



CS215 DISCRETE MATH

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Introduction

- A very large class of thousands of practical problems for which it is **not** known if the problems have “**efficient**” solutions.
- It is known that if **any one** of the **NP-Complete** problems has an efficient solution then **all** of the NP-Complete problems have efficient solutions.
- Researchers have spent innumerable man-years trying to find efficient solutions to these problems but **failed**.
- So, **NP-Complete** problems are very likely to be **hard**.
- What do you do: prove that **your problem is NP-Complete**.



Introduction

What do you actually do:



I couldn't find a polynomial-time algorithm,
but neither could all these other smart people!

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- The **exact** input size s , determined by an **optimal** encoding method, is **hard** to compute in most cases.

However, we do **not** need to determine s **exactly**.

For most problems, it is sufficient to choose some **natural**, and (usually) **simple**, encoding and use the size s of this encoding.



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■ Example:

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Any integer $n > 0$ can be represented in the **binary number system** as a string $a_0a_1 \cdots a_k$ of length $\lceil \log_2(n+1) \rceil$.

Thus, a natural measure of input size is $\lceil \log_2(n+1) \rceil$ (or just **$\log_2 n$**)



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Using fixed length encoding, we write a_i as a binary string of length $m = \lceil \log_2 \max(|a_i| + 1) \rceil$.

This coding gives an input size nm .

Complexity in terms of Input Size

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This makes $\Theta(n)$ comparisons, so it might seem **linear** and very **efficient**.

But, note that the input size of this problem is $\text{size}(n) = \log_2 n$, so the number of comparisons performed is actually $\Theta(n) = \Theta(2^{\text{size}(n)})$, which is **exponential**.



Input Size of Problems

- **Definition** Two positive functions $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ are of the same type if

$$c_1 g(n^{a_1})^{b_1} \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n^{a_2})^{b_2}$$

for all large n , where $a_1, b_1, c_1, a_2, b_2, c_2$ are some positive constants.



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Example:

All polynomials are of the **same type**, but *polynomials* and *exponentials* are of **different types**.



Input Size Example: Integer Multiplication

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The minimum input size is

$$s = \lceil \log_2(a + 1) \rceil + \lceil \log_2(b + 1) \rceil.$$

A natural choice is to use $t = \log_2 \max(a, b)$ since $\frac{s}{2} \leq t \leq s$.



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If L is the problem, and x is the input, we will often write $x \in L$ to denote a *yes* answer and $x \notin L$ to denote a *no* answer.

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Examples:

Knapsack vs. *Decision Knapsack* (DKnapsack)



Knapsack vs. DKnapsack

- We have a knapsack of capacity W (a positive integer) and n objects with weights w_1, \dots, w_n and values v_1, \dots, v_n , where v_i and w_i are positive integers.

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Optimization problem: (Knapsack)

Find the **largest value** $\sum_{i \in T} v_i$ of any subset T that fits in the knapsack, i.e., $\sum_{i \in T} w_i \leq W$.

Decision problem: (DKnapsack)

Given k , **is there a subset** of the objects that fits in the knapsack and has total value **at least k** ?



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Thus, if we prove that a given **decision problem** is hard to solve efficiently, then it is **obvious** that the **optimization problem** must be (at least as) **hard**.



Complexity Classes

- The **Theory of Complexity** deals with
 - ◇ the classification of certain “**decision problems**” into several classes:
 - ◇ the class of “easy” problems
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Question:

How to classify decision problems?

A. Use **polynomial-time algorithms**.



Polynomial-Time Algorithms

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Example:

The standard multiplication algorithm has time $O(m_1 m_2)$, where m_1, m_2 denote the number of digits in the two integers, respectively.



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Let's return to the *Composite* problem.

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In terms of the *input size*, the complexity is $\Theta(2^N N^2)$.



Polynomial- vs. Nonpolynomial-Time

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In reality, an $O(n^{20})$ algorithm is **not** really practical.



Polynomial-Time Solvable Problems

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Definition (The **Class P**) The class P consists of all **decision problems** that are solvable in **polynomial time**. That is, there exists an algorithm that will decide in **polynomial time** if any given input is a **yes-input** or a **no-input**.



