

# NP-COMPLETENESS

- ***Polynomial-time algorithms*** : on inputs of size  $n$ , their worst-case running time is  $O(n^k)$  for some constant  $k$ .
- ***Superpolynomial time algorithms***: it can be solved, but not in time  $O(n^k)$  for any constant  $k$ .
- Generally, we think of problems that are solvable by polynomial-time algorithms as being ***tractable***, and problems that require superpolynomial time as being ***intractable***.
- There are also problems that cannot be solved by any computer, no matter how much time is provided.

- "***NP-complete***" problems, whose status is unknown. No polynomial-time algorithm has yet been discovered for an NP-complete problem, nor has anyone yet been able to prove a superpolynomial-time lower bound for any of them.

- A particularly tantalizing aspect of the NP-complete problems is that several of them seem on the surface to be similar to problems that have polynomial-time algorithms.
- Shortest vs. longest paths
- Euler tour vs. Hamiltonian
- 2-CNF satisfiability vs. 3-CNF satisfiability

## NP-completeness and the Classes

- The class **P** consists of those problems that are solvable in polynomial time.
- The class **NP** consists of those problem that are “verifiable” in polynomial time.
- Any problem in **P** is also in **NP**, that is  $P \subseteq NP$
- A problem is in the class **NPC** if it is in **NP** and is as “hard” as any problem in **NP**.

## NP-completeness and the Classes – contd.

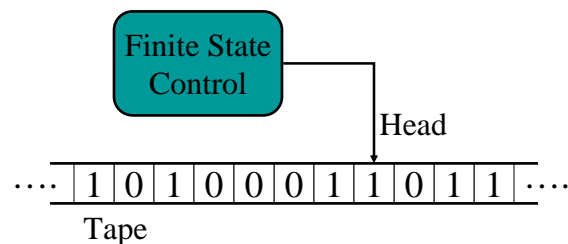
- In summary, the three classes of problems
  - **P**: problems solvable in poly time.
  - **NP**: problems verifiable in poly time.
  - **NPC**: problems in **NP** and as hard as any problem in **NP**.

## Traditional definition of NP

- Turing machine model of computation
  - Simple model where data is on an infinite capacity tape
  - Only operations are reading char stored in current tape cell, writing a char to current tape cell, moving tape head left or right one square
- Deterministic versus nondeterministic computation
  - Deterministic: At any point in time, next move is determined
  - Nondeterministic: At any point in time, several next moves are possible
- NP: Class of problems that can be solved by a nondeterministic Turing machine in polynomial time

## Turing Machines

A Turing machine has a finite-state-control (its program), a two way infinite tape (its memory) and a read-write head (its program counter)



## NP-Completeness (Verifiable)

- Verifiable in poly time: given a certificate of a solution, could verify the certificate is correct in poly time.
- Examples (their definitions come later):
  - Hamiltonian-cycle, given a certificate of a sequence  $(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$ , easily verified in poly time.
  - 3-CNF, given a certificate of an assignment 0s, 1s, easily verified in poly time.
  - (so try each instance, and verify it, but  $2^n$  instances)
- Why not defined as “solvable in exponential time?” or “Non Poly time”?

9

## NP-Completeness (why NPC?)

- A problem  $p \in \text{NP}$ , and any other problem  $p' \in \text{NP}$  can be translated as  $p$  in poly time.
- So if  $p$  can be solved in poly time, then all problems in NP can be solved in poly time.
- All current known NP hard problems have been proved to be NPC.

10

## Relation among P, NP, NPC

- $P \subseteq NP$  (Sure)
- $NPC \subseteq NP$  (sure)
- $P = NP$  (or  $P \subset NP$ , or  $P \neq NP$ ) ???
- $NPC = NP$  (or  $NPC \subset NP$ , or  $NPC \neq NP$ ) ???
- $P \neq NP$ : one of the deepest, most perplexing open research problems in (theoretical) computer science since 1971.

