Consider the following algorithm which takes in an undirected graph (G) and a vertex s.

```
FindClique (G,s)

C = s

for each vertex v \in V

flag = 1

for each vertex u \in C

if (u,v) \notin E

flag = 0

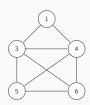
if flag == 1

C = C \cup \{v\}

return C
```

The algorithm represents a greedy algorithm which finds a clique depending on a start vertex *s*.

• How fast is this algorithm?



# ECE-374-B: Lecture 20 - P/NP and NP-completeness

Instructor: Abhishek Kumar Umrawal

Nov 07, 2023

University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign

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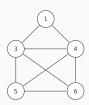
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How fast is this algorithm?



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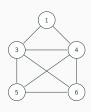
if (u, v) \notin E

flag = 0

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C = C \cup \{v\}

return C
```



The Clique-problem is NP-complete. But this algorithm provides us with the maximal clique containing s. If we run it |V| times, does that solve the clique-problem.

Consider the following algorithm which takes in a undirected graph

(G) and a vertex s

```
FindClique (G, s)

C = s

for each vertex v \in V

flag = 1

for each vertex u \in C

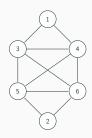
if (u, v) \notin E

flag = 0

if flag == 1

C = C \cup \{v\}

return C
```



The Satisfiability Problem (SAT)

## **Propositional Formulas**

#### **Definition**

Consider a set of boolean variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots x_n$ .

- A literal is either a boolean variable  $x_i$  or its negation  $\neg x_i$ .
- A <u>clause</u> is a disjunction of literals. For example,  $x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \neg x_4$  is a clause.
- A <u>formula in conjunctive normal form</u> (CNF) is propositional formula which is a conjunction of clauses.
  - $(x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \neg x_4) \land (x_2 \lor \neg x_3) \land x_5$  is a CNF formula.

## **Propositional Formulas**

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  - $(x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \neg x_4) \land (x_2 \lor \neg x_3) \land x_5$  is a CNF formula.
- A formula  $\varphi$  is a 3CNF:

A CNF formula such that every clause has **exactly** 3 literals.

•  $(x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \neg x_4) \land (x_2 \lor \neg x_3 \lor x_1)$  is a 3CNF formula, but  $(x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \neg x_4) \land (x_2 \lor \neg x_3) \land x_5$  is not.

#### **CNF** is universal

Every boolean formula  $f: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$  can be written as a CNF formula.

<i>x</i> <sub>1</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>2</sub>	<i>X</i> 3	<i>X</i> <sub>4</sub>	<i>X</i> <sub>5</sub>	<i>x</i> <sub>6</sub>	$f(x_1,x_2,\ldots,x_6)$	$\overline{x_1} \lor x_2 \overline{x_3} \lor x_4 \lor \overline{x_5} \lor x_6$
0	0	0	0	0	0	$f(0,\ldots,0,0)$	1
0	0	0	0	0	1	$f(0,\ldots,0,1)$	1
:	:	:	:	:	:	i i	i i
1	0	1	0	0	1	?	1
1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	1	1	?	1
:	:	:	:	:	:	i:	
1	1	1	1	1	1	$f(1,\ldots,1)$	1

<u>How?</u> For every row such that f is zero, compute corresponding <u>CNF</u> clause. Then take the AND ( $\land$ ) of all the <u>CNF</u> clauses computed. The resulting <u>CNF</u> formula is equivalent to f.

