

# CSEP 521- Applied Algorithms

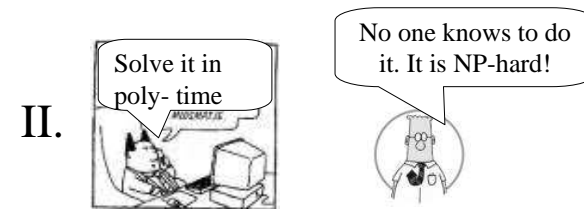
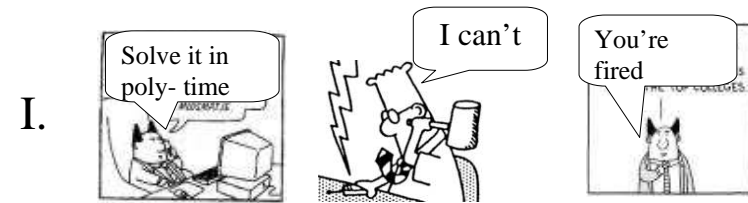
## NP-hardness

Reading:

- Skiena, chapter 6
- CLRS, chapter 36 (1<sup>st</sup> Ed.)  
chapter 34 (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.)

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# NP-Completeness Theory



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# NP-Completeness Theory

- Explains why some problems are hard and probably not solvable in polynomial time.
- Invented by Cook in 1971.
- Talks about the problems, independent of the implementation the machine, or the algorithm.

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# Polynomial-Time Algorithms

- Some problems are intractable: as they grow large, we are unable to solve them in reasonable time.
- What constitutes reasonable time?  
Standard working definition: polynomial time
  - On an input of size  $n$  the worst-case running time is  $O(n^k)$  for some constant  $k$
  - Polynomial time:  $O(n^2)$ ,  $O(n^3)$ ,  $O(1)$ ,  $O(n \log n)$
  - Not in polynomial time:  $O(2^n)$ ,  $O(n^n)$ ,  $O(n!)$

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## Polynomial-Time Algorithms

- Are some problems solvable in polynomial time?
  - Of course: most of the algorithms we've studied so far provide polynomial-time solution to some problems.
  - We define  $P$  to be the class of problems solvable in polynomial time.
- Are all problems solvable in polynomial time?
  - No: Turing's "Halting Problem" is not solvable by any computer, no matter how much time is given
  - Such problems are clearly intractable, not in  $P$

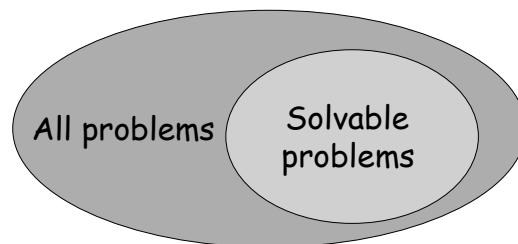
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## The Unsolvability of the Halting Problem

- For a given program  $P$  and input  $x$ , does  $P$  halt on  $x$ ?
  - Suggested solution: Let's run  $P$  on  $x$  and check.
  - But what if  $P$  doesn't halt after 2 minutes? 10 days? A year?
- Turing: The halting problem cannot be solved!  
Proof: In bonus slides.

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So some problems cannot be solved at all



We will explore the 'solvable area', and will distinguish between problems that can be solved efficiently and those that cannot be solved efficiently.

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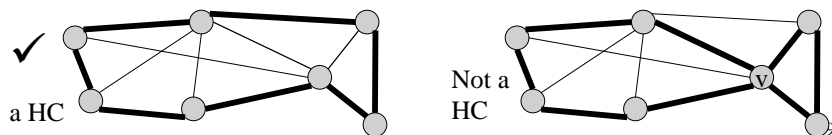
## NP-Complete Problems

- The *NP-Complete* problems are an interesting class of solvable problems whose status is unknown
  - No polynomial-time algorithm has been discovered for an NP-Complete problem.
  - No above-polynomial lower bound has been proved for any NP-Complete problem, either.
- We call this the *P = NP question*
  - The biggest open problem in CS.

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## An NP-Complete Problem: Hamiltonian Cycles

- An example of an NP-Complete problem:
  - A *hamiltonian cycle* of an undirected graph is a simple cycle that contains every vertex.
  - The hamiltonian-cycle problem: given a graph  $G$ , does it have a hamiltonian cycle?
  - A naive algorithm for solving the hamiltonian-cycle problem: check all paths.
  - Running time? Exponential in size of  $G$ .