11

## Arguments about P, NP, NPC

- No poly algorithm found for any NPC problem (even so many NPC problems)
- No proof that a poly algorithm cannot exist for any of NPC problems, (even having tried so long so hard).
- Most theoretical computer scientists believe that NPC is intractable (i.e., hard, and  $P \neq NP$ ).

12

## Importance of NP-completeness

### Importance of “Is $P=NP$ ” Question

- Practitioners view
  - There exist a large number of interesting and seemingly different problems which have been proven to be NP-complete
  - The  $P=NP$  question represents the question of whether or not all of these interesting and different problems belong to  $P$
  - As the set of NP-complete problems grows, the question becomes more and more interesting

## List of Problem Types from Garey & Johnson, 1979

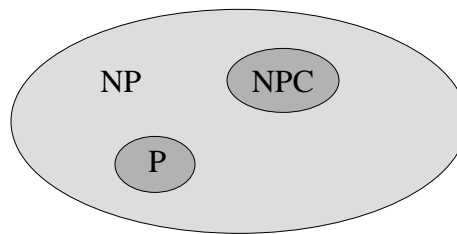
- |                             |                             |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| • Graph Theory              | • Algebra and Number Theory |
| • Network Design            | • Games and Puzzles         |
| • Sets and Partitions       | • Logic                     |
| • Storage and Retrieval     | • Automata and Languages    |
| • Sequencing and Scheduling | • Program Optimization      |
| • Mathematical Programming  | • Miscellaneous             |

## Importance of NP-completeness

### Importance of “Is $P=NP$ ” Question

- Theoretician’s view
  - NP is exactly the set of problems that can be “verified” in polynomial time
  - Thus “Is  $P=NP$ ?” can be rephrased as follows:
    - Is it true that any problem that can be “verified” in polynomial time can also be “solved” in polynomial time?
- Hardness Implications
  - It seems unlikely that all problems that can be verified in polynomial time also can be solved in polynomial time
  - If so, then  $P \neq NP$
  - Thus, proving a problem to be NP-complete is a hardness result as such a problem will not be in  $P$  if  $P \neq NP$ .

### View of Theoretical Computer Scientists on $P$ , $NP$ , $NP$ C



$$P \subset NP, NP-C \subset NP, P \cap NP-C = \emptyset$$



## Why discussion on NPC

- If a problem is proved to be NPC, a good evidence for its intractability (hardness).
- Not waste time on trying to find efficient algorithm for it
- Instead, focus on design approximate algorithm or a solution for a special case of the problem
- Some problems looks very easy on the surface, but in fact, is hard (NPC).

17

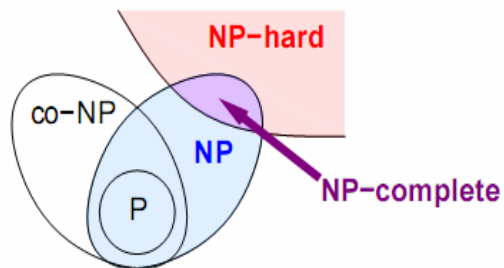
## Overview of showing problems to be NP-complete

- The techniques we use to show that a particular problem is NP-complete differ from the techniques used throughout of this book to design and analyze algorithms. We rely on three key concepts in showing a problem to be NP-complete:
  - Decision problems vs. optimization
  - Reductions
  - A first NP-complete problem

## Complexity Class co-NP

- $P \neq NP$ ?
- Complexity class co-NP  
 $co-NP = \{L | \bar{L} \in NP\}$
- $NP = co-NP$ ?
- Obviously  $P \subset NP \cap co-NP$
- $P = NP \cap co-NP$ ?

## Complexity Classes at-a-Glance



More of what we *think* the world looks like.

