



中山大學
SUN YAT-SEN UNIVERSITY

Lecture 12

NP-Completeness

Algorithm Design and Analysis

zhangzizhen@gmail.com

Decision vs. optimization problems

- A decision problem is a question in some formal system that can be posed as a **yes-no** question.
- Optimization problems are concerned with finding the **best** answer to a particular input.
- There are standard techniques for transforming function and optimization problems into decision problems.
 - For example, in the traveling salesman problem, the optimization problem is to produce a tour with minimal weight. The associated decision problem is: for each N , to decide whether the graph has any tour with weight less than N . By repeatedly answering the decision problem, it is possible to find the minimal weight of a tour.

Undecidable problems

- **Halting problem** (Alan Turning 1936): given a computer program and an input to it, determine whether the program will halt on the input or continue working indefinitely on it.
- Assume that A is an algorithm that solves the halting problem, that is for any program P and input I ,
 - $A(P,I)=1$, if program P halts on input I
 - $A(P,I)=0$, if program P does not halt on input I
- Construct a program Q for pair (P,P)
 - $Q(P)=\text{halt}$, if $A(P,P)=0$, i.e., if program P does not halt on input P
 - $Q(P)=\text{not halt}$, if $A(P,P)=1$, i.e., if program P halts on input P
- Substituting Q for P
 - $Q(Q)=\text{halt}$, if program Q does not halt on input Q
 - $Q(Q)=\text{not halt}$, if program Q halts on input Q

Polynomial Time

- We have mentioned efficient algorithms several times in this course. An efficient algorithm is generally taken to mean one whose running time depends polynomially on the size of the input.
- Problems that can be solved in polynomial time are called **tractable**, and problems that cannot be solved in polynomial time are called **intractable**.
- Examples:
 - Shortest Path Problem
 - Minimum Spanning Tree Problem
 - Fractional Knapsack Problem
 - Gaussian Elimination
 - ...

Time-Bounded Turning Machine

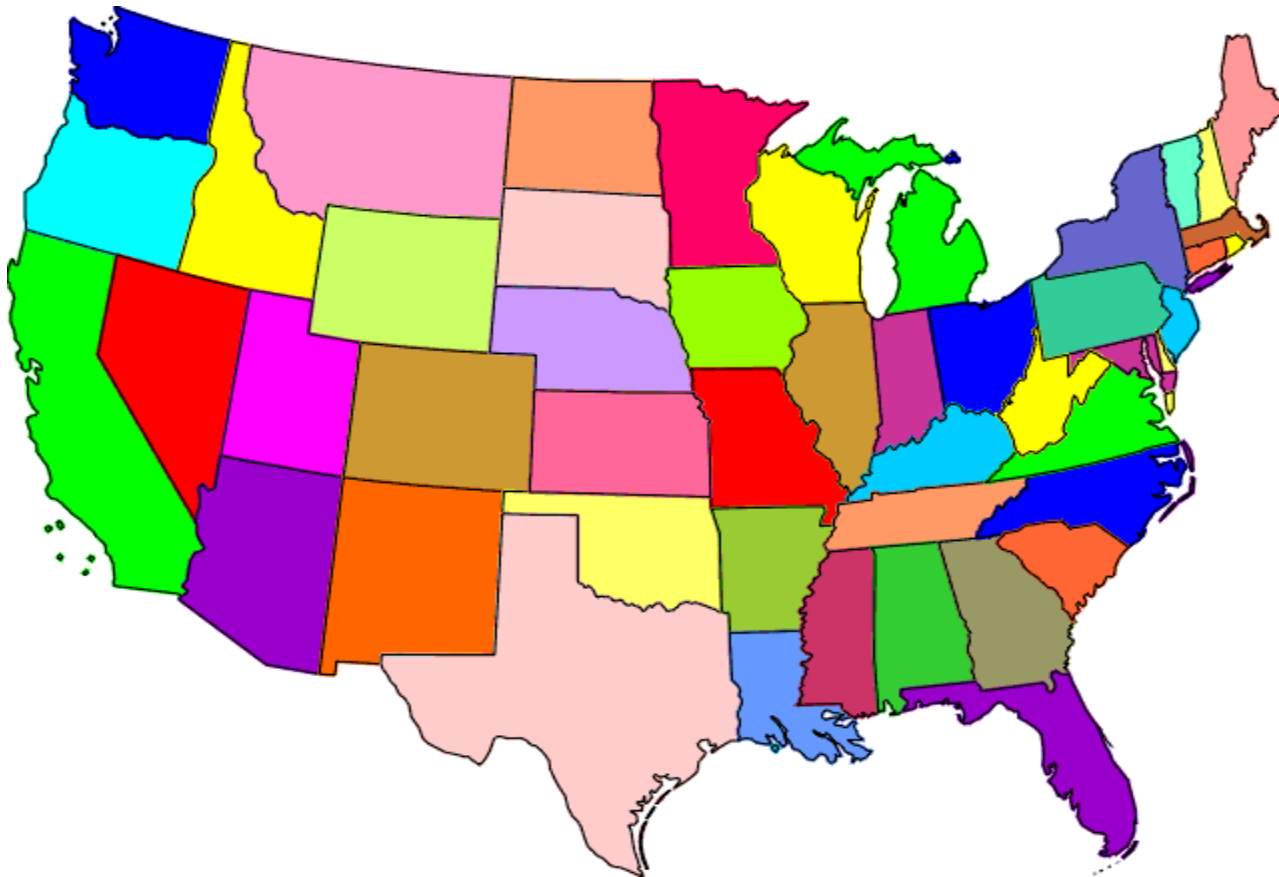
- A Turing machine that, given an input of length n , always halts within $T(n)$ moves is said to be *$T(n)$ -time bounded*.
 - The TM can be multitape.
 - Sometimes, it can be nondeterministic.
- The deterministic, multitape case corresponds roughly to “an $O(T(n))$ running-time algorithm.”

