

## Complexity Classes

A complexity class is a collection of languages determined by three things:

- A model of computation (such as a deterministic Turing machine, or a nondeterministic TM, or a parallel Random Access Machine).
- A resource (such as time, space or number of processors).
- A set of bounds. This is a set of functions that are used to bound the amount of resource we can use.

## Polynomial Bounds

By making the bounds broad enough, we can make our definitions fairly independent of the model of computation.

The collection of languages recognised in *polynomial time* is the same whether we consider Turing machines, register machines, or any other deterministic model of computation.

The collection of languages recognised in *linear time*, on the other hand, is different on a one-tape and a two-tape Turing machine.

We can say that being recognisable in polynomial time is a property of the language, while being recognisable in linear time is sensitive to the model of computation.

## Polynomial Time

$$P = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} \text{TIME}(n^k)$$

The class of languages decidable in polynomial time.

The complexity class  $P$  plays an important role in our theory.

- It is robust, as explained.
- It serves as our formal definition of what is *feasibly computable*

One could argue whether an algorithm running in time  $\theta(n^{100})$  is feasible, but it will eventually run faster than one that takes time  $\theta(2^n)$ .

Making the distinction between polynomial and exponential results in a useful and elegant theory.

## Example: Reachability

The **Reachability** decision problem is, given a *directed* graph  $G = (V, E)$  and two nodes  $a, b \in V$ , to determine whether there is a path from  $a$  to  $b$  in  $G$ .

A simple search algorithm as follows solves it:

1. mark node  $a$ , leaving other nodes unmarked, and initialise set  $S$  to  $\{a\}$ ;
2. while  $S$  is not empty, choose node  $i$  in  $S$ : remove  $i$  from  $S$  and for all  $j$  such that there is an edge  $(i, j)$  and  $j$  is unmarked, mark  $j$  and add  $j$  to  $S$ ;
3. if  $b$  is marked, accept else reject.

## Analysis

This algorithm requires  $O(n^2)$  time and  $O(n)$  space.

The description of the algorithm would have to be refined for an implementation on a Turing machine, but it is easy enough to show that:

$$\text{Reachability} \in P$$

To formally define **Reachability** as a language, we would have to also choose a way of representing the input  $(V, E, a, b)$  as a string.

## Example: Euclid's Algorithm

Consider the decision problem (or *language*) RelPrime defined by:

$$\{(x, y) \mid \gcd(x, y) = 1\}$$

The standard algorithm for solving it is due to Euclid:

1. Input  $(x, y)$ .
2. Repeat until  $y = 0$ :  $x \leftarrow x \bmod y$ ; Swap  $x$  and  $y$
3. If  $x = 1$  then accept else reject.

## Analysis

The number of repetitions at step 2 of the algorithm is at most  $O(\log x)$ .

*why?*

This implies that RelPrime is in P.

If the algorithm took  $\theta(x)$  steps to terminate, it would not be a polynomial time algorithm, as  $x$  is not polynomial in the *length* of the input.

## Primality

Consider the decision problem (or *language*) **Prime** defined by:

$$\{x \mid x \text{ is prime}\}$$

The obvious algorithm:

For all  $y$  with  $1 < y \leq \sqrt{x}$  check whether  $y|x$ .

requires  $\Omega(\sqrt{x})$  steps and is therefore *not* polynomial in the length of the input.

Is **Prime**  $\in P$ ?



## Boolean Expressions

Boolean expressions are built up from an infinite set of variables

$$X = \{x_1, x_2, \dots\}$$

and the two constants **true** and **false** by the rules:

- a constant or variable by itself is an expression;
- if  $\phi$  is a Boolean expression, then so is  $(\neg\phi)$ ;
- if  $\phi$  and  $\psi$  are both Boolean expressions, then so are  $(\phi \wedge \psi)$  and  $(\phi \vee \psi)$ .

## Evaluation

If an expression contains no variables, then it can be evaluated to either **true** or **false**.

Otherwise, it can be evaluated, *given* a truth assignment to its variables.

