

# The Limits of Computing



# Predicting Running Time of a Program

Suppose 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?

# Classifying Problems

- Can you say if your program will terminate and return a result?
- Can you say anything about how difficult the problem that you are trying to solve with your program is?

# Complexity and Computability Theories

- Computer scientists are interested in measuring “**how hard/difficult**” computational problems are in order to understand **how much time, or some other resource such as memory**, is needed to solve it.
- What problems **can or cannot be solved** by mechanical computation? Can we categorize problems as “easy”, “hard”, or “impossible”?

# Can we **categorize** problems?

there exists a mechanical procedure (i.e. program or algorithm) that can solve it in a reasonable amount of time.

Easy  
(tractable)

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Hard  
(intractable)

Impossible  
(uncomputable)

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it is probably impossible to solve no matter how much time we are willing to use.

# 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 **probably impossible** to solve no matter how much time we are willing to use.



How can we prove something like that?

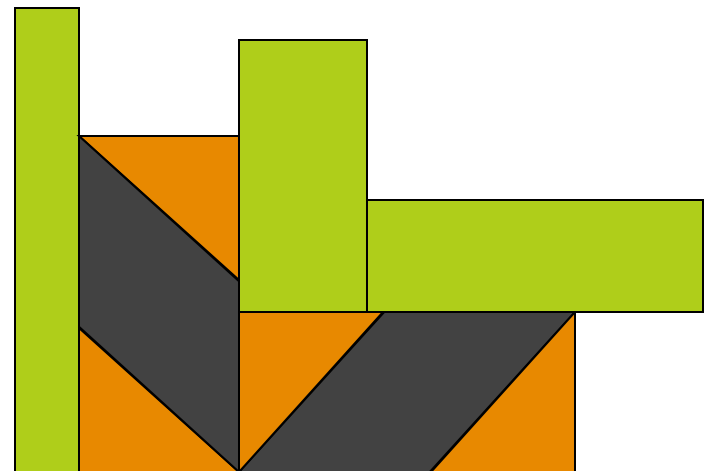
# Why Study Impossibility?

- ▣ Practical: If we know that a problem is unsolvable we know that we need to simplify or modify the problem.
- ▣ Cultural: Gain perspective on computation.

# Decision Problems

# 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?



# Decision Problem 1: The Monkey Puzzle

# The Monkey Puzzle

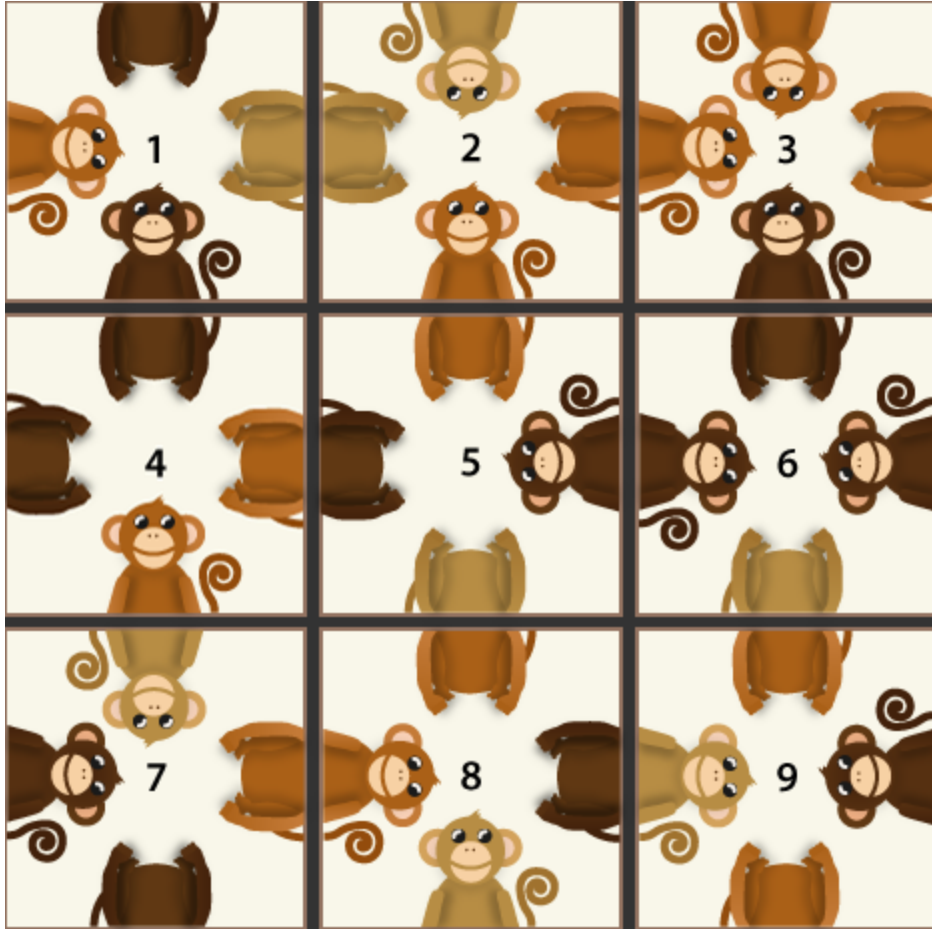


- Given:
  - A set of  $n$  square cards whose sides are imprinted with the upper and lower halves of colored monkeys.
  - $n$  is a perfect square number, such that  $n = m^2$ .
  - Cards cannot be rotated.
  - We don't care about the monkeys along the outside edge

decision problem

- Problem:
  - Does there exist an arrangement of the  $n$  cards in an  $m \times m$  grid** 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?



