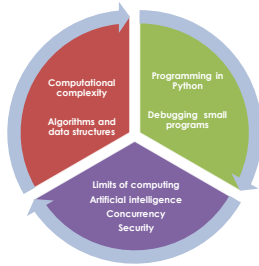
## CONCLUDING REMARKS

## Course Objectives



Principles of Computing, Carnegie Mellon University

## Course Coverage



Principles of Computing, Carnegie Mellon University

## Where to Go From Here

- Done with computer science. You will be involved in computing only as needed in your own discipline?
  - We believe you are leaving this course with useful skills.
- Grew an interest in computing. You want to explore more?
  - 15-112 is taken by many who feel this way. It primarily focuses on software construction.
- Considering adding computer science as a minor or major?
  - Great! We are happy to have been instrumental in this decision.

---

---

---

---

---

---

---



---

---

---

---

---

---

---