The Class **P**

- If a DTM M is $T(n)$ -time bounded for some polynomial $T(n)$, then we say M is *polynomial-time* (“*polytime*”) bounded.
- When we talk of **P**, it doesn’t matter whether we mean “by a computer” or “by a Turing machine”.
- You might worry that something like $O(n \log n)$ is not a polynomial.
- However, to be in **P**, a problem only needs an algorithm that runs in time *less than* some polynomial.
- Surely $O(n \log n)$ is less than the polynomial $O(n^2)$.

Map Coloring

- In a map, if we don't want neighboring states to be the same color. How many colors are needed?

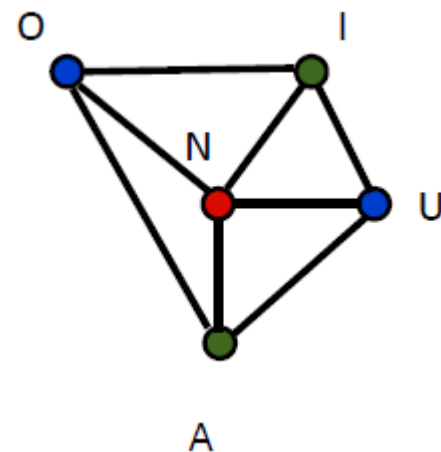


Map Coloring

- Every map (planar graph) can be colored with four colors.
- Some can be colored with three.
- Some can be colored with two. Can you tell which?

- 3-coloring Problem:

- Given a map, output “yes” if it can be colored with three colors, “no” otherwise.
- It is an *NP-complete* problem. Currently we cannot find polynomial-time algorithms to solve it.



The Class NP

- The running time of a Nondeterministic TM is the maximum number of steps taken along any branch.
- If that time bound is polynomial, the NTM is said to be *polynomial-time bounded*.
- And its language/problem is said to be in the class **NP**.
(**Note:** NP stands for **nondeterministic polynomial time**, not non-polynomial time)
- NP is the class of problems which have solutions that can be efficiently **verified**. (NP discuss with decision problems)
 - As usual, efficiently means polynomial in size of input.
- 3-coloring is in NP. Given a proposed coloring, we can quickly check if it works. Fractional Knapsack and 0-1 Knapsack are also in NP.

