## NP-Completeness

## The World if $\mathrm{P} \neq \mathrm{NP}$ ?

Q: If $\mathrm{P} \neq \mathrm{NP}$, can we conclude anything about any specific problems?
Idea: Try to find a "hardest" NP language.

- Want $L \in \mathrm{NP}$ such that $L \in \mathrm{P}$ iff every NP language is in P .


## Reducibility

Informally, we say that a computational problem $A$ reduces to a computational problem $B$ (written $A \leq B$ ) if $A$ can be solved (efficiently) by solving $B$. Thus, an (efficient) algorithm for $B$ implies an (efficient) algorithm for $A$.

We have already seen many examples:

- Context-free Recognition $\leq$ Matrix Multiplication (HW3)
- Max-Flow $\leq$ Linear Programming
- MATChing $\leq$ MAX-FLOw
- Zero-Sum Games $\leq$ Linear Programming
- $L_{\text {fact }} \leq$ FACTORING
- FACTORING $\leq L_{\text {fact }}$

Here $L_{\text {fact }}=\{\langle N, m\rangle: N$ has a factor in $\{2, \ldots, m\}\}$. The last bullet follows since, to factor $N$, we can iteratively try to find one factor $x$ then recurse on both $x$ and $N / x$. To find a single factor, we can use a subroutine solving $L_{\text {fact }}$ and binary search on $m$ (recall to be efficient, our running time should be polylogarithmic in $N$, since the input length is $\lceil\log N\rceil$ bits to write down $N$ ). As the last bullet shows, reductions are useful not only for showing that problems can be solved efficiently, but also for giving evidence that problems are hard: under the widely believed
conjecture that Factoring has no polynomial-time algorithm, we can deduce that $L_{\text {fact }} \notin \mathrm{P}$ (and hence $\mathrm{P} \neq \mathrm{NP}$ ). Hence " $A \leq B$ " can be interpreted equivalently as saying " $A$ is at least as easy as $B$ " or " $B$ is at least as hard as $A$ ".

## Polynomial-Time Mapping Reductions

There are many forms of reducibility, and which one is most suitable depends on what kind of computational phenomena we are interested in studying. A very general notion is that of a Turing reduction (aka oracle reduction), where we say that $A \leq B$ if there is an algorithm that solves $A$ given any "black box" that solves $B$. (For example, we add a Word-RAM instruction that will provide a solution to an instance of $B$ written in memory in one time step. It's like programming with a library for which we have no idea how the the library functions themselves are implemented (or even if they can be implemented at all).) The polynomial-time analogue of Turing reductions are known as Cook reductions, and these are what we used in the reductions between Factoring and $L_{\text {fact }}$.

However, for reductions between languages, it is often convenient to work with the following more restrictive notion of reduction (known as polynomial-time mapping reductions or Karp reductions):

Def: $L_{1} \leq_{P} L_{2}$ iff there is a polynomial-time computable function $f: \Sigma_{1}^{*} \rightarrow \Sigma_{2}^{*}$ s.t. for every $x \in \Sigma_{1}^{*}, x \in L$ iff $f(x) \in L_{2}$.


- $x \in L_{1} \Rightarrow f(x) \in L_{2}$
- $x \notin L_{1} \Rightarrow f(x) \notin L_{2}$
- $f$ computable in polynomial time

Proposition: If $L_{1} \leq_{P} L_{2}$ and $L_{2} \in \mathrm{P}$, then $L_{1} \in \mathrm{P}$.

## Proof:

## Suppose that

- $f$ is a reduction of $L_{1}$ to $L_{2}$ computable in time $T_{1}$, a polynomial.
- $L_{2}$ is decidable in time $T_{2}$, a polynomial.

To decide whether $x \in L_{1}$ :

1. Compute $f(x)$. [takes time $\left.T_{1}(|x|)\right]$
2. Decide whether $f(x) \in L_{2}$. [takes time $\left.T_{2}(|f(x)|)\right]$

But we know that $|f(x)| \leq T_{1}(|x|)$, since the length of the output of a TM can't be longer than the time in which it runs.

Thus, $T_{2}(|f(x)|) \leq T_{2}\left(T_{1}(|x|)\right)$.
So total time $\leq T_{1}(|x|)+T_{2}\left(T_{1}(|x|)\right)$, a polynomial.

## NP-Completeness

Def: $L$ is NP-complete iff

1. $L \in \mathrm{NP}$ and
2. For every $L^{\prime} \in \mathrm{NP}$, we have $L^{\prime} \leq_{P} L$. (" $L$ is $\underline{\mathrm{NP}-\text { hard") }}$

Prop: Let $L$ be any NP-complete language. Then $\mathrm{P}=\mathrm{NP}$ if and only if $L \in \mathrm{P}$.

