

CSE 421
Introduction to Algorithms
Winter 2000

NP-Completeness
(Chapter 11)

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Easy Problems vs. Hard Problems

Easy - problems whose worst case running time is bounded by some **polynomial** in the size of the input.

Easy = Efficient

Hard - problems that *cannot be solved efficiently*.

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The class P

Definition: P = set of problems solvable by computers in polynomial time.

i.e. $T(n) = O(n^k)$ for some k .

- These problems are sometimes called **tractable** problems.

Examples: sorting, SCC, matching, max flow, shortest path, MST – *all of 421 except Stamps/Knapsack/Partition*

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Is P a good definition of efficient?

Is $O(n^{100})$ efficient? Is $O(10^9n)$ efficient?

Are $O(2^n)$, $O(2^{n/1000})$, $O(n \log n)$, ... really so bad?

So we have:

P = "easy" = efficient = tractable
= solvable in polynomial-time

not P = hard = not tractable

} **USUALLY**

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Decision Problems

- Technically, we restrict discussion to **decision problems** - problems that have an answer of either yes or no.
- Usually easy to convert to decision problem:
 - **Example:** Instead of looking for the size of the shortest path from s to t in a graph G , we ask: “Is there a path from s to t of length $\leq k$?”

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Examples of Decision Problems in P

Big Flow

Given: graph G with edge lengths, vertices s and t , integer k .

Question: Is there an s - t flow of length $\geq k$?

Small Spanning Tree

Given: weighted undirected graph G , integer k .

Question: Is there a spanning tree of weight $\leq k$?

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Decision Problems

Loss of generality?

- A. Not much. If we know how to solve the decision problem, then we can usually solve the original problem.
- B. More importantly, decision problem is easier (at least, not harder), so a **lower bound on decision problem is a lower bound on general problem.**

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Decision problem as a Language-recognition problem

- Let U be the set of all possible inputs to the decision problem.
- $L \subseteq U$ = the set of all inputs for which the answer to the problem is **yes**.
- We call L the **language** corresponding to the problem. (problem = language)
- The decision problem is thus:
 - to recognize whether or not a given input belongs to L = the language recognition problem.

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The class NP

Definition: NP = set of problems solvable by a *nondeterministic* algorithm in polynomial time.

Another way of saying this:

NP = The class of problems whose solution can be **verified** in polynomial time.

NP = “nondeterministic polynomial”

Examples: all of problems in P plus: SAT, TSP, Hamiltonian cycle, bin packing, vertex cover.

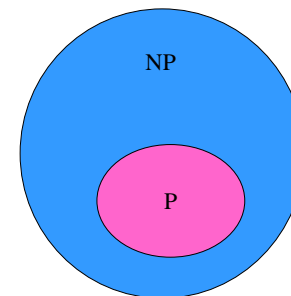
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Complexity Classes

NP = Polynomial-time **verifiable**

P = Polynomial-time **solvable**



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Verifying Solutions

Given a **problem** and a **potential solution**, **verify** that the solution is correct in polynomial-time.

In general, **guess** a solution, and then **check** if the guess is correct in polynomial time.

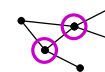
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Examples of Problems in NP

Vertex Cover

A **vertex cover** of G is a set of vertices such that every edge in G is incident to at least one of these vertices. Example:



Question: Given a graph G , integer k , determine whether G has a vertex cover containing $\leq k$ vertices?

Verify: Given a set of $\leq k$ vertices, does it cover every edge? (Guess and check in polynomial time.)

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Examples of Problems in NP

Satisfiability (SAT)

A Boolean formula in conjunctive normal form (CNF) is **satisfiable** if there exists a truth assignment of 0's and 1's to its variables such that the value of the expression is 1. Example:

$$S = (x + y + \neg z) \cdot (\neg x + y + z) \cdot (\neg x + \neg y + \neg z)$$

Question: Given a Boolean formula in CNF, is it satisfiable?

Verify: Given a truth assignment, does it satisfy the formula? (Guess and check in polynomial time.)

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Problems in P can also be verified in polynomial-time

Shortest Path: Given a graph G with edge lengths, is there a path from s to t of length $\leq k$?

Verify: Given a path from s to t , is its length $\leq k$?

Small Spanning Tree: Given a weighted undirected graph G , is there a spanning tree of weight $\leq k$?