## Satisfiability

**Problem: SAT** 

**Instance:** A CNF formula  $\varphi$ .

Question: Is there a truth assignment to the variable

of  $\varphi$  such that  $\varphi$  evaluates to true?

Problem: 3SAT

**Instance:** A 3CNF formula  $\varphi$ .

**Question:** Is there a truth assignment to the variable

of  $\varphi$  such that  $\varphi$  evaluates to true?

## Satisfiability

#### SAT

Given a CNF formula  $\varphi$ , is there a truth assignment to variables such that  $\varphi$  evaluates to true?

#### **Example**

- $(x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \neg x_4) \land (x_2 \lor \neg x_3) \land x_5$  is satisfiable; take  $x_1, x_2, \dots x_5$  to be all true
- $(x_1 \lor \neg x_2) \land (\neg x_1 \lor x_2) \land (\neg x_1 \lor \neg x_2) \land (x_1 \lor x_2)$  is not satisfiable.

#### 3SAT

Given a 3CNF formula  $\varphi$ , is there a truth assignment to variables such that  $\varphi$  evaluates to true?

6

## Importance of **SAT** and **3SAT**

- SAT and 3SAT are basic constraint satisfaction problems.
- Many different problems can reduced to them because of the simple yet powerful expressively of logical constraints.
- Arise naturally in many applications involving hardware and software verification and correctness.
- As we will see, it is a fundamental problem in theory of NP-Completeness.

$$z = \overline{x}$$

Given two bits x, z which of the following **SAT** formulas is equivalent to the formula  $z = \overline{x}$ :

- (A)  $(\overline{z} \vee x) \wedge (z \vee \overline{x})$ .
- (B)  $(z \vee x) \wedge (\overline{z} \vee \overline{x})$ .
- (C)  $(\overline{z} \lor x) \land (\overline{z} \lor \overline{x}) \land (\overline{z} \lor \overline{x})$ .
- (D)  $z \oplus x$ .
- (E)  $(z \lor x) \land (\overline{z} \lor \overline{x}) \land (z \lor \overline{x}) \land (\overline{z} \lor x)$ .

Answer: B

#### $z = \overline{x}$ : Solution

Given two bits x, z which of the following **SAT** formulas is equivalent to the formula  $z = \overline{x}$ :

(A) 
$$(\overline{z} \vee x) \wedge (z \vee \overline{x})$$
.

(B) 
$$(z \vee x) \wedge (\overline{z} \vee \overline{x})$$
.

(C) 
$$(\overline{z} \lor x) \land (\overline{z} \lor \overline{x}) \land (\overline{z} \lor \overline{x})$$
.

(D) 
$$z \oplus x$$
.

(E) 
$$(z \lor x) \land (\overline{z} \lor \overline{x}) \land (z \lor \overline{x}) \land (\overline{z} \lor x)$$
.

Χ	у	$z = \overline{x}$			
0	0	0			
0	1	1			
1	0	1			
1	1	0			

$$z = x \wedge y$$

Given three bits x, y, z which of the following **SAT** formulas is equivalent to the formula  $z = x \wedge y$ :

- (A)  $(\overline{z} \lor x \lor y) \land (z \lor \overline{x} \lor \overline{y})$ .
- (B)  $(\overline{z} \lor x \lor y) \land (\overline{z} \lor \overline{x} \lor y) \land (z \lor \overline{x} \lor \overline{y}).$
- (C)  $(\overline{z} \lor x \lor y) \land (\overline{z} \lor \overline{x} \lor y) \land (z \lor \overline{x} \lor y) \land (z \lor \overline{x} \lor \overline{y}).$
- (D)  $(z \lor x \lor y) \land (\overline{z} \lor \overline{x} \lor y) \land (z \lor \overline{x} \lor y) \land (z \lor \overline{x} \lor \overline{y}).$
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Answer: C

#### $z = x \wedge y$

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- (B)  $(\overline{z} \lor x \lor y) \land (\overline{z} \lor \overline{x} \lor y) \land (z \lor \overline{x} \lor \overline{y}).$
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X	У	Z	$z = x \wedge y$
0	0	0	1
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1
0	1	1	0
1	0	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0
