

The P vs NP Problem

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1 Formal Definition of Complexity Classes P and NP

The complexity class P (Polynomial time) consists of all decision problems that can be solved by a deterministic Turing machine in polynomial time with respect to the input size. That is, there exists a deterministic algorithm that verifies the truth or falsity of the answer in on the order of n^k steps for some fixed k . For example, checking whether an integer is a perfect square can be done efficiently using numerical methods (e.g., Newton's method) in polynomial time.

Conversely, the class NP (Nondeterministic Polynomial time) is the set of decision problems whose solutions can be verified in polynomial time. Formally, a language L is in NP if there exists a polynomial-time computable relation R such that

$$w \in L \iff \exists y \quad (|y| \leq |w|^k) \text{ and } R(w, y) = \text{true}.$$

In other words, given a certificate y , one can check in polynomial time that y indeed proves that w belongs to L . For instance, verifying that a number a is composite can be done quickly if provided a nontrivial divisor b as a certificate: if $1 < b < a$ and $b \mid a$, then a is composite. With this definition it is clear that $P \subseteq NP$, since any deterministic polynomial-time algorithm (for deciding L) can be viewed as a polynomial-time verifier that ignores the certificate. The distinction lies in solution discovery: for P we can find a solution deterministically in polynomial time, whereas for NP we only know we can verify a candidate solution in polynomial time, possibly requiring nondeterministic search to find it.

2 The Question “Does $P = NP$?” and Its Importance

The question “Does $P = NP$?” asks whether every problem in NP (easy to verify) is also in P (easy to solve). In other words: if a solution to a problem can be checked quickly, does it imply we can also find it quickly? If $P = NP$, then there exist polynomial-time algorithms for all NP problems, making every NP problem efficiently solvable. Conversely, $P \neq NP$ means there are problems in NP that truly cannot be solved as efficiently as they can be verified.

This question is fundamental to theoretical computer science. P vs NP is considered one of the most important and challenging questions in the field, and is officially one of the seven Millennium Prize Problems of the Clay Mathematics Institute: anyone who proves either $P = NP$ or $P \neq NP$ is awarded USD 1 000 000. Why does it matter? Because the theory of NP-completeness and complexity-based cryptography have grown out of this question. If $P \neq NP$, then the security assumptions underlying many modern cryptosystems (which rely on NP-hardness) are justified. If $P = NP$, the impact would be revolutionary: virtually all hard computational tasks—from combinatorial optimization to theorem proving—would become efficiently solvable. As Fortnow notes, if $P = NP$ then “learning would become easy—near-perfect visual recognition, automatic translation, and almost-perfect weather prediction would be easy problems.” Because of its vast practical and theoretical stakes—ranging from data security to artificial intelligence—the P vs NP question sits at the very core of theoretical computer science.

3 Historical Background of the P vs NP Problem

The history of P vs NP begins with informal ideas of hard vs checkable problems. Key milestones include:

- **1956:** Kurt Gödel, in a letter to von Neumann, informally mentioned the efficient proof search problem, anticipating the core of P vs NP, though no formal definitions existed at the time.
- **1971:** Stephen Cook published the landmark paper “The Complexity of Theorem Proving Procedures” at STOC, formulating the P vs NP question and proving that the Boolean satisfiability problem (SAT) is NP-complete. Thus Cook showed that every problem in NP can be polynomially reduced

to SAT, and suggested that tautology testing (TAUT) likely cannot be done in polynomial time, making it a candidate for $P \neq NP$.

- **1972:** Richard Karp extended Cook’s result by proving 21 classical combinatorial problems (such as CLIQUE, 3-Coloring, and the Traveling Salesman Decision variant) are NP-complete. Karp also introduced the standard notation “P” and “NP” and the definition of NP-completeness used today.
- **1973:** Leonid Levin (in the Soviet Union) independently arrived at similar results by formalizing a “universal search problem” and demonstrating six NP-complete examples, including SAT. Cook–Levin’s theorem thus credits both Cook and Levin.
- **1979:** Michael Garey and David Johnson published *Computers and Intractability*, a classic text compiling hundreds of NP-complete problems and explaining polynomial-time reductions, cementing the NP-completeness framework in computer science.
- **2000:** The Clay Mathematics Institute designated P vs NP as one of its Millennium Prize Problems, offering a \$1 000 000 prize. Since then dozens of proposed proofs (for both $P = NP$ and $P \neq NP$) have surfaced, none accepted by the community.