## P and NP

- As mentioned, **P** is the set of problems that can be solved in polynomial time
- **NP** (*nondeterministic polynomial time*) is the set of problems that can be solved in polynomial time by a *nondeterministic* computer

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## Non-determinism

- Think of a non-deterministic computer as a computer that magically "guesses" a solution, then has to verify that it is correct.
  - If a solution exists, the computer always guesses it
  - One way to imagine it: a parallel computer that can freely spawn an infinite number of processes.
    - Have one processor work on each possible solution.
    - All processors attempt to verify that their solution works.
    - a processor that finds it has a working solution announce it.
  - So: **NP** = problems *verifiable* in polynomial time.

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## P and NP

- Summary so far:
  - **P** = problems that can be solved in polynomial time
  - **NP** = problems for which a solution can be verified in polynomial time
  - Unknown whether **P** = **NP** (most suspect not)
- Hamiltonian-cycle problem is in **NP**:
  - Cannot solve in polynomial time.
  - Easy to verify solution in polynomial time.

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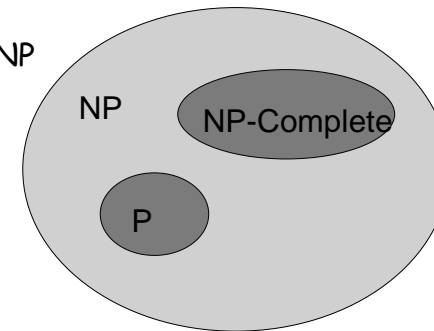
## NP-Complete Problems

- We will see that NP-Complete problems are the “hardest” problems in NP:
  - If any *one* NP-Complete problem can be solved in polynomial time...
  - ...then *every* NP-Complete problem can be solved in polynomial time...
  - ...and in fact *every* problem in **NP** can be solved in polynomial time (which would show **P = NP**)
  - Thus: solve hamiltonian-cycle in  $O(n^{100})$  time, you've proved that **P = NP**. Retire rich & famous.

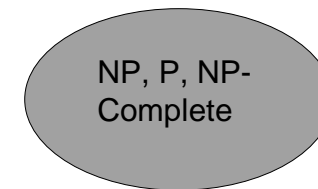
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## NP Problems

For sure  $P \subseteq NP$



But maybe  $P=NP$  ??



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## Why Prove NP-completeness?

- Though nobody has proven that  $P \neq NP$ , if you prove a problem is NP-Complete, most people accept that it is probably intractable.
- Therefore it can be important to prove that a problem is NP-Complete
  - Don't need to come up with an efficient algorithm.
  - Can instead work on *approximation algorithms*.

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## Reduction

- The crux of NP-Completeness is *reducibility*
  - Informally, a problem P can be reduced to another problem Q if *any* instance of P can be “easily rephrased” as an instance of Q, the solution to which provides a solution to the instance of P
    - *What do you suppose “easily” means?*
    - This rephrasing is called *transformation*
  - Intuitively: If P reduces to Q, P is “no harder to solve” than Q.

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## Reducibility - An example

- P: Given a set of Booleans  $\{x_i \in \text{TRUE, FALSE}\}$ , is at least one TRUE?
- Q: Given a set of integers, is their sum positive?
- Transformation: given  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  booleans, let  $(y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  be a set of integers where  $y_i = 1$  if  $x_i = \text{TRUE}$ , and  $y_i = 0$  if  $x_i = \text{FALSE}$ .
- P is no harder than Q: if we can solve Q we can run the transformation to get a solution to P.

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## Using Reductions

- If P is *polynomial-time reducible* to Q, we denote this  $P \leq_p Q$
- Definition of NP-complete:
  - P is NP-complete if  $P \in \text{NP}$  and P is NP-hard.
- Definition of NP-Hard:
  - P is NP-hard if all problems R of NP are reducible to P. Formally:  $R \leq_p P, \forall R \in \text{NP}$
- If  $P \leq_p Q$  and P is NP-hard, Q is also NP-hard.

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## Using Reductions

- Given one NP-Complete problem, we can prove that many interesting problems NP-Complete. This includes:
  - Graph coloring
  - Hamiltonian path/cycle
  - Knapsack problem
  - Traveling salesman
  - Job scheduling
  - Many, many, many more (see the [compendium](#))

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## Optimization v.s. Decision

To simplify things, we will worry only about *decision problems* with a yes/no answer

- Many problems are *optimization problems*, but we can often re-cast them as decision problems

Example: Graph coloring.