1	1	1	1

## Reducing SAT to 3SAT

### $SAT \leq_P 3SAT$

#### How SAT is different from 3SAT?

In **SAT** clauses might have arbitrary length:  $1, 2, 3, \ldots$  variables:

$$\left(x \lor y \lor z \lor w \lor u\right) \land \left(\neg x \lor \neg y \lor \neg z \lor w \lor u\right) \land \left(\neg x\right)$$

In **3SAT** every clause must have <u>exactly</u> 3 different literals.

## $SAT \leq_P 3SAT$

#### How SAT is different from 3SAT? In SAT clauses might have arbitrary length: 1, 2, 3, ... variables:

$$\Big(x \vee y \vee z \vee w \vee u\Big) \wedge \Big(\neg x \vee \neg y \vee \neg z \vee w \vee u\Big) \wedge \Big(\neg x\Big)$$

In **3SAT** every clause must have exactly 3 different literals.

To reduce from an instance of **SAT** to an instance of **3SAT**, we must make all clauses to have exactly 3 variables...

#### Basic idea

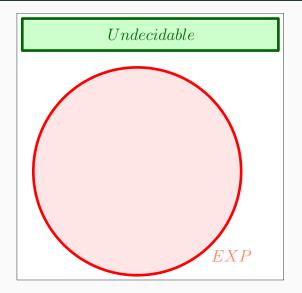
- Pad short clauses so they have 3 literals.
- Break long clauses into shorter clauses.
- Repeat the above till we have a 3CNF.

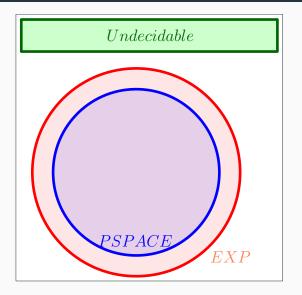
#### Proof of this in Prof. Har-Peled's async lectures!

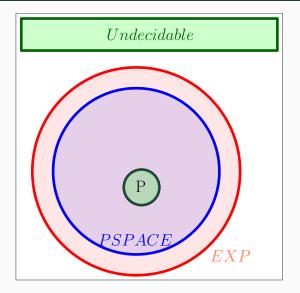
## **Overview of Complexity Classes**

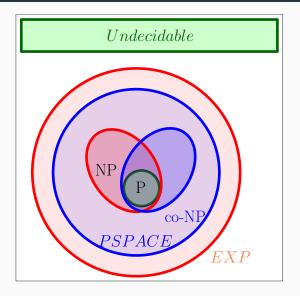


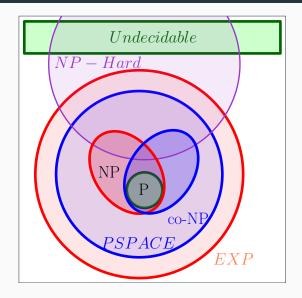


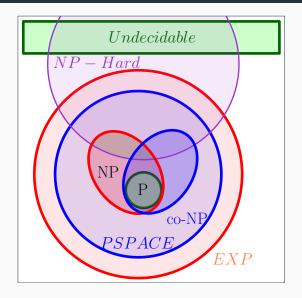


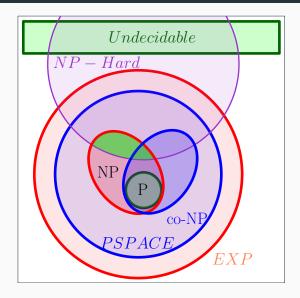


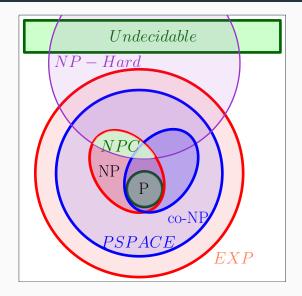












# Non-deterministic polynomial time - NP

## P, NP and Turing Machines

- P: set of decision problems that have polynomial time (deterministic) algorithms, i.e. efficiently solvable using a (deterministic) Turing machine (DTM).
- NP: set of decision problems that have polynomial time <u>non-deterministic</u> algorithms, i.e. efficiently solvable using a non-deterministic Turing machine (NTM).
- Many natural problems we would like to solve are in NP.
- Every problem in NP has an exponential time (deterministic) algorithm.
- $P \subseteq NP$ .
- Some problems in NP are in P (e.g., shortest path problem).

**Big Question:** Does every problem in NP have an efficient algorithm? Same as asking whether P = NP.

## Problems with no known deterministic polynomial time algorithms

#### **Problems**

- Independent Set
- Vertex Cover
- Set Cover
- SAT

There are of course undecidable problems (no algorithm at all!) but many problems that we want to solve are of similar flavor to the above.

Question: What is common to above problems?

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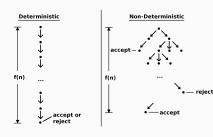
They can all be solved via a non-deterministic computer in polynomial time!

## Non-determinism in computing

Non-determinism is a special property of algorithms.

An algorithm that is capable of taking multiple states concurrently. Whenever it reaches a choice, it takes both paths.

If there is a path for the string to be accepted by the machine, then the string is part of the language.



## Problems with no known deterministic polynomial time algorithms

#### **Problems**

- Independent Set & Vertex Cover Can build algorithm to check all possible collection of vertices
- Set Cover Can check all possible collection of sets
- **SAT** -Can build a non-deterministic algorithm that checks every possible boolean assignment.

But we don't have access to a non-deterministic computer. So how can a deterministic computer verify that a algorithm is in NP?

#### **Efficient Checkability**

Above problems share the following feature.

