Chapter 34: P versus NP, A Gentle Introduction (Version of 18th December 2022)

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Course 1DL231: Algorithms and Data Structures 2 (AD2)

'ERI



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(Cook, 1971; Levin, 1973)

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This is one of the seven Millennium Prize problems of the Clay Mathematics Institute (Massachusetts, USA), each worth 1 million US\$.





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Informally:

- P = class of problems that need no search to be solved
 - NP = class of problems that might need search to solve





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Thus: Can search always be avoided (P = NP), or is search sometimes necessary ($P \neq NP$)?





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Thus: Can search always be avoided (P = NP), or is search sometimes necessary ($P \neq NP$)?

Problems that are solvable in polynomial time (in the input size) are considered tractable, or easy. Problems requiring non-polynomial time are considered intractable, or hard.



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P and NP: Definitions and Examples



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P and NP: Definitions and Examples

A bit more formally, and focussing on decision problems for NP, whose answer is 'yes' or 'no', for inputs of size *n*:

■ P = the class of easy problems, whose solutions can be computed in *p*olynomial time: $O(n^k)$ for some fixed *k*.



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 Examples: sorting; almost all problems in this course.



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P and NP: Definitions and Examples

- P = the class of easy problems, whose solutions can be computed in *p*olynomial time: O(n^k) for some fixed k.
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- NP = the class of problems for which a witness can be checked in polynomial time, when the answer is 'yes'. NP stands for "*non-deterministic polynomial time*", not for "*non-polynomial time*". We trivially have P ⊆ NP.



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 Example (factoring): Given an *n*-digit number, does it have a divisor ending in 7? Computing such a divisor

seems hard, but checking a candidate divisor is easy.



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P and NP: Definitions and Examples

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- Undecidable problems cannot be solved by any algorithm, no matter how much time is allocated.



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- Undecidable problems cannot be solved by any algorithm, no matter how much time is allocated.
 Examples: halting problem; disjointness of two CFLs.
 So not all problems are in NP. independently of P versus NP.



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NP Completeness Relationships What Now? ■ A problem Q reduces to a problem R, denoted Q ≤_P R, if every instance of Q can be transformed in poly time into an instance of R that has the same yes/no answer.



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- Proving that a problem Q is in P is doable by showing that Q ≤_P E for some existing problem E in P.



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- A problem Q reduces to a problem R, denoted Q ≤_P R, if every instance of Q can be transformed in *p*oly time into an instance of R that has the same yes/no answer. We also say that R is at least as hard as Q. Note that ≤_P is transitive: ∀Q, E, R : Q ≤_P E ≤_P R ⇒ Q ≤_P R.
- Proving that a problem Q is in P is doable by showing that $Q \leq_{P} E$ for some existing problem E in P.
- A problem is NP-hard if it is at least as hard as every problem in NP: every problem in NP reduces to it.



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- On slide 19 is a wider definition of NP hardness.



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NP Completeness (Cook, 1971; Levin, 1973)

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A problem is NP-complete if it is in NP and is NP-hard.



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A problem is NP-complete if it is in NP and is NP-hard. If some NP-complete problem is polynomial-time solvable, then every problem in NP is poly-time solvable: $P \supseteq NP$.



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An NP-complete problem is poly-time solvable iff P = NP.



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If some problem in NP is not poly-time solvable (P \neq NP), then no NP-complete problem is polynomial-time solvable.



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If some problem in NP is not poly-time solvable (P \neq NP), then no NP-complete problem is polynomial-time solvable.

The status of NP-complete problems is currently unknown: No polynomial-time algorithm was found for any of them, and no proof was made that no such algorithm can exist.



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The status of NP-complete problems is currently unknown: No polynomial-time algorithm was found for any of them, and no proof was made that no such algorithm can exist.

Most experts believe NP-complete problems are intractable, as the opposite would be truly amazing.



Given a digraph (V, E):

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Finding a shortest path takes



Given a digraph (V, E):

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Relationships What Now? Finding a shortest path takes $\mathcal{O}(V \cdot E)$ time and is in P.



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- Determining the existence of a simple path (which has distinct vertices) that has at least a given number ℓ of edges is NP-complete.



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Examples

 Finding an Euler tour (which visits each edge once) takes



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Examples

■ Finding an Euler tour (which visits each *edge* once) takes $\mathcal{O}(E)$ time and is thus in P.