# 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.

# Analysis

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

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

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

1	2	3
4	5	6
7	8	9

7 card choices for cell 3

8 card choices for cell 2

9 card choices for cell 1

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 a microsecond ( $\mu\text{s}$ ), that is,  
analyze 1 million arrangements in one second :

<u><math>n</math></u>	<u>Time to analyze all arrangements</u>
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 13.772 billion years (plus minus 59 million years)*

# Summary

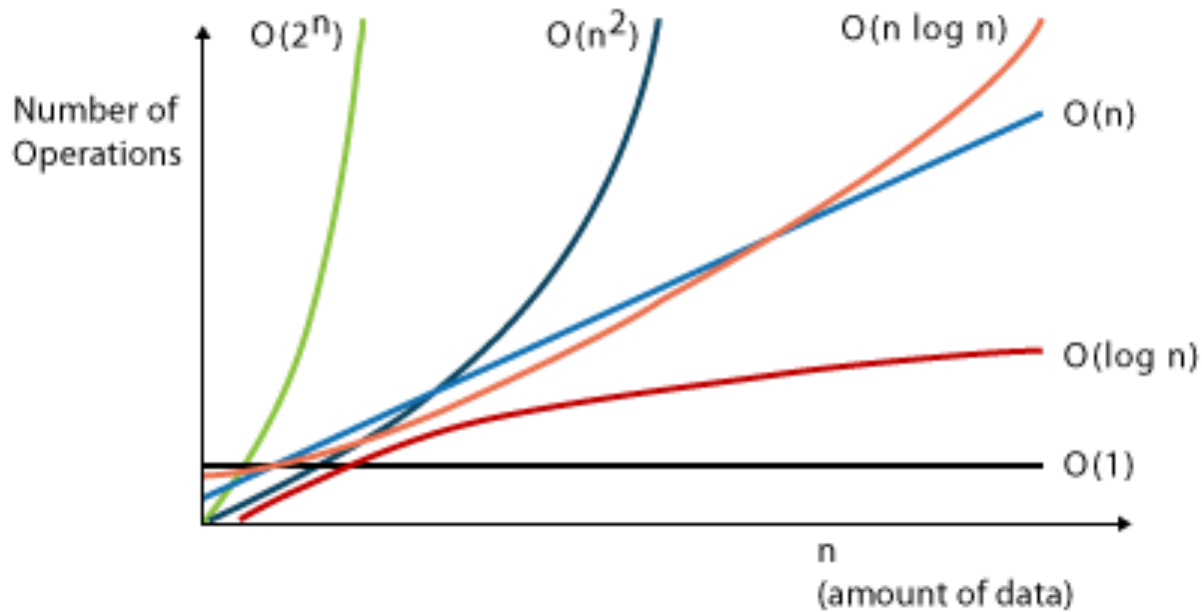
- Monkey Puzzle
  - Complexity  $n!$
  - Solvable? Yes?
  - Easy? No (hard, intractable)

# Big O notation review + Classifications

# Reviewing the Big O Notation (1)

- We use the 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

# Quiz on Big O

- What is the order of complexity in big O for the following descriptions
  - 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 as much, 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  
 $O(\log n)$



# Classifying Problems

- The field of computational complexity categorizes decision problems by how hard they are to solve.
- “Hard“ in this sense, is described in terms of the computational resources needed by the most efficient algorithm that is known to solve the problem.

# 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, easy, **tractable**
- All other algorithms are **super-polynomial-time** algorithms.
  - $O(2^n)$ ,  $O(n^n)$ ,  $O(n!)$
  - Unreasonable, hard, **intractable**

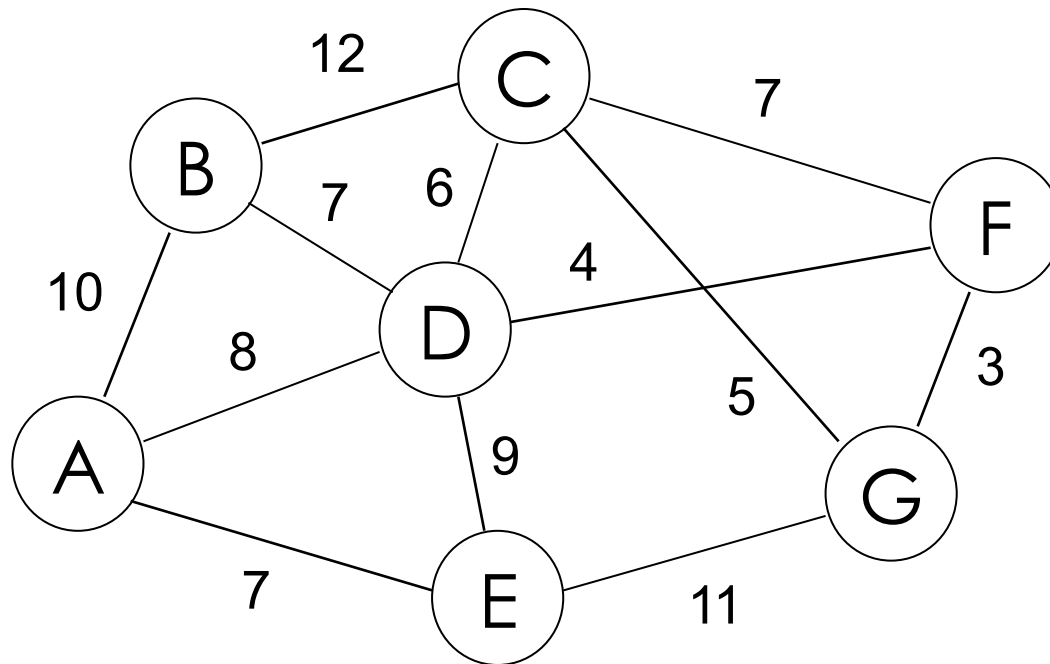
\*A **polynomial** is an expression consisting of variables and coefficients that involves only the operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and non-negative integer exponents.