Verify: Given a spanning tree, is its weight $\leq k$?

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Nondeterminism

- A **nondeterministic algorithm** has all the “regular” operations of any other algorithm available to it.
- *In addition*, it has a powerful primitive, the **nd-choice primitive**.
- The **nd-choice primitive** is associated with a fixed number of choices, such that each choice causes the algorithm to follow a different computation path.

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Nondeterminism (cont.)

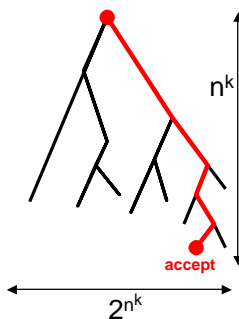
- A **nondeterministic algorithm** consists of an interleaving of regular deterministic steps and uses of the **nd-choice primitive**.
- Definition: the algorithm accepts a language L if and only if
 - It has at least one “good” (accepting) sequence of choices for every $x \in L$, and
 - For all $x \notin L$, it reaches a reject outcome on **all** paths.

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P vs NP vs Exponential Time

- Theorem: Every problem in NP can be solved deterministically in exponential time
- Proof: the nondeterministic algorithm makes only n^k nd-choices. Try all 2^{n^k} possibilities; if any succeed, accept; if all fail, reject.



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The class NP-complete

We are pretty sure that no problem in NP – P can be solved in polynomial time.

Non-Definition: NP-complete = the **hardest** problems in the class NP. (Formal definition later.)

Interesting fact: If any one NP-complete problem could be solved in polynomial time, then **all** NP-complete problems could be solved in polynomial time.

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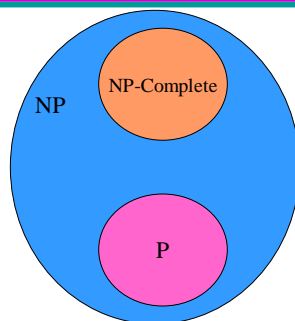
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Complexity Classes

NP = Poly-time **verifiable**

P = Poly-time **solvable**

NP-Complete = “**Hardest**” problems in NP



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The class NP-complete (cont.)

Thousands of important problems have been shown to be NP-complete.

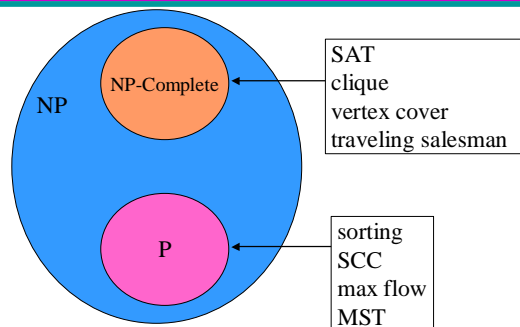
Fact (Dogma): The general belief is that there is no efficient algorithm for any **NP-complete** problem, but no proof of that belief is known.

Examples: SAT, clique, vertex cover, Hamiltonian cycle, TSP, bin packing.

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Complexity Classes of Problems



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Does $P = NP$?

- This is an open question.
- To show that $P = NP$, we have to show that every problem that belongs to NP can be solved by a polynomial time deterministic algorithm.
- No one has shown this yet.
- (It seems unlikely to be true.)

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Is all of this useful for anything??!

Earlier in this class we learned techniques for solving problems in **P**.

Question: Do we just throw up our hands if we come across a problem we suspect **not to be in P**?

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Dealing with NP-complete Problems

What if I think my problem is not in P?

Here is what you might do:

- 1) Prove your problem is **NP-complete**
(a common, but not guaranteed outcome)
- 2) Come up with an algorithm to solve the problem **usually** or **approximately**.

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Reductions: a useful tool

Definition: To **reduce** A to B means to figure out how to solve A, given a subroutine solving B.

Example: reduce MEDIAN to SORT

Solution: sort, then select $(n/2)$ th

Example: reduce SORT to FIND_MAX

Solution: FIND_MAX, remove it, repeat

Example: reduce MEDIAN to FIND_MAX

Solution: transitivity: compose solutions above.