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- Finding an Euler tour (which visits each edge once) takes O(E) time and is thus in P.
- Determining the existence of a Hamiltonian cycle (which visits each vertex once) is NP-complete.



Examples

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Relationships What Now? 2-SAT: Determining the satisfiability of a conjunction of disjunctions of 2 Boolean literals is in P.



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- 2-SAT: Determining the satisfiability of a conjunction of disjunctions of 2 Boolean literals is in P.
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- Subset Sum: Determining the existence of a subset, of a given set, that has a given sum is NP-complete.



Example (Subset Sum)

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Relationships What Now? Determining the existence of a subset, of a given set S of n numbers, that has a given sum t is NP-complete:



Example (Subset Sum)

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Relationships What Now? Determining the existence of a subset, of a given set S of *n* numbers, that has a given sum *t* is NP-complete:

■ A dynamic programming algorithm takes O(n · t) time, as each entry in its n × t table is found in O(1) time.



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- This is polynomial in the size n of the input set S and polynomial in the magnitude of the input t, which can be large depending on n and the numbers in S.



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- This is exponential in the size $\lceil \log_b t \rceil$ of the base-*b* representation of *t*, since $t = b^{\log_b t}$ (usually: b = 2).



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Definition

An algorithm of complexity polynomial in the magnitude of its input numbers is said to be pseudo-polynomial.



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Proving that a problem *R* of NP is NP-complete is doable by showing $E \leq_P R$ for some existing NP-complete problem *E*, since by definition $Q \leq_P E$ for every problem *Q* in NP.



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Examples (exercises will be given in the AD3 course)

SAT is NP-complete (Cook, 1971; Levin, 1973).



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- 3-SAT reduces to Clique and Subset Sum.



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- SAT is NP-complete (Cook, 1971; Levin, 1973).
- SAT reduces to 3-SAT, but not to 2-SAT.
- 3-SAT reduces to Clique and Subset Sum.
- Clique reduces to Vertex Cover, which reduces to Hamiltonian Cycle, which reduces to Travelling Salesperson (TSP), asking if there is a Hamiltonian cycle with cost at most k in a complete weighted graph.



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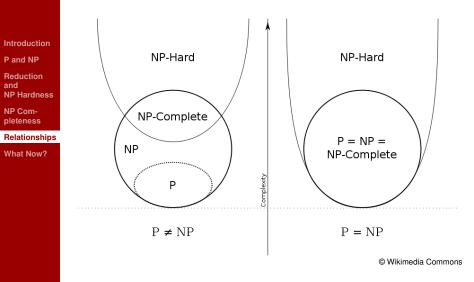


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If P ≠ NP, then there exist problems in NP that are neither in P nor NP-complete. Artificial such problems can be constructed, but integer factorisation and graph isomorphism are practical problems in NP that are currently not known to be in P or to be NP-complete.



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- There exist many other complexity classes, chartering the territory outside NP, some of them overlapping with the NP-hard class, and containing practical problems, such as planning. Determining a precise complexity map is contingent upon settling the P versus NP issue.



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- The stable matching problem is believed by many to be hard, but it can be solved in O(n) time for n hospitals & n students, and is thus in P (Gale and Shapley, 1962). Shapley shared the Nobel Prize in Economics 2012.



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In a satisfaction problem, a 'yes' answer includes a witness. In an optimisation problem, a 'yes' answer includes an optimal witness according to some cost function.



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P and NP

Reduction and NP Hardness

NP Completeness

Relationships

What Now?

In a satisfaction problem, a 'yes' answer includes a witness. In an optimisation problem, a 'yes' answer includes an optimal witness according to some cost function. Satisfaction and optimisation problems with NP-complete decision problems are often also said to be NP-hard. (Recall the method on slide 11 for finding a longest path.)



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Several courses at Uppsala University teach techniques for addressing NP-hard optimisation or satisfaction problems:

- Algorithms and Datastructures 3 (1DL481) (period 3)
- Continuous Optimisation (1TD184) (period 2)
- Modelling for Combinatorial Optim. (1DL451) (period 1)
- CO & Constraint Programming (1DL442) (periods 1+2)

Real NP completeness is where the fun begins (not ends)!