# Complexity Classes (Ch. 34)

The class P: class of problems that can be solved in time that is polynomial in the size of the input, n.

- if input size is n, then the worst-case running time is O(nc) for constant c.
- problems in P are considered "tractable" (if not in P, then not tractable)

# Complexity Classes

The class NP: class of problems with solutions that can be verified in time that is polynomial in the size of the input.

- Imagine we are given a "certificate" of a solution (really a potential solution) of a problem. Then the problem is in NP if we can verify that the certificate is correct in time polynomial in the size of the input.
- Relies on the fact that checking a solution is easier than computing it (e.g., check that a list is sorted, rather than sorting it.)

# **NP-Completeness**

The class NP-Complete (NPC): class of the "hardest" problems in NP.

- this class has property that if any NPC problem can be solved in polynomial time, then  $\underline{\text{all}}$  problems in NP can be solved in polynomial-time.
- actual status of NPC problems is unknown
  - No polynomial-time algorithms have been discovered for any NPC problem
  - No one has been able to prove that no polynomial-time algorithm can exist for any of them
    Informally, a problem is in NPC if it is in NP and is as
- "hard" as any problem in NP. we will use *reductions*, to grow our set of NPC problems from one initial problem.

# Some Examples of P and NP Problems

SSSP problem in a directed graph, even with negative edge weights, is in P (i.e., O(VE) time)

Finding the longest simple path between two nodes is NPC, even if all edge weights are 1 (because exhaustive search is exponential

An *Euler tour* of a connected, directed graph is a cycle that traverses each edge of G exactly once, although it may visit a vertex more than once. We can determine whether a graph has an Euler tour and find the edges of such a tour in O(E) time.

A hamiltonian cycle of a directed graph is a simple cycle that contains each vertex in V (each vertex only once). Determining whether a directed graph has a hamiltonian cycle is NPC.

# P, NP, NPC...how are they related?

Any problem in P is also in NP, since if a problem is in P then we can solve it in polynomial-time without even being given a certificate.

So  $P \subseteq NP$ .

By definition, NPC ⊆ NP

# P, NP, NPC...how are they related?

## Is NP $\subseteq$ P ???

- open problem, but intuition says no
- probably the most famous open problem in CS
- seems plausible that the ability to guess and verify a solution in polynomial-time is more powerful than computing a solution from scratch (in deterministic polynomial-time)
- so...we think  $P \neq NP$ , but no one has proven it one way or the other (despite enormous effort).

# P, NP, NPC...why do we care?

So...why do we care to know whether a problem is NP-Complete?

- if it is, then finding a polynomial-time algorithm to solve it is unlikely.
- better to spend your time looking for:
  - o an efficient **approximation algorithm** to find solution close to optimal
  - o **heuristics** that give correct answer with high probability

# P, NP, NPC...why do we care?

So...why do we care to know whether a problem is NP-Complete?

- The set of "hardest" problems, the NPC problems, includes many problems of importance in science, engineering, Operations Research, and business, e.g.:
  - traveling salesman
  - bin packing
  - knapsack problem
  - vertex cover and graph coloring
  - integer linear programming
  - etc...

## **Decision Problems**

Showing problems are either P or NP confines us to the realm of decision problems (problems with yes/no answers)

**Example: Shortest paths** 

- general (optimization) problem: What is the length of the shortest x to y path?
- decision problem: Is there an x to y path of length
   k?

## **Decision Problems**

#### Rationale for studying decision problems:

- if the decision problem is hard (i.e., not solvable in polynomial time), the general problem is at least as hard
- for many problems, we only need polynomial extra time to solve the general problem after we solve the decision problem
- decision problems are easier to study and results are easier to prove
- all general problems can be rephrased as decision problems

# **Encoding Problem Instances**

- To solve a problem with a computer, the problem instances must be encoded in a way that the computer can interpret the encoding and such that the encoding will not influence the running time unduly
  - An encoding of a set S of problem instances is a mapping from S to the set of binary strings ({0,1}\*).
  - In formal complexity theory, we use encodings to map abstract problems to concrete problems.

# Formal-Language Terminology

- **Alphabet** ( $\Sigma$ ): *finite* set of symbols, e.g.,
  - $\Sigma$  = {0, 1} (binary alphabet)
  - $\Sigma$  = {a, b, c} (alphabet consisting of three letters)
  - $\Sigma$  = set of all ASCII characters
- **String** = finite sequence of symbols chosen from some alphabet, e.g., 01101 or abacaaba.
- Language (L) = set of strings chosen from some alphabet (also stated: "a set of strings *over* some alphabet")

## Languages

- **Kleene star** ( $\Sigma^*$ ): set of *all* strings over  $\Sigma$ 
  - The number of strings in  $\,\Sigma^*$  is infinite, since there is no bound on length of strings
- Language = subset of  $\Sigma^*$

The strings composing a language are a set of problem instances.

