## Overview of the Lectures

- Basics of Complexity Theory.
- The Complexity Class P.
- Nondeterminism and Class NP.
- NP-complete Problems and Polynomial Reductions.
- Optimization Problems and NP-hardness.
- How to deal with Difficult Problems:
- Approximations.
- Heuristics.


## You have sequenced your genome what do you do with it?

This is known as genome analysis or sequence analysis.
At present, most of bioinformatics is concerned with sequence analysis. Here are some of the questions that one might want to answer:

- gene finding
- search a given fragment
- finding repetitions and regularities
- protein 3D structure prediction
- gene function prediction (homology search)
- prediction of important sites in proteins (highly conserved)
- reconstruction of phylogeny trees (computing evolutionary distance)


## Example: methods for reconstruction of phylogenies

- Maximum parsimony: Given a tree, count the number of character changes that must have occurred during evolution if the tree is correct. The most parsimonious tree is the one that postulates the fewest such changes among all possible trees.
- Maximum likelihood: Given a tree and a model of molecular evolution, compute the probability that the sequences actually observed in the extant species have evolved. The maximum likelihood tree is the one for which this probability is largest among all possible trees.


## Problem example 1

## THE MAXIMUM PARSIMONY PROBLEM

- INPUT: A character matrix C (m rows, one per each species, and n columns, one per each character: $\mathrm{C}[\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{j}]$ describes the values of character j in specie i).
- OUTPUT: The most parsimonious tree among all possible trees (with m leaves and with one character change in each branch).


## Example the maximum parsimony problem

- INPUT:

|  | ALI | CODA |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Uomo | No | No |
| Rondine | Si | Si |
| Topo | No | Si |

- OUTPUT:



## Problem example 2

## PROBLEM OF SEARCHING A PATTERN IN A (DB OF) SEQUENCE(S)

- INPUT: a (set of) sequence(s) S, a fragment f.
- OUTPUT: All positions in S in which foccurs.


## Example

- INPUT: f= GATT

S=TCGATCGTCAGTAACACATACATGAAGACATAGCATAGCATAG CATAGCAGTACAGTACGATTGACTGCTAGCTGTACGATAGTCAGT CTCCTAGACAGATAGC/TGCAGTGGAGATTTTCCAAGTCAAATCA
. OUTPUT:
p1
p2

## Problem example 3

## PROBLEM OF SEARCHING AN APPROXIMATED PATTERN IN A DB OF SEQUENCES

- INPUT: a (set of) sequence(s) $S$, a fragment $f$, a maximum distance $d$.
- OUTPUT: All positions in S in which f d-approximatively occurs.


## Example

- INPUT: f= GATT, maximum Hamming distance (number of substitutions) $d=1$,

S=TCGATCGTCAGTAACACATACATGAAGACATAGCATAGCATAGCATA GCAGTACAGTACGATTGACTGCTAGCTGTACGATAGTCAGTCTCCTAGA CAGATAGCATGC GTG FAGATTTTCCAAGTC AATCA

- OU Put:
p5 p1



## Problem example 4

## PROBLEM OF MOTIFS INFERENCE

- INPUT: A set of $n$ sequences $s 1$, s2, ..., sn, a length $L$, a quorum q.
- OUTPUT: All fragments of length $L$ that occur in at least $q$ of the $n$ sequences.


## Example motifs inference

- INPUT: L=6, $q=3$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { s1=TCGATCGTCAGTAACACATACATGAAGACATAGCATAGCCAGT } \\
& \text { s2=ACAGTACGAACGTCTGCTAGCTGTACGATCGTCAGTCTCCTAG } \\
& \text { s3=ATGCAGTGGAGATCGTCCAAGTCAATGACTGACCGTTACATCA }
\end{aligned}
$$

- OUTPUT: m=GATCGT


## Complexity VS Computability

Computational Problems: Problems formulated in a mathematical way, and for which we seek an algorithmical solution.| computability theory

Non Computable Problems
Computable Problems


## Complexity Theory

- The theory of Computational Complexity:
- Classification of problems according to their difficulty.
- Worst case complexity of the best algorithm.
- Analisys of tractability of problems according to the availability of resources.


## Complexity of a Problem

- The computational (space or time) cost of an algorithm that solves a given problem:
- is expressed in terms of the size of the problem itself.
- represents an upper bound to the complexity of the problem: definitely it can be solved in that time/space, but maybe there is a better way...
- The necessary resources to solve a problem represent a lower bound to the complexity of the problem: it cannot be done better/faster than that...
- The computational complexity of a problem is determined when the upper bound equals the lower bound.