## Polynomial time

- All problems in **P** are generally regarded as tractable, but for philosophical, not for mathematical, reasons. We can offer three supporting arguments:
  - 1. There are very few practical problems that require time on the order of such a high-degree polynomial-time  $\mathcal{O}(n^{100})$ .
  - 2. For many reasonable models of computation, a problem that can be solved in polynomial time in one model can be solved in polynomial time in another.
  - 3. The class of polynomial-time solvable problems has nice closure properties, since polynomials are closed under addition, multiplication, and composition.

## Abstract Problems

- We define an *abstract problem*  $Q$  to be a binary relation on a set  $I$  of problem *instances* and a set  $S$  of problem *solutions*.
- The theory of NP-completeness restricts attention to *decision problems*: those having a yes/no solution.
- Many abstract problems are not decision problems, but rather *optimization problems*, in which some value must be minimized or maximized.

## Encodings

- If a computer program is to solve an abstract problem, problem instances must be represented in a way that the program understands.
- An *encoding* of a set  $S$  of abstract objects is a mapping  $e$  from  $S$  to the set of binary strings.
- We call a problem whose instance set is the set of binary strings a *concrete problem*.

- We can now formally define the *complexity class  $P$*  as the set of concrete decision problems that are solvable in polynomial time.
- We can use encodings to map abstract problems to concrete problems.
- The encoding of an abstract problem is quite important to our understanding of polynomial time. We cannot really talk about solving an abstract problem without first specifying an encoding.

- We say that a function  $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$  is ***polynomial-time computable*** if there exists a polynomial-time algorithm  $A$  that, given any input  $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ , produces as output  $f(x)$ .
- For some set  $I$  of problem instances, we say that two encodings  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are ***polynomially related*** if there exist two polynomial-time computable functions  $f_{12}$  and  $f_{21}$  such that for any  $i \in I$ , we have  $f_{12}(e_1(i)) = e_2(i)$  and  $f_{21}(e_2(i)) = e_1(i)$ .

- ***Lemma 34.1***

Let  $Q$  be an abstract decision problem on an instance set  $I$ , and let  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  be polynomially related encodings on  $I$ . Then,  $e_1(Q) \in P$  if and only if  $e_2(Q) \in P$ .

- In order to be able to converse in an encoding-independent fashion, we shall assume that the encoding of an integer is polynomially related to its binary representation, and that the encoding of a finite set is polynomially related to its encoding as a list of its elements, enclosed in braces and separated by commas.

### A formal-language framework

- An *alphabet*  $\Sigma$  is a finite set of symbols. A *language*  $L$  over  $\Sigma$  is any set of strings made up of symbols from  $\Sigma$ .
- We denote the *empty string* by  $\varepsilon$ , and the *empty language* by  $\Phi$ . The language of all strings over  $\Sigma$  is denoted  $\Sigma^*$ . Every language  $L$  over  $\Sigma$  is a subset of  $\Sigma^*$ .

- There are a variety of operations on languages. Set-theoretic operations, such as **union** and **intersection**, follow directly from the set-theoretic definitions. We define the **complement** of  $L$  by  $\bar{L} = \Sigma^* - L$ .
- The **concatenation** of two languages  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  is the language

$$L = \{x_1x_2 : x_1 \in L_1 \text{ and } x_2 \in L_2\} .$$

- The **closure** or **Kleene star** of a language  $L$  is the language

$$L^* = \{\epsilon\} \cup L \cup L^2 \cup L^3 \dots ,$$

where  $L^k$  is the language obtained by concatenating  $L$  to itself  $k$  times.

- From the point of view of language theory, the set of instances for any decision problem  $Q$  is simply the set  $\Sigma^*$ , where  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ . Since  $Q$  is entirely characterized by those problem instances that produce a 1 (yes) answer, we can view  $Q$  as a language  $L$  over  $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$ , where

$$L = \{x \in \Sigma^* : Q(x) = 1\} .$$

- We say that an algorithm  $A$  ***accepts*** a string  $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$  if, given input  $x$ , the algorithm outputs  $A(x) = 1$ . The language ***accepted*** by an algorithm  $A$  is the set  $L = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* : A(x) = 1\}$ , that is, the set of strings that the algorithm accepts. An algorithm  $A$  ***rejects*** a string  $x$  if  $A(x) = 0$ .

