



# P & NP

CSC 373 - Fall 2015

# Reminder

- Assignment 1 due on Friday October 30<sup>th</sup>, 9:59pm
- “Prof in a prop” costume selection on Piazza
- Test 2 conflict accommodation request by November 6<sup>th</sup>
  - Email to [ins373f@cs.utoronto.ca](mailto:ins373f@cs.utoronto.ca)

## So far ...

- The course so far: techniques for designing efficient algorithms, e.g. dynamic programming and greedy algorithms
- What happens if you cannot find an efficient algorithm? Is that your fault or the problem's?
- Showing that a problem has an efficient algorithm is relatively, easy. "All" that is needed is to demonstrate an algorithm.

## So far ... (Cont.)

- Proving that no efficient algorithm exists for a particular problem is difficult. How can we prove the nonexistence of something?
- We will now learn about **NP Complete Problems**, which provide us with a way to approach this question.

# NP-Complete Problems

- This is a very large class of thousands of practical problems for which:
  - it is not known if the problems have “efficient” solutions
  - it is known that if any one of the NP-Complete Problems has an efficient solution then all of the NP-Complete Problems have efficient solutions
  - there is a large body of tools that often permit us to prove when a new problem is NP-complete.

# NP-Complete Problems (Cont.)

- Proving that a problem is NP-Complete does not prove that the problem is hard. It does indicate that the problem is very likely to be hard.
- Time permitting, we will also discuss what to do if you find that the problem that you really need to solve is NP-complete (other than giving up).

# Content of the Lecture

- Input size of problems
- Optimization problems vs. decision problems
- Polynomial time algorithms, the class P
- The class NP
- Problems in the two classes
- The class Co-NP

# Encoding the Inputs of Problems

- In order to formally discuss how hard a problem is, i.e., how much time it requires to solve as a function of its input, we need to be much more formal than before about the input size of a problem.
- Now how can we encode the inputs of the problems?

# Encoding Graphs

- A graph  $G$  may be represented by its adjacency matrix  $A = [a_{ij}]$ .
- $G$  can then be encoded as the binary string:

$$a_{11} \dots a_{n1} a_{21} \dots a_{2n} \dots a_{n1} \dots a_{nn}$$

of length  $n^2$ .

- When the binary string is given, the computer can count the number of bits and then determine  $n$ , the vertices and edges.
- In general, the inputs of any problem can be encoded as binary strings.

# Input size of problems

- **Standard Definition:** The input size of a problem is the minimum number of bits ( $\{0,1\}$ ) needed to encode the input of the problem.
  - In most cases we do not need to determine the size exactly.

# Input size example: Composite

- **Problem:** Given a positive integer  $n$ , are there integers  $j, k > 1$  such that  $n = jk$ ?
- **Question:** What is the input size of the problem?
- **Answer:** Any integer  $n > 0$  can be represented in the binary number system as:

$$n = \sum_{i=0}^k a_i 2^i \quad \text{where } k = \lceil \log_2(n + 1) \rceil - 1$$

- Therefore, a natural measure of input size is  $\lceil \log_2(n + 1) \rceil$

# Input size example: Sorting

- **Problem:** Sort  $n$  integers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ .
- **Question:** What is the input size of this problem?
- **Solution:** Using the fixed length encoding writes  $a_i$  as binary string of length:

$$m = \lceil \log_2 \max(|a_i| + 1) \rceil$$

- This encoding gives input size  $nm$ .

# Warning

- Running time of algorithms, unless otherwise specified, should be expressed in terms of input size.
- For determining whether  $n$  is composite, we need to compare it against the first  $n-1$  numbers. This takes  $\Theta(n)$ .
- But note that the size of the input is  $\log_2 n$ . So the number of comparisons performed is actually  $\Theta(n) = \Theta(2^{\text{size}(n)})$

# Input size of problems

- Two functions  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$  are of the same type if
$$c_1g(n^{a_1})^{b_1} \leq f(n) \leq c_2g(n^{a_2})^{b_2}$$

for all large  $n$ , where  $a_1, a_2, b_1, b_2, c_1, c_2$  are some positive constants.

