

[Home](#) > [Science](#) > [Mathematics](#)

NP-complete problem

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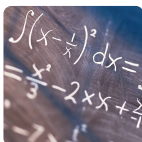
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NP-complete problem, any of a class of computational problems for which no efficient solution [algorithm](#) has been found. Many significant computer-science problems belong to this class—e.g., the [traveling salesman problem](#), satisfiability problems, and graph-covering problems.

So-called easy, or [tractable](#), problems can be solved by computer [algorithms](#) that run in [polynomial time](#); i.e., for a problem of size n , the time or number of steps needed to find the solution is a [polynomial](#) function of n . Algorithms for solving hard, or [intractable](#), problems, on the other hand, require times that are exponential functions of the problem size n . [Polynomial-time algorithms](#) are considered to be efficient, while exponential-time algorithms are considered inefficient, because the execution times of the latter grow much more rapidly as the problem size increases.



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A problem is called NP ([nondeterministic](#) polynomial) if its solution can be guessed and verified in polynomial time; nondeterministic means that no particular rule is followed to make the guess. If a problem is NP and all other NP problems are polynomial-time reducible to it, the problem is NP-complete. Thus, finding an efficient [algorithm](#) for any NP-complete problem implies that an efficient algorithm can be found for all such problems, since any problem belonging to this class can be recast into any other member of the class. It is not known whether any polynomial-time algorithms will ever be found for NP-complete problems, and determining whether these problems are tractable or intractable remains one of the most important questions in theoretical [computer science](#). When an NP-complete problem must be solved, one approach is to use a polynomial algorithm to approximate the solution; the answer thus obtained will not necessarily be optimal but will be reasonably close.

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computational complexity

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computational complexity, a measure of the amount of computing resources (time and space) that a particular [algorithm](#) consumes when it runs. [Computer scientists](#) use mathematical measures of [complexity](#) that allow them to predict, before writing the code, [how fast an algorithm will run](#) and how much [memory](#) it will require. Such predictions are important guides for programmers [implementing](#) and selecting [algorithms](#) for real-world applications.

Computational complexity is a [continuum](#), in that some algorithms require linear time (that is, the time required increases directly with the number of items or nodes in the list, graph, or network being processed), whereas others require quadratic or even exponential time to complete (that is, the time required increases with the number of items squared or with the exponential of that number). At the far end of this continuum lie intractable problems—those whose solutions cannot be efficiently [implemented](#). For those problems, computer scientists seek to find [heuristic](#) algorithms that can almost solve the problem and run in a reasonable amount of time.

Further away still are those algorithmic problems that can be stated but are not solvable; that is, one can prove that no program can be written to solve the problem. A classic example of an unsolvable algorithmic problem is the [halting problem](#), which states that no program can be written that can predict whether or not any other program halts after a finite number of steps. The unsolvability of the halting problem has immediate practical bearing on [software](#) development. For instance, it would be [frivolous](#) to try to develop a software tool that predicts whether another program being developed has an [infinite](#) loop in it (although having such a tool would be immensely beneficial).