- Optimization problem: what is the minimal number of colors needed to color  $G$ ?
- Reporting problem: Can  $G$  be colored using  $k$  colors? If so, report a legal  $k$ -coloring.
- Decision problem: Can  $G$  be colored using  $k$  colors?

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## Subset Sum

- Input: Integers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n, b$
- Output: Determine if there is subset

$$X \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

$$\text{with the property } \sum_{i \in X} a_i = b$$

- Non-deterministic algorithm: Guess the subset  $X$  and check the sum adds up to  $b$ .

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## Decision Problems are Polynomial Time Equivalent to their Reporting Problems

- Example: Subset sum
  - Decision Problem: Determine if a subset sum exists.
  - Reporting Problem: Determine if a subset sum exists and report one if it does.
- Using decision to report
  - Let  $\text{subset-sum}(A, b)$  returns true if some subset of  $A$  adds up to  $b$ . Otherwise it returns false.

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## Reporting Reduces to Decision

```
Assume that subset-sum ( $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\}, b$ ) is true
X := the empty set;
for i = 1 to n do
  if subset-sum( $\{a_{i+1}, \dots, a_n\}, b - a_i$ ) then
    add i to X;
  b := b - a_i;
```

Example:  $\{3, 5, 2, 7, 4, 2\}; b = 11$   
 $\{5, 2, 7, 4, 2\}; b = 11 - 3 ? \text{ True}, X = \{3\}, b = 8$   
 $\{2, 7, 4, 2\}, b = 8 - 5 ? \text{ False}$   
 $\{7, 4, 2\}, b = 8 - 2 ? \text{ True}, X = \{3, 2\}, b = 6$   
 $\{4, 2\}, b = 6 - 7 ? \text{ False}$   
 $\{2\}, b = 6 - 4 ? \text{ True}, X = \{3, 2, 4\}, b = 2$   
 $b = 4 - 2 ? \text{ True}, X = \{3, 2, 4, 2\}$

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## Optimization Reduces to Decision

Example: Graph coloring

- $k=1$ , repeat:
  - Is  $G$   $k$ -colorable?
  - If yes,  $k$  is the answer to the optimization problem.
  - If no,  $k := k+1$ .
- Can do even better with binary search.
- In both cases, the number of iterations is polynomial ( $G$  is clearly  $n$ -colorable)

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## Proving NP-Completeness

- How do we prove a problem P is NP-Complete?
  - Pick a known NP-Complete problem Q
  - Reduce Q to P (show  $Q \leq_p P$ , use P to solve Q)
    - Describe a transformation that maps instances of Q to instances of P, s.t. "yes" for P = "yes" for Q
    - Prove the transformation works
    - Prove it runs in polynomial time
  - and yeah, prove  $P \in \text{NP}$
- We need at least one problem for which NP-hardness is known. Once we have one, we can start reducing it to many problem.

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## The SAT Problem

- The first problems to be proved NP-Complete was *satisfiability* (SAT):
  - Given a Boolean expression on  $n$  variables, can we assign values such that the expression is TRUE?
  - Ex:  $((x_1 \rightarrow x_2) \vee \neg((\neg x_1 \leftrightarrow x_3) \vee x_4)) \wedge \neg x_2$
  - **Cook's Theorem:** The satisfiability problem is NP-Complete
    - Note: Argue from first principles, not reduction (any computation can be described using SAT expressions)
    - Proof: not here

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## Conjunctive Normal Form

- Even if the form of the Boolean expression is simplified, the problem may be NP-Complete
  - *Literal:* an occurrence of a Boolean or its negation
  - A Boolean formula is in *conjunctive normal form*, or *CNF*, if it is an AND of clauses, each of which is an OR of literals
    - Ex:  $(x_1 \vee \neg x_2) \wedge (\neg x_1 \vee x_3 \vee x_4) \wedge (\neg x_5)$
- 3-CNF:* each clause has exactly 3 distinct literals
  - Ex:  $(x_1 \vee \neg x_2 \vee \neg x_3) \wedge (\neg x_1 \vee x_3 \vee x_4) \wedge (\neg x_5 \vee x_3 \vee x_4)$
  - Note: true if at least one literal in each clause is true

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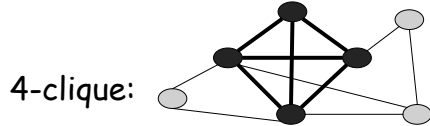
## The 3-CNF Problem

- Theorem: Satisfiability of Boolean formulas in 3-CNF form (the *3-CNF Problem*) is NP-Complete
  - Proof: not here
- The reason we care about the 3-CNF problem is that it is relatively easy to reduce to others.
  - Thus, knowing that 3-CNF is NP-Complete we can prove many seemingly unrelated problems are NP-Complete.

