
NP-Completeness

Almost all algorithms considered so far run in worst-case polynomial time.

That is,

$$T(n) = O(n^k) \text{ for some constant } k$$

n = input size

| | Size n | | | | | |
|------------|----------|----------|-----------|----------------|---------------------------|------|
| Complexity | 10 | 20 | 30 | 40 | 50 | |
| n | .00001 s | .00002 s | .00003 s | .00004 s | .00005 s | |
| n^2 | .0001 s | .0004 s | .0009 s | .0016 s | .0025 s | |
| n^3 | .001 s | .008 s | .027 s | .064 s | .125 s | |
| n^5 | .1 s | 3.2 s | 24.3 s | 1.7 min | 5.2 min | |
| 2^n | .001 s | 1.0 s | 17.9 min | 12.7 days | 35.7 years | |
| 3^n | .059 s | 58 min | 6.5 years | 3855 centuries | 2×10^8 centuries | 1.3x |

P

The class of algorithms that run in polynomial time is called **P**.

Algorithms that require more (exponential) time are “intractable”

Some *problems* seem to inherently require more time

One class of such problems is Nondeterministically Polynomial (NP), also called polynomial-time verifiable

Obviously, $P \subseteq NP$, but $P \subset NP$ (or $P = NP$) is an open question

An NP-Complete problem is in NP and is as hard as any problem in NP.

Such a problem not necessarily in NP is called NP-Hard.

If $P = NP$, then a large class of NP-Complete problems would have a polynomial-time solution.

Thus, most researchers advocate $P \subset NP$ ($P \neq NP$)

We would like to know the class to which a problem belongs.

Problems

A _____ Q is a binary relation on a set I of _____
and a set S of _____.

Example: Shortest-Path Problem

Instance: graph G

vertices u and v

Solution: sequences of vertices (shortest path)

Decision Problems

A _____ is a problem whose solution set $S = \{\text{no}, \text{yes}\}$
or $\{0, 1\}$.

Example: Path decision problem

Instance: graph G
vertices u and v
non-negative integer k

Solution: 1, if path $u \rightsquigarrow v$ with length at most k
0, otherwise

Encoding Problems

An _____ of a problem is a mapping from problem instances to symbol strings over some alphabet Σ , where $|\Sigma| \geq 2$.

Typically, $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.

Problems represented as binary strings are called _____ problems.

An algorithm _____ a concrete problem in time $O(T(n))$ if, when provided any problem instance i of length $n = |i|$, the algorithm can produce the solution in at most $O(T(n))$ time.

A concrete problem is _____ if there exists an algorithm to solve it in time $O(n^k)$ for some constant k .

The _____ is the set of concrete decision problems solvable in polynomial time.

Formal Languages

These provide a convenient framework for analyzing decision problems.

An _____ Σ is a finite set of symbols.

A _____ L over Σ is any set of strings made up of symbols in Σ .

Denote **empty string** ϵ and **empty language** \emptyset .

The language of all strings over Σ is Σ^* .

E.g., if $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$, $\Sigma^* = \{\epsilon, 0, 1, 00, 01, 10, 11, 000, ..\}$

Example: PATH decision problem language

PATH = $\{\langle G, u, v, k \rangle \mid G = (V, E)$ is a directed graph, $u, v \in V$, $k \geq 0$ is an integer, and there exists a path from u to v in G whose length is at most $k\}$

Note that the problem $\langle G, u, v, k \rangle$ is encoded as a binary string.

Decision Problems and Algorithms

An algorithm A _____ a string $x \in \{0,1\}^*$ if, given input x , the algorithm outputs $A(x) = 1$

The language _____ by an algorithm A is the set $L = \{x \in \{0,1\}^* \mid A(x) = 1\}$

An algorithm A _____ a string x if $A(x) = 0$

A language L is _____ by an algorithm A if every binary string is either accepted or rejected by the algorithm.

Example

The language PATH is decided by the following algorithm in polynomial time:

Use Bellman-Ford to find shortest path from u to v in G
If $\text{length}(\text{path}) \leq k$
then output 1
else output 0

Decision Problems and Algorithms

A _____ is a set of languages, membership in which is determined by a _____ (e.g., running time) on an algorithm that determines whether a given string belongs to a language.

Example

$P = \{L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^* \mid \text{there exists an algorithm } A \text{ that decides } L \text{ in polynomial time}\}$

Theorem 36.2

$P = \{L \mid L \text{ is accepted by a polynomial time algorithm}\}$

Proof:

There exists an algorithm A' that runs algorithm A for a polynomial amount of time and rejects if A has not yet accepted the string; otherwise accepts.

Polynomial-Time Verification

Given a problem instance and a solution (**certificate**), verify that the solution solves the problem.

Example: PATH problem

Given: $\langle G, u, v, k \rangle$, path p

Verify: $\text{length}(p) \leq k$

In some cases, having a certificate does not help much since verification is no faster than generating a solution from scratch (e.g., PATH).

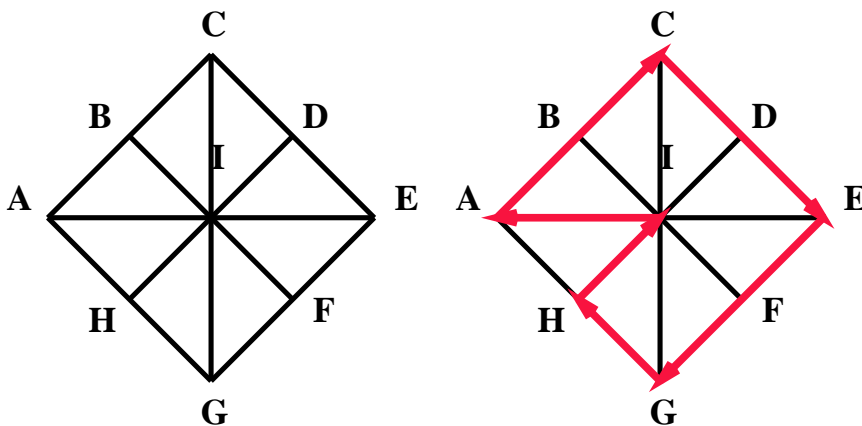
However, this is not true of all problems...