- For example all polynomials are of the same type, but polynomials and exponentials are of different types.

# Input size example: Integer multiplication

- **Problem:** Compute  $a \times b$
- **Question:** What is the input size?
- **Solution:** The (minimum) input size is
$$s = \lceil \log_2(a + 1) \rceil + \lceil \log_2(b + 1) \rceil.$$
- A natural choice is to use

$$t = \log_2 \max(a, b)$$

as the input size since

$$\frac{s}{2} \leq t \leq s.$$

# Decision Problems

- **Definition:** A decision problem is a question that has two possible answers, yes or no.
- **Definition:** An optimization problem requires an answer that is an optimal configuration
- **Remark:** An optimization problem usually has a corresponding decision problem
  - Example: MST vs. Decision Spanning Tree (DST)

# Decision Problem: MST

- **Optimization problem: Minimum Spanning Tree**  
Given a weighted graph  $G$ , find a minimum spanning tree (MST) of  $G$ .
- **Decision problem: Decision Spanning Tree (DST)**  
Given a weighted graph  $G$  and an integer  $K$ , does  $G$  have a spanning tree of weight at most  $K$ ?
  - The inputs are of the form  $(G, K)$ . So we will write  $(G, k) \in DST$  or  $(G, k) \notin DST$  to denote respectively yes and no answers.

# Optimization and Decision Problems

- For almost all optimization problems there exists a corresponding simpler decision problem.
- Given a subroutine for solving the optimization problem, solving the corresponding decision problem is usually be trivial.
- Thus if we prove that a given decision problem is hard to solve efficiently, then it is obvious that the optimization problem must be (at least as) hard.

# Example

- If we know how to solve MST we can solve DST which asks if there is an Spanning Tree with weight at most  $K$ . How?
- First solve the MST problem and then check if the MST has cost  $\leq K$ . If it does, answer Yes. If it doesn't, answer No.

# Polynomial-Time Algorithms

- **Definition:** An algorithm is *polynomial-time* if its running time is  $O(n^k)$ , where 'k' is a constant independent of 'n', and 'n' is the input size of the problem that the algorithm solves.
- Examples:
  - DFS
  - Kruskals's MST

# The Class NP

- Usually NP defined in terms of “verifier”:
  - Algorithm  $V$  that takes two inputs  $(x,c)$  such that:
    - For all yes-instances ‘ $x$ ’, there is a string ‘ $c$ ’ such that  $V(x,c)$  outputs True in polynomial time.
    - For all no-instances ‘ $x$ ’, for all strings ‘ $c$ ’,  $V(x,c)$  outputs False.
    - ‘ $c$ ’ is called “certificate”
- Notice the symmetry: possible to verify yes-instance in polynomial time, but nothing known about a no-instance

# The Class NP (Cont.)

- All decision problems  $D$  that can be solved by a "generate-and-verify" algorithm with the following structure:

On input  $x$ :

generate all "certificates"  $c$ , and for each one:

    #verification phase

    if verify  $(x,c)$ : return true

return false

Where the verification phase runs in worst-case polynomial time, as a function of  $\text{size}(x)$ .

- The time require to run the entire algorithm may be exponential.

# NP Example

- COMPOSITE (given positive integer  $x$ , does  $x$  have any factors?) belongs to NP because it is solved by generate-and-verify algorithm where generate phase loops over all integers  $c$  in  $\{2,3,\dots,x-1\}$  and the algorithm is:
  - for all integers  $c = 2,3,\dots,x-1$ :
    - if  $c$  divides  $x$ :
      - return True
    - return False # no divisor found
  - $\text{verify}(x,c)$ : return  $(c \bmod x == 0)$

# NP Example: Vertex Cover

- Input: Undirected graph  $G$ , positive integer  $k$
- Question: Does  $G$  contain a vertex cover of size  $k$ ?
- On input  $\langle G, k, c \rangle$ :

verify that  $c$  is a subset of exactly  $k$  vertices  $\rightarrow O(kn)$

check that  $c$  forms a vertex cover in  $G \rightarrow O(mk)$

Output True if both conditions holds; False otherwise

- “Generate and Verify Algorithms”