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## The k-clique Problem

- A *clique* in a graph  $G$  is a subset of vertices fully connected to each other, i.e. a complete subgraph of  $G$ .
  - The *clique problem*: how large is the maximum-size clique in a graph?
  - Can we turn this into a decision problem?
  - A: Yes, we call this the *k-clique problem*
  - Is the *k-clique problem* within **NP**?
- Yes: Nondeterministic algorithm: guess  $k$  vertices then check that there is an edge between each pair of them.



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## 3-CNF $\rightarrow$ Clique

- How can we prove that  $k$ -clique is NP-hard?
- We need to show that if we can solve  $k$ -clique then we can solve a problem which is known to be NP-hard.
- We will do it for 3-CNF:
- Given a 3-CNF formula, we will transform it to an instance of  $k$ -clique (a graph and a number  $k$ ), for which a  $k$ -clique exists iff the 3-CNF formula is satisfiable.

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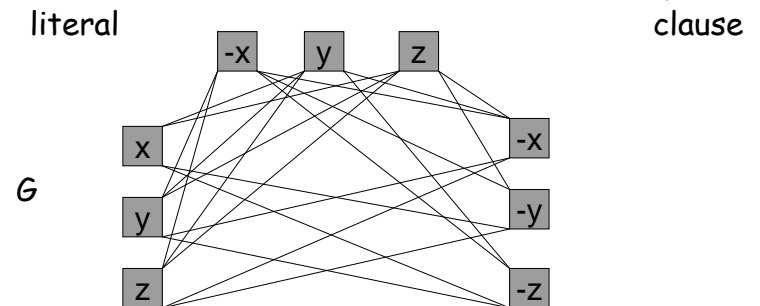
## 3-CNF $\rightarrow$ Clique

- The reduction:
  - Let  $F = C_1 \wedge C_2 \wedge \dots \wedge C_k$  be a 3-CNF formula with  $k$  clauses, each of which has 3 distinct literals.
  - For each clause, put three vertices in the graph, one for each literal.
  - Put an edge between two vertices if they are in different triples and their literals are consistent, meaning not each other's negation.

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## Construction by Example

$$F = (x \vee y \vee z) \wedge (\neg x \vee y \vee z) \wedge (\neg x \vee \neg y \vee \neg z)$$



An edge means 'these two literals do not contradict each other'.

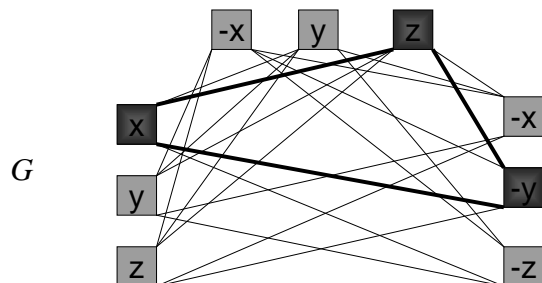
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## Construction by Example

$$F = (x \vee y \vee z) \wedge (\neg x \vee y \vee z) \wedge (\neg x \vee \neg y \vee \neg z)$$

$$x=1, y=0, z=1$$



Any clique of size  $k$  must include exactly one literal from each clause.

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## General Construction

$$F = \bigwedge_{i=1}^k \bigvee_{j=1}^3 a_{ij} \quad \text{where } a_{ij} \in \{x_1, \neg x_1, \dots, x_n, \neg x_n\}$$

literals

$$G = (V, E) \quad \text{where}$$

$$V = \{a_{ij} : 1 \leq i \leq k, 1 \leq j \leq 3\}$$

$$E = \{\{a_{ij}, a_{i',j'}\} : i \neq i' \text{ and } a_{ij} \neq \neg a_{i',j'}\}$$