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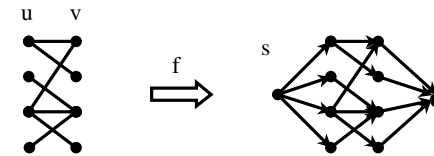
More Examples of reductions

Example:

reduce BIPARTITE_MATCHING to MAX_FLOW

Is there a matching of size k ?

Is there a flow of size k ?



All capacities = 1

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Polynomial-Time Reductions

Definition: Let L_1 and L_2 be two languages from the input spaces U_1 and U_2 .

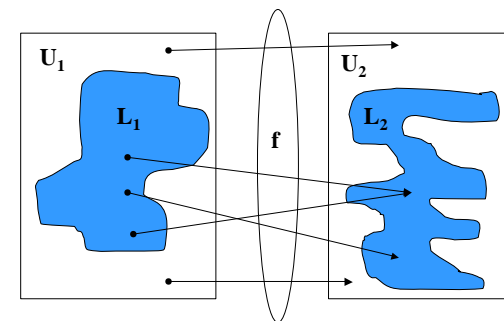
We say that L_1 is **polynomially reducible** to L_2 if there exists a polynomial-time algorithm f that converts each input $u_1 \in U_1$ to another input $u_2 \in U_2$ such that $u_1 \in L_1$ iff $u_2 \in L_2$.

$$u_1 \in L_1 \Leftrightarrow f(u_1) \in L_2$$

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Polynomial-time Reduction from language L_1 to language L_2 via reduction function f .



$$u_1 \in L_1 \Leftrightarrow f(u_1) \in L_2$$

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Polynomial-Time Reductions (cont.)

Define: $A \leq_p B$ “A is polynomial-time reducible to B”, iff there is a polynomial-time computable function f such that: $x \in A \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in B$

“complexity of A” \leq “complexity of B” + “complexity of f ”

(1) $A \leq_p B$ and $B \in P \Rightarrow A \in P$

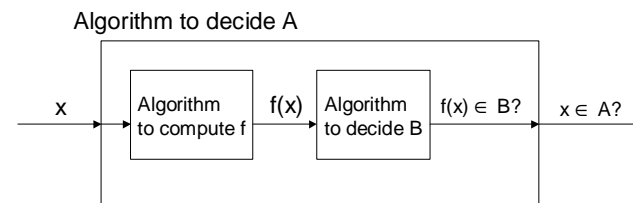
(2) $A \leq_p B$ and $A \notin P \Rightarrow B \notin P$

(3) $A \leq_p B$ and $B \leq_p C \Rightarrow A \leq_p C$ (transitivity)

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Using an Algorithm for B to Decide A



“If $A \leq_p B$, and we can solve B in polynomial time, then we can solve A in polynomial time also.”

Ex: suppose f takes $O(n^3)$ and algorithm for B takes $O(n^2)$. How long does the above algorithm for A take?

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Definition of NP-Completeness

Definition: Problem B is **NP-hard** if every problem in NP is polynomially reducible to B .

Definition: Problem B is **NP-complete** if:

- (1) B belongs to NP, and
- (2) B is NP-hard.

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Proving a problem is NP-complete

- Technically, for condition (2) we have to show that **every** problem in NP is reducible to B . (yikes!) This sounds like a lot of work.
- For the **very first NP-complete problem** (SAT) this had to be proved directly.
- However, once we have one NP-complete problem, then we don't have to do this every time.
- Why? Transitivity.

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Re-stated Definition

Lemma 11.3: Problem B is **NP-complete** if:

- (1) B belongs to NP, and
- (2') A is polynomial-time reducible to B , for some problem A that is NP-complete.

That is, to show (2') given a new problem B , it is sufficient to show that SAT or any other NP-complete problem is polynomial-time reducible to B .

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Usefulness of Transitivity

Now we only have to show $L' \leq_p L$, for some problem $L' \in \mathbf{NP-complete}$, in order to show that L is NP-hard. Why is this equivalent?

- 1) Since $L' \in \mathbf{NP-complete}$, we know that L' is NP-hard. That is:

$$\forall L'' \in \mathbf{NP}, \text{ we have } L'' \leq_p L'$$

- 2) If we show $L' \leq_p L$, then by transitivity we know that: $\forall L'' \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have $L'' \leq_p L$.

Thus L is NP-hard.

