## COMS21103

## NP-completeness

(or how to prove that problems are probably hard)

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## Motivation

- This course is mostly about efficient algorithms and data structures for solving computational problems.
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- Today we take a break from this and look at whether we can prove that a problem has no efficient algorithm.
- Why? Proving that a task is impossible can be helpful information, as it stops us from trying to complete it.
- During this lecture we'll take an informal approach to discussing this, and computational complexity in general - see the references at the end for more detail.


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- An example of an algorithm which is not polynomial-time: testing whether an integer $N$ is prime by trying to divide it by all integers $m$ between 2 and $\sqrt{N}$.
- As $N$ is specified by $O(\log N)$ bits, this algorithm runs in time exponential in the input size.


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- Primality: decide whether an integer is prime;
- Edit Distance: given two strings and an integer $k$, decide whether their edit distance is at most $k$.


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- Primality: decide whether an integer is prime;
- Edit Distance: given two strings and an integer $k$, decide whether their edit distance is at most $k$.

The set of decision problems which have algorithms with runtime polynomial in the input size is known as $P$.

- So we think of $P$ as the class of decision problems which can be solved efficiently.


## Formalities

Some notes about formalising this notion (which we'll largely ignore for the rest of this lecture):

- A decision problem can be formally identified with a language, i.e. a subset $\mathcal{L} \subseteq\{0,1\}^{*}$, where $\{0,1\}^{*}$ is the set of bit-strings of arbitrary length.
- Each input bit-string $x$ such that $x \in \mathcal{L}$ corresponds to an input such that the answer should be "yes"; all strings $x \notin \mathcal{L}$ correspond to inputs such that the answer should be "no".


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- The notion of "algorithm" should also be defined formally, in terms of Turing machines. However, we omit the details for this lecture.


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- That is, imagine we have a polynomial-time algorithm which, given an instance of $\mathcal{L}_{1}$, transforms it into an instance of $\mathcal{L}_{2}$ such that the answer on the second instance is "yes" if and only if the answer on the first instance is "yes".


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- Then we can use our algorithm for $\mathcal{L}_{2}$ to solve the second instance.
- We say that $\mathcal{L}_{1}$ reduces to $\mathcal{L}_{2}$ if such a transformation exists.
- If $\mathcal{L}_{2} \in \mathrm{P}$, and $\mathcal{L}_{1}$ reduces to $\mathcal{L}_{2}$, then $\mathcal{L}_{1} \in \mathrm{P}$.


## Verifying solutions to problems

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- An instance of Factorisation: $n=820580620832258609$, $k=364797008$. Is the answer "yes"?
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- Here the answer is indeed yes.


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- It is clear that $\mathrm{P} \subseteq \mathrm{NP}$, as if we can solve a problem in polynomial time, we can efficiently verify a claimed solution we are given: we just ignore it, and solve the problem ourselves.
- But whether or not $P=N P$ (aka the $P$ vs. NP question) is the biggest unsolved problem in computer science!


## More on NP

- The initials "NP" stand for Nondeterministic Polynomial (for reasons beyond the scope of this lecture...), and not Non-Polynomial.
- Indeed, the P vs. NP question precisely asks whether all problems in NP have polynomial-time algorithms.


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- Indeed, the P vs. NP question precisely asks whether all problems in NP have polynomial-time algorithms.
- Resolving P vs. NP would win you everlasting fame (as well as \$1M from the Clay Mathematics Institute).
- Although we don't know whether $P=N P$, most people consider this very unlikely, as it would imply that whenever we have an efficient algorithm to verify a "yes" solution to a decision problem, we also have an efficient algorithm to solve the problem.


## NP-hardness and NP-completeness

- We say that a decision problem $\mathcal{L}$ is NP -hard if, for every problem $\mathcal{L}^{\prime} \in$ NP, there is a polynomial-time reduction from $\mathcal{L}^{\prime}$ to $\mathcal{L}$.
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- If $\mathcal{L}$ is NP-hard, and there exists a polynomial-time algorithm for $\mathcal{L}$, then $\mathrm{P}=\mathrm{NP}$. So if we can prove that $\mathcal{L}$ is NP-hard, this is evidence that there is no polynomial-time algorithm that solves it.


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- If $\mathcal{L}$ is NP-hard, and there exists a polynomial-time algorithm for $\mathcal{L}$, then $P=N P$. So if we can prove that $\mathcal{L}$ is NP-hard, this is evidence that there is no polynomial-time algorithm that solves it.
- We say that a problem $\mathcal{L}$ is NP-complete if $\mathcal{L}$ is NP-hard and $\mathcal{L} \in N P$. Informally, NP-complete problems are the hardest problems in NP.
- It is not obvious that any NP-complete problems should exist. . .