# Decision Problem 2: Traveling Salesperson



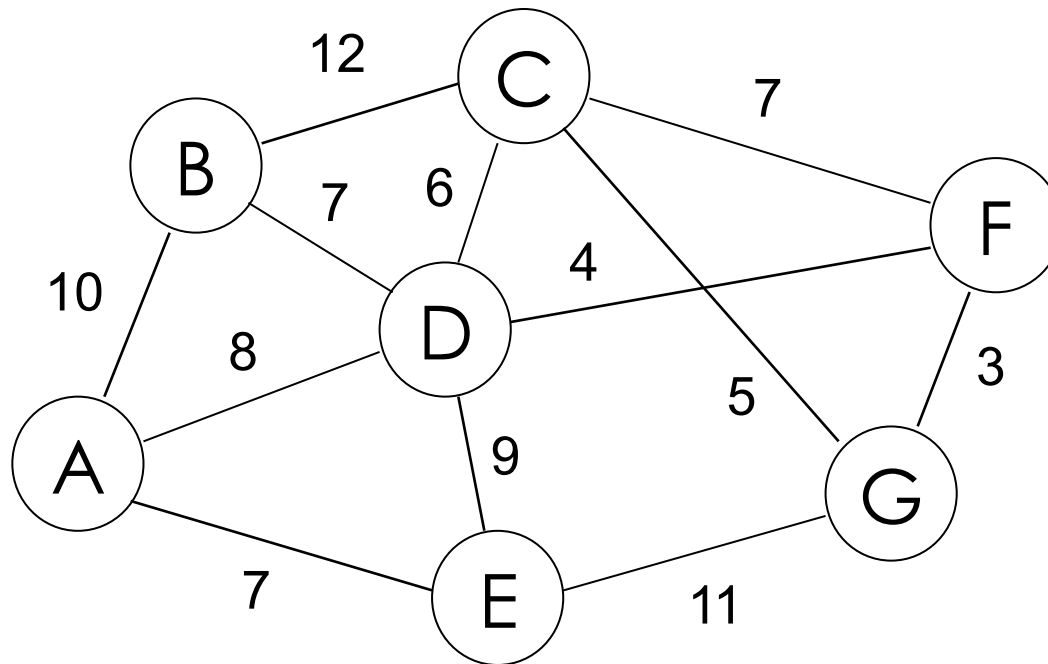
# Traveling Salesperson



# Traveling Salesperson

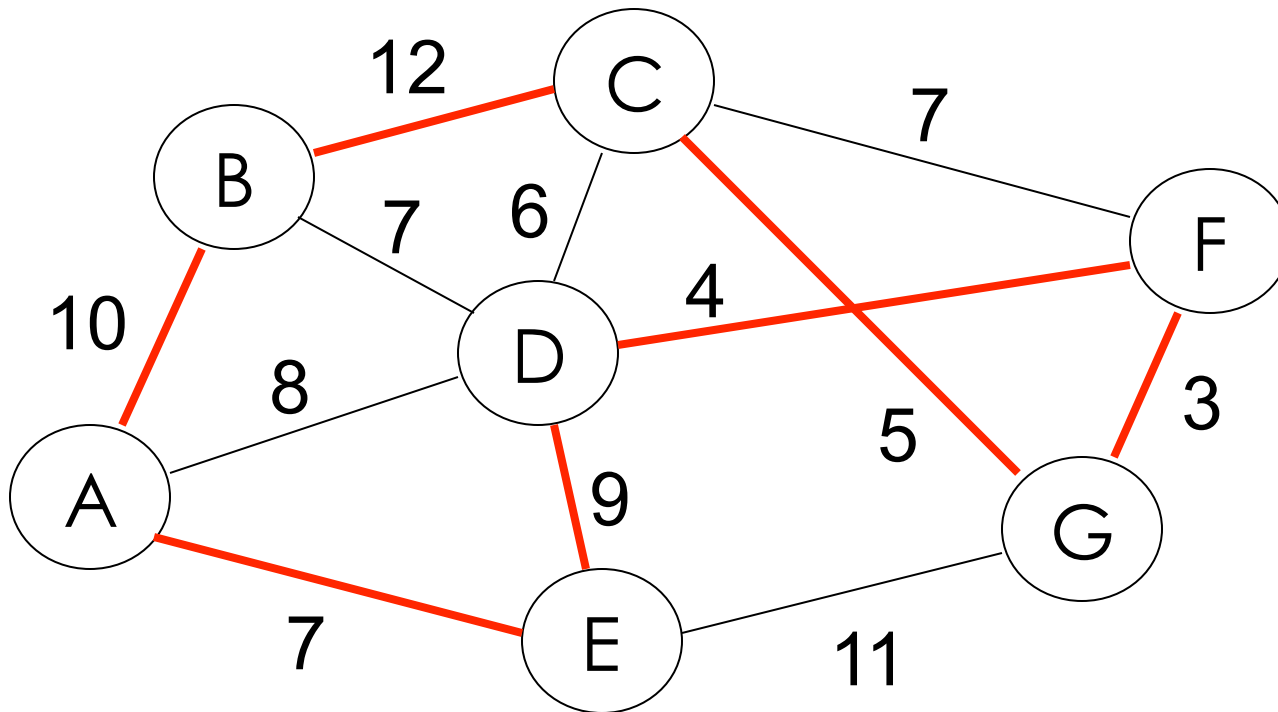
- Given: a weighted graph of
  - nodes representing cities and
  - edges representing flight paths (weights represent cost)
- Is there a route that takes the salesperson through every city and back to the starting city with cost no more than  $k$ ?
  - The salesperson can visit a city only once (except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