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The growth of the number of NP-complete problems

- Steve Cook (1971) showed that SAT was NP-complete.
- Richard Karp (1972) found 24 more NP-complete problems.
- Today there are thousands of known NP-complete problems.
 - Garey and Johnson (1979) is an excellent source of NP-complete problems.

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SAT is NP-complete

Cook's theorem: SAT is NP-complete

Satisfiability (SAT)

A Boolean formula in conjunctive normal form (CNF) is **satisfiable** if there exists a truth assignment of 0's and 1's to its variables such that the value of the expression is 1. Example:

$$S = (x + y + \neg z) \cdot (\neg x + y + z) \cdot (\neg x + \neg y + \neg z)$$

Example above is satisfiable. (We can see this by setting $x=1$, $y=1$ and $z=0$.)

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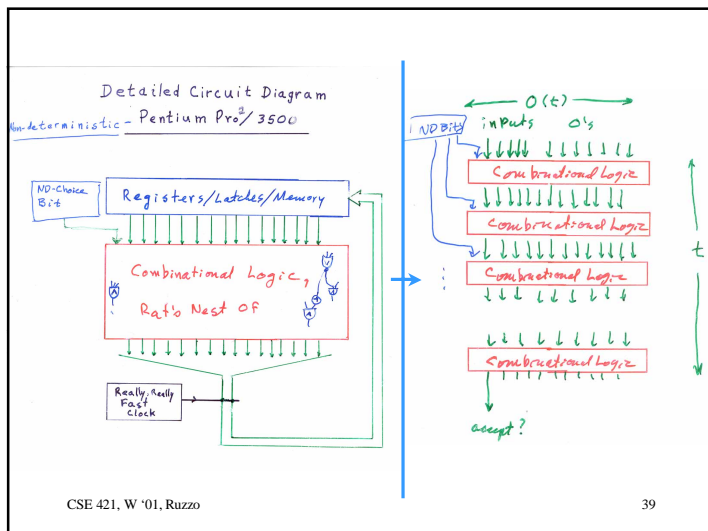
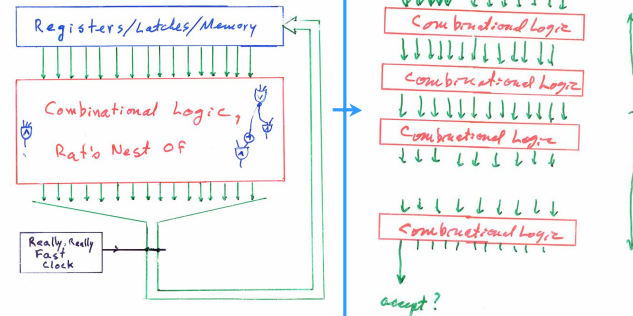
SAT is NP-complete

Rough idea of proof:

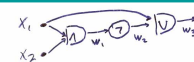
- (1) **SAT is in NP** because we can guess a truth assignment and check that it satisfies the expression in polynomial time.
- (2) **SAT is NP-hard** because

Cook proved it directly, but easier to see via an intermediate problem – **Circuit-SAT**

Detailed Circuit Diagram
Pentium Pro³/3500



Circuit-SAT \leq_p 3-SAT



$$(w_1 \leftrightarrow (x_1 \wedge x_2)) \wedge (w_2 \leftrightarrow (\neg w_1)) \wedge (w_3 \leftrightarrow (w_2 \vee w_1))$$

replace with
3-CNF Equivalent

x_1	x_2	w_1	$(x_1 \wedge x_2)$	$\neg(w_1 \leftrightarrow (x_1 \wedge x_2))$
0	0	0	0	1 ← $\bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 w_1$
0	0	1	0	1 ← $\bar{x}_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{w}_1$
0	1	0	0	0
0	1	1	0	1 ← $x_1 \bar{x}_2 w_1$
1	0	0	0	1 ← $x_1 \bar{x}_2 \bar{w}_1$
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	1	0
1	1	1	1	0

$$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee \bar{w}_1) \wedge (x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2 \vee \bar{w}_1) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee x_2 \vee w_1) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_2 \vee w_1)$$

How do you prove problem A is NP-complete?

