

Introduction to Algorithms and Data Structures

Lecture 24: P and NP

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“Polynomial-time”

We have seen a large pool of algorithms in this course:

- ▶ Insertion sort - worst-case running-time $\Theta(n^2)$
- ▶ Mergesort - worst-case running-time $\Theta(n \cdot \lg(n))$
- ▶ Breadth-First search - worst-case running time $\Theta(m + n)$ (where n is the number of nodes and m the number of edges)
- ▶ Edit distance - worst-case running-time $\Theta(m \cdot n)$
- ▶ All-pairs Shortest-Paths - worst-case running-time $\Theta(n^3)$

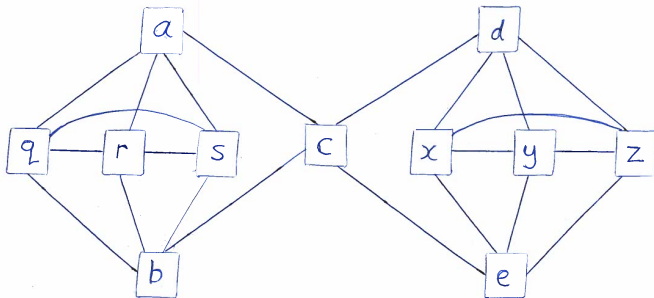
These worst-case running-time (asymptotic) functions all fit into the category of polynomial-time.

We say that a computational problem is “polynomial time” if we have a deterministic algorithm A solves the problem (is correct for every instance of the problem) and there is some fixed $r \in \mathbb{R}$ such that for every instance \mathcal{I} , the algorithm runs in time at most $O(|\mathcal{I}|^r)$.

Cycles in Graphs

We return to the world of (undirected) graphs $G = (V, E)$.

- ▶ An **Euler tour (ET)** of a given graph is a cycle in the graph which traverses every **edge** *exactly once* (though may visit vertices more than once).
- ▶ A **Hamiltonian cycle (HC)** of a graph is a simple cycle of the graph which visits every **node** *exactly once*.



Cycles in Graphs

Consider the problem of testing whether a given graph has an ET/HC.

- ▶ For **Euler tours**, Euler proved (as a generalisation of the Königsberg Bridge Problem) that any **connected** graph which only has even-degree vertices has an Euler tour.
 - ▶ Connectedness can be checked in $\Theta(n + m)$ time (DFS, lecture 15) ...
 - ▶ We can check the even-ness of all vertex degrees in $O(m + n)$ time ...
 - ▶ So testing for presence of an Euler tour is “polynomial-time” (“in P”)
- ▶ The **Hamilton Cycle** problem is believed to be NP-complete - and to have *no* polynomial-time algorithm.

Verifying versus Finding

We think (mainly) about “Decision problems” where we ask questions like

- ▶ “Does this graph have an Euler tour?”
- ▶ “Does this graph have a Hamiltonian Cycle?”
(ie, “Does this graph have a simple cycle of length n ?”)
- ▶ “Is the edit distance between these two sequences less than 5”?

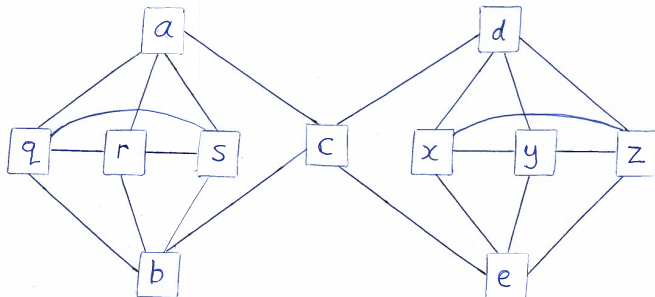
Can often re-cast an optimisation problem as a decision problem ... eg, decision version of edit distance above.

NP: “Guess and Check”

The complexity class NP is essentially a “Guess and Check” model.
It includes any decision problem for which:

- ▶ A solution can be written down succinctly in terms of the given input.
- ▶ We can check whether a “guessed” solution is correct in **polynomial time**.
- ▶ We do not worry about how we found/guessed the solution (the “magic”)

Guessing and Checking



- ▶ Guess a HC, for example: $a, q, r, s, b, c, d, x, y, z, e$.
 - ▶ Need to check each pair of vertices have an edge between (yes), plus that $(e, a) \in E$ (no), plus each vertex visited exactly once (yes).
 - ▶ Check details proposed HC against graph adjacency list/matrix.
- ▶ Similarly could guess and check a proposed ET, for example:
 $(a, q), (q, b), (b, s), (s, r), (r, q), (q, s), (s, a), (a, r), (r, b), (r, c), (c, d),$
 $(d, y), (y, x), (x, z), (z, y), (y, e), (e, x), (x, d), (d, z), (z, e), (e, c), (c, a)$

Polynomial-time problems

All the algorithmic problems we have considered in this course have formal definitions, and **inputs** in a prescribed form.