P vs. NP

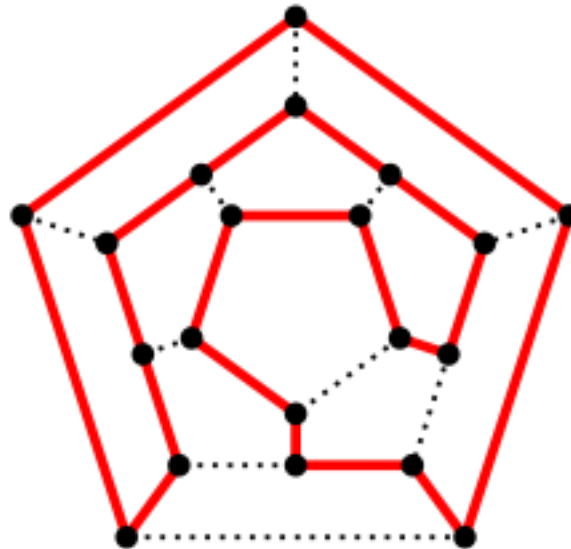
- **P**: problems which we can efficiently solve.
- **NP**: problems which, given a proposed solution, we can efficiently check if it works.
- Every problem in **P** is also in **NP**.
- One of the most important open problems the question is **P = NP or P ≠ NP?**
- There are thousands of problems that are in **NP** but appear not to be in **P**.
- But no proof that they aren't really in **P**.

NP-complete

- One way to address the $P = NP$ question is to identify *complete problems* for NP.
- An *NP-complete problem* has the property that if it is in P , then every problem in NP is also in P .
- Today over 3000 NP-complete problems known across all the sciences.
- Google Scholar search of NP-complete and biology returns over 10,000 articles.
- Defined formally via “polytime reductions.”

Hamiltonian Path and Cycle

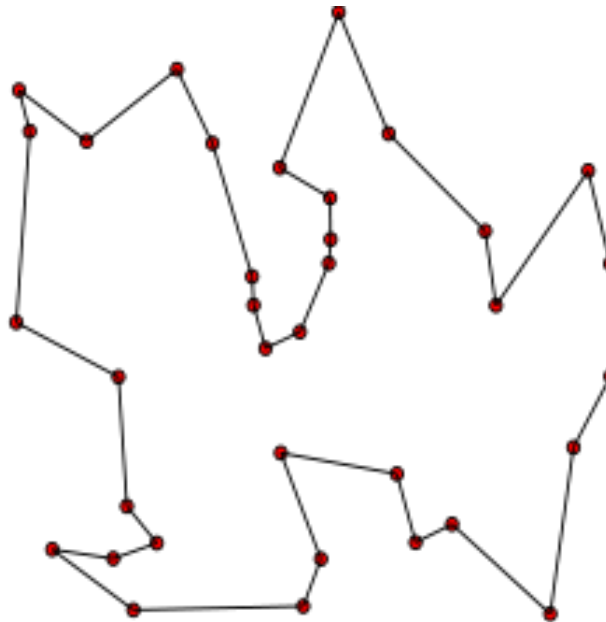
- a **Hamiltonian path** is a path in an undirected or directed graph that visits each vertex exactly once. A **Hamiltonian cycle** (or Hamiltonian circuit) is a Hamiltonian path that is a cycle. Determining whether such paths and cycles exist in graphs is the Hamiltonian path problem, which is NP-complete.



Travelling Salesman Problem

- The **Travelling Salesman Problem (TSP)** asks the following question:

Given a list of cities and the distances between each pair of cities, what is the shortest possible route that visits each city exactly once and returns to the origin city?