- 1) **Prove A is in NP:** show that given a solution, it can be verified in polynomial time.
- 2) **Prove that A is NP-hard:**
 - a) Select a **known NP-complete problem B** .
 - b) Describe a polynomial time computable algorithm that computes a function f , **mapping every instance of B to an instance of A** . (that is: $B \leq_p A$)
 - c) Prove that every **yes**-instance of B maps to a **yes**-instance of A , and every **no**-instance of B maps to a **no**-instance of A .
 - d) Prove that the algorithm computing f runs in **polynomial time**. 41

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Proof that problem A is NP-complete

- 1) **Prove A is in NP:** "Given a possible solution to A , I can verify its correctness in polynomial-time."
- 2) **Prove that A is NP-hard:**
 - a) "I will reduce known NP-complete problem B to A ."
 - b) "Let b be an arbitrary instance of problem B . Here is how you convert b to an instance a of problem A ." Note: this method must work for ANY instance of B .
 - c) "If a is a "yes"-instance, then this implies that b is also a "yes"-instance. **Conversely**, if b is a "yes"-instance, then this implies that a is also a "yes"-instance."
 - d) "The conversion from B to A runs in polynomial time because...." 42

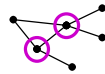
your
function
 f

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NP-complete problem: Vertex Cover

Input: Undirected graph $G = (V, E)$, integer k .
Output: True iff there is a subset C of V of size $\leq k$ such that every edge in E is incident to at least one vertex in C .

Example: Vertex cover of size ≤ 2 .



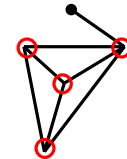
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NP-complete problem: Clique

Input: Undirected graph $G = (V, E)$, integer k .
Output: True iff there is a subset C of V of size $\geq k$ such that all vertices in C are connected to all other vertices in C .

Example: Clique of size ≥ 4



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NP-complete problem: Satisfiability (SAT)

Input: A Boolean formula in CNF form.

Output: True iff there is a truth assignment of 0's and 1's to the variables such that the value of the expression is 1.

Example: Formula S is satisfiable with the truth assignment $x=1, y=1$ and $z=0$.

$$S=(x+y+\neg z)\bullet(\neg x+y+z)\bullet(\neg x+\neg y+\neg z)$$

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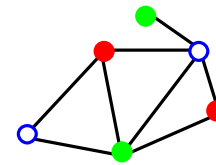
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NP-complete problem: 3-Coloring

Input: An undirected graph $G=(V,E)$.

Output: True iff there is an assignment of colors to the vertices in G such that no two adjacent vertices have the same color. (using only 3 colors)

Example:



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NP-complete problem: Knapsack

Input: set of objects with weights and values, a maximum weight that can be carried and a desired value. (see p. 357 in Manber)

Output: True iff there is a subset of the objects with (total weight \leq allowable weight) and (total value \geq desired value).

Example: Items: $\{a, b, c\}$, size(a)=3, size(b)=6, size(c)=4
value(a)=\$30, value(b)=\$24, value(c)=\$18
Max weight = 10, Desired value = \$50.

Answer: yes, $\{a,b\}$

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NP-complete problem: Partition

Input: Set of items S , each with an associated size. The sum of the items' sizes is $2k$.

Output: True iff there is a subset of the items whose sizes add up to k .

Example: $S = (2,3,1,10,4,6)$. Is there a subset of items that sums to 13? (yes)

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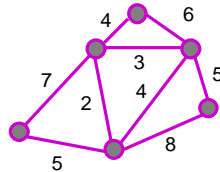
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NP-complete problem: TSP

Input: An undirected graph $G=(V,E)$ with integer edge weights, and an integer b .

Output: True iff there is a simple cycle in G passing through all vertices (once), with total cost $\leq b$.

Example:
 $b = 34$

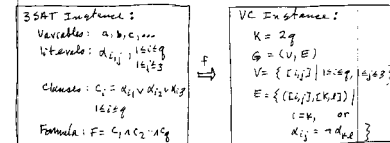


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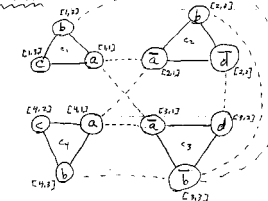
3SAT \leq^P Vertex Cover

Def: Vertex Cover (VC) = $\{ \langle G, K \rangle \mid$ undirected graph G has a vertex cover of size $\leq K\}$. $U \subseteq V$ is a vertex cover if all edges touch some $u \in U$.



