

What do all these problems have in common?

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P and NP

Clearly we have  $P \subseteq NP$ .

So far, nobody has been able to find a problem that is in NP, but not in P.

So we do not know if  $P \subseteq NP$  or P = NP.

This is one of the millenium problems, and worth a million dollars.

Is it harder to find solutions than to check them?

If P = NP then "creativity can be automated".

For instance, proofs for mathematical theorems can be found automatically.

For all of these problems the following is true: If the answer is "yes", then it is easy to show that this is indeed correct.

An algorithm  $C(\cdot, \cdot)$  is a polynomial-time certifier for problem X if there is a polynomial  $p(\cdot)$  such that for every instance  $I_X$  we have: the solution to  $I_X$  is "yes" if and only if

- there is a string t of length  $|t| \leq p(|I_X|)$  such that
- $C(I_X, t)$  returns "yes", and
- $C(\cdot, \cdot)$  runs in polynomial time.

Note that if the answer to  $I_X$  is "no", there may be no certificate for this.

- Let P be the class of all problems that have a polynomial time algorithm.
- Let NP be the class of problems that have a polynomial-time certifier.

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P. NP, and EXP

Let EXP be the class of problems that have an exponential time algorithm. (Here, exponential time means  $O(n^{p(n)})$ , for some polynomial p).

For example  $O(1.2^n)$ ,  $O(2^n)$ , O(n!),  $O(2^{n^3})$ .

We have  $P \subseteq NP \subseteq EXP$ .

It is known that  $P \neq EXP$ .

Which of the two inclusions is proper?

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#### NP-hardness and NP-completeness

A problem X is called NP-hard iff for every problem  $Y \in NP$  we have

 $Y \leq X$ .

In other words, X is harder than all problems in NP.

A problem X is called NP-complete iff

- $X \in \mathsf{NP}$ , and
- X is NP-hard

In other words,  $\boldsymbol{X}$  is one of the hardest problems in NP.

Cook-Levin Theorem: SAT is NP-complete.

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Theorem: Let X be an NP-complete problem. Then X has a polynomial time algorithm if and only if P = NP.

Proof:

 $\Leftarrow: \text{From } P = NP \text{ and } X \in NP \text{ follows that } X \text{ has a polynomial-time algorithm.}$ 

 $\Rightarrow$ : Consider any  $Y \in NP$ .

We have  $Y \leq X$ . Since X has a polynomial-time algorithm, this implies that Y has a polynomial-time algorithm.

Therefore  $Y \in P$ .

It follow  $NP \subseteq P$ , and therefore NP = P.

# **KAIST** CS500 Why is NP-completeness interesting?

Theorem: Let X be an NP-complete problem. Then X has a polynomial time algorithm if and only if P = NP.

Finding a polynomial time algorithm for one NP-complete problem is equivalent to finding one for all problems in NP!

We believe  $P \neq NP$ , and so it is unlikely that an NP-complete problem has an efficient algorithm.

At least many smart people have failed to find an algorithm for these problems.

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How to prove NP-completeness

To prove that a problem X is NP-complete, we need to

- show that X ∈ NP (by giving a polynomial-time certifier for X)
- show that  $Y \leq X$  for some NP-hard problem Y.

Hundreds and thousands of different problems from many areas of science and engineering have been shown to be NP-Complete .

It's a surprisingly common phenomenon.

All the hard problems we studied are NP-complete, since there is a reduction from  $\mathrm{S}\mathrm{A}\mathrm{T}.$ 

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Why prove NP-completeness?

When you encounter a problem for which you cannot find an efficient algorithm, you can prove that it is NP-complete.

- It shows to your boss/advisor that you are not too lazy to find a good algorithm.
- A paper with a heuristic or approximation algorithm is more likely to be accepted if you can show that the problem is hard.
- It makes you feel good.

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Register allocation: Assign variables to (at most) k registers such that variables needed at the same time are not in the same register.

Interference graph: Nodes are variables, with an edge when variables are needed at the same time.

Register allocation is equivalent to coloring the graph with  $\boldsymbol{k}$  colors.

3Coloring  $\leq k$ -RegisterAllocation,

for  $k \geq 3$ .

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### Examples

Class room scheduling: Given n classes and their meeting times, are k class rooms sufficient?

Again equivalent to *k*-COLORING.

Cellular telephone systems break up the frequency band into small bands. A cell phone tower gets one band. If towers are too close, they cannot get the same band.

The problem of assigning frequency bands to cell phone towers reduces to k-COLORING.

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Subset Sum and KnapSack

Subset Sum Problem: Given n integers  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$  and a target B, is there a subset of S of  $\{a_1, ..., a_n\}$  such that the numbers in S add up precisely to B?

Knapsack: Given n items with item i having size  $s_i$  and profit  $p_i$ , a knapsack of capacity B, and a target profit P, is there a subset S of items that can be packed in the knapsack and the profit of S is at least P?

#### SubsetSum $\leq$ Knapsack

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#### The input encoding matters

Subset Sum can be solved in O(nB) time using dynamic programming (exercise for you).

This implies that problem is hard only when (some of) numbers  $a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$  are exponentially large compared to n.

The input encoding matters! When input is encoded in unary, the problem is in  ${\sf P}$  .

Number problems of the above type are said to be weakly NP-Complete .

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### Lecture Planning

We want to plan a sequence of  $\ell$  guest lectures. There are n possible speakers. In week i a subset  $L_i$  of these speakers is available.

Afterwards the students will do p projects about topics from the lectures. Project j requires at least one of the speakers from a subset  $P_j$  of the speakers.

Example:  $\ell = 2$ , p = 3, n = 4 speakers.

 $L_1 = \{A, B, C\}, L_2 = \{A, D\}.$ 

 $P_1 = \{B, C\}, P_2 = \{A, B, D\}, P_3 = \{C, D\}.$ 

LECTUREPLANNING is clearly in NP. Is it also NP-hard?

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NP-hardness proof

Reduction from 3SAT: For each variable  $x_i$ , make two lecturers  $x_i$  and  $\bar{x}_i$ . In week i, we can choose between them:  $L_i = \{x_i, \bar{x}_i\}.$ 

Make a project for each clause!

Reduction from VERTEXCOVER: Given graph G = (V, E) and k > 0, create a lecturer  $z_v$  for each node v.

Set  $\ell = k$  and let  $L_1 = L_2 = \ldots = L_k = \{z_v \mid v \in V\}.$ 

Make a project j for each edge  $e_j = (v, w)$ , where  $P_j = \{z_v, z_w\}.$