4 Implications if $P = NP$ or $P \neq NP$

The consequences of either answer are profound across cryptography, optimization, and artificial intelligence:

- **If $P = NP$:** Nearly every NP-complete problem would admit a polynomial-time algorithm. As a result:
 - *Cryptography overhauled:* One-way functions would not exist, undermining schemes like RSA and elliptic-curve cryptography that rely on the hardness of factoring or discrete logarithms.
 - *Optimization revolutionized:* All combinatorial optimization tasks—scheduling, shortest paths in general graphs, integer programming—would be solvable efficiently, replacing heuristic methods.
 - *Artificial intelligence transformed:* Machine learning and AI tasks that now require complex heuristics would become easy. As Scott

Aaronson (via Fortnow) observes, “learning would become easy—near-perfect image recognition, language translation, and scientific prediction would be trivial.”

- *Industry impact:* Practical problems in planning, resource allocation, and cryptanalysis currently stuck in exponential time would suddenly be tractable, dramatically boosting computational productivity.
- **If $P \neq NP$:** The established hierarchy of difficulty persists. Consequences include:
 - *Cryptographic security:* The assumption $P \neq NP$ underpins one-way functions, justifying modern public-key cryptography.
 - *Optimization challenges:* NP-hard problems require special methods—heuristics, linear relaxations, approximation schemes (PTAS), etc.—fueling research in approximation complexity.
 - *Scientific progress:* We must rely on ad-hoc algorithms and new methods for specific problems. Complexity theory branches like PCP (Probabilistically Checkable Proofs) and hardness of approximation arise from this setting.
 - *Cryptomania world:* As Impagliazzo’s classification suggests, we live in a world where $P \neq NP$, making public-key cryptography feasible—proof that “we can’t have it all”: intractable problems remain hard, giving cryptography its power.

5 Approaches Tried and Their Failures

Many techniques have been attempted to prove or refute P vs NP , each encountering formal barriers:

- **Relativization (Diagonalization):** Classic diagonalization methods from the 1970s are blocked by the Baker–Gill–Solovay result (1975), which shows there exist oracles A and B such that $P^A = NP^A$ but $P^B \neq NP^B$. Thus any proof that “relativizes” (i.e., is oblivious to oracles) cannot resolve P vs NP .
- **Circuit Lower Bounds (Natural Proofs):** In 1994 Razborov and Rudich demonstrated that “natural proofs” for circuit lower bounds against NP-complete functions would break widely believed pseudorandom generators—something considered impossible. This shows that standard combinatorial methods for proving super-polynomial circuit lower bounds are insufficient.

- **Specialized Circuit Complexity:** Efforts to prove super-polynomial circuit lower bounds (e.g. ACC^0 vs NP) have succeeded only for restricted circuit classes (constant-depth circuits), with no general lower bounds for arbitrary circuits.
- **Proof Complexity and Logic:** Approaches using bounded arithmetic and proof systems (Cook–Reckhow, Frege systems, etc.) have not yielded conclusive results. Some independence results show that weak axiomatic theories cannot prove certain statements about P vs NP, but full independence remains unestablished.
- **Other Methods:** Probabilistic complexity (PCP, $\text{IP} = \text{PSPACE}$, etc.) has illuminated NP’s structure but not solved P vs NP. Algebraic approaches (Aaronson–Wigderson) and communication complexity techniques are active research areas but have not broken the core barrier.

Overall, conventional techniques face major obstacles—relativization and natural proofs in particular—indicating that entirely new methods beyond classical theory are required.