A LANGUAGE is equivalent to a PROBLEM in this framework.

# Example: Languages

- The set of all binary strings consisting of some number of 0's followed by an equal number of 1's; that is,  $\lambda$ ; 01; 0011; 00011;...
- The set of strings over {a,b} in which each occurrence of a is immediately preceded by b.
- C (the set of C programs that can be compiled).
- English.
- The set of graphs that contain a Hamiltonian cycle.
- The set of satisfiable boolean expressions.

# Language Acceptance

A decision algorithm A *accepts* a string x if, given input s, the algorithm's output is 1 (for "yes"), i.e., A(x) = 1.

Decision algorithm A rejects a string x if A(x) = 0.

The language L accepted by A is the set of strings  $L = \{x \in \{0,1\}^* : A(x) = 1\}$ 

A language L is *decided* by A if every binary string in L is accepted by A and every binary string not in L is rejected by A.

# Language-Theoretic Definition of the classes P and NP

- P = {L ⊆ {0,1}\* : there exists an algorithm
   A that decides whether the input string is a yes or no instance of L in polynomial-time}
- NP = {L ⊆ {0,1}\* : there exists a certificate y with |y| = O(|x|<sup>c</sup>) such that A(x,y) = 1} A is a 2-input algorithm that verifies membership in L in polynomial-time

(here, x is input encoding and y is certificate A uses to decide if  $x \in L$  )

The general Traveling Salesman Problem:

- *instance*: a set of cities and the distance between each pair of cities (given as a graph).
- goal: Find a tour of minimum cost. (optimization problem)

Example: Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP)

Decision Version

- <u>instance</u>: a set of cities and the distance between each pair of connected cities (given as a graph), and a bound B.
- <u>question</u>: is there a "tour" that visits every city exactly once, returns to the start, and has total distance ≤ B?

## Example: Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP)

#### Is TSP ∈ NP?

To determine this, we need to show that we can verify a given solution (list of cities) in polynomial-time (i.e., time  $O(n^k)$ , where n is the number of cities and k is a constant).

Given an encoding of a TSP instance (a graph) and a certificate (a list of all cities in the order they are visited).

- check that each city is in certificate exactly once check that the start city is also the end city
- check that total distance ≤ B

All can be done in O(n) time, so  $TSP \in NP$ .

## Reductions

Let L<sub>1</sub> and L<sub>2</sub> be two decision problems. Suppose we have a polynomial-time algorithm A<sub>2</sub> to decide L<sub>2</sub> but no algorithm to decide L<sub>1</sub>. We can use A<sub>2</sub> to decide L<sub>1</sub> as well (still in polynomial-time).

All we need to do is find a polynomial-time reduction f from  $L_1$  to  $L_2$  ( $L_1 \leq_p L_2$ ):

- f transforms an input for  $L_1$  into an input for  $L_2$  such that the transformed input is a yes-input for L<sub>2</sub> iff the original input is a yes-input for L<sub>1</sub>
- f must be computable in polynomial-time (in the size of the input)
- if such an f exists, we say  $L_1 \leq_n L_2$

## Polynomial-time Reduction

We have a problem B that we know how to solve in polynomial-time and we would like to have a polynomial-time algorithm for problem A. We want to show that  $A \leq_n B$  (B is known to be "easy" and A's running time is unknown)

Suppose we have a procedure that transforms any instance  $\alpha$  of A into an instance  $\beta$  of B with the following characteristics:

- 1. The transformation is polynomial-time
- 2. The answers are the same. That is, the answer for  $\alpha$  is "yes" iff the answer for  $\beta$  is also "yes"

## Polynomial-time Reduction for "easiness"

We call this procedure a polynomial-time "reduction algorithm" because it gives us a way to show that A can be solved in polynomial-time (p-time).

- 1. Given an instance  $\alpha$  of A, use a p-time reduction algorithm to transform it to an instance  $\beta$  of B  $\in$  P.
- 2. Run the p-time decision algorithm for B on the instance B
- 3. Use the answer for  $\beta$  as the answer to  $\alpha$

In simple terms, we use the "easiness" of problem B to prove the "easiness" of problem A by showing A ≤<sub>n</sub> B.

## Polynomial-time Reduction for "NPC-ness"

We can also use reduction to show that a problem is NPC. We can use a reduction to show that no p-time algorithm can exist for a particular problem B, assuming none exists

Given an instance  $\alpha$  of A for which we have no evidence of a p-time solution and a reduction algorithm to transform instance  $\alpha$  of A to instance  $\beta$  of B,

- 1. Convert the input  $\alpha$  for A into input  $\beta$  for B
- 2. Run the decision algorithm for B on the instance  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$
- 3. If B has a p-time algorithm, then using the p-time transformation algorithm, we could convert an instance of A into an instance of B and solve A in p-time, a contradiction to the assumption that no p-time solution exists for A.

