

COMP 355

Advanced Algorithms

NP-Completeness: Reductions

Chapter 8 (KT)



1

Recap

Decision Problems/Language recognition: are problems for which the answer is either yes or no. These can also be thought of as language recognition problems, assuming that the input has been encoded as a string. For example:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{HC} &= \{G \mid G \text{ has a Hamiltonian cycle}\} \\ \text{MST} &= \{(G, c) \mid G \text{ has a MST of cost at most } c\}. \end{aligned}$$

P: is the class of all decision problems which can be solved in polynomial time. While $\text{MST} \in \text{P}$, we do not know whether $\text{HC} \in \text{P}$ (but we suspect not).

Certificate: is a piece of evidence that allows us to *verify* in polynomial time that a string is in a given language. For example, the language HC above, a certificate could be a sequence of vertices along the cycle. (If the string is not in the language, the certificate can be anything.)

NP: is defined to be the class of all languages that can be *verified* in polynomial time. (Formally, it stands for *Nondeterministic Polynomial time*.) Clearly, $\text{P} \subseteq \text{NP}$. It is widely believed that $\text{P} \neq \text{NP}$.



2

Algorithm Design Patterns and Anti-Patterns

Algorithm design patterns.

- Greed.
- Divide-and-conquer.
- Dynamic programming.
- Duality.
- **Reductions.**
- Local search.
- Randomization.

Ex.

$O(n \log n)$ interval scheduling.

$O(n \log n)$ FFT.

$O(n^2)$ edit distance.

$O(n^3)$ bipartite matching.

Algorithm design anti-patterns.

- **NP-completeness.** $O(n^k)$ algorithm unlikely.
- PSPACE-completeness. $O(n^k)$ certification algorithm unlikely.
- Undecidability. No algorithm possible.

3

Classify Problems According to Computational Requirements

Q. Which problems will we be able to solve in practice?

A **working definition**. [Cobham 1964, Edmonds 1965, Rabin 1966] Those with polynomial-time algorithms.

Yes	Probably no
Shortest path	Longest path
Matching	3D-matching
Min cut	Max cut
2-SAT	3-SAT
Planar 4-color	Planar 3-color
Bipartite vertex cover	Vertex cover
Primality testing	Factoring

4

Polynomial-Time Reduction

Purpose. Classify problems according to **relative** difficulty.

Design algorithms. If $X \leq_p Y$ and Y can be solved in polynomial-time, then X **can** also be solved in polynomial time.

Establish intractability. If $X \leq_p Y$ and X cannot be solved in polynomial-time, then Y **cannot** be solved in polynomial time.

Establish equivalence. If $X \leq_p Y$ and $Y \leq_p X$, we use notation $X \equiv_p Y$.

↑
up to cost of reduction

5

Polynomial-Time Reduction

Desiderata'. Suppose we could solve X in polynomial-time. What else could we solve in polynomial time?

don't confuse with reduces from

Reduction. Problem X **polynomially reduces to** problem Y if arbitrary instances of problem X can be solved using:

- Polynomial number of standard computational steps, plus
- Polynomial number of calls to **oracle** that solves problem Y .

Notation. $X \leq_p Y$.

↑
computational model supplemented by special piece of hardware that solves instances of Y in a single step

Remarks.

- We pay for time to write down instances sent to black box \Rightarrow instances of Y must be of polynomial size.
- Note: Cook reducibility.

↖ in contrast to Karp reductions

6

Reductions

Suppose that there are two problems, H and U.

If we know that H is hard (cannot be solved in polynomial time), can we prove that U is also hard?

We effectively want to show that:

- $(H \notin P) \Rightarrow (U \notin P)$.

To do this, we could prove the contrapositive,

- $(U \in P) \Rightarrow (H \in P)$.

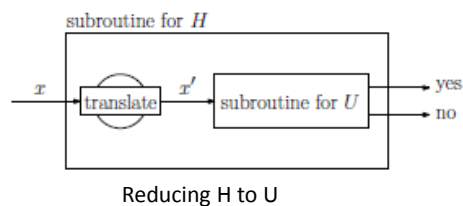
To show that U is not solvable in polynomial time, we will suppose (towards a contradiction) that a polynomial time algorithm for U did exist, and then we will use this algorithm to solve H in polynomial time, thus yielding a contradiction.



7

Reductions

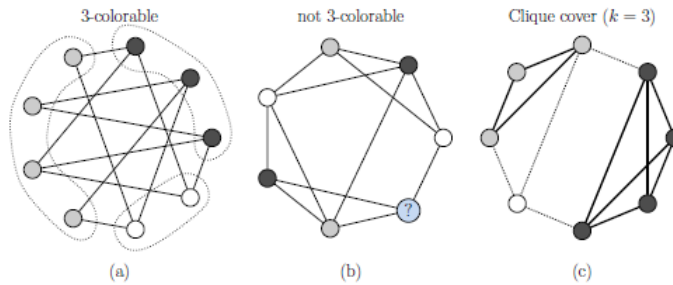
- Suppose we have a **subroutine** that can solve any instance of problem U in polynomial time.
- Given an input x for the problem H, translate it into an equivalent input x' for U. (where $x \in H$ if and only if $x' \in U$)
- Run subroutine on x' and output whatever it outputs. If U is solvable in polynomial time, then so is H.
- We assume that the translation module runs in polynomial time. If so, we say we have a polynomial reduction of problem H to problem U, which is denoted $H \leq_p U$ (**Karp reduction**)



8

3-Colorability and Clique Cover

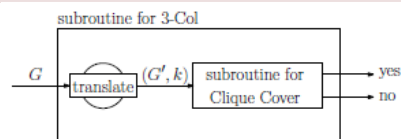
3-coloring (3Col): Given a graph G , can each of its vertices be labeled with one of three different “colors”, such that no two adjacent vertices have the same label (see (a) and (b)).



