

## NP COMPLETE PROBLEMS

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### 1. DECISION PROBLEMS

A *decision problem* is a computational problem in which an algorithm is being asked to answer a YES-NO question.

In a decision problem, an algorithm is being asked to *decide* whether a certain statement about the inputs is true (YES) or false (NO).

Many problems can be studied through a related decision problem.

Consider the computational problem

INTEGER SUM

INPUT: Two integers  $A$  and  $B$ .

OUTPUT: An integer  $S$  such that  $S = A + B$ .

The related decision problem is

INTEGER SUM

INPUT: Three integers  $A$ ,  $B$  and  $S$ .

QUESTION: Is  $S = A + B$  ?

One reason we are interested in decision problems, is that we can show that a computational problem is hard (requires a lot of resources, or cannot be solved in polynomial time) by showing that the associated decision problem is hard.

## 2. YES INSTANCES AND NO INSTANCES

Given a decision problem  $X$ , some instances of  $X$  will be YES-instances, and other instances of  $X$  will be NO-instances.

In the INTEGER SUM problem,

- (1) an instance with input  $A = 5$ ,  $B = 7$  and  $S = 12$  is a YES instance,
- (2) an instance with input  $A = 5$ ,  $B = 7$  and  $S = 10$  is a NO instance.

Consider the decision problem for array sorting:

ARRAY SORTING

INPUT: An integer array  $a[1, \dots, n]$ .

QUESTION: Is the array  $a[1, \dots, n]$  sorted?

For this problem:

- (1) an instance with input  $a[] = [5, 12, 17]$  is YES instance
- (2) an instance with input  $a[] = [5, 5, 3, 1]$  is a YES instance,
- (3) but an instance with input  $a[] = [5, 6, 3]$  is a NO instance.

## 3. FAMOUS DECISION PROBLEMS

## HAMILTONIAN PATH

INPUT: A directed graph  $G = (V, E)$ QUESTION: Does  $G$  have a Hamiltonian path?

## HAMILTONIAN CYCLE

INPUT: A directed graph  $G = (V, E)$ QUESTION: Does  $G$  have a Hamiltonian cycle?

## CLIQUE

INPUT: A graph  $G = (V, E)$  and an integer  $k$ QUESTION: Does  $G$  have a clique of size  $k$ ?

## INDEPENDENT SET

INPUT: A graph  $G = (V, E)$  and an integer  $k$ QUESTION: Does  $G$  have an independent set of size  $k$ ?

## VERTEX COVER

INPUT: A graph  $G = (V, E)$  and an integer  $k$ QUESTION: Does  $G$  have a vertex cover of size  $k$ ?

## 4. P AND NP

There are two important classes of decision problems, called  $P$  and  $NP$ .

$P$  stands for Polynomial Time.

A decision problem is in  $P$  if the associated question can be answered in polynomial time.

$NP$  stands for Non-deterministic Polynomial Time.

A decision problem is in  $NP$  if for every YES-instance of the problem, you can guess a YES-certificate and verify the certificate in polynomial time.

A YES certificate is a data structure that can serve as proof of the “YES-ness” of an instance.

Best illustration of this is HAMILTONIAN PATH. If a graph has a Hamiltonian path, the Hamiltonian path is the YES-certificate, and a skeptical person can verify in polynomial time that the list of vertices that is claimed to be a Hamiltonian path is indeed a Hamiltonian path.

If it is a NO-instance, there is no known way to verify that there is no Hamiltonian path in polynomial time.

So the meaning of  $NP$  is this: If it is a YES instance, you can guess a YES certificate and verify it in polynomial time.

## 5. POLYNOMIAL REDUCTIONS AMONG DECISION PROBLEMS

Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be decision problems.

$X$  is *polynomially reducible* to  $Y$  if there is a polynomial-time algorithm that transforms instances of  $X$  into instances of  $Y$  in such a way that YES-instances of  $X$  are transformed into YES-instances of  $Y$  and NO-instances of  $X$  are transformed into NO-instances of  $Y$ .

This means that if you have a polynomial time algorithm for solving  $Y$ , you can use it to solve  $X$  in polynomial time.

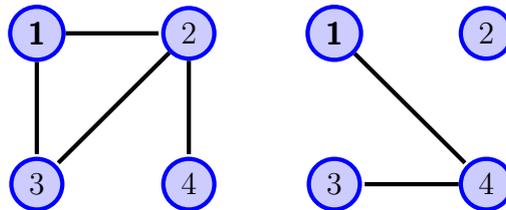
## 6. EXAMPLES OF POLYNOMIAL REDUCTIONS

It turns out that CLIQUE, INDEPENDENT SET and VERTEX COVER are all polynomially reducible to each other.

## 7. 2-WAY REDUCTION BETWEEN CLIQUE AND INDEPENDENT SET

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be an undirected graph. The *complement* of  $G$  is a graph  $\bar{G}$  with the same vertex set as  $G$ , and whose edge set consists of exactly those edges that are not in  $G$ .

Here is an example of a graph  $G$  on the left, and its complement  $\bar{G}$  on the right.



