

NP-completeness

(or how to prove that problems are probably hard)

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19 November 2013

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Slide 1/31

Motivation

- This course is mostly about efficient algorithms and data structures for solving computational problems.
- Today we take a break from this and look at whether we can prove that a problem has no efficient algorithm.



Slide 2/31

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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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- We think of an algorithm as being efficient if it runs in time polynomial in the input size.
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- 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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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.

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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 L ⊆ {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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- If $\mathcal{L}_2 \in \mathsf{P}$, and \mathcal{L}_1 reduces to \mathcal{L}_2 , then $\mathcal{L}_1 \in \mathsf{P}$.



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- Here the answer is indeed yes.



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- But whether or not P = NP (aka the P vs. NP question) is the biggest unsolved problem in computer science!

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More on NP

- The initials "NP" stand for Nondeterministic Polynomial (for reasons beyond the scope of this lecture...), and not Non-Polynomial.
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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 = NP, 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.

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NP-hardness and NP-completeness

- ► We say that a decision problem L is NP-hard if, for every problem L' ∈ NP, there is a polynomial-time reduction from L' to L.
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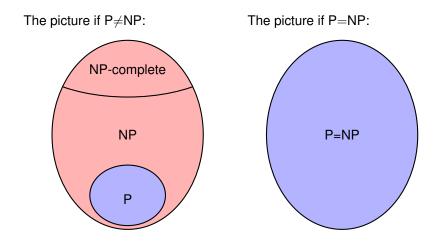
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- ▶ We say that a problem \mathcal{L} is NP-complete if \mathcal{L} is NP-hard and $\mathcal{L} \in$ NP. Informally, NP-complete problems are the hardest problems in NP.
- It is not obvious that any NP-complete problems should exist...



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P and NP in pictures



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

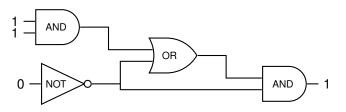
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For example:



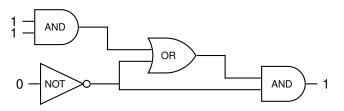


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CIRCUIT SAT is in NP: if the answer is "yes", and we are given a claimed input such that the output is 1, we can simulate the circuit to check it.

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Claim

CIRCUIT SAT is NP-hard.

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- 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.

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- Now that we know that CIRCUIT SAT is NP-complete, we can use this to prove that other problems are also NP-complete.
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- The first problem for which we will prove NP-completeness in this way is called 3-SAT. This is the problem of determining, given a boolean formula in conjunctive normal form with at most 3 variables per clause, whether it has a satisfying assignment.
- What does this mean?



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

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For example:

$$(x_2 \lor x_1 \lor \neg x_3) \land (x_3 \lor \neg x_1) \land (\neg x_2 \lor x_3 \lor x_4)$$

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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- It turns out that 3-SAT is actually NP-complete.



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We will reduce CIRCUIT SAT to 3-SAT.

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- 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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The construction performs the mapping:

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► For example, $y = \neg x$ if and only if $(x \lor y) = 1$ and $(\neg x \lor \neg y) = 1$.

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The construction performs the mapping:

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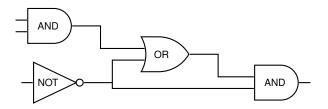
- For example, $y = \neg x$ if and only if $(x \lor y) = 1$ and $(\neg x \lor \neg y) = 1$.
- Claim: All the clauses are satisfied if and only if all the gates work properly, and the output of the circuit is 1.

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Slide 18/31

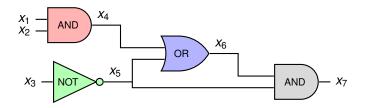
Imagine we want to solve CIRCUIT SAT for the following circuit:



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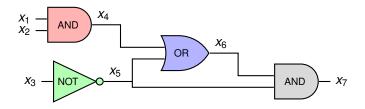
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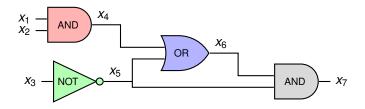
This maps to the following formula:

$$\begin{array}{l} (x_4 \lor \neg x_1 \lor \neg x_2) \land (\neg x_4 \lor x_1) \land (\neg x_4 \lor x_2) \\ \land \quad (x_3 \lor x_5) \land (\neg x_3 \lor \neg x_5) \\ \land \quad (\neg x_6 \lor x_4 \lor x_5) \land (x_6 \lor \neg x_4) \land (x_6 \lor \neg x_5) \\ \land \quad (x_7 \lor \neg x_6 \lor \neg x_5) \land (\neg x_7 \lor x_6) \land (\neg x_7 \lor x_5) \land (x_7) \end{array}$$

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

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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.

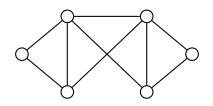


Slide 20/31

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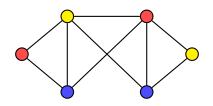


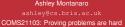
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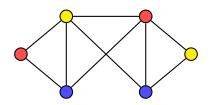


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For example:



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

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

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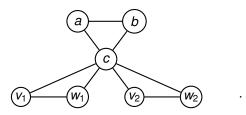
Slide 21/31

- 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.



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- 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.

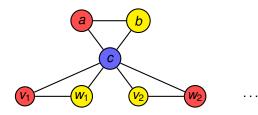


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Slide 21/31

- 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).

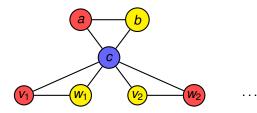


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Slide 22/31

- Imagine (without loss of generality) that vertices a, b and c are coloured red, yellow and blue.
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- 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.



Slide 22/31

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.

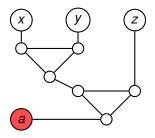
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Slide 23/31

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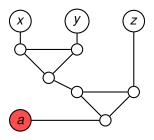




Slide 23/31

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- 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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- 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.

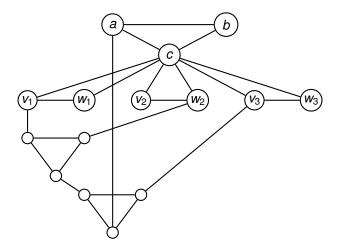
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Example

The graph corresponding to the formula $(x_1 \lor \neg x_2 \lor x_3)$ is:



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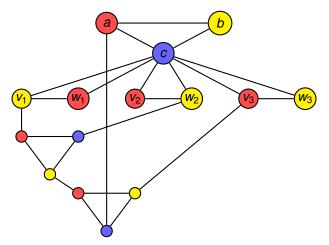
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Example

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



The colouring shown corresponds to assigning $x_1 = 1$, $x_2 = 0$, $x_3 = 0$.

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Slide 26/31

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)

▶ ...

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Slide 27/31

- 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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- 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);

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Slide 28/31

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- 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 P=NP and win a million dollars.

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Slide 28/31

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

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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).



Pic: Wikipedia

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Slide 30/31

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



Pic: Wikipedia

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Slide 31/31