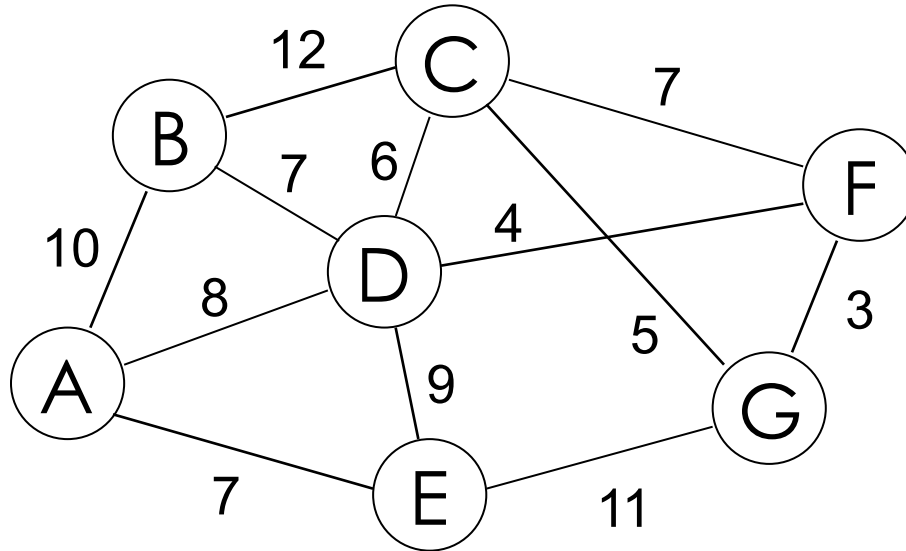
# Analysis

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  - ...
- Worst-case complexity:            $O(n!)$