Notice that a clique in  $G$  is an independent set in  $\bar{G}$  and vice versa:

$$\begin{aligned} \{1, 2, 3\} &\text{ is a clique in } G \\ \{1, 2, 3\} &\text{ is an independent set in } \bar{G} \end{aligned}$$

## 8. 2-WAY REDUCTION BETWEEN INDEPENDENT SET AND VERTEX COVER

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be an undirected graph, and let  $I \subseteq V$  be a set of vertices in  $G$ . Then  $I$  is an independent set in  $G$  if and only if its complement  $V \setminus I$  is a vertex cover.

PROOF: let  $I$  be an independent set. Then no edge has both endpoints in  $I$ . Thus every edge must have at least one of its endpoints in  $V \setminus I$ . Therefore  $V \setminus I$  is a vertex cover.

Conversely, if  $C$  is a vertex cover, every edge has at least one of its endpoints in  $C$ , so no edge has both endpoints in  $V \setminus C$ , which must then be an independent set in  $G$ .

This shows that all three problems are really the same problem. We now introduce one more decision problem.

## 9. CLAUSES AND LITERALS

Given a set of boolean variables  $P, Q, \dots$  etc, We define a *literal* to be an expression that is either a boolean variable or the negation of a boolean variable.

Examples of literals:

$$P, \quad \neg P, \quad \neg Q.$$

A *disjunction* of literals is called a *clause*. Examples of clauses:

$$P, \quad P \vee Q, \quad \neg P \vee Q, \quad \neg Q \vee \neg P$$

Note that  $P \implies Q$  is equivalent to  $\neg P \vee Q$  so we will think of it as a clause.

A set of clauses is satisfiable if there exists an assignment of truth values  $T$  and  $F$  to each boolean variable that makes all the clauses true.

For example, the set of clauses

$$P \vee Q, \quad \neg Q$$

is satisfiable because  $P = T$  and  $Q = F$  is a satisfying assignment.

Here is a non-satisfiable set of clauses.

$$\neg P, \quad Q, \quad Q \implies P$$

## 10. SATISFIABILITY

SATISFIABILITY, usually abbreviated SAT, is the following decision problem:

SATISFIABILITY

INPUT: A set of clauses.

QUESTION: Is there a truth assignment that satisfies all the clauses?

What is the significance of SAT? It turns out that *every* problem in *NP* is polynomially reducible to SAT.

## 11. REDUCTION OF HAMILTONIAN PATH TO SAT

Let  $G = (V, E)$  be an instance of the graph being tested for the existence of a Hamiltonian path.

We are going to build an instance of SAT that is satisfiable if and only if  $G$  has a Hamiltonian path. We assume that  $V = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .

For each pair of vertices  $u$  and  $v$ , use a propositional variable  $E[u, v]$  to represent the presence of the edge  $u \rightarrow v$ . Create a literal

$$E[u, v]$$

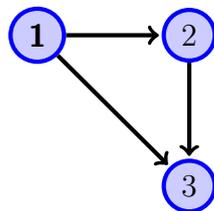
for each edge  $u \rightarrow v$ , in  $G$ , and create a literal

$$\neg E[u, v]$$

when there is no such edge.

You can think of the  $E[., \cdot]$  literals as defining the adjacency matrix of the graph, and hence, its pattern of edge connectivity.

As an example, if  $n = 3$  and we have the simple digraph shown here, the  $E[., \cdot]$  literals will be as shown.



$$\begin{array}{lll} \neg E[1, 1] & E[1, 2] & E[1, 3] \\ \neg E[2, 1] & \neg E[2, 2] & E[2, 3] \\ \neg E[3, 1] & \neg E[3, 2] & \neg E[3, 3] \end{array}$$

Now we need to create a bunch of clauses that all together will be true if and only if there is a Hamiltonian path in  $G$ .

To have a Hamiltonian path in a graph of  $n$  vertices, we must place exactly one vertex in each of the positions  $1, 2, \dots, n$  of a list in such a way that if a vertex  $u$  is in position  $i$  and a vertex  $v$  is in position  $i + 1$ , then there must be an edge  $u \rightarrow v$ .

For each vertex  $v$  and each list position  $i$ , we introduce a propositional variable

$$P[v, i]$$

whose interpretation is that vertex  $v$  occupies position  $i$  on the list.

We now use these variables to create literals that state that there is at most one vertex in each list position. For each vertex  $v = 1, \dots, n$  and position  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , we will have a clause

$$P[v, i] \implies \neg P[u, i] \quad (\text{for all } u \neq v)$$

For our example graph with 3 vertices, we will have the following set of literals to assert that vertex 1 cannot share its position with any other vertex. For example, the first column says that if vertex 1 is in position 1, then vertices 2 and 3 cannot also be in position 1.

$$\begin{array}{lll} P[1, 1] \implies \neg P[2, 1] & P[1, 2] \implies \neg P[2, 2] & P[1, 3] \implies \neg P[2, 3] \\ P[1, 1] \implies \neg P[3, 1] & P[1, 2] \implies \neg P[3, 2] & P[1, 3] \implies \neg P[3, 3] \end{array}$$

Naturally, we need to add two similar sets of clauses, to assert that vertex 2 cannot share its position, and also that vertex 3 cannot share its position, with any other vertex.