- ▶ We assume the input is described non-wastefully, ie integers should be represented by *binary numbers*, or maybe *decimal numbers*, but *not* in unary format.
- ▶ In fact, even graphs, edges can be described succinctly in binary format.
- ▶ Such a sensible representation is called an **encoding**.

Definition

A computational problem Q is “polynomial time” if there is some fixed $r \in \mathbb{R}$, and some deterministic algorithm A , which returns a correct solution for every instance \mathcal{I} in time at most $O(|\mathcal{I}|^r)$.

Decision problems

Definition

A computational problem Q is a **decision problem** if it can be described in terms of a collection of **potential solutions** S , where $Q(\mathcal{I}) = 1$ if there is a solution in S which solves the instance \mathcal{I} and $Q(\mathcal{I}) = 0$ otherwise.

We will often consider decision problems as *languages* (over alphabet $\{0, 1\}$) where $\mathcal{I} \in L_Q \Leftrightarrow Q(\mathcal{I}) = 1$.

Definition

The **complexity class P** is the class of decision problems Q for which there is a polynomial-time algorithm to compute Q exactly on all input instances.

Informally, we will often include (non-decision) problems (like edit distance, sorting) in the class P.

The complexity class NP

Definition

Consider a decision problem Q wrt its collection of **potential solutions** S . We say that a two-parameter algorithm A is a **verifier** for Q iff for all instances \mathcal{I} of Q

$$\text{There is some } y \in S \text{ such that } A(\mathcal{I}, y) = 1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad Q(\mathcal{I}) = 1$$

- ▶ y is the “guess”
- ▶ Sometimes the (successful) solutions of S are called **certificates**.
- ▶ For the Hamilton Cycle problem, the solutions/certificates would be permutations of the vertices of the graph.
- ▶ This verifier corresponds to the informal “checker” of our introduction.
- ▶ But we say do not say (and will not be drawn ...) on where the guess comes from. That’s “magic”.

The complexity class NP

Definition

The **complexity class NP** is the class of decision problems Q (wrt a collection of potential solutions/certificates S) for which there is a verifier $A = A(\mathcal{I}, y)$ which runs in time polynomial in the size $|\mathcal{I}|$ of the instance.

(note this requires that the solution/certificate y is polynomial in $|\mathcal{I}|$ also)

We do not concern ourselves with how the solution/certificate is “guessed”.

- ▶ This is the power of the model NP, it allows us to capture decision problems which (we believe) have no polynomial-time algorithms to solve them.
- ▶ Think about Hamilton Cycle - if we really were “guessing” the solution, we would be considering $n!$ different permutations, which is exponential in the size of the graph.
- ▶ For a problem in P (like the Euler Tours problem) the guess can be the empty string.

Reductions between (decision) problems

If I could solve problem Q in polynomial-time, then I would also be able to solve problem R in polynomial-time.

Definition

A problem R can be **reduced** to the problem Q if there is a polynomial-time computable function $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ such that for all instances \mathcal{I} of R

$$R(\mathcal{I}) = 1 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad Q(f(\mathcal{I})) = 1$$

- ▶ Means that R is no harder (at least in the sense of polynomial-time computation) than Q . And that Q is “at least as hard” as R .
- ▶ We write $R \leq_P Q$.

NP-completeness

No (NP) problem is any harder than me.

Definition

A decision problem Q is said to be **NP-complete** if it belongs to the class NP, and it is also the case that for **every problem R in NP**, $R \leq_P Q$.

Do these even exist?

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Do these even exist?

Yes they do! In lecture 24, we will discuss the intrinsic NP-complete problem SAT, and show how to reduce other computational problems to SAT.

Reading

Reading:

- ▶ The Intro to Chapter 34, and Section 34.1 of [CLRS] introduce the concepts of *polynomial-time*, *decision problems*, and the complexity class P.
- ▶ Section 34.2 discusses the concept of polynomial-time verifiability and the complexity class NP.
- ▶ Section 34.3 introduces the concept of reducibility.

For Lecture 24:

- ▶ Section 34.3 covers reducibility and the NP-Completeness of Circuit Satisfiability.