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

*Exponential complexity (super-polynomial time) → Intractable (hard!)*

# 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  $O(n!)$

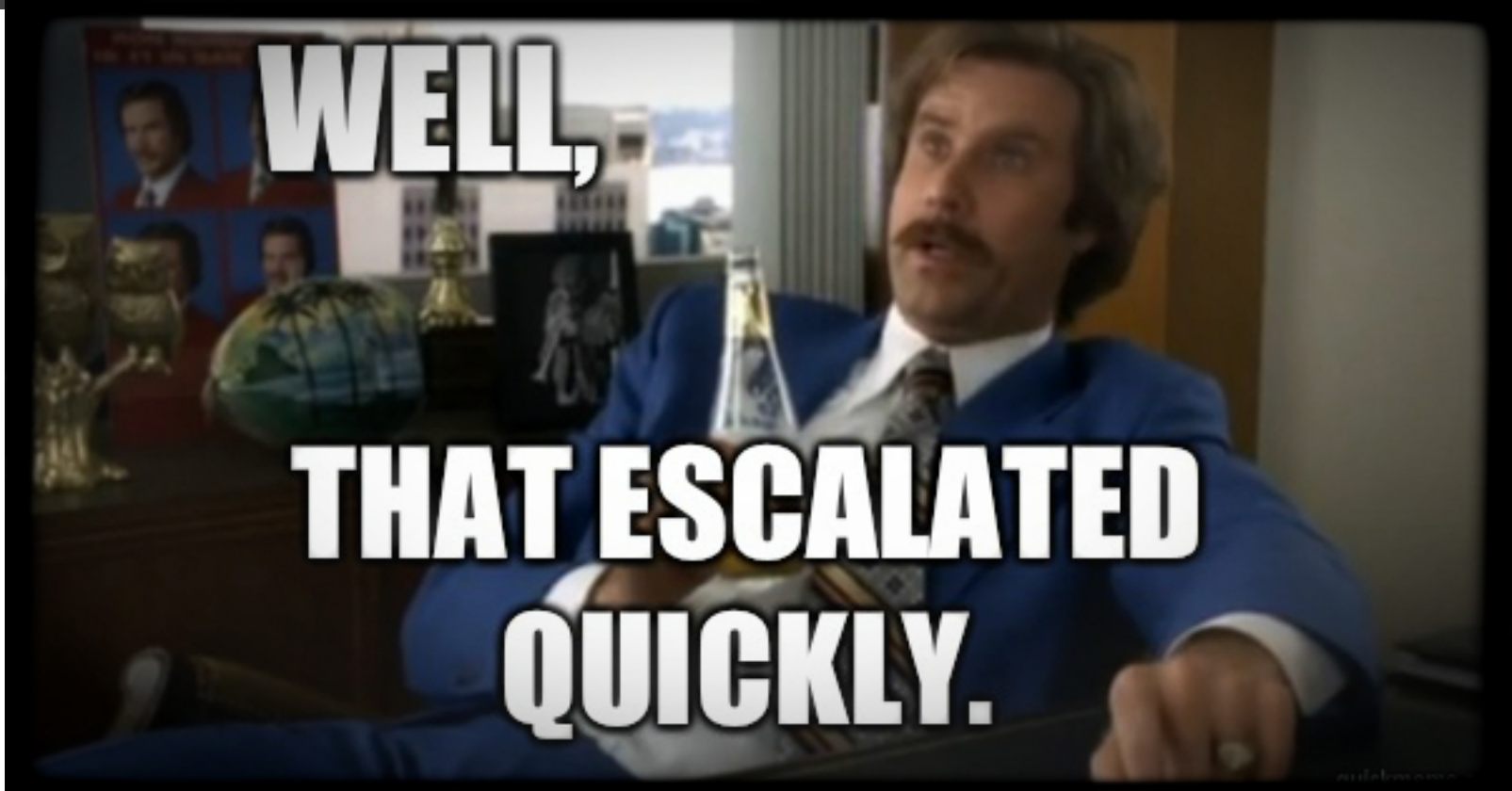
# Polynomial vs. Exponential Growth

Assumption: Computer can perform one billion operations for second

<u>Running Time</u>	<u>Size n = 10</u>	<u>Size n = 20</u>	<u>Size n = 30</u>	<u>Size n = 40</u>
n	0.00000001	0.00000002	0.00000003	0.00000004 sec.
n <sup>2</sup>	0.00000010	0.00000040	0.00000090	0.00000160 sec.
n <sup>3</sup>	0.00000100	0.00000800	0.00002700	0.00006400 sec.
n <sup>5</sup>	0.00010000	0.00320000	0.02430000	0.10240000 sec.
n!	0.0036	77.1 years	8400 trillion years	2.5 * 10 <sup>31</sup> Years

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

# Polynomial vs. Exponential Growth

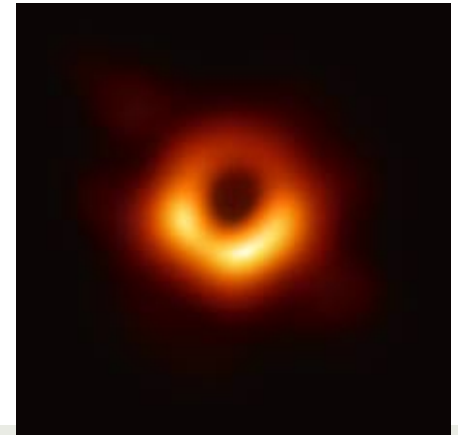


$n!$  → 0.0036 → 77.1 years → 8400 trillion years →  $2.5 * 10^{31}$  Years

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

# The Big Picture

- Intractable (hard) problems are solvable if the amount of data ( $n$ ) that we are processing is small.
- But if  $n$  is not small, then the amount of computation grows exponentially and the solutions quickly become out of our reach.
- Computers can solve these problems if  $n$  is not small, but it will take far too long for the result to be generated.
  - We would be long gone before the result is computed.



# Summary

- For many interesting problems naïve algorithms rely on exhaustive search
  - Check all possible answers
  - Exponential running time (intractable)
- We need smarter algorithms for them to be practical (avoid exhaustive search)

# Dealing with Intractability

- ▣ Restrict the problem, exploiting properties of specific instances of the problem.
- ▣ Trade correctness with tractability.
  - ▣ Go for approximate solutions.
  - ▣ Get correct result with some probability.

# Decision Problem 3: Satisfiability



# 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  $\underline{\quad} 2^n$  assignments

# Verifiability

- No known tractable algorithm to decide, however it is easy to verify a solution.

# Decision Problems

- We have seen 3 examples of decision problems with simple brute-force algorithms that are intractable.
  - The Monkey Puzzle  $O(n!)$
  - Traveling Salesperson  $O(n!)$
  - Satisfiability  $O(2^n)$

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.

# Are These Problems Tractable?

- For any one of the intractable problems we saw, is there a single tractable (polynomial) algorithm to **solve any instance of the problem?**

Haven't been found so far.

- Possible reasons:
  - These problems have undiscovered polynomial-time solutions.
  - These problems are intrinsically difficult – we cannot hope to find polynomial solutions.
- Important discovery: Complexities of some of these problems are linked. If we can solve one, we can solve the other problems in that class.

P? NP?