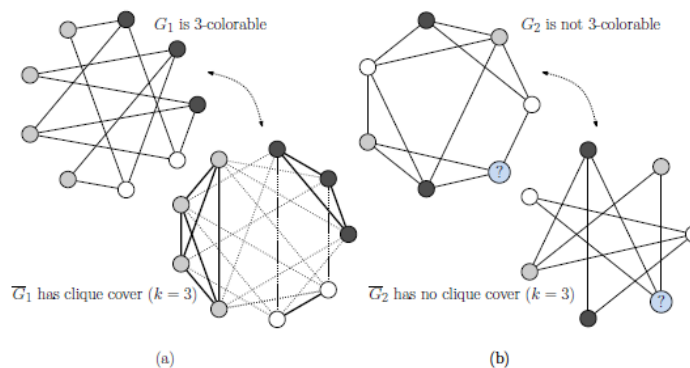
Clique Cover (CCov): Given a graph $G = (V, E)$ and an integer k , can we partition the vertex set into k subsets of vertices V_1, \dots, V_k such that each V_i is a clique of G

9

3-Colorability and Clique Cover



Reducing 3Col to CliqueCov



10

Proof of 3Col \rightarrow Clique Cover

Claim: A graph $G = (V, E)$ is 3-colorable if and only if its complement $G = (V, E)$ has a clique-cover of size 3. In other words, $G \in 3\text{Col} \iff (G, 3) \in \text{CCov}$.

Proof:

(\Rightarrow) If G 3-colorable, then let V_1, V_2, V_3 be the three color classes. We claim that this is a clique cover of size 3 for G , since if u and v are distinct vertices in V_i , then $\{u, v\} \notin E$ (since adjacent vertices cannot have the same color) which implies that $\{u, v\} \in E$. Thus every pair of distinct vertices in V_i are adjacent in G .

(\Leftarrow) Suppose G has a clique cover of size 3, denoted V_1, V_2, V_3 . For $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$ give the vertices of V_i color i . We assert that this is a legal coloring for G , since if distinct vertices u and v are both in V_i , then $\{u, v\} \in E$ (since they are in a common clique), implying that $\{u, v\} \notin E$. Hence, two vertices with the same color are not adjacent.

11

Polynomial-time reduction

Definition: We say that a language (i.e. decision problem) L_1 is polynomial-time reducible to language L_2 (written $L_1 \leq_p L_2$) if there is a polynomial time computable function f , such that for all x , $x \in L_1$ if and only if $f(x) \in L_2$.

Lemma: If $L_1 \leq_p L_2$ and $L_2 \in P$ then $L_1 \in P$.

Lemma: If $L_1 \leq_p L_2$ and $L_1 \notin P$ then $L_2 \notin P$.

Because the composition of two polynomials is a polynomial, we can chain reductions together.

Lemma: If $L_1 \leq_p L_2$ and $L_2 \leq_p L_3$ then $L_1 \leq_p L_3$.

12

NP-completeness

Definition: A language L is NP-hard if $L' \leq_p L$, for all $L' \in \text{NP}$. (Note that L does not need to be in NP.)

Definition: A language L is NP-complete if:

1. $L \in \text{NP}$ (that is, it can be verified in polynomial time), and
2. L is NP-hard (that is, every problem in NP is polynomially reducible to it).

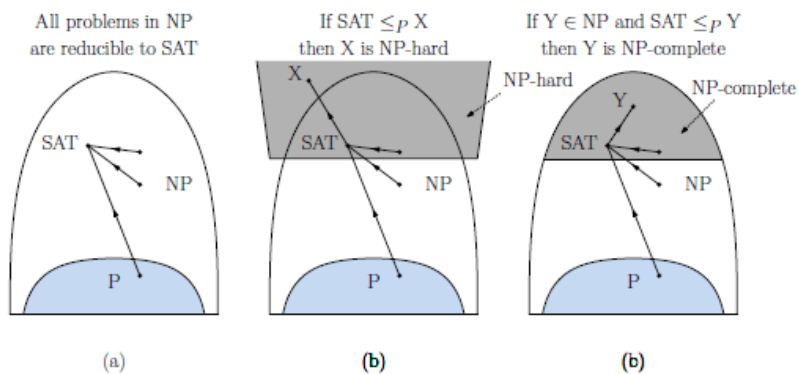
Lemma: L is NP-complete if

1. $L \in \text{NP}$ and
2. $L' \leq_p L$ for some known NP-complete language L' .



13

Structure of NPC and reductions



14