6 Supporting Arguments for Each Side

Although no rigorous proof exists, there are informal arguments for both hypotheses:

- **Arguments for $P \neq \text{NP}$:** Most complexity theorists favor $P \neq \text{NP}$, citing:
 - *Lack of algorithms:* After decades of intensive research, no sub-exponential ($2^{o(n)}$) algorithms are known for core NP-complete problems like SAT. Scott Aaronson emphasizes that this long absence of breakthroughs provides empirical evidence for $P \neq \text{NP}$.
 - *Practical experience:* Despite dramatic hardware advances, NP-complete problems remain intractable in the worst case; state-of-the-art SAT solvers and heuristics can be beaten by specially chosen instances.
 - *Proof barriers:* We understand many formal barriers (relativization, natural proofs) that any proof of $P \neq \text{NP}$ must overcome, suggesting deep intrinsic difficulty.
 - *Theoretical consistency:* Advanced results (e.g. PCP theorem) align better with $P \neq \text{NP}$, supporting the prevailing belief.
- **Arguments for $P = \text{NP}$:** There is no strong evidence for $P = \text{NP}$, but some note:

- *Logical possibility*: In the absence of a proof for $P \neq NP$, $P = NP$ cannot be ruled out by logic alone, however surprising it may be.
- *Speculative models*: Some conjecture polynomial algorithms may exist in unexplored computational paradigms or require new algorithmic paradigms—though none are known.
- *Conceptual implications*: If $P = NP$, one pays a high conceptual price: as Fortnow (2009) wrote, “If $P = NP$, learning becomes easy... vision, translation, and AI tasks become trivial,” yet we see no evidence of such phenomena.

7 What Is Needed to Resolve This Problem and Next Steps

Given current barriers, researchers believe entirely new paradigms are required:

- **Non-relativizing, non-natural techniques**: Proofs must avoid relativization and natural proofs. Algebraic methods (Aaronson–Wigderson) and novel circuit communication techniques are under exploration.
- **Geometric Complexity Theory (GCT)**: Mulmuley and Sohoni’s approach uses algebraic geometry and representation theory to prove circuit lower bounds, leveraging deep symmetry properties of algebraic objects.
- **Advanced proof theory**: Investigations into stronger axiomatic systems (bounded arithmetic) and novel logical frameworks aim to express P vs NP in a way that might permit new proof techniques.
- **Experimental/formal methods**: Automatic theorem proving and exhaustive study of NP -complete instances with optimized SAT solvers may reveal hidden structure and inform new conjectures.
- **Interdisciplinary approaches**: Exploring nonstandard physical models (adiabatic quantum computing, topological quantum systems) could offer fresh insights, as might speculative ideas about human brains as NP machines.
- **Further complexity theory**: Strengthening circuit lower bounds for broader classes and studying finer complexity classes (co - NP , PH , BPP) can narrow possibilities and guide proof attempts.

In essence, conventional mathematical machinery is insufficient. A resolution likely demands radical new concepts, tools, and cross-disciplinary collaboration; the road to a comprehensive proof remains long.

8 Evaluation of the Sufficiency of Current Mathematics

There is no consensus on whether modern mathematical foundations suffice. Some view P vs NP like other open problems (Goldbach, Riemann)—solvable by yet-undiscovered standard techniques. In this view the challenge is purely combinatorial (deeper circuit analysis) and does not require new axioms.

However, the formal barriers (relativization, natural proofs) lead many to believe P vs NP may be independent of current axiomatic systems. Scott Aaronson has discussed independence scenarios, suggesting that without new ideas we might need stronger logic or axioms. Razborov has illustrated that absent novel insights, existing methods only “run in circles.” Geometric Complexity Theory itself draws on algebraic geometry far beyond a standard computer science curriculum.

Thus, many researchers believe solving P vs NP could require a massive extension of mathematical theory—new axioms, principles in algebraic symmetry, or formal tools unknown today. Nonetheless, some maintain P vs NP “is no more unapproachable than other natural mathematical questions” and might ultimately be settled within Zermelo–Fraenkel set theory. What is clear is that mathematicians must push well beyond current foundational boundaries for a definitive resolution.

References

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