# P and NP

Polynomial  
decidability

The class **P** consists of all those decision problems that can be **solved** in an amount of time that is polynomial in the size of the input:  $O(1)$ ,  $O(\log n)$ ,  $O(n)$ ,  $O(n^2)$ ,  $O(n^3)$

*N in NP comes from nondeterministic*



Polynomial  
verifiability

The class **NP** consists of all those decision problems whose solutions can be **verified** in polynomial time given the right information

# Decidability vs. Verifiability

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

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

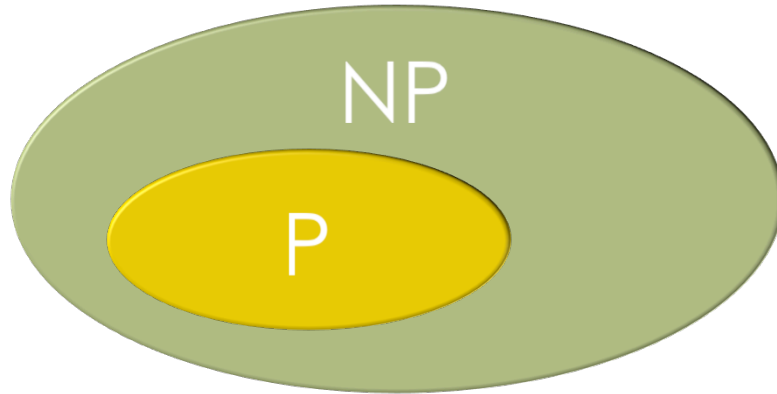
# Example

	Verifiable in Polynomial Time	<b>NP</b>	Solvable in Polynomial Time	<b>P</b>
	Given an integer list, is 10 in the list?	<input type="button" value="YES"/>		<input type="button" value="YES"/>
Monkey Puzzle	<input type="button" value="YES"/>		<input type="button" value="?"/>	
Traveling Salesperson	<input type="button" value="YES"/>		<input type="button" value="?"/>	

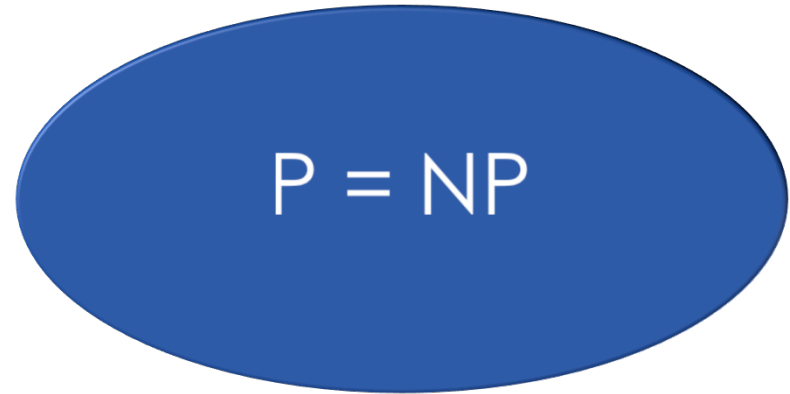
- If a problem is in **P**, it must also be in **NP**.
- If a problem is in **NP**, is it also in **P**?



# 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 (NP) can be solved in polynomial time.



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

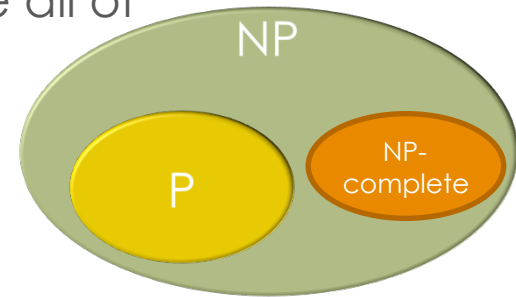
*([http://www.claymath.org/millennium/P\\_vs\\_NP/](http://www.claymath.org/millennium/P_vs_NP/))*

# 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  $NP = P$ .

# Some Remarks on NP-Completeness

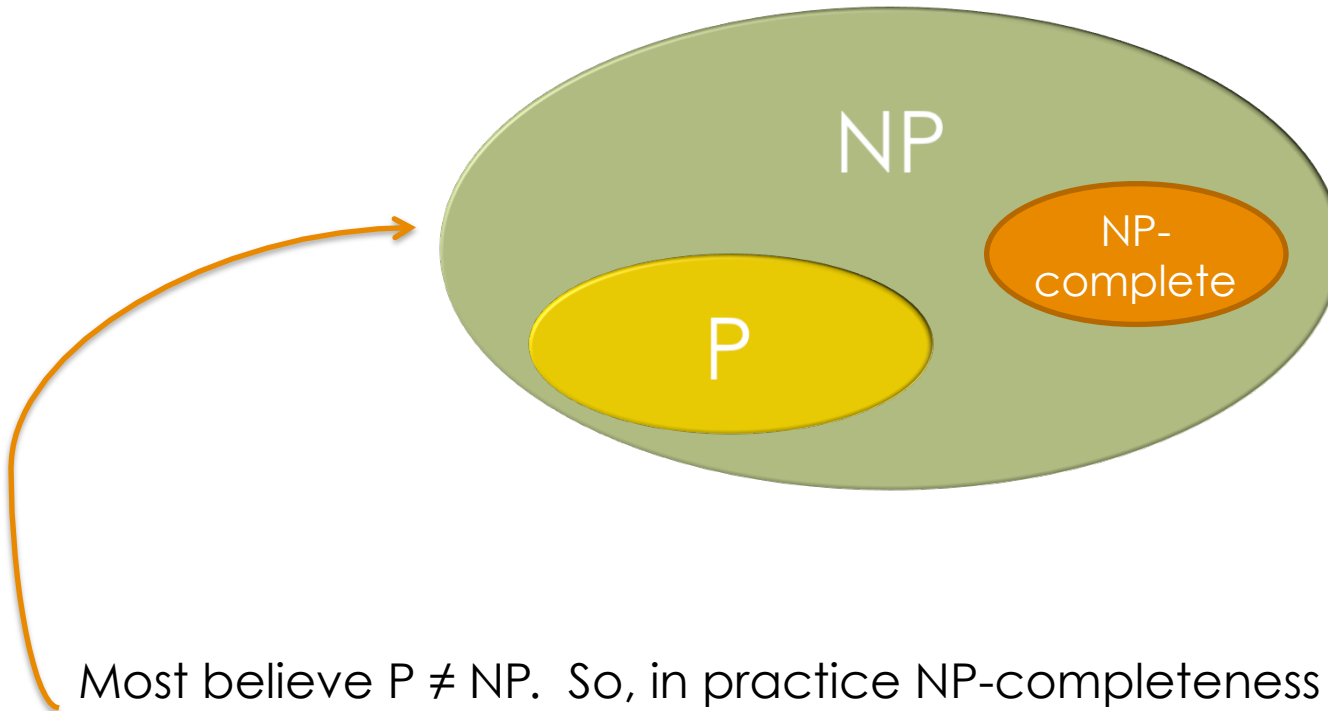
- The class **NP-Complete** consists of all those problems in NP that are least likely to be in P.
  - Monkey puzzle, Traveling salesperson, and Satisfiability are all in NP-Complete.
- Every problem in NP-Complete can be transformed to another problem in NP-Complete (using reduction).
  - If there were some way to solve one of these problems in polynomial time, we should be able to solve all of these problems in polynomial time.