$k$  is the number of clauses

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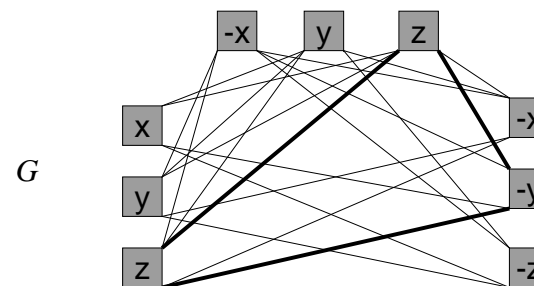
## The Reduction Argument

- We need to show
  - $F$  satisfiable implies  $G$  has a clique of size  $k$ .
    - Given a satisfying assignment for  $F$ , for each clause pick a literal that is satisfied. Those literals in the graph  $G$  form a  $k$ -clique.
  - $G$  has a clique of size  $k$  implies  $F$  is satisfiable.
    - Given a  $k$ -clique in  $G$ , assign TRUE to each literal in the clique. This yields a satisfying assignment to  $F$  (why?).

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## Clique to Assignment

$$F = (x \vee y \vee z) \wedge (\neg x \vee y \vee z) \wedge (\neg x \vee \neg y \vee \neg z)$$

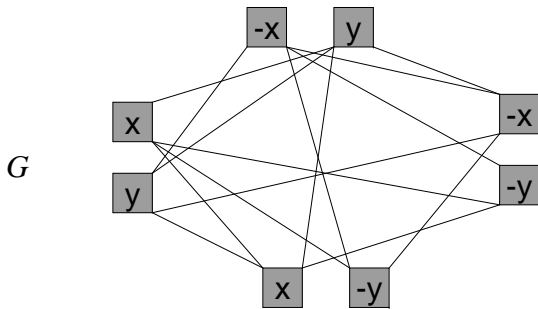


$$y = 0, z = 1$$

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## Assignment to Clique (2-CNF)

$$F = (x \vee y) \wedge (\neg x \vee y) \wedge (\neg x \vee \neg y) \wedge (x \vee \neg y)$$



$G$  has no 4-clique  $\rightarrow$  no assignment exists.  
 What is the max-clique size?  
 How does this value related to the formula?

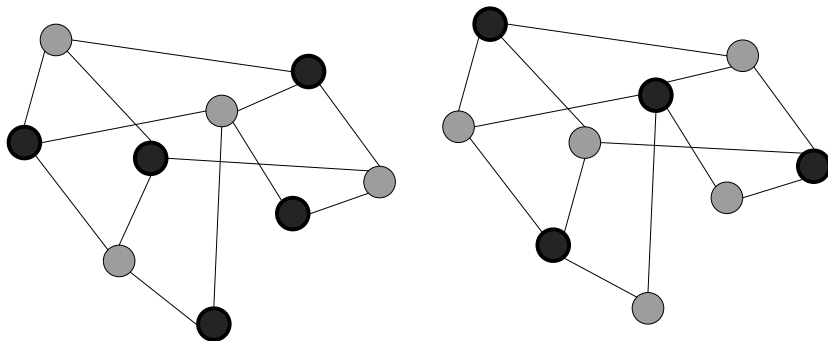
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## The Vertex Cover Problem

- A vertex cover for a graph  $G$  is a set of vertices incident to every edge in  $G$
- The vertex cover problem: what is the minimum size vertex cover in  $G$ ?
- Restated as a decision problem: does a vertex cover of size  $k$  exist in  $G$ ?
- Theorem: vertex cover is NP-Complete

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## Vertex Cover (Example)



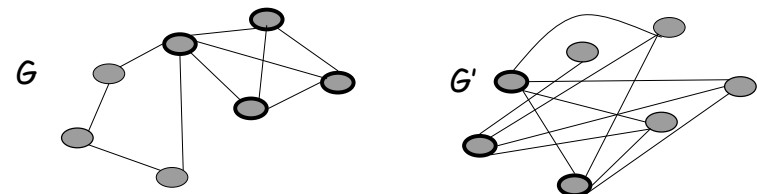
A vertex cover of size 5

A vertex cover of size 4

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## Clique $\rightarrow$ Vertex Cover

- First, show vertex cover in NP (How?)
- Next, reduce  $k$ -clique to vertex cover:
  - The complement  $G_C$  of a graph  $G$  contains exactly those edges not in  $G$
  - Compute  $G_C$  in polynomial time
  - Claim:  $G$  has a clique of size  $k$  iff  $G_C$  has a vertex cover of size  $|V| - k$