## $P$ and NP in pictures

The picture if $\mathrm{P} \neq \mathrm{NP}$ :
The picture if $\mathrm{P}=\mathrm{NP}$ :


## An NP-complete problem

The CIrcuit SAT (short for "satisfiability") problem is defined as follows.

- The input to the problem is a circuit (i.e. a sequence of AND, OR and NOT gates connected by wires in some order).
- The circuit takes some bits as input and produces a single-bit output.
- The problem is to determine whether there exists an input such that the output is 1 .


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For example:


Circuit SAT is in NP: if the answer is "yes", and we are given a claimed input such that the output is 1 , we can simulate the circuit to check it.

## An NP-complete problem

## Claim

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## Proof sketch

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- We can write any such algorithm as a circuit with at most polynomially many gates by "compiling" it.
- If there exists a proof that the answer should be "yes", this corresponds to an input to the circuit such that the output is 1 ; otherwise, there is no such input.
- So, if we can solve Circuit SAT, we can decide which of these is the case.


## More NP-complete problems

- Now that we know that Circuit SAT is NP-complete, we can use this to prove that other problems are also NP-complete.
- If we have a problem $\mathcal{L} \in N P$ such that Circuit SAT reduces to $\mathcal{L}$, then $\mathcal{L}$ must be NP-complete.


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- What does this mean?


## 3-SAT

- A boolean formula in conjunctive normal form is an expression of the form

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- A clause is the OR (" $\vee$ ") of variables $x_{i} \in\{0,1\}$ or their negations $\neg x_{i}$ (where $\neg$ means NOT), for example:

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For example:

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\left(x_{2} \vee x_{1} \vee \neg x_{3}\right) \wedge\left(x_{3} \vee \neg x_{1}\right) \wedge\left(\neg x_{2} \vee x_{3} \vee x_{4}\right)
$$

is an instance of 3-SAT. It is satisfied by e.g. $x_{1}=0, x_{2}=1, x_{3}=0, x_{4}=1$.

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- In fact, the best known algorithms for solving 3-SAT with $n$ variables run in time $2^{\Omega(n)}$, i.e. take exponential time in $n$.
- It turns out that 3-SAT is actually NP-complete.


## Proof that 3-SAT is NP-complete (sketch)

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- We use a construction where each wire in the circuit corresponds to a variable in the formula, and there are several clauses for each gate.
- For each gate, there exists an assignment to the variables satisfying the clauses if and only if the gate behaves correctly.


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- We use a construction where each wire in the circuit corresponds to a variable in the formula, and there are several clauses for each gate.
- For each gate, there exists an assignment to the variables satisfying the clauses if and only if the gate behaves correctly.
- Finally, we have a clause containing a single variable, which is satisfied if and only if the output wire of the circuit is set to 1 .


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- For example, $y=\neg x$ if and only if $(x \vee y)=1$ and $(\neg x \vee \neg y)=1$.
- Claim: All the clauses are satisfied if and only if all the gates work properly, and the output of the circuit is 1 .


## Example

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This maps to the following formula:

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\begin{array}{ll} 
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\wedge & \left(\neg x_{6} \vee x_{4} \vee x_{5}\right) \wedge\left(x_{6} \vee \neg x_{4}\right) \wedge\left(x_{6} \vee \neg x_{5}\right) \\
\wedge & \left(x_{7} \vee \neg x_{6} \vee \neg x_{5}\right) \wedge\left(\neg x_{7} \vee x_{6}\right) \wedge\left(\neg x_{7} \vee x_{5}\right) \wedge\left(x_{7}\right)
\end{array}
$$

## Example

Imagine we want to solve CIRCUIT SAT for the following circuit:


This maps to the following formula:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(x_{4} \vee \neg x_{1} \vee \neg x_{2}\right) \wedge\left(\neg x_{4} \vee x_{1}\right) \wedge\left(\neg x_{4} \vee x_{2}\right) \\
\wedge & \left(x_{3} \vee x_{5}\right) \wedge\left(\neg x_{3} \vee \neg x_{5}\right) \\
\wedge & \left(\neg x_{6} \vee x_{4} \vee x_{5}\right) \wedge\left(x_{6} \vee \neg x_{4}\right) \wedge\left(x_{6} \vee \neg x_{5}\right) \\
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\end{aligned}
$$

The formula is satisfiable, so the original circuit is too.

## Another NP-complete problem: 3-Colouring

- We will now show NP-completeness of another problem, which is apparently quite different: graph colouring.
- The 3-Colouring problem is defined as follows: Given an undirected graph $G$, determine whether each vertex of $G$ can be coloured with one of three colours, such that any two vertices connected by an edge are assigned different colours.


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For example:


3-Colouring is in NP because, if someone gives us a claimed colouring of a graph, we can check it efficiently.

## Proof that 3-Colouring is NP-complete (sketch)

- We prove that 3-Colouring is NP-complete by reducing 3-SAT to 3-Colouring.