Reducibility

- A problem Q can be **reduced** to another problem Q' if any instance of Q can be “easily rephrased” as an instance of Q' , the solution to which provides a solution to the instance of Q .
 - Example: The problem “solving linear equations” can be reduced to the problem “solving quadratic equations”.
- 归约：一个问题A可以归约为问题B的含义是，可以用问题B的解法解决问题A，或者说，问题A可以“变成”问题B。
- “问题A可归约为问题B”有一个重要的直观意义：B的时间复杂度高于或者等于A的时间复杂度。也就是说，问题A不比问题B难。
- 归约具有传递性，如果问题A可归约为问题B，问题B可归约为问题C，则问题A可归约为问题C。

Polytime Reductions

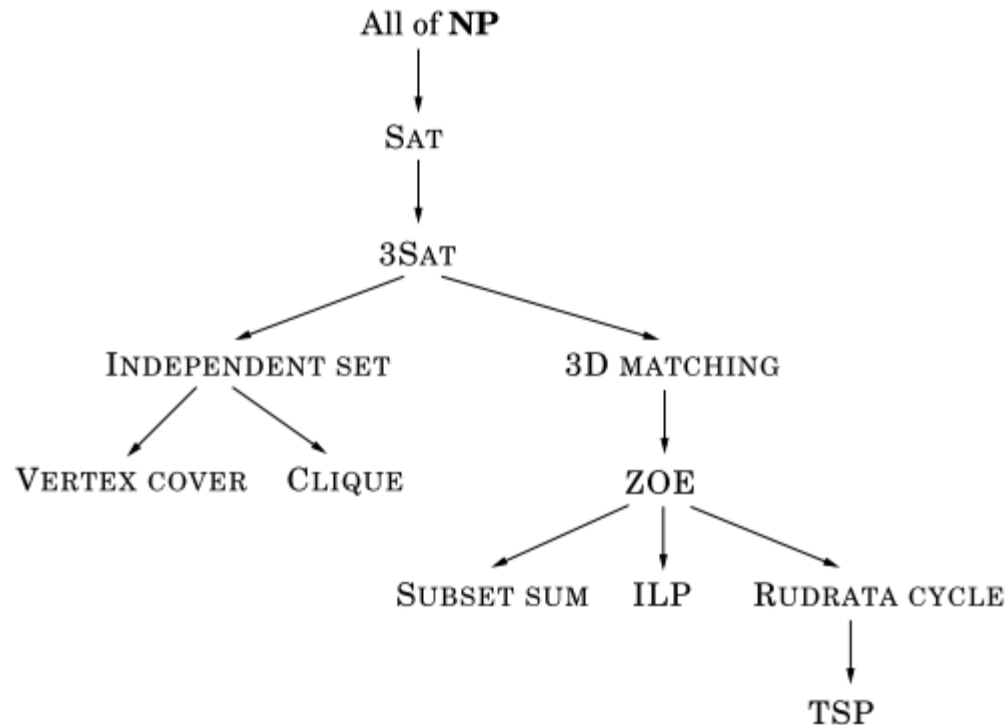
- A language L_1 is polynomial-time reducible to a language L_2 , written $L_1 \leq_p L_2$.
- A problem/language M is said to be *NP-complete* if for every language L in **NP**, there is a polytime reduction from L to M .
- A language L is **NP-complete**, if
 1. $L \in \text{NP}$, and
 2. $L' \leq_p L$ for every $L' \in \text{NP}$.
- **Goal**: find a way to show problem L to be NP-complete by reducing every language/problem in **NP** to L in such a way that if we had a deterministic polytime algorithm for L , then we could construct a deterministic polytime algorithm for any problem in **NP**.

Example: Hamiltonian Cycle to TSP

- Write a program that solves Hamiltonian Cycle
- You have a subroutine TSP(all pair distances D and an integer k) that reports the solution to TSP
 - Hamiltonian Cycle: given a graph, is there a cycle which visits all vertices **exactly once**?
 - TSP: Given a list of cities and pairwise distances between them, is there a tour which visits each city exactly once and has length at most k ?
- Given $G = (V, E)$, create a TSP instance where distance between u and v is
 - 1, if $(u,v) \in E$
 - 2, if $(u,v) \notin E$
- Report back TSP($D, |V|$)
- Therefore, Hamiltonian Cycle \leq_p TSP