- A language  $L$  is ***decided*** by an algorithm  $A$  if every binary string is either accepted or rejected by the algorithm.
- A language  $L$  is ***accepted in polynomial time*** by an algorithm  $A$  if for any length- $n$  string  $x \in L$ , the algorithm accepts  $x$  in time  $O(n^k)$  for some constant  $k$ .
- A language  $L$  is ***decided in polynomial time*** by an algorithm  $A$  if for any length- $n$  string  $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ , the algorithm decides  $x$  in time  $O(n^k)$  for some constant  $k$ .



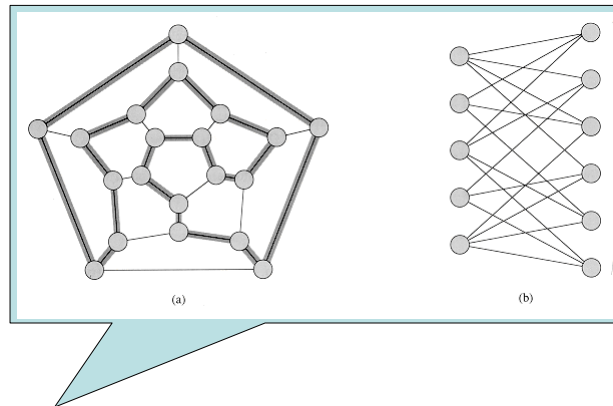
## Polynomial-time verification

- We now look at algorithms that "verify" membership in languages.

## Hamiltonian Cycles

- Formally, a *hamiltonian cycle* of an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a simple cycle that contains each vertex in  $V$ . A graph that contains a hamiltonian cycle is said to be *hamiltonian*; otherwise, it is **nonhamiltonian**.
- We can define the *hamiltonian-cycle problem*, "Does a graph  $G$  have a hamiltonian cycle?" as a formal language:  
HAM-CYCLE =  $\{ \langle G \rangle : G \text{ is a hamiltonian graph} \}$ .

## Hamiltonian Cycles – contd.



## Verification algorithms

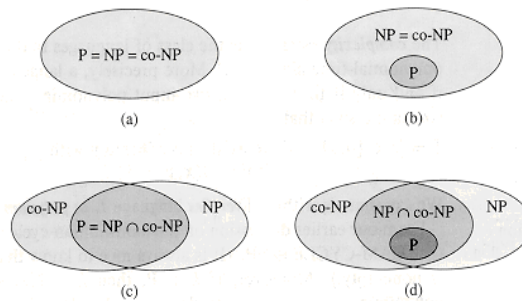
- We define a **verification algorithm** as being a two-argument algorithm  $A$ , where one argument is an ordinary input string  $x$  and the other is a binary string  $y$  called a **certificate**. A two-argument algorithm  $A$  **verifies** an input string  $x$  if there exists a certificate  $y$  such that  $A(x, y) = 1$ .
- The **language verified** by a verification algorithm  $A$  is
$$L = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* : \text{there exists } y \in \{0, 1\}^* \text{ such that } A(x, y) = 1\}.$$

- Intuitively, an algorithm  $A$  verifies a language  $L$  if for any string  $x \in L$ , there is a certificate  $y$  that  $A$  can use to prove that  $x \in L$ . Moreover, for any string  $x \notin L$  there must be no certificate proving that  $x \in L$ .