#### Checkability

For any YES instance  $I_X$  of X there is a proof/certificate/solution that is of length poly( $|I_X|$ ) such that given a proof one can efficiently check that  $I_X$  is indeed a YES instance.

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#### Examples:

- **SAT** formula  $\varphi$ : proof is a satisfying assignment.
- **Independent Set** in graph *G* and *k*: a subset *S* of vertices.
- Homework.

#### **Certifiers**

#### **Definition**

An algorithm  $C(\cdot, \cdot)$  is a <u>certifier</u> for problem X if the following two conditions hold.

- For every  $s \in X$  there is some string t such that C(s,t) = "yes"
- If  $s \notin X$ , C(s,t) = "no" for every t.

The string s is the problem instance. (Example: particular graph in independent set problem.) The string t is called a certificate or proof for s.

#### Efficient (polynomial time) Certifiers

#### Definition (Efficient Certifier.)

A certifier C is an <u>efficient certifier</u> for problem X if there is a polynomial  $p(\cdot)$  such that the following conditions hold.

- For every  $s \in X$  there is some string t such that C(s,t) = "yes" and  $|t| \le p(|s|)$ .
- If  $s \notin X$ , C(s,t) = "no" for every t.
- $C(\cdot, \cdot)$  runs in polynomial time.

#### **Example: Independent Set**

- Problem: Does G = (V, E) have an independent set of size  $\geq k$ ?
  - Certificate: Set  $S \subseteq V$ .
  - Certifier: Check  $|S| \ge k$  and no pair of vertices in S is connected by an edge.

#### **Example: SAT**

- Problem: Does formula  $\varphi$  have a satisfying truth assignment?
  - Certificate: Assignment a of 0/1 values to each variable.
  - Certifier: Check each clause under a and say "yes" if all clauses are true.

#### Why is it called Non-deterministic Polynomial Time

A certifier is an algorithm C(I, c) with the following two inputs.

- 1: instance.
- c: proof/certificate that the instance is indeed a YES instance of the given problem.

One can think about  ${\cal C}$  as an algorithm for the original problem if the following hold.

- Given I, the algorithm guesses (non-deterministically, and who knows how) a certificate c.
- The algorithm now verifies the certificate c for the instance I.

NP can be equivalently described using Turing machines.

### Cook-Levin Theorem

#### "Hardest" Problems

#### Question

What is the hardest problem in NP? How do we define it?

#### Towards a definition

- Hardest problem must be in NP.
- Hardest problem must be at least as "difficult" as every other problem in NP.

#### **NP-Complete Problems**

#### **Definition**

A problem *X* is said to be **NP-Complete** if

- $X \in NP$ , and
- (Hardness) For any  $Y \in NP$ ,  $Y \leq_P X$ .

#### **Solving NP-Complete Problems**

#### Lemma

Suppose X is NP-Complete. Then X can be solved in polynomial time if and only if P = NP.

#### Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Suppose X can be solved in polynomial time
  - Let  $Y \in NP$ . We know  $Y \leq_P X$ .
  - We showed that if  $Y \leq_P X$  and X can be solved in polynomial time, then Y can be solved in polynomial time.
  - Thus, every problem  $Y \in NP$  is such that  $Y \in P$ ;  $NP \subseteq P$ .
  - Since  $P \subseteq NP$ , we have P = NP.
- $\Leftarrow$  Since P = NP, and  $X \in NP$ , we have a polynomial time algorithm for X.

#### **NP-Hard Problems**

#### **Definition**

A problem Y is said to be NP-Hard if

• (Hardness) For any  $X \in NP$ , we have that  $X \leq_P Y$ .

An NP-Hard problem need not be in NP!

