# Introduction to Algorithms and Data Structures 

Introduction to NP-completeness

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- We argued about the correctness of ALGA (sometimes).
- We argued about its running time.


## Running time hierarchy

$$
O(\log n) \quad O(n) \quad O(n \log n) \quad O\left(n^{2}\right) \quad O\left(n^{\alpha}\right) \quad O\left(c^{n}\right)
$$

| logarithmic | linear | quadratic | polynomial | exponential |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| The algorithm <br> does not even <br> read the <br> whole input. | The algorithm <br> accesses the <br> input only <br> a constant <br> number of <br> times. | The algorithm <br> splits the inputs <br> into two pieces <br> of similar size, <br> solves each part <br> and merges the <br> solutions. | The algorithm <br> considers pairs <br> of elements. | The algorithm <br> performs many <br> nested loops. | The algorithm <br> considers many <br> subsets of the <br> input elements. |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |


| constant | $O(1)$ | superlinear | $\omega(n)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
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- If we were not interested in efficiency, we could solve all of these problems in exponential time $O\left(c^{n}\right)$ using brute force.
- If its possible to design an efficient algorithm for a problem, we shouldn't be satisfied with brute force.

Efficient algorithms

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- Is it possible to design a polynomial-time algorithm for every problem?


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- Is it possible to design a polynomial-time algorithm for every problem?
- Are there problems for which polynomial-time algorithms do not exist?


## Reductions

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- We can construct an algorithm ALGA for solving problem A, which uses calls to the algorithm ALGB as a subroutine.
- If $A L G^{A}$ is a polynomial time algorithm, then this is a polynomial time reduction.


## Pictorially



## Notation

- When problem $A$ reduces to problem $B$ in polynomial time, we write
$A \leq p B$

We often say "there is a polynomial time reduction from A to B".

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- B is "at least as hard to solve as" A, because if I could solve B, I could also solve A.


## Types of reductions

- Turing reduction:
- Notation: $A \leq т B$
- A reduction which solves problem A using (polynomially) many calls to an oracle (an algorithm) for solving problem $B$.
- (Also known as Cook reduction).


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- (Also known as Cook reduction).
- Many-one reduction:
- Notation: A $\leq m$ B
- A reduction which converts instances of problem $A$ to instances of problem B.
- (Also known as Karp reduction).


## Pictorially



## Types of reductions

- Turing reduction:
- Argument: Here is an algorithm which runs in polynomial time solving problem $A$, using polynomially many calls to an oracle for problem B.
- Many-one reduction:
- Argument:
- If $z$ is a solution to instance I of problem $A$, then $z^{\prime}$ is a solution of instance $f(I)$ to problem B.
- If $z$ is not a solution to instance I of problem $A$, then $z$ ' is not a solution of instance $f(I)$ to problem B.
- Equivalently: If $z^{\prime}$ is a solution of instance $f(I)$ to problem $B$, then $z$ is a solution to instance I of problem A.


## Examples of reductions?

## Bipartite graphs

- A graph $\mathrm{G}=(\mathrm{V}, \mathrm{E})$ is bipartite if any only if it can be partitioned into sets $A$ and $B$ such that each edge has one endpoint in $A$ and one endpoint in $B$.
- Often, we write $\mathrm{G}=(\mathrm{A} \cup \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{E})$.



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- We reduced the problem to deciding 2-colorability.
- And how did we solve that?
- We reduced it to checking whether BFS colours two adjacent nodes with the same colour.


## Directed Acyclic Graphs

- A directed acyclic graph (DAG) $G$ is a graph that does not have any cycles.

not a DAG
a DAG


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- And how can we solve that?
- We can develop an algorithm that finds a topological ordering, or returns that there is none.


## Computational classes

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- Every problem for which there is a known polynomial time algorithm is in the computational class $P$.
- Searching, sorting, interval scheduling, graph traversal, ...
- The class P contains computational problems that can be solved in polynomial time.
- We also say that they can be solved efficiently.


## Problems not in P

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- Weighted interval scheduling?
- Subset sum?
- Knapsack?


## The landscape of complexity


contains all problems that
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## The class NP

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- Problems that can be solved in polynomial time by a nondeterministic Turing machine.
- More intuitive definition:
- Problems such that, if a solution is given, it can be checked that it is indeed a solution in polynomial time.
- Efficiently verifiable.


## The subset sum problem

- We are given a set of n items $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$.
- Each item $i$ has a non-negative integer weight $w_{i}$.
- We are given an integer bound W.
- Goal: Select a subset $S$ of the items such that $\sum_{i \in S} w_{i} \leq W$ and $\sum_{i \in S} w_{i}$ is maximised.


# Equivalent formulation decision version 

- We are given a set of n items $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$.
- Each item $i$ has a non-negative integer weight $w_{i}$.
- We are given an integer bound W.
- Goal: Decide if there exists a subset $S$ of the items such that

$$
\sum_{i \in S} w_{i}=W
$$

## Subset Sum is in NP

- If we are given a candidate solution S , we can easily check whether the following holds or not:

$$
\sum_{i \in S} w_{i}=W
$$

## Problem classification

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- Problems in P:
- Searching, sorting, minimum spanning tree, graph traversal, Weighted Interval Scheduling, ...
- Problems in NP:
- Subset Sum, Knapsack, Weighted Interval Scheduling, searching, sorting, graph traversal, Weighted Interval Scheduling, ...


## The landscape of complexity


contains all problems that
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## The landscape of complexity

contains all problems for which a solution can be verified in polynomial time.
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## How to work with reductions

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## NP-hardness

- A problem B is NP-hard if for every problem A in NP, it holds that $A \leq p$.
- If every problem in NP is "polynomial time reducible to B ".
- This captures the fact that B is at least as hard as the hardest problems in NP.


## NP-hardness

- A problem B is NP-hard if for every problem A in NP, it holds that $A \leq p B$.
- To prove NP-hardness, it seems that we have to construct a reduction from every problem A in NP.
- This is not very useful!


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- It is NP-hard.
- i.e., every problem in NP can be efficiently reduced to it.


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- To prove NP-hardness of problem $B$, it seems that we have to construct a reduction from every problem $A$ in NP.
- Actually, it suffices to construct a reduction from P to B .
- A reduction from any other problem A to B goes "via" P.


## NP-hardness via P



## NP-completeness

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## NP-completeness

- Assume problem P is NP-complete.
- This all works if we have an NP-complete problem to start with.


## 3 SAT

- A CNF formula with m clauses and k literals.

$$
\phi=\left(x_{1} \vee x_{5} \vee x_{3}\right) \wedge\left(x_{2} \vee x_{6} \vee{ }^{\wedge} x_{5}\right) \wedge \ldots \wedge\left(x_{3} \vee x_{8} \vee x_{12}\right)
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- Truth assignment: A value in $\{0,1\}$ for each variable $x_{i}$.
- Satisfying assignment: A truth assignment which makes the formula evaluate to 1 (= true).
- Computational problem 3SAT : Decide if the input formula $\phi$ has a satisfying assignment.

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## 3 SAT is NP-complete

- 3 SAT is in NP (why?)
- 3 SAT is NP-hard.
- Remarks:
- The first problem shown to be NP-complete was the SAT problem (more general than 3 SAT), and this reduces to 3SAT.
- Several textbooks start from Circuit SAT, a version of the SAT problem defined on circuits with boolean gates AND, OR or NOT.


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- Then prove that A is NP-hard.
- Construct a polynomial time reduction from some NPcomplete problem P.


## In fact ...

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## Pictorially



## Enough with the definitions. Let's see how it works.

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Next time!