Hamiltonian Cycles

A **Hamiltonian Cycle** of an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ is a simple cycle that contains each vertex in V .

Hamiltonian Cycle Decision Problem: Does a graph G have a Hamiltonian Cycle?

Language: $\text{HAM-CYCLE} = \{ \langle G \rangle \mid G \text{ contains a Hamiltonian Cycle} \}$



Naive Solution: Try all possible cycles.

If encode graph as an adjacency matrix and $n = | \langle G \rangle |$, then the number of vertices m in G is $\Omega(\sqrt{n})$. There are $m!$ permutations of vertices (possible cycles); thus, running time is $\Omega(m!) = \Omega(\sqrt{n}!) = \Omega(2^{\sqrt{n}})$, which is $\neq O(n^k)$ for any constant k .

In fact, HAM-CYCLE is NP-Complete.

Verification Algorithms

Consider a corresponding verification problem for HAM-CYCLE:

Given a cycle and a graph G , verify if cycle is a Hamiltonian cycle in G .

Running time: $O(n^2)$

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

The **complexity class NP** is the class of languages that can be verified by a polynomial-time algorithm.

$L \in NP$ if algorithm A verifies language L in polynomial time.

Example: HAM-CYCLE $\in NP$

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' , whose solution provides a solution to the instance of Q .

Example: Solving $ax + b = 0$ reduces to solving $0x^2 + ax + b = 0$.

A language L_1 is **poly-time reducible** to language L_2 , written $L_1 \leq_P L_2$, if there exists a poly-time computable function $f : \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$ such that for all $x \in \{0,1\}^*$:

$$x \in L_1 \text{ iff } f(x) \in L_2$$

where f is the **reduction function**.

This is a one-way function. Q' will not always reduce to Q .

Examples

The following example illustrates the concept of reducibility. Consider three problems, A , B , and C :

- $A = \text{Prime}(n)$: The problem of determining whether or not n is a prime number.
- $B = \text{Numberfactor}(n)$: The problem of counting the number of distinct primes that divide n .

- $C = \text{Smallestfactor}(n)$: The problem of finding the smallest integer $x \geq 2$ such that x divides n .

In this example $A \leq_P C$, and $B \leq_P C$. Why?

Thus the solution of $\text{Smallestfactor}(n)$ tells us that n is not a prime.

To see how $B \leq_P C$ we need a simple algorithm that counts the number of distinct divisors of n using C .

Lemma 36.3

If $L_1, L_2 \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$, and $L_1 \leq_P L_2$, then $L_2 \in P$ implies $L_1 \in P$.

For any instance of L_1
map to L_2 (poly time)
solve L_2 (poly time)

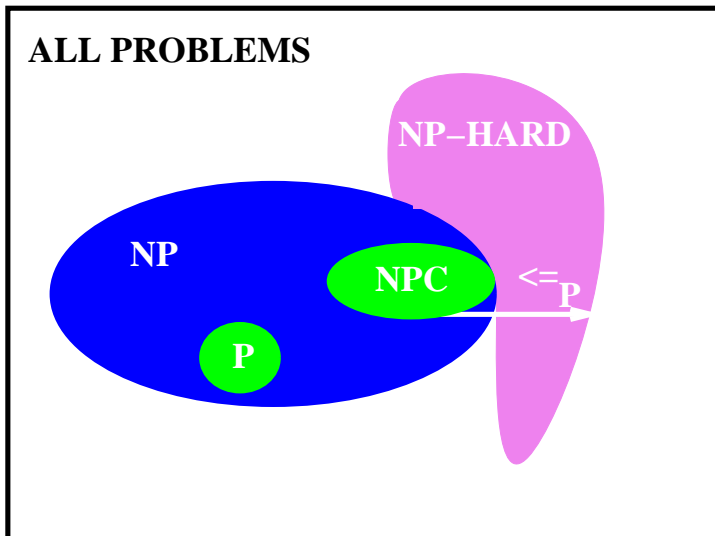
Thus if we can solve L_2 in poly time we can solve L_1 in poly time.

NP-Completeness

NP-Complete problems are the hardest problems (no problem is harder) in NP, i.e., every problem in NP reduces to an NP-Complete problem.

- A language $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ is **NP-Complete** if $L \in \text{NP}$, and $L' \leq_P L$ for every $L' \in \text{NP}$.
- The class of NP-Complete languages is called **NPC**.
- A language $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$ is **NP-Hard** if $L' \leq_P L$ for every $L' \in \text{NP}$.

- A language that is NP-Hard is not necessarily in NP.
 E.g., Kth Largest Subset is NP-Hard, but not NPC.
 KLS: are there at least K distinct subsets A' of set A such that $\sum_{a \in A'} a \leq B$?



If we can solve one NPC problem in polynomial time, we can solve every problem in NP in polynomial time. For this reason, many assume $P \neq NP$.

Theorem 36-4

If any NP-Complete problem is poly-time solvable, then $P = NP$.

If any problem in NP is provably not poly-time solvable, then all NP-Complete problems are not poly-time solvable.

If we can prove one problem is NP-Complete, then we can prove others more easily by showing an NP-Complete problem reduces to them.