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Richard Karp

American mathematician and computer scientist

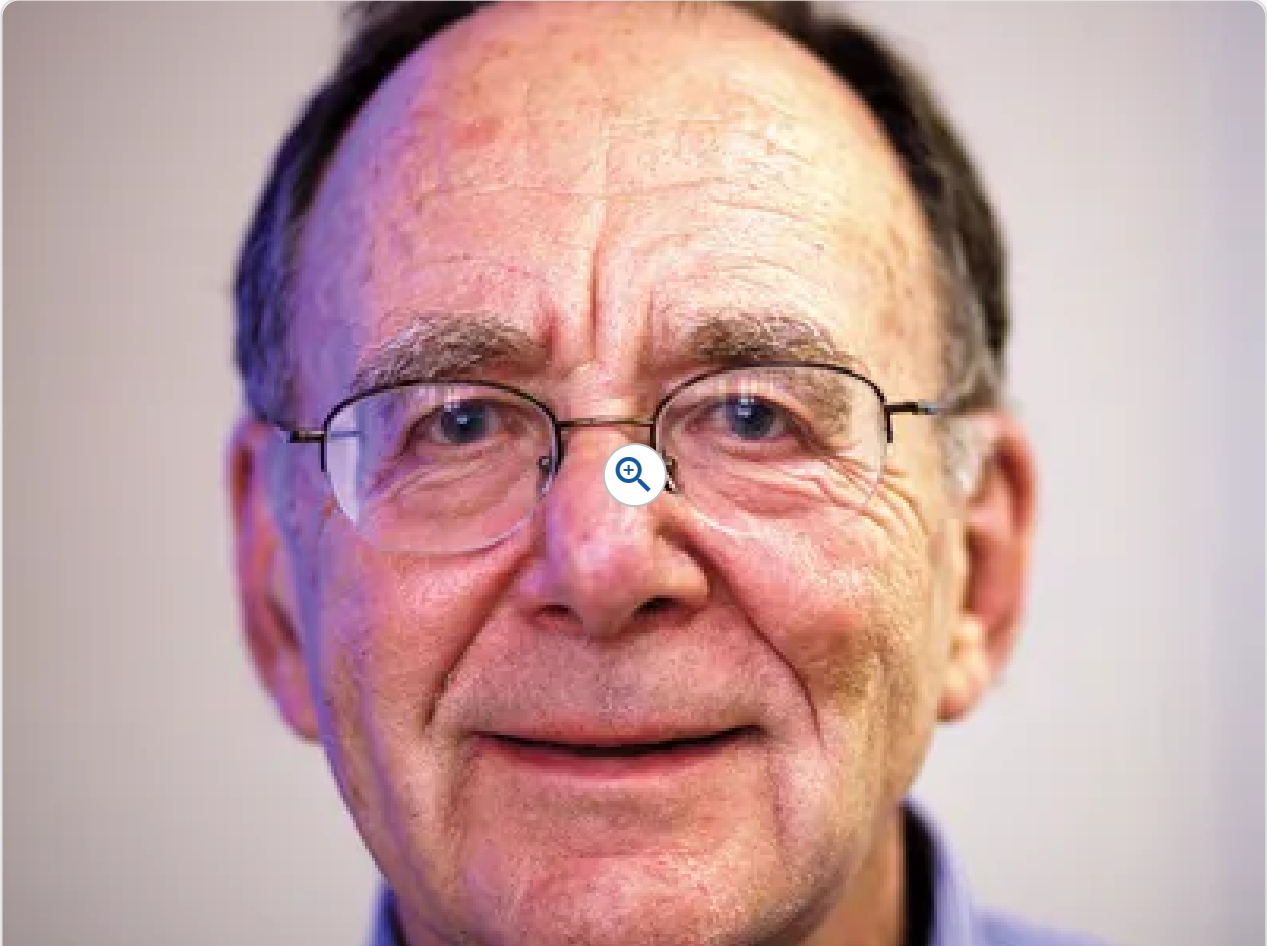
Also known as: Richard Manning Karp

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Richard Karp

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Born: January 3, 1935 (age 88) • [Boston](#) • [Massachusetts](#)

Awards And Honors: [National Medal of Science \(1996\)](#) • [Turing Award \(1985\)](#)

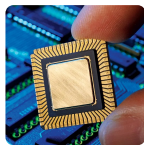
Subjects Of Study: [NP-complete problem](#) • [optimization](#) • [recursion theory](#)

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Richard Karp, in full **Richard Manning Karp**, (born January 3, 1935, [Boston, Massachusetts](#), U.S.), American mathematician and computer scientist and winner of the 1985 [A.M. Turing Award](#), the highest honour in [computer science](#), for “his

continuing contributions to the [theory of algorithms](#) including the development of efficient [algorithms](#) for network flow and other [combinatorial optimization](#) problems, the identification of polynomial-time computability with the intuitive notion of algorithmic [efficiency](#), and, most notably, contributions to the theory of [NP-completeness](#).” His research interests have included theoretical computer science, combinatorial [algorithms](#), discrete probability, [computational biology](#), and [Internet](#) algorithms.

Karp earned a [bachelor's degree](#) (1955), a [master's degree](#) (1956), and a doctorate (1959), all in [mathematics](#), from [Harvard University](#). After finishing his studies, he worked as a mathematician at [IBM](#) (1959–68) before moving to [academia](#). Karp held positions at the [University of California](#), Berkeley (1968–94), the [University of Washington](#) (1995–99), and again at Berkeley (1999–), where he returned as a University Professor. In 2012 he founded the Simons Institute for the Theory of Computing at Berkeley and served as its director until 2017.



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Karp's 1972 paper “Reducibility Among Combinatorial Problems” proved that many commonly studied combinatorial problems are variants of the same problem, which implies they are all probably intractable (NP-complete problems—that is, problems for which no efficient solution [algorithm](#) is known). Karp is the author of *Complexity of Computation* (1974) and holds a [patent](#) for a type of multiconnection switching network.

In addition to the Turing Award, Karp received the Fulkerson Prize in Discrete Mathematics (1979), the U.S. National Medal of Science (1996), the Harvard University Centennial Medal (1997), the Israel Institute of Technology Harvey Prize (1998), the Carnegie Mellon University Dickson Prize in Science (2008), and Japan's Kyoto Prize (2008). He was elected to the New York Academy of Sciences (1980), the U.S. [National Academy of Sciences](#) (1980), the [American Academy of Arts and Sciences](#) (1985), the Institute of Combinatorics and Its Applications (1990), the [American Association for the Advancement of Science](#) (1991), the U.S. National

Academy of Engineering (1992), the [American Philosophical Society](#) (1994), the French [Academy of Sciences](#) (2002), and the European Academy of Sciences (2004).

William L. Hosch