## Reduction

To show that a problem Q is NPC, choose some known NPC problem P and reduce P to Q.

- 1. Since P is NPC, all problems R in NP are reducible to P; that is,  $R \leq_p P$ .
- 2. Show P ≤<sub>n</sub> Q.
- 3. Then all problems R in NP satisfy R  $\leq_p$  Q, by transitivity of reductions.
- 4. Therefore, Q is NPC.

# Polynomial-time Reduction Ex: Hamiltonian Circuit Problem to TSP

The Hamiltonian Circuit Decision Problem (HC):

**Instance**: An undirected graph G = (V, E) **Question**: Is there a simple cycle in G that includes every node?

The Traveling Salesman Decision Problem (TSP):

Instance: A set of cities, distances between each city-pair, and

Question: Is there a "tour" that visits every city exactly once, returns

to the start, and has total distance  $\leq$  B?

## Polynomial-time Reduction Ex: HC to TSP

Claim:  $HC \leq_p TSP$ Proof: To prove this, we need to do 2 things:

- Define the transformation f mapping inputs for HC decision problem into inputs for TSP, and show this mapping can be computed in polynomial-time in size of HC input.
  - f must map the input G = (V, E) for HC into a list of cities, distances, and a bound B for input to TSP
- 2. Prove the transformation is correct.

## Polynomial-time Reduction Ex: HC to TSP

## 1. Definition of transformation f for HC $\leq_n$ TSP:

Given the HC input graph G = (V, E) with n nodes:

- create a set of n cities labeled with names of nodes in V.
- set intercity distances  $d(u,v) = \begin{cases} 1 \\ 2 \end{cases}$ if  $(u, v) \in E$ if (u, v) ∉ E
- set bound B = n (since HC circuit must be of length n)

Note: f can be computed in O(n2) time. Describe an algorithm to do so.

#### Polynomial-time Reduction Ex: HC to TSP

#### 2. Prove the transformation f for HC ≤ TSP is correct

We will prove this by showing that  $x \in HC$  iff  $f(x) \in TSP$ 

2(a) if  $x \in HC$ , then  $f(x) \in TSP$ 2(b) if  $f(x) \in TSP$ , then  $x \in HC$ 

Proof of 2(a):

- o  $x \in HC$  means HC input G = (V, E) has a hamiltonian circuit. Wlog, suppose it is the ordering  $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_n, v_1)$ .
- o Then  $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_n, v_1)$  is also a tour of the cities in f(x), the transformed TSP instance.
- o The distance of the tour (v $_1,$  v $_2,$  ..., v $_n,$  v $_1)$  is n (= B), since each consecutive pair is connected by an edge and all edges have wt = 1. o Thus,  $f(x) \in TSP$ , as required.

#### Polynomial-time Reduction Ex: HC to TSP

Proof of 2(b): if  $f(x) \in TSP$ , then  $x \in HC$ 

- o  $f(x) \in TSP$  means there exists a tour in TSP input of cities that has a total distance  $\leq$  n = B. Wlog, suppose the tour goes through cities ( $v_1$ ,
- o Since all intercity distances are either 1 or 2 in f(x), and there are n intercity "legs" in the tour, each "leg" in tour must have distance 1.
- o So G must have an edge between each consecutive pair of cities on the tour, and therefore  $(v_1,\,v_2,\,...,\,v_n,\,v_1)$  must be a hamiltonian circuit
- o Thus,  $x \in HC$ , as required.

Polynomial-time Reduction Ex: HC to TSP

## Since HC $\leq_p$ TSP, then

- o If there exists a polynomial-time algorithm for TSP, then there exists a polynomial-time algorithm for HC (HC is no harder than TSP)
- o If there does not exist a polynomial-time algorithm for HC, then there does not exist a polynomial-time algorithm for TSP (i.e., TSP is at least as hard as HC)

# NP-Completeness...and our use for polynomial-time reductions...

#### **Definition:**

A decision problem L is *NP-Complete (NPC)* if: 1. L∈ NP, and

- 2. for every L' ∈ NP, L' ≤<sub>p</sub> L (i.e., every L' in NP can be transformed to L -- so L is at least as hard as every problem in NP).

Note: If L only satisfies condition 2, it is called NP-Hard. I.e., for NP-hard problems, no one has shown that a problem instance can even be *verified* in polynomial time.

An example of an NP-hard problem that is not NPC is the Halting Problem, for which a solution can't be verified in polynomial time.

## Theorem 34.4: Suppose $L \in NPC$ :

- if there exists a polynomial-time algorithm for L, then there exists a polynomial-time algorithm for every  $L' \in NP$ , i.e., P = NP
- if there does not exist a polynomial-time algorithm for L, then there does not exist a polynomial-time algorithm for any L' ∈ NPC, i.e., P ≠ NP