NP-complete Problems

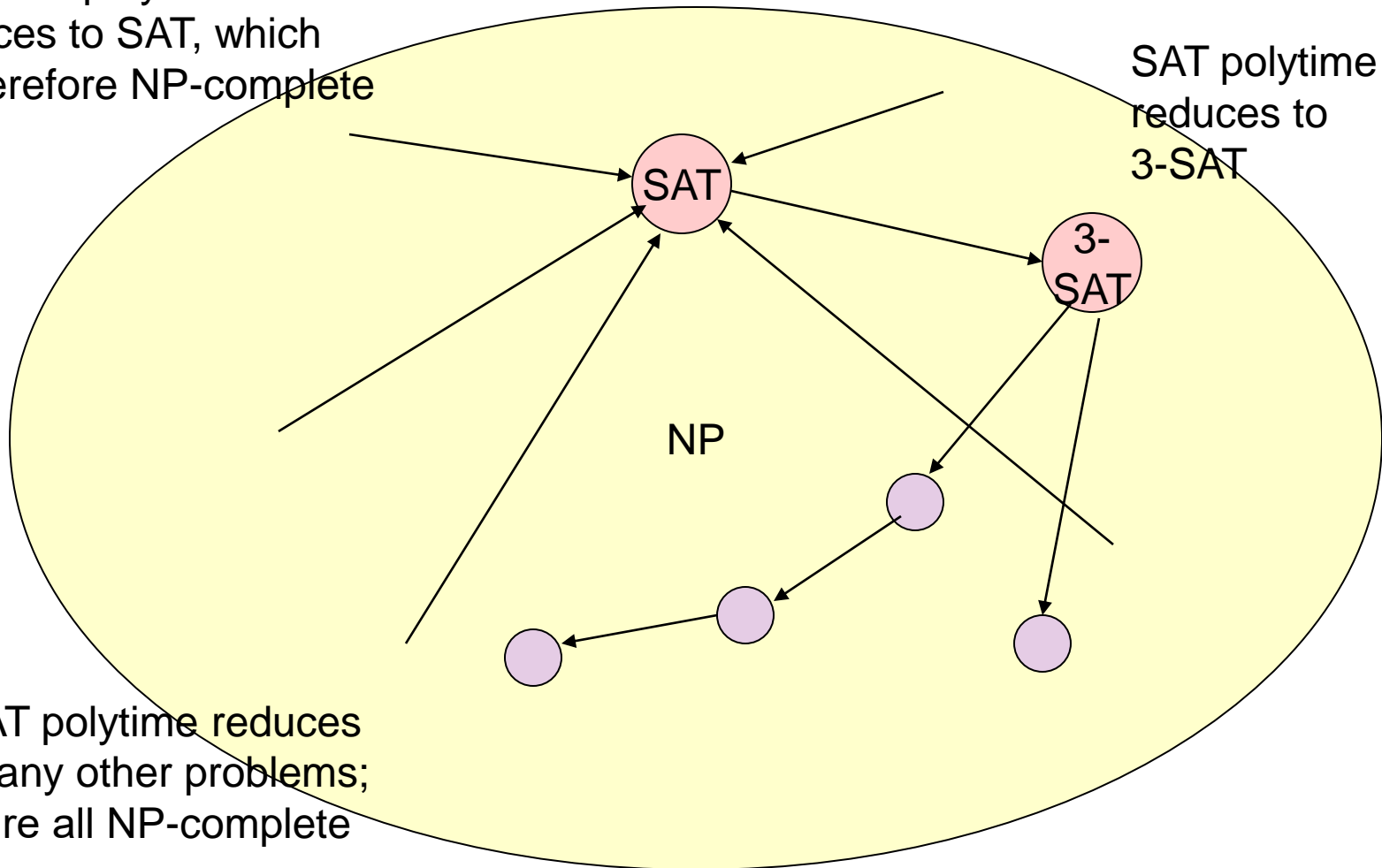
- Fundamental property: if M has a polytime algorithm, then L also has a polytime algorithm, i.e., if M is in \mathbf{P} , then every L in \mathbf{NP} is also in \mathbf{P} , or “ $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$.”
- The first NP-complete problem: SAT.