## Cook-Levin Theorem

## (Stephen Cook 1971, Leonid Levin 1973)

Theorem: SAT (Boolean satisfiability) is NP-complete.

Proof: Need to show that every language in NP reduces to SAT (!) Proof next time.


## More NP-complete problems

From now on we prove NP-completeness using:
Lemma: If we have the following

- $L$ is in NP
- $L_{0} \leq_{P} L$ for some NP-complete $L_{0}$

Then $L$ is NP-complete.
Proof: Since by hypothesis $L \in \mathrm{NP}$, it suffices to show that every $L^{\prime} \in \mathrm{NP}$ reduces to $L$.

- $L^{\prime} \leq_{P} L_{0}$ since $L_{0}$ is NP-complete;
- $L_{0} \leq_{P} L$ by hypothesis; and so
- $L^{\prime} \leq_{P} L$ by transitivity.

Thus, $L$ is NP-complete.

## 3-SAT

Def: A Boolean formula is in 3-CNF if it is of the form $C_{1} \wedge C_{2} \wedge \ldots \wedge C_{n}$, where each clause $C_{i}$ is a disjunction ("or") of 3 literals:

$$
C_{i}=\left(C_{i 1} \vee C_{i 2} \vee C_{i 3}\right)
$$

where each literal $C_{i j}$ is either a variable $x$, or the negation of a variable, $\neg x$ (sometimes written $\bar{x}$ ).
e.g. $(x \vee y \vee z) \wedge(\neg x \vee \neg u \vee w) \wedge(u \vee u \vee u)$

3-SAT is the set of satisfiable 3-CNF formulas.
Theorem: 3-SAT is NP-complete
Proof: We show that SAT $\leq_{P} 3$-SAT.

1. Given an arbitrary Boolean formula, e.g.

$$
\begin{gathered}
F=(\neg((x \vee \neg y) \wedge(z \vee w)) \vee \neg x) . \\
123340507
\end{gathered}
$$

2. Number the operators.
3. Select a new variable $a_{i}$ for each operator.

The variable $a_{i}$ is supposed to mean "the subformula rooted at operator $i$ is true."
4. Write a formula $F_{1}$ stating the relation between each subformula and its children subformulas.

For example, where

$$
\begin{gathered}
F=(\neg((x \vee \neg y) \wedge(z \vee w)) \vee \neg x), \\
1
\end{gathered} \begin{array}{llllll}
23 & 4 & 5 & 67
\end{array}
$$

$F_{1}=\left(\begin{array}{cccc} & \left(a_{3} \equiv \neg y\right) & \wedge & \left(a_{7} \equiv \neg x\right) \\ \wedge & \left(a_{2} \equiv x \vee a_{3}\right) & \wedge & \left(a_{1} \equiv \neg a_{4}\right) \\ \wedge & \left(a_{5} \equiv z \vee w\right) & \wedge & \left(a_{6} \equiv a_{1} \vee a_{7}\right) \\ \wedge & \left(a_{4} \equiv a_{2} \wedge a_{5}\right) & & \end{array}\right)$
5. Let $k$ be the number of the main operator/subformula of $F$.
(Note: $k=6$ in the example)
Claim: $a_{k} \wedge F_{1}$ is satisfiable iff $F$ is satisfiable.
6. Write $F_{1}$ in 3-CNF to obtain $F_{2}$.

Fact: Every function $f:\{0,1\}^{k} \rightarrow\{0,1\}$ can be written as a $k$-CNF and as a $k$-DNF (OR of ANDs). [albeit with possibly $2^{k}$ clauses]

Proof: Write the truth table for $f$. To obtain a $k$-DNF, for each row of the table for which $f(x)=1$, we obtain a clause which ANDs all the literals in that row. We then OR these together over all such $x$. To obtain a $k$-CNF, we first build a $k$-DNF as in the last sentence for the function $\neg f$. This is the OR of many clauses: $C_{1} \vee \ldots \vee C_{m}$. Each $C_{i}$ is an AND of $k$ literals. We then use De Morgan's laws to obtain $\neg(\neg f)$, which yields $\overline{C_{1} \vee \ldots \vee C_{m}}=\overline{C_{1}} \wedge \ldots \wedge \overline{C_{m}}$, which is a $k$-CNF.
7. Output of the reduction: $a_{k} \wedge F_{2}$.

Execise: Note the above ingredients give us a CNF in which each clause has at most 3 literals. Some may have just 1 or 2 . Show how to extend such clauses to have exactly 3 literals, from 3 distinct variables (hint: add new dummy variables and more clauses).