The Class P

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A. You need to prove that there is **no** polynomial-time algorithm for this problem. (**much much harder**)



Certificates and Verifying Certificates

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Verifying a certificate: Given a presumed yes-input and its corresponding certificate, by making use of the given certificate, we verify that the input is actually a *yes-input*.



The Class NP

- **Definition** The class **NP** consists of all decision problems such that, for each **yes-input**, there exists a *certificate* which allows one to verify in **polynomial time** that the input is indeed a **yes-input**.



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NP – “nondeterministic polynomial-time”



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DKnapsack \in NP



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Just being able to verify a certificate in **polynomial time** does **not** necessarily mean we can tell **whether an input is a yes-input or a no-input in polynomial time**.

However, we are still **no** closer to solving it and do not know the answer. The search for a solution, though, has provided us with deep insights into **what distinguishes an “easy” problem from a “hard” one**.



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 - Q can be *reduced* to Q' via a logarithmic transformation
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- If **Q** can be reduced to **Q'**,
then **Q** is “no harder to solve” than **Q'**.



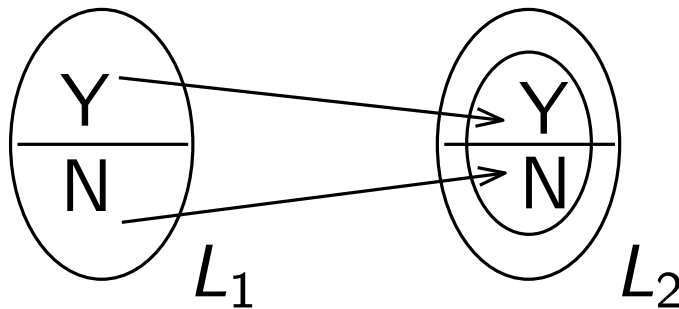
Polynomial-Time Reductions

- Let L_1 and L_2 be two decision problems



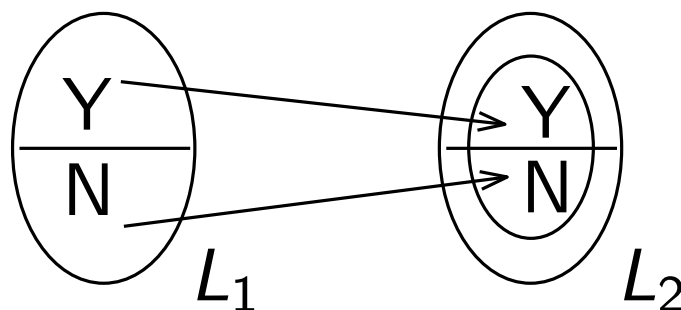
Polynomial-Time Reductions

- Let L_1 and L_2 be two decision problems
- A *polynomial-time reduction* from L_1 to L_2 is a transformation f with the following two properties:
 - (1) f transforms an input x for L_1 into an input $f(x)$ for L_2 s.t.
 - a yes-input of L_1 maps to a yes-input of L_2 , and a no-input of L_1 maps to a no-input of L_2
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If such an f exists, we say that L_1 is *polynomial-time reducible* to L_2 , and write $L_1 \leq_P L_2$.