Informally, NP-complete problems are the hardest problems in NP.

# 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 problem.** 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?

# Halting

Impossible, uncomputable

# What's Next?

- Are all computational problems solvable by computer?
  - NO!

There are some that we can't solve no matter how much time we give the computer, no matter how powerful the computer is.

# 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 (hint: Can never 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
  - an input to that program
- **Output:**
  - True, if evaluating the input program would ever finish
  - False, otherwise

# Example

- Suppose we had a function `halts` that solves the Halting Problem
- Given the functions below

halts on  
all inputs

```
def add(x, y):  
    return x + y
```

```
def loop():  
    while True:  
        pass
```

loops  
indefinitely

```
halts(`add(10,15)`)
```

returns True

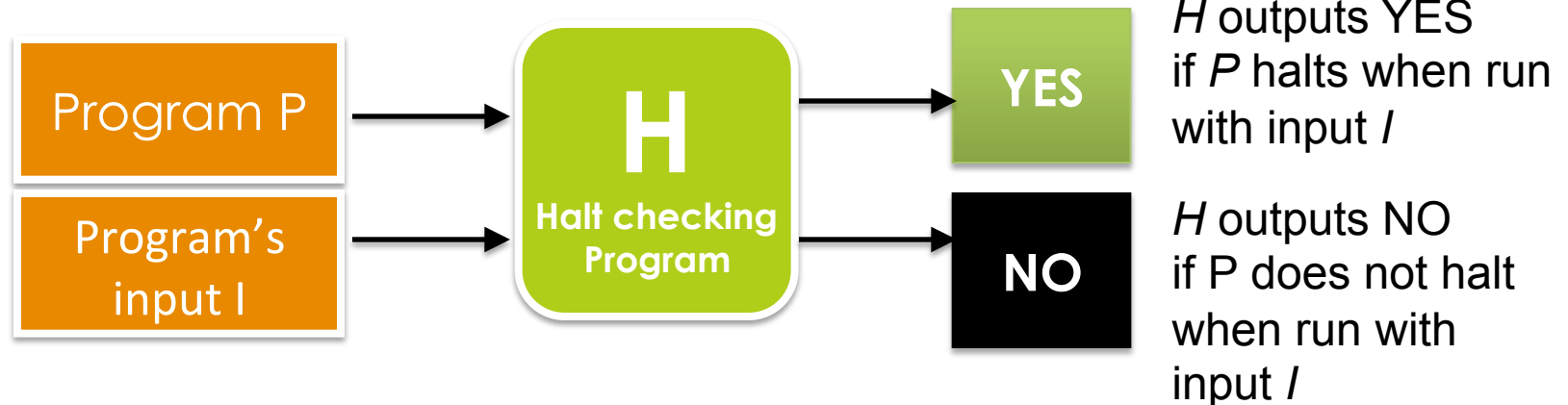
```
halts(`loop()`)
```

returns False

# 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  $I$ .



# Implement a Halt Checker?

- Turing showed (by contradiction)
  - `halts` is noncomputable
  - `halts` function cannot exist.