Now we need sets of clauses to assert that there is a vertex at each position  $i$ . For each position  $i$ , we need a clause

$$P[1, i] \vee P[2, i] \vee \cdots \vee P[n, i].$$

For our specific example of 3 vertices, we will have a set of clauses

$$\begin{aligned} P[1, 1] \vee P[2, 1] \vee P[3, 1] \\ P[1, 2] \vee P[2, 2] \vee P[3, 2] \\ P[1, 3] \vee P[2, 3] \vee P[3, 3] \end{aligned}$$

Finally, for each position  $i = 1, \dots, n - 1$ , add a clause

$$P[v, i] \wedge P[u, i + 1] \implies E[v, u]$$

which says that if vertices  $v$  and  $u$  are in successive positions in the list order, there must be an edge from  $v$  to  $u$ .

Call these the *path clauses*. For our graph of three vertices, the path clauses are

$$\begin{array}{ll} P[1, 1] \wedge P[2, 2] \implies E[1, 2] & P[1, 1] \wedge P[3, 2] \implies E[1, 3] \\ P[1, 2] \wedge P[2, 3] \implies E[1, 2] & P[1, 2] \wedge P[3, 3] \implies E[1, 3] \\ P[2, 1] \wedge P[1, 2] \implies E[2, 1] & P[2, 1] \wedge P[3, 2] \implies E[2, 3] \\ P[2, 2] \wedge P[1, 3] \implies E[2, 1] & P[2, 2] \wedge P[3, 3] \implies E[2, 3] \\ P[3, 1] \wedge P[1, 2] \implies E[3, 1] & P[3, 1] \wedge P[2, 2] \implies E[3, 2] \\ P[3, 2] \wedge P[1, 3] \implies E[3, 1] & P[3, 2] \wedge P[2, 3] \implies E[3, 2] \end{array}$$

It so happens our graph has a Hamiltonian path, which can be represented as  $P[1, 1] = T$ ,  $P[2, 2] = T$  and  $P[3, 3] = T$  and setting all other  $P[v, i] = F$ .

Clearly, all our clauses are satisfied. Conversely, if all our clauses are satisfied, it is clear that  $G$  will have a Hamiltonian path.

All these clauses can be built in polynomial time. Thus HAMILTONIAN PATH is polynomially reducible to SAT.

## 12. REDUCTION OF CLIQUE TO SAT

Hamiltonian path is a sequence. Let us now take a look at how to use SAT to describe a set, as in CLIQUE.

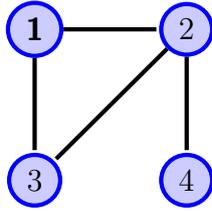
CLIQUE

INPUT: And undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  where  $V = \{1, \dots, n\}$ ,  
and an integer  $k$  where  $1 \leq k \leq n$ .

QUESTION: Does  $G$  have a clique of size  $k$ ?

The process is similar to HAMILTONIAN PATH: we use a set of clauses to describe the adjacency structure of the graph, and then build a set of clauses that will be satisfiable if and only if the instance of the graph has a clique of size  $k$ .

In our example,  $n = 4$  and  $k = 3$ , so we are asking if the graph has a clique of size 3.



$$\begin{array}{cccc}
 \neg E[1, 1] & E[1, 2] & E[1, 3] & \neg E[1, 4] \\
 E[2, 1] & \neg E[2, 2] & E[2, 3] & E[2, 4] \\
 E[3, 1] & E[3, 2] & \neg E[3, 3] & \neg E[3, 4] \\
 \neg E[4, 1] & E[4, 2] & \neg E[4, 3] & \neg E[4, 4]
 \end{array}$$

Now we need a set of clauses that assert that there is a set of  $k$  vertices, and an additional set of clauses that assert that those  $k$  vertices form a clique.

Think of a set of  $k$  vertices as a list of vertices with a vertex at positions  $1, 2, \dots, k$ . For each vertex  $v$  and position  $i = 1, 2, \dots, k$ , define

$$S[v, i]$$

to mean that we select vertex  $v$  as the  $i$ th member of the set of  $k$  vertices.



## 13. NP-COMPLETE PROBLEMS

A problem  $X$  in NP is *NP-complete* if every other problem in NP is polynomially reducible to  $X$ .

In 1974, Stephen Cook at the University of Toronto proved that SAT is NP-complete.

This means that every problem in NP is can be transformed into a special case of SAT. therefore, if there is a polynomial time algorithm for SAT, there is a polynomial algorithm for every problem in NP.

There are many problems in NP, like HAMILTONIAN PATH, HAMILTONIAN CYCLE , CLIQUE, VERTEX COVER, INDEPENDENT SET for which no polynomial time algorithms are known.

Turns out that all these problems are also NP-complete, which means all of them are polynomially equivalent. If one of them has a polynomial time algorithm, they all do, and  $NP = P$ .

The question is  $NP = P?$  is the outstanding open problem in Computer Science today.

There is a million dollar prize offered for its solution.

Most computer scientists believe that  $P \neq NP$ .