NP-complete Problems

All of **NP** polytime
reduces to SAT, which
is therefore NP-complete

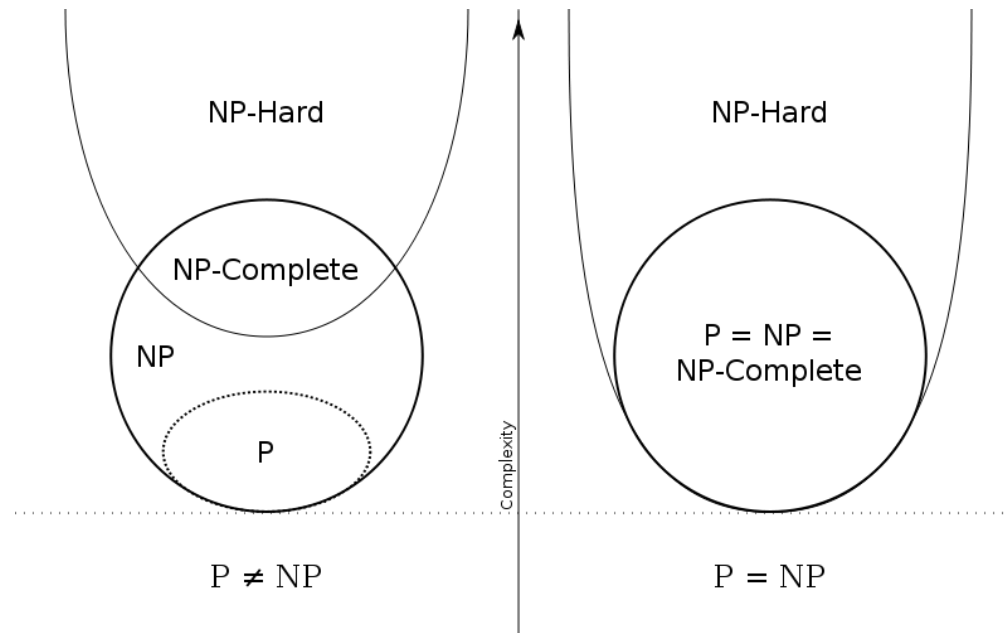
SAT polytime
reduces to
3-SAT



3-SAT polytime reduces
to many other problems;
they're all NP-complete

P, NP, NP-complete and NP-hard

- NP-hard: Class of problems which are at least **as hard as** the hardest problems in NP. Problems in NP-hard do not have to be elements of NP, indeed, they may not even be decidable problems.
- Euler diagram for P, NP, NP-complete, and NP-hard set of problems:



Karp's 21 NPC problems

The problems [\[edit \]](#)

Karp's 21 problems are shown below, many with their original names. The nesting indicates the direction of the reductions used. For example, **Knapsack** was shown to be NP-complete by reducing **Exact cover** to **Knapsack**.

- **Satisfiability**: the boolean satisfiability problem for formulas in **conjunctive normal form** (often referred to as SAT)
 - **0–1 integer programming** (A variation in which only the restrictions must be satisfied, with no optimization)
 - **Clique** (see also **independent set problem**)
 - **Set packing**
 - **Vertex cover**
 - **Set covering**
 - **Feedback node set**
 - **Feedback arc set**
 - **Directed Hamilton circuit** (Karp's name, now usually called **Directed Hamiltonian cycle**)
 - **Undirected Hamilton circuit** (Karp's name, now usually called **Undirected Hamiltonian cycle**)
 - **Satisfiability with at most 3 literals per clause** (equivalent to 3-SAT)
 - **Chromatic number** (also called the **Graph Coloring Problem**)
 - **Clique cover**
 - **Exact cover**
 - **Hitting set**
 - **Steiner tree**
 - **3-dimensional matching**
 - **Knapsack** (Karp's definition of Knapsack is closer to **Subset sum**)
 - **Job sequencing**
 - **Partition**
 - **Max cut**

Thank you!