## An example

- Problem: Give me the sum of n given numbers.
- Problem's size: n.
- Problem's lower bound: n (at least, I have to read all the numbers).
- Problem's upper bound:
- The algorithm that visits each number once and updates a variable with the partial sum requires ("order of") n operations.
- The upper bound (given from the algorithm above) is $n$.
- Problem's time complexity: $n$.
[ ...in this case we say "linear in the input size"...]


## Cost of an algorithm

- The evaluation of the complexity of an algorithm (hence of a problem), depends from two factors:
- The adopted computation model;
- The cost measure.
- The computational model must be simple and it should not be too far from real machines: the Turing Machine model (taking other models there is a constant multiplicative factor).
- The cost measure for time is "one operation" (and not the actual time spent that depends from technology) making the uniform cost assumption.
- Actually not all objects have the same size.
- Actually not all memory access have the same cost.
- The cost measure for space is a byte.


## Exercise

- Give me the (lower bound and the upper bound of) the complexity of the following problems:
- 1. Given an array A of $n$ distinct integers, tell whether there exists an $i$ such that $i=A[i]$.
- 2. Same as above but $A$ is sorted.
- 3. Same as above but A has only positive numbers.


## Exercise: solution

- 1. Given an array A of $n$ distinct integers, tell whether there exists an $i$ such that $i=A[i]$.
- Upper and lower bound is $n$.
- 2. Same as above but A is sorted.
- Log(n) cause I can do binary search:
- If i < A[i] I only look left.
- If $i>A[i]$ I only look right.
- 3. Same as above but A has only positive numbers.
- $\mathrm{O}(1)$ cause I just look $\mathrm{A}[1]$ : if $\mathrm{A}[1]=1$ then yes else no.


## Asyntotic complexity

- $\quad \Theta(g(n))$ is the set of all functions $f(n)$ for which there exist three positive constant numbers $c 1, c 2$, and $n 0$ such that $\mathrm{c} 1 \mathrm{~g}(\mathrm{n}) \leq \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n}) \leq \mathrm{c} 2 \mathrm{~g}(\mathrm{n})$ for all $\mathrm{n} \geq \mathrm{n} 0$.
$\ldots$ they are functions that behave like $g(n) \ldots$
- $O(g(n))$ is the set of all functions $f(n)$ for which there exist two positive constant numbers $c$ and $n 0$ such that $f(n) \leq c g(n)$ for all $n \geq n 0$.
$\ldots$ they are functions that behave at worst like $g(n) \ldots$
- $\quad \Omega(\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{n}))$ is the set of all functions $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n})$ for which there exist two positive constant numvers c and n 0 such that $\mathrm{c} g(\mathrm{n}) \leq \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n})$ for all $\mathrm{n} \geq \mathrm{n} 0$.
$\ldots$ they are functions that behave at best like $g(n) \ldots$
- We have that $f(n)=\Theta(g(n))$ if and only if $f(n)=\Omega(g(n))$ and $f(n)=O(n)$.


## Asyntotic complexity

- The speed of an algorithm is evaluated with respect to its asyntotic behaviour, that is, when the problem's size tends to infinity:
- A good asyntotic behaviour guarantees that with the growth of the problem's size, we have a reasonable growth of the time cost.
- On the other hand, a bad asyntotic behaviour makes the algorithms applicable to small size instances only.


## Some genome's sizes.

- HIV2 virus
- Mycoplasma genitalis

$$
\begin{gathered}
9671 \mathrm{bp} \\
5.8 \cdot 10^{5} \mathrm{bp} \\
1.83 \cdot 10^{6} \mathrm{bp} \\
1.21 \cdot 10^{7} \mathrm{bp} \\
10^{8} \mathrm{bp} \\
1.65 \cdot 10^{8} \mathrm{bp} \\
3.14 \cdot 10^{9} \mathrm{bp} \\
8 \cdot 10^{10} \mathrm{bp} \\
6.7 \cdot 10^{11} \mathrm{bp}
\end{gathered}
$$

- Haemophilus influenzae
- Saccharomyces cerevisiae
- Caenorhabditis elegans
- Drosophila melanogaster
- Homo sapiens
- Some amphibians
- Amoeba dubia