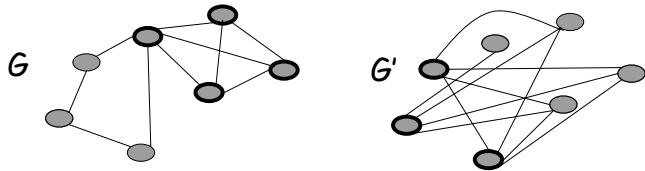


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## Clique $\rightarrow$ Vertex Cover

Claim: If  $G$  has a clique of size  $k$ , then  $G_C$  has a vertex cover of size  $|V| - k$

- Let  $V'$  be the  $k$ -clique
- Then  $V - V'$  is a vertex cover in  $G_C$ 
  - Let  $(u,v)$  be any edge in  $G_C$
  - Then  $u$  and  $v$  cannot both be in  $V'$  (*why?*)
  - Thus at least one of  $u$  or  $v$  is in  $V - V'$  (*why?*), so the edge  $(u,v)$  is covered by  $V - V'$
  - Since true for *any* edge in  $G_C$ ,  $V - V'$  is a VC.

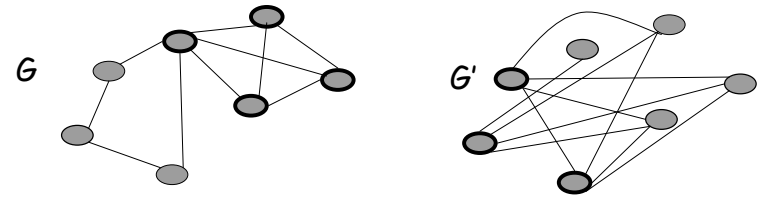


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## Clique $\rightarrow$ Vertex Cover

Claim: If  $G_C$  has a vertex cover  $V' \subseteq V$ , with  $|V'| = |V| - k$ , then  $G$  has a clique of size  $k$

- For all  $u,v \in V$ , if  $(u,v) \in G_C$  then  $u \in V'$  or  $v \in V'$  or both (*Why?*)
- In other words: if  $u \notin V'$  and  $v \notin V'$ , then  $(u,v) \in E$
- Therefore, all vertices in  $V - V'$  are connected by an edge, thus  $V - V'$  is a clique
- Since  $|V| - |V'| = k$ , the size of the clique is  $k$



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## The Traveling Salesman Problem:

- A well-known optimization problem:
  - Optimization variant: a salesman must travel to  $n$  cities, visiting each city exactly once and finishing where he begins. How to minimize travel time?
  - Model as complete graph with cost  $c(i,j)$  to go from city  $i$  to city  $j$
- How would we turn this into a decision problem?
  - Answer: ask if there exists a path with cost  $< k$

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## The Traveling Salesman Problem:

- Asides:
  - TSPs (and variants) have enormous practical importance
    - E.g., for shipping and freighting companies
    - Lots of research into good approximation algorithms
  - Recently made famous as a DNA computing problem

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## Hamiltonian Cycle $\Rightarrow$ TSP

- The hamiltonian-cycle problem: given a graph  $G$ , is there a simple cycle that contains every vertex?
- To transform ham. cycle problem on graph  $G = (V, E)$  to TSP, create graph  $G' = (V, E')$ :
- $G'$  is a complete graph
- Edges in  $E'$  also in  $E$  have cost 0
- All other edges in  $E'$  have cost 1
- TSP: is there a TS cycle on  $G'$  with cost 0?
  - If  $G$  has a ham. cycle,  $G'$  has a TS cycle with cost 0
  - If  $G'$  has TS cycle with cost 0, every edge of that cycle has cost 0 and is thus in  $G$ . Thus,  $G$  has a ham. cycle.

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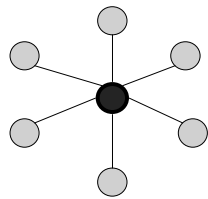
## Other NP-Complete Problems

- *Partition*: Given a set of integers, whose total sum is  $2S$ , can we partition them into two sets, each adds up to  $S$ ?
- *Subset-sum*: Given a set of integers, does there exist a subset that adds up to some target  $T$ ?
- *Graph coloring*: can a given graph be colored with  $k$  colors such that no adjacent vertices are the same color?