## The complexity class NP

- The **complexity class NP** is the class of languages that can be verified by a polynomial-time algorithm. More precisely, a language  $L$  belongs to  $NP$  if and only if there exists a two-input polynomial-time algorithm  $A$  and constant  $c$  such that
$$L = \{x \in \{0,1\}^* : \text{there exists a certificate } y \text{ with } |y| = O(|x|^c) \text{ such that } A(x,y) = 1\} .$$
- We say that algorithm  $A$  **verifies** language  $L$  **in polynomial time**.

- We can define the *complexity class* **co-NP** as the set of languages  $L$  such that  $\bar{L} \in NP$ .
- Many other fundamental questions beyond the  $P \neq NP$  question remain unresolved.



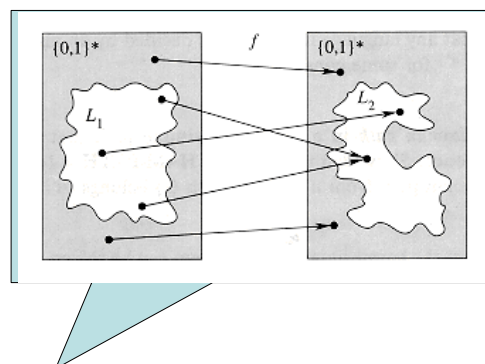
## NP-Completeness and Reducibility

- The NP-complete languages are, in a sense, the "hardest" languages in NP. In this section, we shall show how to compare the relative "hardness" of languages using a precise notion called "polynomial-time reducibility."

## Reducibility

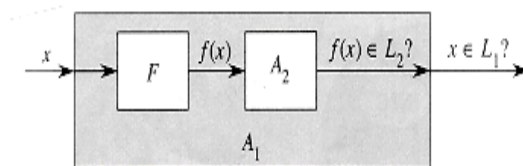
- We say that a language  $L_1$  is **polynomial-time reducible** to a language  $L_2$ , written  $L_1 \leq_p L_2$ , if there exists a polynomial-time computable function  $f: \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$  such that for all  $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ ,  
 $x \in L_1$  if and only if  $f(x) \in L_2$ .
- We call the function  $f$  the reduction function, and a polynomial-time algorithm  $F$  that computes  $f$  is called a **reduction algorithm**.

## Reducibility – contd.



- **Lemma**

If  $L_1, L_2 \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$  are languages such that  $L_1 \leq_P L_2$ , then  $L_2 \in P$  implies  $L_1 \in P$ .



## NP-Completeness

- We can now define the set of NP-complete languages, which are the hardest problems in NP.

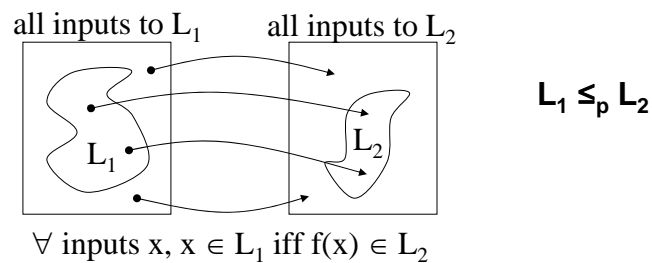
A language  $L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^*$  is **NP-complete** if

1.  $L \in NP$ , and
  2.  $L' \leq_P L$  for every  $L' \in NP$ .
- If a language  $L$  satisfies property 2, but not necessarily property 1, we say that  $L$  is **NP-hard**. We also define **NPC** to be the class of NP-complete languages.

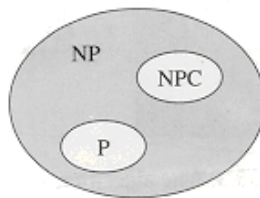
## NP-Completeness – contd.

**Definition:** A decision problem  $L$  is NP-Complete (NPC) if:

1.  $L \in \text{NP}$ , and
2. for every  $L' \in \text{NP}$ ,  $L' \leq_p L$  (i.e., every  $L'$  in NP can be transformed to  $L$ , meaning  $L$  is at least as hard as every problem in NP).