## Polynomial Algorithms

- A general agreement is to classify an algorithm as efficient or inefficient depending on whether its worst case execution time is polynomial or exponential wrt the problem's size.
- For example, given an input size $n$, we have that $T(n)=n^{2}+n \in$ $O\left(n^{2}\right)$ is polynomial and $T(n)=c^{n}$ is exponential.

| $n$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | $\ldots$ | 20 | $\ldots$ | 50 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $n^{2}$ | 1 | 4 | 9 | $\ldots$ | 400 | $\ldots$ | 2500 |
| $2^{\mathrm{n}}$ | 2 | 4 | 8 | $\ldots$ | 1048576 | $\ldots$ | 1073741824 |

## The computational challenge for reconstruction of phylogenies

Maximum parsimony and maximum likelihood require us to consider all possible trees.

Given $n$ species, there are $(2 n-3)!/\left[2^{n-2}(n-2)!\right]$ distinct possible (rooted) trees for depicting the phylogenetic relationship between these species.

For $n=10$, this number is $34,459,425$; for $n=15$ it is already equal to $213,458,046,676,875$.

For this problem, the most obvious solution requires then exponential running time.

## Tractability and untractability

- A problem is untractable if it is possible to prove that it does not exist a polynomial time algorithm that solves it.
- A problem is presumibly untractable if there are no known polynomial algorithms that solve it, but its untractability cannot be proved.
- A problem is tractable if it exists a polynomial algorithm that solves it.


## Can technology and parallelism help?

- A processor $k$ times faster, or
- A k processor machine.
- If $k$ is a constant things do not change.


## Questions

- Is the problem "Give me the maximum among $n$ given numbers" tractable?
- Is the problem "Give me all distinct permutation of $n$ given numbers" tractable?
- Is the problem "Give me the number of all distinct permutations of n given number" tractable?


## Examples

- The problem of giving all permutations of $n$ numbers is exponential and thus untractable.
- Many exponential problems are such because its solutions are algorithms that require an exhaustive search.
- The exhaustive search consists of the generation of all configurations that are (candidate to be) solutions.
- The problem of summing $n$ given number is linear and thus tractable.


## The Hamiltonian Path Problem

INPUT:
OUTPUT:

An oriented graph $G=(V, A)$ with $n$ nodes.
YES if it exists a path that visits each node exactly once; NO otherwise.


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An oriented graph $G=(\mathrm{V}, \mathrm{A})$ with n nodes.
YES if it exists a path that visits each node exactly once; NO otherwise.

There is no known polynomial algorithm for HPP !!!

## HPP is presumibly untractable

## Non determinism

A non deterministic computation is a computation that at each step is able to consider simultaneously all possible alternative choices.


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## Decision Problems

- A decision problem is a problem whose solution is either YES or NO.
- The HPP is a decision problem.
- "Is the sum of these n numbers lower than k ?" is a decision problem.
- An optimization problem is a problem whose solution is a value (optimal according to a function to maximize or minimize).
- Finding a (Hamiltonian) path of minimun cost on a weighted graph is an optimization problem.
- Telling whether there is an Hamiltonian path of cost lower than k is not an optimization problem.


## The classes P and NP

- P is the class of all decision problems that admit a deterministic polynomial solution.
- "Is the sum of these $n$ numbers < $k$ ?" $\in P$.
- NP is the class of all decision problem that admit a nondeterministic polynomial solution.
- $\mathrm{HPP} \in \mathrm{NP}$.
- Does HPP belong to P?
- $\mathrm{P} \subseteq \mathrm{NP}$.


## Polynomial check

Nobody knows a polynomial deterministic algorithm to find an HP


Assume I give you a path: 0,1,2,3,4,5,6.

Can you check in polynomial time whether it is a HP ?

## The class NP: alternative definition

- NP is the class of the decision problems that admit a polynomial check for the solutions.
- Again, it's clear that $P \subseteq$ NP.
- $\mathrm{P} \neq \mathrm{NP} ?$
- Is checking easier than finding?

Presumibly yes: problems in NP \P are assumed untractable

## Exercise

- Are the following problems in NP?
- Given a graph tell me whether there exists a clique.
- Given a graph tell me the size of the biggest clique.
- SAT.
- KNAPSACK.
- Are these two sequences "similar" (i.e. Their edit distance is at most d)?
- What is the Hamming distance of these two sequences?


## NP \P



- HPP is a reasonable candidate. Let's put it there.
- What else?.