# Why Is Halting Problem Special?

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



# Living with Noncomputable Functions

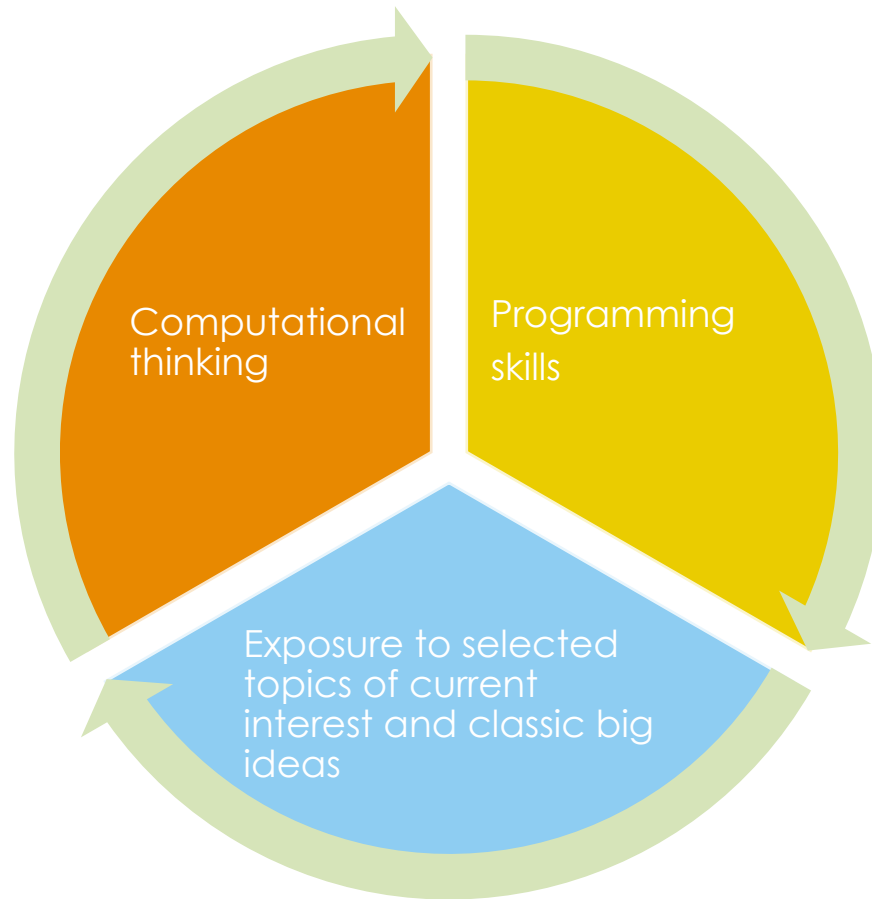
- Noncomputable (undecidable, unsolveable) means there is no procedure (algorithm) that
  1. Always terminates
  2. Always give the correct answer
- We should give up either one of these conditions
  - We usually prefer to give up 2 (correctness in all cases)
  - For example, a virus detection software cannot detect if a program is a virus for all possible programs. To be computable, they need to give up correctness for some cases.

# Summary: What Should You Know?

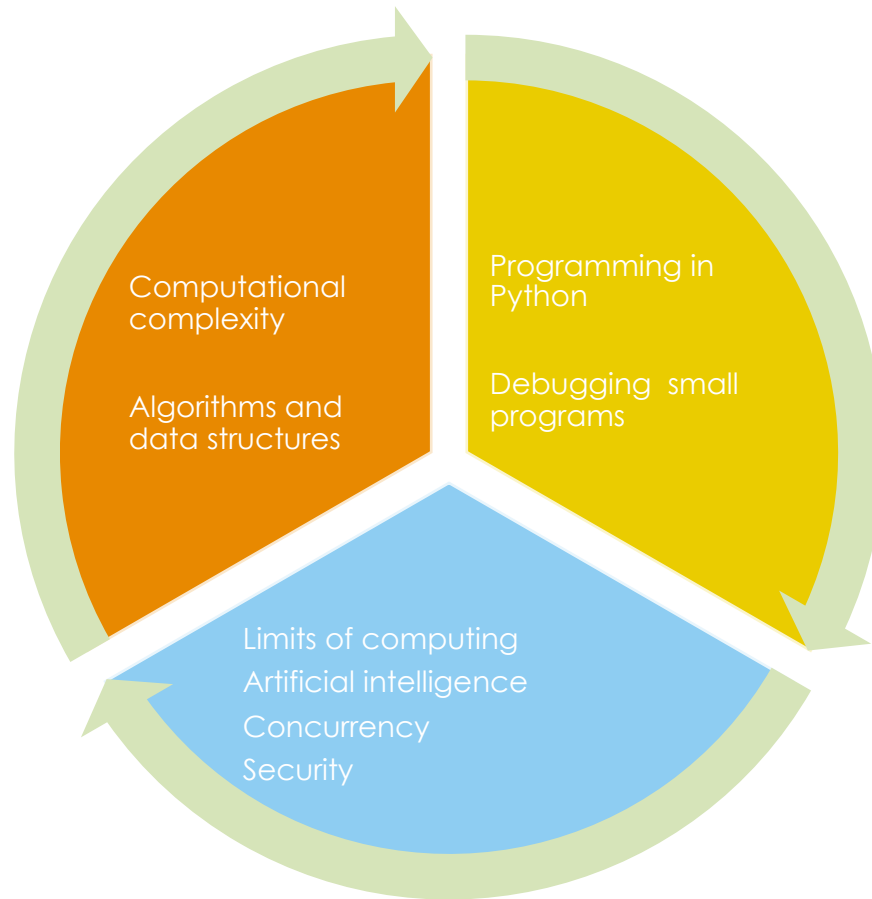
- The fact that there are limits to what we can compute and what we can compute efficiently all using a mechanical procedure (algorithm) .
  - What do we mean when we call a problem tractable/intractable?
  - What do we mean when we call a problem solveable (i.e. computable, decidable) vs. unsolveable (noncomputable, undecidable)?
- What the question P vs. NP is about.
- Names of Some NP-complete problems and amount of 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



# Course Coverage



# 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.

# Thursday

- Review Session
- Optional, but come with questions!
- I will post a list of topics on Piazza/Canvas
- For exam: Pin down Friday 12-3PM
  - Place TBD
  - Those of you with conflicts we will accommodate somehow, please stay tuned!