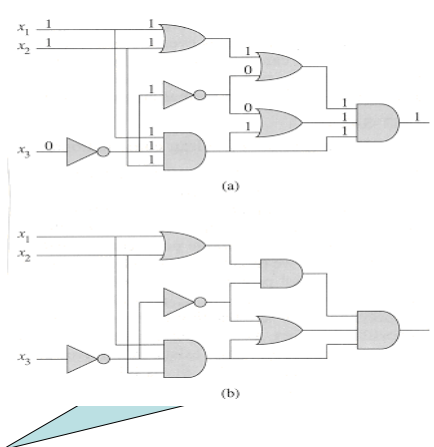
- **Theorem**
- If any NP-complete problem is polynomial-time solvable, then  $P = \text{NP}$ . If any problem in NP is not polynomial-time solvable, then all NP-complete problems are not polynomial-time solvable.



## Circuit Satisfiability

- A ***truth assignment*** for a boolean combinational circuit is a set of boolean input values. We say that a one-output boolean combinational circuit is ***satisfiable*** if it has a ***satisfying assignment***: a truth assignment that causes the output of the circuit to be 1.

## Circuit Satisfiability – contd.





- The *circuit-satisfiability problem* is, "Given a boolean combinational circuit composed of AND, OR, and NOT gates, is it satisfiable?"
- One can devise a graphlike encoding that maps any given circuit  $C$  into a binary string  $\langle C \rangle$  whose length is not much larger than the size of the circuit itself. As a formal language, we can therefore define

$$\text{CIRCUIT-SAT} = \{ \langle C \rangle : C \text{ is a satisfiable boolean combinational circuit} \} .$$

- ***Lemma*** The circuit-satisfiability problem belongs to the class NP.

- ***Lemma*** The circuit-satisfiability problem is NP-hard.
- ***Theorem*** The circuit-satisfiability problem is NP-complete.

## NP-Completeness Proofs

- ***Lemma***  
If  $L$  is a language such that  $L' \leq_p L$  for some  $L' \in \text{NPC}$ , then  $L$  is NP-hard. Moreover, if  $L \in \text{NP}$ , then  $L \in \text{NPC}$ .

- Lemma gives us a method for proving that a language  $L$  is NP-complete:
  - 1. Prove  $L \in \text{NP}$ .
  - 2. Select a known NP-complete language  $L'$ .
  - 3. Describe an algorithm that computes a function  $f$  mapping every instance of  $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$  of  $L'$  to an instance  $f(x)$  of  $L$ .
  - 4. Prove that the function  $f$  satisfies  $x \in L'$  if and only if  $f(x) \in L$  for all  $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$ .
  - 5. Prove that the algorithm computing  $f$  runs in polynomial time.

## Formula Satisfiability

- We formulate the *(formula) satisfiability* problem in terms of the language SAT as follows. An instance of SAT is a boolean formula  $\phi$  composed of
  - 1. boolean variables:  $x_1, x_2, \dots$ ;
  - 2. boolean connectives: any boolean function with one or two inputs and one output, such as  $\wedge$  (AND),  $\vee$  (OR),  $\neg$  (NOT),  $\rightarrow$  (implication),  $\leftrightarrow$  (if and only if); and
  - 3. parentheses.

- As in boolean combinational circuits, a ***truth assignment*** for a boolean formula is a set of values for the variables of  $\varphi$ .
- A ***satisfying assignment*** is a truth assignment that causes it to evaluate to 1.
- A formula with a satisfying assignment is a ***satisfiable*** formula.
- The satisfiability problem asks whether a given boolean formula is satisfiable; in formal-language terms,  
$$\text{SAT} = \{ \langle \varphi \rangle : \varphi \text{ is a satisfiable boolean formula} \} .$$

- ***Theorem***  
Satisfiability of boolean formulas is NP-complete.