### Examples:

$$(\text{true} \vee \text{false}) \wedge (\neg \text{false})$$

$$(x_1 \vee \text{false}) \wedge ((\neg x_1) \vee x_2)$$

$$(x_1 \vee \text{false}) \wedge (\neg x_1)$$

$$(x_1 \vee (\neg x_1)) \wedge \text{true}$$

## Boolean Evaluation

There is a deterministic Turing machine, which given a Boolean expression *without variables* of length  $n$  will determine, in time  $O(n^2)$  whether the expression evaluates to **true**.

The algorithm works by scanning the input, rewriting formulas according to the following rules:

## Rules

- $(\text{true} \vee \phi) \Rightarrow \text{true}$
- $(\phi \vee \text{true}) \Rightarrow \text{true}$
- $(\text{false} \vee \phi) \Rightarrow \phi$
- $(\text{false} \wedge \phi) \Rightarrow \text{false}$
- $(\phi \wedge \text{false}) \Rightarrow \text{false}$
- $(\text{true} \wedge \phi) \Rightarrow \phi$
- $(\neg \text{true}) \Rightarrow \text{false}$
- $(\neg \text{false}) \Rightarrow \text{true}$

## Analysis

Each scan of the input ( $O(n)$  steps) must find at least one subexpression matching one of the rule patterns.

Applying a rule always eliminates at least one symbol from the formula.

Thus, there are at most  $O(n)$  scans required.

The algorithm works in  $O(n^2)$  steps.

## Satisfiability

For Boolean expressions  $\phi$  that contain variables, we can ask

Is there an assignment of truth values to the variables  
which would make the formula evaluate to **true**?

The set of Boolean expressions for which this is true is the language **SAT** of *satisfiable* expressions.

This can be decided by a deterministic Turing machine in time  $O(n^2 2^n)$ .

An expression of length  $n$  can contain at most  $n$  variables.

For each of the  $2^n$  possible truth assignments to these variables, we check whether it results in a Boolean expression that evaluates to **true**.

Is **SAT**  $\in P$ ?

## Circuits

A circuit is a directed graph  $G = (V, E)$ , with  $V = \{1, \dots, n\}$  together with a labeling:  $l : V \rightarrow \{\text{true}, \text{false}, \wedge, \vee, \neg\}$ , satisfying:

- If there is an edge  $(i, j)$ , then  $i < j$ ;
- Every node in  $V$  has *indegree* at most 2.
- A node  $v$  has
  - indegree 0 iff  $l(v) \in \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$ ;
  - indegree 1 iff  $l(v) = \neg$ ;
  - indegree 2 iff  $l(v) \in \{\vee, \wedge\}$

The value of the expression is given by the value at node  $n$ .

## CVP

A circuit is a more compact way of representing a Boolean expression.

Identical subexpressions need not be repeated.

**CVP** - the *circuit value problem* is, given a circuit, determine the value of the result node  $n$ .

**CVP** is solvable in polynomial time, by the algorithm which examines the nodes in increasing order, assigning a value **true** or **false** to each node.



## Composites

Consider the decision problem (or *language*) **Composite** defined by:

$$\{x \mid x \text{ is not prime}\}$$

This is the complement of the language **Prime**.

Is **Composite**  $\in P$ ?

Clearly, the answer is yes if, and only if, **Prime**  $\in P$ .

## Hamiltonian Graphs

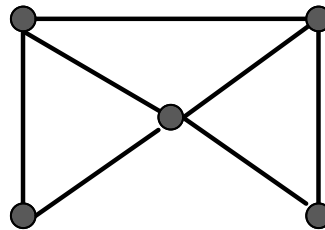
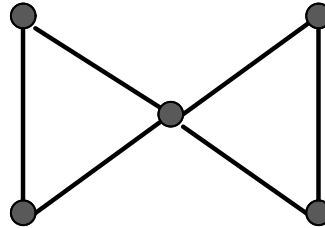
Given a graph  $G = (V, E)$ , a *Hamiltonian cycle* in  $G$  is a path in the graph, starting and ending at the same node, such that every node in  $V$  appears on the cycle *exactly once*.

A graph is called *Hamiltonian* if it contains a Hamiltonian cycle.

The language **HAM** is the set of encodings of Hamiltonian graphs.

Is **HAM**  $\in P$ ?

## Examples



The first of these graphs is not Hamiltonian, but the second one is.