Example: Halting problem is NP-Hard (why?) but not NP-Complete.

#### Consequences of proving NP-Completeness

If X is NP-Complete

- Since we believe  $P \neq NP$ ,
- and solving X implies P = NP.

X is unlikely to be efficiently solvable.

At the very least, many smart people before you have failed to find an efficient algorithm for X.

#### Consequences of proving NP-Completeness

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X is unlikely to be efficiently solvable.

At the very least, many smart people before you have failed to find an efficient algorithm for X.

(This is proof by mob opinion — take with a grain of salt.)

#### **NP-Complete Problems**

#### Question

Are there any problems that are NP-Complete?

#### Answer

Yes! Many, many problems are NP-Complete.

#### Cook-Levin Theorem

Theorem (Cook-Levin) SAT is NP-Complete.

#### **Cook-Levin Theorem**

Theorem (Cook-Levin) SAT is NP-Complete.

Need to show the following.

- **SAT** is in NP.
- Every NP problem X reduces to **SAT**.

Steve Cook won the Turing award for his theorem.

#### Proving that a problem *X* is NP-Complete

To prove *X* is NP-Complete, show the following.

- Show that X is in NP.
- Give a polynomial-time reduction <u>from</u> a known NP-Complete problem such as SAT to X.

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**SAT**  $\leq_P X$  implies that every NP problem  $Y \leq_P X$ . Why? Transitivity of reductions:

 $Y \leq_P SAT$  and  $SAT \leq_P X$  and hence  $Y \leq_P X$ .

#### **3-SAT** is NP-Complete

- **3-SAT** is in *NP*.
- **SAT**  $\leq_P$  **3-SAT** as we saw.

#### **NP-Completeness via Reductions**

- **SAT** is NP-Complete due to Cook-Levin theorem.
- SAT ≤<sub>P</sub> 3-SAT
- 3-SAT  $\leq_P$  Independent Set
- Independent Set  $\leq_P$  Vertex Cover
- Independent Set ≤<sub>P</sub> Clique
- 3-SAT  $\leq_P$  3-Color
- 3-SAT  $\leq_P$  Hamiltonian Cycle

#### **NP-Completeness via Reductions**

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

A surprisingly frequent phenomenon!

### Reducing 3-SAT to Independent Set

#### Independent Set

**Problem: Independent Set** 

**Instance:** A graph G, integer *k*.

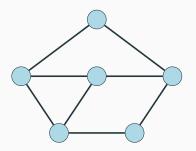
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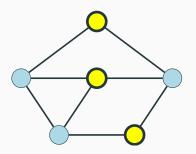


#### Independent Set

**Problem: Independent Set** 

**Instance:** A graph G, integer *k*.

**Question:** Is there an independent set in G of size k?



#### Interpreting 35AT

There are two ways to think about **3SAT**.

- 1. Find a way to assign 0/1 (false/true) to the variables such that the formula evaluates to true, that is each clause evaluates to true.
- 2. Pick a literal from each clause and find a truth assignment to make all of them true. You will fail if two of the literals you pick are in conflict, i.e., you pick  $x_i$  and  $\neg x_i$ .

We will take the second view of **3SAT** to construct the reduction.

- 1.  $G_{\varphi}$  will have one vertex for each literal in a clause.
- Connect the literals in a clause to form a triangle; the independent set will pick at most one vertex from each clause, which will correspond to the literal to be set to true.
- Connect 2 vertices if they label complementary literals; this ensures that the literals corresponding to the independent set do not have a conflict.
- 4. Take *k* to be the number of clauses.

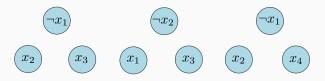


Figure 1: Graph for

$$\varphi = (\neg x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3) \land (x_1 \lor \neg x_2 \lor x_3) \land (\neg x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_4).$$