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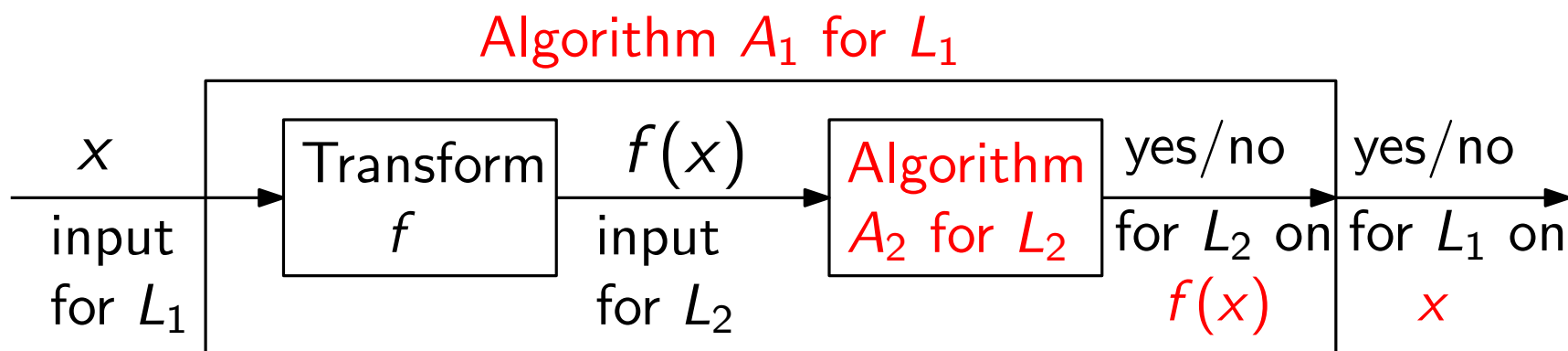
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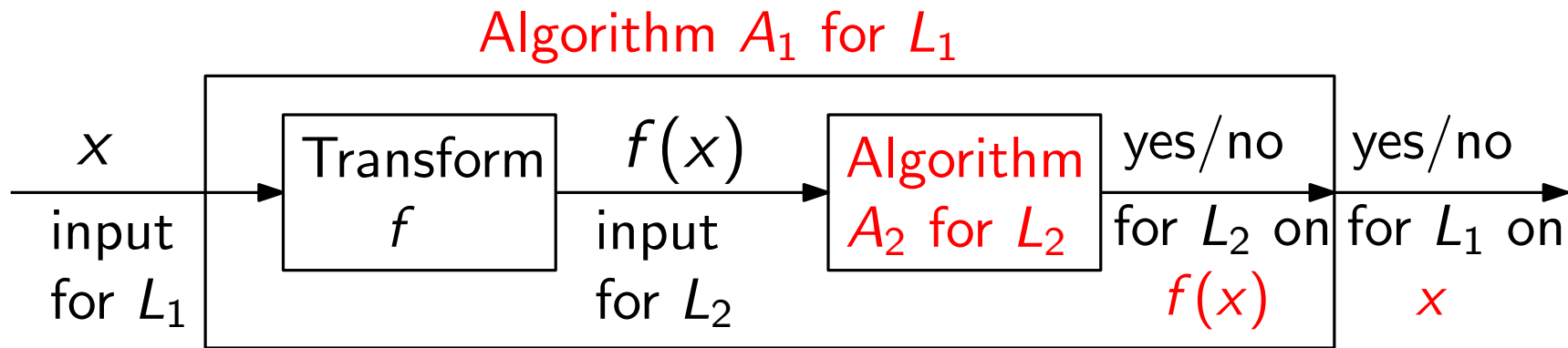
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- If A_2 is polynomial-time algorithm, so is A_1

Polynomial-Time Reduction $f : L_1 \rightarrow L_2$

- **Theorem** If $L_1 \leq_P L_2$ and $L_2 \in P$, then $L_1 \in P$



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Proof. $L_2 \in P$ means we have a polynomial-time algorithm A_2 for L_2 . Since $L_1 \leq_P L_2$, we have a polynomial-time transformation f mapping input x for L_1 to an input for L_2 .



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Combining these, we get the following polynomial-time algorithm for solving L_1 :

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Note: The converse (if $L_1 \leq_P L_2$ and $L_1 \in P$, then $L_2 \in P$) is **not true**.



Transitivity of Reductions

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- The class *NP-Complete (NPC)*

The class *NPC* of NP-Complete problems consists of all decision problems L s.t.

- (1) $L \in NP$
- (2) for every $L' \in NP$, $L' \leq_P L$

Transitivity of Reductions

- **Lemma** If $L_1 \leq_P L_2$ and $L_2 \leq_P L_3$, then $L_1 \leq_P L_3$.

Proof.

- The class *NP-Complete (NPC)*

The class *NPC* of NP-Complete problems consists of all decision problems L s.t.

- (1) $L \in NP$
- (2) for every $L' \in NP$, $L' \leq_P L$

Intuitively, *NPC* consists of all the **hardest** problems in NP.