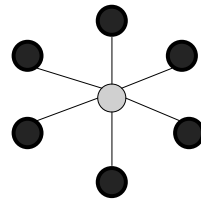
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## Independent Set

- Input: A graph  $G=(V, E)$ ,  $k$
- Problem: Is there a subset  $S$  of  $V$  of size at least  $k$  such that no pair of vertices in  $S$  has an edge between them.
- Maximum independent set problem: find a maximum size independent set of vertices.



Maximal independent set



Maximum independent set

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## Steiner Tree

- Input: A graph  $G=(V, E)$ , a subset  $T$  of the vertices  $V$ , and a bound  $B$
- Problem: Is there a tree connecting all the vertices of  $T$  of total weight at most  $B$ ?
- Application: Network design and wiring layout.
- The case  $T=V$  is polynomially solvable (this is the MST problem).

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## Exact Cover

- Input: A set  $U = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$  and subsets

$$S_1, S_2, \dots, S_m \subseteq U$$

- Output: Determine if there is a set of disjoint sets that union to  $U$ , that is, a set  $X$  such that:

$$X \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$$

$$i, j \in X \text{ and } i \neq j \text{ implies } S_i \cap S_j = \Phi$$

$$\bigcup_{i \in X} S_i = U$$

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## Example of Exact Cover

$$U = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i\}$$

$$\{a, c, e\}, \{a, f, g\}, \{b, d\}, \{b, f, h\}, \{e, h, i\}, \{f, h, i\}, \{d, g, i\}$$

Exact Cover:

$$\{a, c, e\}, \{b, f, h\}, \{d, g, i\}$$

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## 3-Partition

- Input: A set of numbers  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{3m}\}$  and a number  $B$  such that  $B/4 < a_i < B/2$  and

$$\sum_{i=1}^{3m} a_i = mB.$$

- Output: Determine if  $A$  can be partitioned into  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_m$  such that for all  $i$

$$\sum_{j \in S_i} a_j = B.$$

Note: each  $S_i$  must contain exactly 3 elements.

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## Example of 3-Partition

- $A = \{26, 29, 33, 33, 33, 34, 35, 36, 41\}$
- $B = 100, m = 3$
- 3-Partition:
  - 26, 33, 41
  - 29, 36, 35
  - 33, 33, 34

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## Bin Packing

- Input: A set of numbers  $A = \{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m\}$  and numbers  $B$  (capacity) and  $K$  (number of bins).
- Output: Determine if  $A$  can be partitioned into  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_K$  such that for all  $i$

$$\sum_{j \in S_i} a_j \leq B.$$

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## Bin Packing Example

- $A = \{2, 2, 3, 3, 3, 4, 4, 4, 5, 5, 5\}$
- $B = 10, K = 4$
- Bin Packing:
  - 3, 3, 4
  - 2, 3, 5
  - 5, 5
  - 2, 4, 4

Perfect fit!

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## Comments on NP-completeness proofs

- hardest part -- choosing a good problem from which to do reduction
- must do reduction from arbitrary instance
- common error -- backwards reduction.  
Remember that you are using your problem as a black box for solving known NPC problem
- freedom in reduction: if problem includes parameter, can set it in a convenient way
- size of problem can change as long as it doesn't increase by more than polynomial

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## Comments cont.

- When a problem is generalization of known NP-complete problem, a reduction is usually easy.
- Example: Set Cover
  - given  $U$ , set of elements, and collection  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n$  of subsets of  $U$ , and an integer  $k$
  - determine if there is a subset  $W$  of  $U$  of size at most  $k$  that intersects every set  $S_i$
- Reduction from Vertex Cover
  - $U$  set of vertices
  - $S_i$  is the  $i^{\text{th}}$  edge

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## The Unsolvable Halting Problem

- For a given program  $P$  and input  $x$ , does  $P$  halt on  $x$ ?

Turing: The halting problem cannot be solved!

Proof: Assume that there is an algorithm  $Halt(a, i)$  that decides if the algorithm encoded by the string  $a$  will halt when given as input the string  $i$ ,

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## The Halting Problem

Consider the following program

```
Funny (s) // s is a string decoding a program.  
  if (Halt(s, s) = "no") return ("yes")  
  else {some infinite loop}
```

Note: Funny(s) halts  $\Leftrightarrow$  Halt(s, s)=no.

Let  $T$  be the string decoding the program Funny.

What is the output of Halt( $T$ ,  $T$ )?

If the output is 'No' then Halt ( $T$ , $T$ )= Yes

If the output is 'Yes' then Halt ( $T$ , $T$ )= No

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