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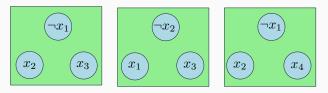
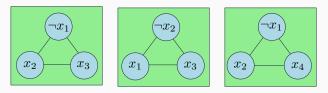


Figure 1: Graph for

- 1.  $G_{\varphi}$  will have one vertex for each literal in a clause.
- Connect the literals in a clause to form a triangle; the independent set will pick at most one vertex from each clause, which will correspond to the literal to be set to true.
- 3. Connect 2 vertices if they label complementary literals; this ensures that the literals corresponding to the independent set do not have a conflict.
- 4. Take k to be the number of clauses.



**Figure 1:** Graph for  $\varphi = (\neg x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3) \land (x_1 \lor \neg x_2 \lor x_3) \land (\neg x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_4).$ 

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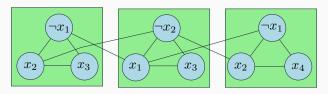


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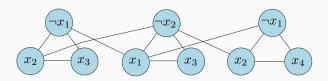


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#### **Correctness**

#### Lemma

 $\varphi$  is satisfiable iff  $G_{\varphi}$  has an independent set of size k (= number of clauses in  $\varphi$ ).

#### Proof.

- $\Rightarrow$  Let a be the truth assignment satisfying  $\varphi$ .
  - Pick one of the vertices, corresponding to true literals under a, from each triangle. This is an independent set of the appropriate size. Why?

#### Correctness (contd)

#### Lemma

 $\varphi$  is satisfiable iff  $G_{\varphi}$  has an independent set of size k (= number of clauses in  $\varphi$ ).

#### Proof.

 $\leftarrow$  Let S be an independent set of size k.

- S must contain exactly one vertex from each clause triangle.
- *S* cannot contain vertices labeled by conflicting literals.
- Thus, it is possible to obtain a truth assignment that makes in the literals in S true; such an assignment satisfies one literal in every clause.

# Other NP-Complete problems

## Graph Coloring

#### **Graph Coloring**

#### **Problem: Graph Coloring**

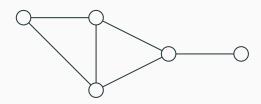
**Instance:** G = (V, E): Undirected graph, integer k. **Question:** Can the vertices of the graph be colored using k colors so that vertices connected by an edge do not get the same color?

#### **Graph 3-Coloring**

#### **Problem: 3 Coloring**

**Instance:** G = (V, E): Undirected graph.

**Question:** Can the vertices of the graph be colored using 3 colors so that vertices connected by an edge do not get the same color?



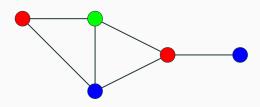
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#### **Graph 3-Coloring**

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#### **Graph Coloring**

Observation: If G is colored with k colors then each color class (nodes of same color) form an independent set in G. Thus, G can be partitioned into k independent sets iff G is k-colorable.

Graph 2-Coloring can be decided in polynomial time.

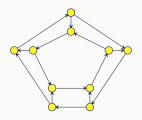
G is 2-colorable iff G is bipartite! There is a linear time algorithm to check if G is bipartite using breadth first search.

Hamiltonian Cycle

#### **Directed Hamiltonian Cycle**

**Input** Given a directed graph G = (V, E) with n vertices **Goal** Does G have a Hamiltonian cycle?

• A Hamiltonian cycle is a cycle in the graph that visits every vertex in *G* exactly once.



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