NP-Completeness and Its Properties

■ **Theorem** Let L be any problem in NPC.

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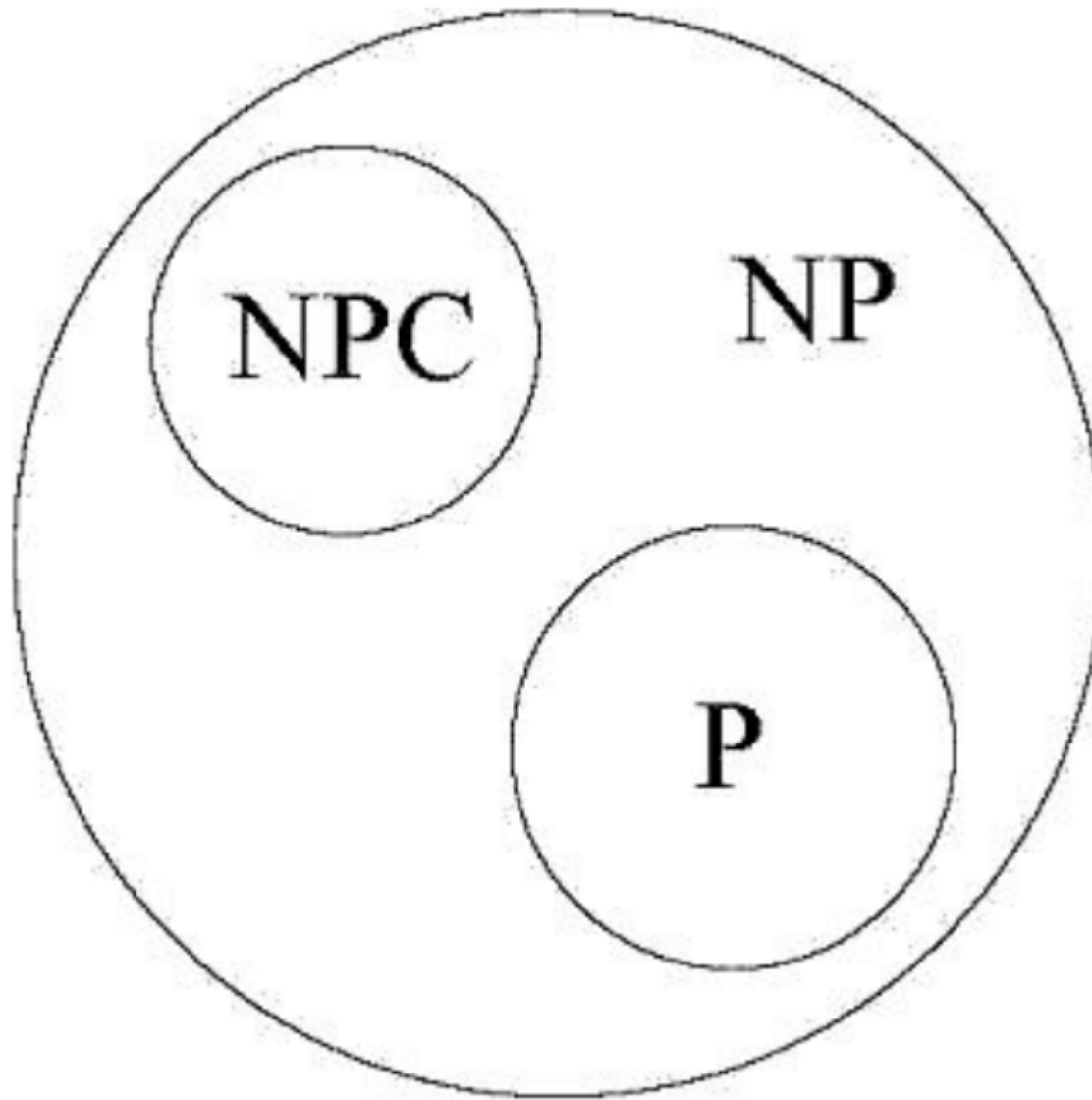
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This is the major reason why we are interested in NP-Completeness.



The Classes P, NP, and NPC



Next Lecture

- number theory ...