EXAMPLE

- $C_1 (a \vee b \vee c)$
- $C_2 (a \wedge \neg b \vee b)$
- $C_3 (a \wedge \neg a \vee \neg b)$
- $C_4 (a \vee \neg b)$



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Proof: #499

conclusion: $W \in 3SAT \Leftrightarrow F \in VC$

- ① (\Rightarrow) Let F be a satisfying assignment.
 - a) choose $U \subseteq V, |U| = K = 2g$:
 For $1 \leq i \leq g$, let j_i be the var. a_{ij_i} is true.
 $U = \{C_{ij_i} \mid 1 \leq i \leq g\}$
 - b) Prove U is a vertex cover:
 - ① includes 2 of 3 vertices on each Δ so those edges covered
 - ② only those literals omitted from U , so for every Δ edge, at least one end in U .
- ② (\Leftarrow) Let $U \subseteq V$ be a vertex cover, $|U| \leq K$.
 - a) choose a set of literals:
 - $A = \{a_{ij} \mid C_{ij} \notin U\}$
 - b) Prove $A = \text{TRUE}$ is a satisfying assignment.
 - ① A contains no pair of complementary literals $a_{ij} = \neg a_{kl}$, else $C_{ij} \dots C_{kl} \in U$ impossible. A is an assignment.
 - ② Since $|U| \leq K$, if any Δ has all 3 vertices in U , then some other has Δ vertices in U , contradicting $|U| \leq K$.
 $\therefore |U| = 2g$, & each triangle has exactly 2 in U , so each clause has a true literal.

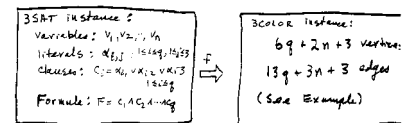
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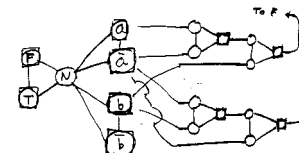
3SAT \leq^P 3COLOR

DEF 3COLOR = $\{ G \mid G \text{ is a 3-colorable graph} \}$

$G = (V, E)$ is 3-colorable iff there is a function $\chi: V \rightarrow \{1, 2, 3\}$ st $\chi(u) \neq \chi(v)$ for all $(u, v) \in E$.



Example $(a \vee \neg b) \wedge (\neg a \vee b) \wedge \dots$



All Square Nodes connect to N

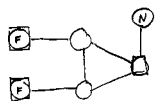
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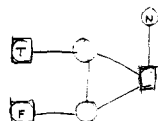
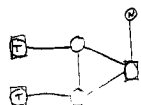
A 3-Coloring Gadget

"Sort of an OR gate":

(1) if any input is T,
the output can be T



(2) if output is T,
some input must be T



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Coping with NP-Completeness

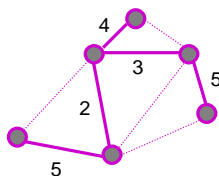
- Is your real problem a special subcase?
 - E.g. 3-SAT is NP-complete, but 2-SAT is not;
 - Ditto 3- vs 2-coloring
 - E.g. maybe you only need planar graphs, or degree 3 graphs, or ...
- Guaranteed approximation good enough?
 - E.g. Euclidean TSP within $1.5 * \text{Opt}$ in poly time
- Clever exhaustive search, e.g. Branch & Bound
- Heuristics – usually a good approximation and/or usually fast

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2x Approximation to Euclidean TSP

- A TSP tour visits all vertices, so contains a spanning tree, so TSP cost is $>$ cost of min spanning tree.
- Find MST
- Double all edges
- Find Euler Tour
- Shortcut
- Cost of shortcut $<$ $\text{ET} = 2 * \text{MST} < 2 * \text{TSP}$

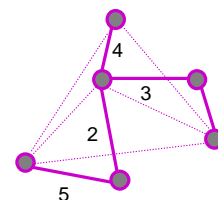


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1.5x Approximation to Euclidean TSP

- Find MST
- Find min cost matching among odd-degree tree vertices
- Cost of matching $\leq \text{TSP}/2$
- Find Euler Tour
- Shortcut
- Shortcut $\leq \text{ET} \leq \text{MST} + \text{TSP}/2 < 1.5 * \text{TSP}$



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