SAT and the class NP COMS20010 (Algorithms II)

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Cook reductions

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Importantly, none of our reductions have depended on how we solve the problem we're reducing to. If we used Ford-Fulkerson to solve the circulation problem instead of Edmonds-Karp, nothing would change but the time analysis. Let's make this idea formal.

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A *little* more formally: an **oracle** for Y is a black box which, given an instance of problem Y, outputs a valid solution in O(1) time.

An oracle is explicitly a cheat — we are washing our hands of any responsibility for actually solving problem Y. Maybe a wizard did it.

Or a library function whose code is indistinguishable from wizardry.



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The point of the definition is: Given a Cook reduction from X to Y, and a polynomial-time algorithm for Y, we get a polynomial-time algorithm for X. We just simulate the oracle using our algorithm for Y.

(The "correct" definition is more complicated, involving so-called oracle Turing machines, but the one above is good enough for our purposes.)

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"Polynomial" can hide a multitude of sins...

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To be clear, this was a genuinely good paper! Just not exactly practical.

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The point is: if you're trying to find an algorithm for X, then just knowing $X \leq_c Y$ doesn't help you much. So why use the formalism?

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And the really nice thing is: most of the time, from a practical perspective, there's only one problem X that matters.

We focus on **decision problems**, where the desired answer is Yes or No:

- "Does the input graph contain a matching of size at least k?"
- "Does the input flow network contain a flow of value at least k?"
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- We are interested in proving problems are hard, not easy if it's hard to decide whether something exists, then it's certainly hard to find it!
- Decision problems have a simpler theory associated with them.
- It's rare for the decision problem to be easy while the search problem is hard, and often there are easy Cook reductions between them. (See the problem sheet for some examples.)

The class NP

Within decision problems, we will focus on problems where we can easily verify a Yes answer.

Formally, **NP** is the class of all decision problems X with the following property: There is a polynomial-time algorithm Verify such that if and only if x is a Yes instance of X, then there is some bit string w (called a witness) with Verify(x, w) = Yes.

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• "Does the input linear program have a solution of value at least k?" is in NP, since we can easily verify that a solution is feasible and has value at least k.

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We will reduce the whole of NP to a single problem!

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Because Verify can simply ignore w, solve x, and return the solution. (So "is the input a prime number?" actually is in NP.)

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$$\label{eq:True} \begin{split} \mathsf{True} \wedge \big(\neg \mathsf{True} \vee \mathsf{False} \big) &= \mathsf{True} \wedge \big(\mathsf{False} \vee \mathsf{False} \big) \\ &= \mathsf{True} \wedge \mathsf{False} = \mathsf{False}. \end{split}$$

We say a propositional formula is **satisfiable** if there's some assignment (a **satisfying assignment**) that makes it true, and **unsatisfiable** otherwise.

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So if there's a polynomial algorithm for SAT, then there's a polynomial algorithm for every problem in NP — that is, $P=\mathsf{NP}!$

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Important: By the Cook-Levin Theorem, a problem is NP-hard if and only if SAT reduces to it! This is normally how we prove NP-hardness.

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A proof either way is worth \$1,000,000 from the Clay Foundation...

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So proving your problem is NP-hard means it's a **dead end** — you won't be able to solve it, so you need to find an alternative. (More next week...)

The good news is: this means you spent a couple of hours writing a hardness proof rather than weeks or months failing to write an algorithm!

NP-hardness can also be a good way of ruling out approaches: "If this worked for problem X, then it would also work for [insert NP-hard problem here], so it's not going to work."

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