In contrast, $2-\mathrm{SAT} \in \mathrm{P}$

Method (resolution):

1. If $x$ and $\neg x$ are both clauses, then not satisfiable

$$
\text { e.g. }(x) \wedge(z \vee y) \wedge(\neg x)
$$

2. If $(x \vee y) \wedge(\neg y \vee z)$ are both clauses, add clause $(x \vee z)$ (which is implied).
3. Repeat. If no contradiction emerges $\Rightarrow$ satisfiable.
$O\left(n^{2}\right)$ repetitions of step 2 since only 2 literals/clause.

Proof of correctness: omitted

## Vertex Cover (VC)

- Instance:
- a graph, e.g.

- a number $k$ (e.g. 4)
- Question: Is there a set of $k$ vertices that "cover" the graph, i.e., include at least one endpoint of every edge?



## VC is NP-complete

- VC is in NP:
- 3 -SAT $\leq_{P} \mathrm{VC}$ :
- Let $F$ be a 3-CNF formula with clauses $C_{1} \ldots, C_{m}$, variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$.
- We construct a graph $G_{F}$ and a number $N_{F}$ such that:


## $G_{F}$ has a size $N_{F}$ vertex cover iff $F$ is satisfiable

E.g. $F=\left(x_{1} \vee x_{2} \vee \neg x_{3}\right) \wedge\left(\neg x_{1} \vee \neg x_{2} \vee x_{3}\right) \wedge\left(x_{1} \vee \neg x_{2} \vee x_{3}\right)$


- $G_{F}=$ one dumbbell for each variable, one triangle for each clause, and corner $j$ of triangle $i$ is connected to the vertex representing the $j$ th literal in $C_{i}$.
- $N_{F}=2 m+n=2$ (\# clauses) + (\# variables).
$\Rightarrow 1$ vertex from each dumbbell and 2 from each triangle.
- Exercise: Show that $F$ is satisfiable iff there is a cover of size $N_{F}$.


## CLIQUE

- Instance:
- a graph, e.g.

- a number $k$ (e.g. 4)
- Question: Is there a clique of size $k$, i.e., a set of $k$ vertices such that there is an edge between each pair?

- Easy to see that CLIQUE $\in$ NP.

$$
\mathrm{VC} \leq_{P} \mathrm{CLIQUE}
$$

If $G$ is any graph, let $G^{c}$ be the graph with the same vertices such that:
there is an edge between $x$ and $y$ in $G^{c}$
iff there is no edge between $x$ and $y$ in $G$
e.g.
 $G^{c}=$


- Claim: $G$ has a $k$-cover iff $G^{c}$ has an $(n-k)$-clique, where $n$ is the number of vertices in $G$.
(So the mapping $(G, k) \mapsto\left(G^{c}, n-k\right)$ is a reduction of VC to CLIQUE.)

An integer linear program is

- A set of variables $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ which must take integer values.
- A set of linear inequalities:

$$
\begin{array}{ll} 
& a_{i 1} x_{1}+a_{i 2} x_{2}+\ldots+a_{i n} x_{n} \leq c_{i} \\
\text { e.g. } & x_{1}-2 x_{2}+x_{4} \leq 7 \\
& \\
x_{1} \geq 0 & {\left[-x_{1} \leq 0\right]} \\
& x_{4}+x_{1} \leq 3
\end{array} \quad[i=1, \ldots, m]
$$

ILP $=$ the set of integer linear programs for which there are values for the variables that simultaneously satisfy all the inequalities.

## ILP is NP-complete

ILP $\in$ NP. (Not obvious! Need a little math to prove it. The reason is that an integer solution might have really big integers - we need to make sure they only need a polynomial number of bits. Proof omitted.)

ILP is NP-hard: by reduction from 3-SAT (3-SAT $\leq_{P}$ ILP). Given 3-CNF Formula $F$, construct following ILP $P$ as follows.

If the variables are $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$, then we have the constraints $0 \leq x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n} \leq 1$. Also, if there are $m$ clauses, we have constraints $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{m} \geq 1$, one for each clause. We also have a separate constraint for each clause. If the $i$ th clause is, for exampe, $x_{i_{1}} \vee \bar{x}_{i_{2}} \vee x_{i_{3}}$, then we have a constraint $c_{i} \leq x_{i_{1}}+\left(1-x_{i_{2}}\right)+x_{i_{3}}$.

Recall: Linear Programming where the variables can take real values is known to be in P.

## More NP-complete/NP-hard Problems

- Hamiltonian Circuit (and hence Travelling Salesman Problem) (see Sipser text for related problems)


## - SchEDULING

## - Circuit Minimization

- Short Proof
- Nash Equilibrium with Maximum Payoff


## - Protein Folding

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- See book by Garey \& Johnson for hundreds more.