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## Proof that 3-Colouring is NP-complete (sketch)

- We prove that 3-Colouring is NP-complete by reducing 3-SAT to 3-Colouring.
- Given a boolean formula, the idea is to create a graph with vertices corresponding to variables, and edges corresponding to clauses, such that the graph is colourable with 3 colours if and only if the formula is satisfiable.
- We start by having a pair of vertices $v_{i}, w_{i}$ for each variable $x_{i}$ in the formula. Each of these vertices is connected to a central vertex $c$, which is connected in turn to two other vertices $a$ and $b$.



## Proof that 3-Colouring is NP-complete (sketch)

- Imagine (without loss of generality) that vertices $a, b$ and $c$ are coloured red, yellow and blue.
- Then all of the pairs of vertices $v_{i}, w_{i}$ must be coloured red and yellow (one of them red, and the other yellow).



## Proof that 3-Colouring is NP-complete (sketch)

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- Then all of the pairs of vertices $v_{i}, w_{i}$ must be coloured red and yellow (one of them red, and the other yellow).

- This will be used to encode whether the $i$ 'th variable $x_{i}$ is 0 or 1 in some assignment to the original formula.
- If $v_{i}$ is red and $w_{i}$ is yellow, this will correspond to $x_{i}=0$; if $v_{i}$ is yellow and $w_{i}$ is red, this will correspond to $x_{i}=1$.


## Proof that 3-Colouring is NP-complete (sketch)

The second ingredient is a clause gadget.

- This is a subgraph which is only colourable correctly if at least one of three "incoming" vertices $x, y, z$ is not coloured red.


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- Claim: There is a valid 3-colouring of the internal (unlabelled) vertices if and only if at least one of $x, y, z$ is not coloured red.


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We now combine clause gadgets with the previous graph.

- For each clause, we connect the gadget to vertices corresponding to the variables that appear in that clause.


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- This enforces the constraint that each clause must be satisfied - i.e. evaluate to 1 .
- Claim: Any valid colouring of the graph corresponds to an assignment to the variables such that all clauses are satisfied.
- This means that determining whether the graph is 3-colourable allows us to determine whether the formula is satisfiable, so 3-Colouring is NP-complete.


## Example

The graph corresponding to the formula ( $x_{1} \vee \neg x_{2} \vee x_{3}$ ) is:


## Example

The graph can be coloured properly, corresponding to the original formula having a satisfying assignment. One such colouring:


The colouring shown corresponds to assigning $x_{1}=1, x_{2}=0, x_{3}=0$.

## Other NP-complete problems

A vast number of other problems have also been proven to be NP-complete, many of which are very important in science, engineering and business.

For example:

- Timetable scheduling
- Packing and covering problems
- Finding longest paths
- Solving systems of quadratic equations
- Partitioning problems
- Finding the longest common subsequence of two strings
- Many games and puzzles, e.g. generalised Sudoku and Lemmings
- Integer programming (see later in this course)


## Summary

- The theory of NP-completeness allows us to make rigorous the intuition that some problems are intrinsically hard.
- If a problem is NP-complete, this is good evidence that there is no efficient (polynomial-time) algorithm to solve it in the worst case.
- We can prove that a problem is NP-complete by showing that some other NP-complete problem reduces to it.


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There are several approaches we can take:

1. Find an efficient algorithm which works for the particular cases we care about;
2. Find an efficient algorithm which outputs an approximate solution (see COMS31900: Advanced Algorithms for more);
3. Prove $\mathrm{P}=\mathrm{NP}$ and win a million dollars.

## Further Reading

- Introduction to Algorithms
T. H. Cormen, C. E. Leiserson, R. L. Rivest and C. Stein.

MIT Press/McGraw-Hill, ISBN: 0-262-03293-7.

- Chapter 34 - NP-completeness
- Algorithms
S. Dasgupta, C. H. Papadimitriou and U. V. Vazirani
http://www.cse.ucsd.edu/users/dasgupta/mcgrawhill/
- Chapter 8 - NP-complete problems
- Algorithms lecture notes, University of Illinois Jeff Erickson
http://www.cs.uiuc.edu/~jeffe/teaching/algorithms/
- Lecture 29 - NP-Hard Problems


## Biographical notes

## Stephen Cook (b. 1939)

- An American-Canadian mathematician who invented the notion of NP-completeness in a seminal paper in 1971.
- After this, many important problems were swiftly proven to be NP-complete.
- Cook won the Turing Award in 1982.
- Also has a computational complexity class named after him (SC).



## Biographical notes

## Leonid Levin (b. 1948)

- Levin is a Soviet-American computer scientist who independently discovered the notion of NP-completeness.
- Neither Cook nor Levin were aware of the other's work due to the Iron Curtain.
- The fact that boolean satisfiability is


Pic: Wikipedia NP-complete is now known as the Cook-Levin Theorem.