On input  $\langle G, k \rangle$ :

For all subsets of vertices  $c$ :

If  $c$  is a subset of exactly  $k$  vertices and  $c$  forms a vertex cover

Return true

Return false

# Polynomial vs. Non-polynomial Time

- Nonpolynomial-time algorithms are *impractical* .  
For example, to run an algorithm of time complexity  $2^n$  for  $n = 100$  on a computer which does 1 terraoperation ( $10^{12}$  operations) per second
- It takes  $2^{100}/10^{12} \sim 10^{18.1}$  seconds  $\sim 4 \cdot 10^{10}$  years

# Review: P And NP Summary

- **P** = set of problems that can be solved in polynomial time
- **NP** = set of problems for which a solution can be verified in polynomial time
  - Examples: Fractional Knapsack,..., Hamiltonian Cycle
- Clearly  $\mathbf{P} \subseteq \mathbf{NP}$
- Open question: Does  $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$ ?
  - Most suspect not

# Amusing analogy

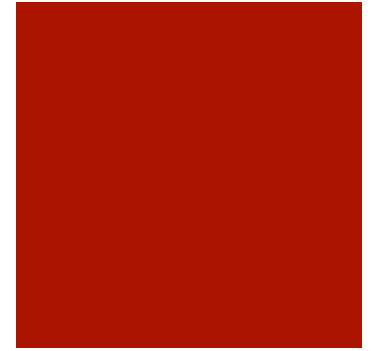
(thanks to lecture notes at University of Utah)

- Students believe that every problem assigned to them is NP-complete in difficulty level, as they have to find the solutions.
- Teaching Assistants, on the other hand, find that their job is only as hard as NP, as they only have to verify the student's answers.
- When some students confound the TAs, even verification becomes hard



**Why Care?**

# NP Contains Lots of Problems We Don't Know to be in P



- Classroom Scheduling
- Packing objects into bins
- Scheduling jobs on machines
- Finding cheap tours visiting a subset of cities
- Allocating variables to registers
- Finding good packet routings in networks



OK, OK, I care...

But where do I begin  
if I want to reason about  
the  $P=NP$  problem?



How can we prove that  
 $NP \subseteq P$ ?

I would have to show that  
every set in NP has a  
polynomial time algorithm...

How do I do that?

It may take a long time!

Also, what if I forgot one of  
the sets in NP?



We can describe  
**just** one problem  $L$  in  $NP$ ,  
such that  
if this problem  $L$  is in  $P$ ,  
then  $NP \subseteq P$ .

It is a problem that can  
capture all other problems  
in  $NP$ .



# The “Hardest” Set in NP

# Class co-NP

- Note that if  $L \in \mathcal{NP}$ , there is no guarantee that  $\bar{L} \in \mathcal{NP}$ , since having certificates for yes-instance does not mean that we have certificates for no-instance.
- The class of decision problems 'L' such that  $\bar{L} \in \mathcal{NP}$ , is called co-NP.
- So if D in co-NP, there is a verifier  $V(x,c)$  running in polynomial time:
  - $V(x,c) = \text{False}$  for some 'c' whenever x is a no-instance
  - $V(x,c) = \text{True}$  for all c whenever x is a yes-instance

# Example

- Composite is in NP so, Prime problem would be in co-NP
- DENSE Problem:
  - Input: Undirected graph  $G = (V,E)$ , positive integer  $k$ .
  - Output: Does every subset of  $k$  vertices contain at least one edge between vertices in the subset?

## Example (Cont.)

- Dense in co-NP:

On input  $G,k,c$ :

If  $c$  is a subset of  $k$  vertices and  $G$  contains no edge between any two vertices in  $c$

Return false

Return true

- Verifier runs in polynomial and returns False for some  $c$  iff  $(G,k)$  not in DENSE

## Example (Cont.)

- DENSE is the “complement ” of Independent-Set (IS):
  - Input: Undirected graph  $G$ , positive integer  $k$ .
  - Output: Does  $G$  contain some independent set of size  $k$  (a subset of vertices with no edge between any two vertices in the subset)