

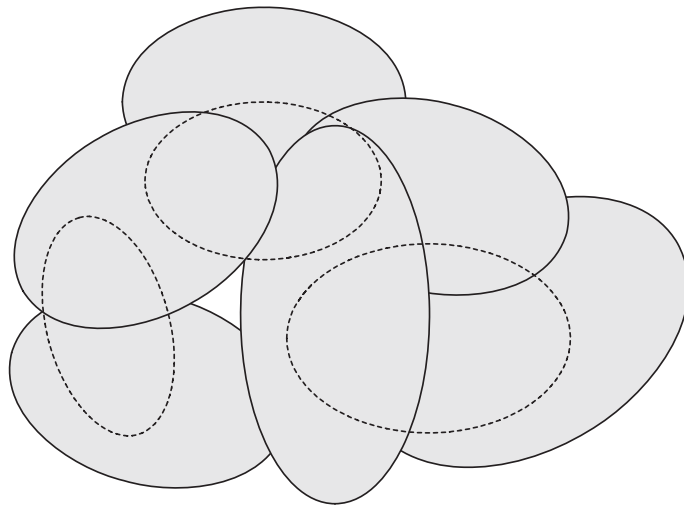
TRIPARTITE MATCHING

- We are given three sets B , G , and H , each containing n elements.
- Let $T \subseteq B \times G \times H$ be a ternary relation.
- TRIPARTITE MATCHING asks if there is a set of n triples in T , none of which has a component in common.
 - Each element in B is matched to a different element in G and different element in H .

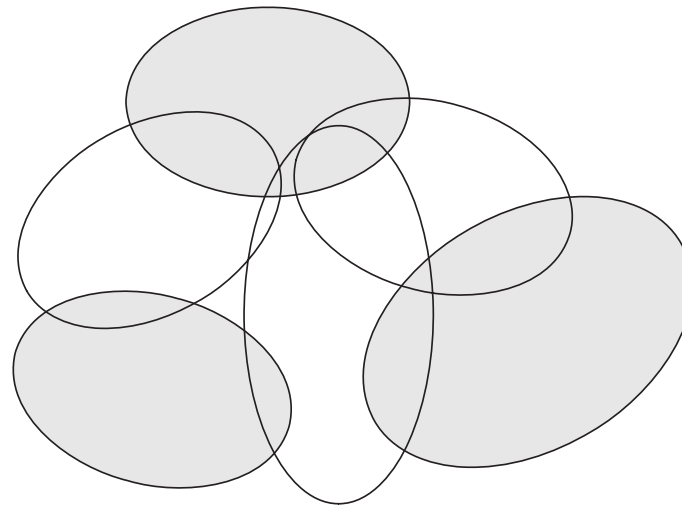
Theorem 45 (Karp (1972)) TRIPARTITE MATCHING *is NP-complete.*

Related Problems

- We are given a family $F = \{ S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n \}$ of subsets of a finite set U and a budget B .
- SET COVERING asks if there exists a set of B sets in F whose union is U .
- SET PACKING asks if there are B *disjoint* sets in F .
- Assume $|U| = 3m$ for some $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $|S_i| = 3$ for all i .
- EXACT COVER BY 3-SETS asks if there are m sets in F that are disjoint (so have U as their union).



SET COVERING



SET PACKING

Related Problems (concluded)

Corollary 46 (Karp (1972)) SET COVERING, SET PACKING, *and* EXACT COVER BY 3-SETS *are all NP-complete.*

- Does SET COVERING remain NP-complete when $|S_i| = 3$?^a
- SET COVERING is used to prove that the influence maximization problem in social networks is NP-complete.^b

^aContributed by Mr. Kai-Yuan Hou (B99201038, R03922014) on September 22, 2015.

^bKempe, Kleinberg, and Tardos (2003).

KNAPSACK

- There is a set of n items.
- Item i has value $v_i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and weight $w_i \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
- We are given $K \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $W \in \mathbb{Z}^+$.
- KNAPSACK asks if there exists a subset

$$I \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

such that $\sum_{i \in I} w_i \leq W$ and $\sum_{i \in I} v_i \geq K$.

- We want to achieve the maximum satisfaction within the budget.

KNAPSACK Is NP-Complete^a

- KNAPSACK \in NP: Guess an I and check the constraints.
- We shall reduce EXACT COVER BY 3-SETS to KNAPSACK, in which $v_i = w_i$ for all i and $K = W$.
- The simplified KNAPSACK now asks if a subset of v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n adds up to exactly K .^b
 - Picture yourself as a radio DJ.

^aKarp (1972).

^bThis problem is called SUBSET SUM or 0-1 KNAPSACK.

The Proof (continued)

- The primary differences between the two problems are:^a
 - Sets vs. numbers.
 - Union vs. addition.
- We are given a family $F = \{ S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n \}$ of size-3 subsets of $U = \{ 1, 2, \dots, 3m \}$.
- EXACT COVER BY 3-SETS asks if there are m disjoint sets in F that cover the set U .

^aThanks to a lively class discussion on November 16, 2010.

The Proof (continued)

- Think of a set as a bit vector in $\{0, 1\}^{3m}$.
 - Assume $m = 3$.
 - 110010000 means the set $\{1, 2, 5\}$.
 - 001100010 means the set $\{3, 4, 8\}$.
- Assume there are $n = 5$ size-3 subsets in F .
- Our goal is

$$\overbrace{11 \cdots 1}^{3m}.$$

The Proof (continued)

- A bit vector can also be seen as a binary *number*.
- Set union resembles addition:

$$\begin{array}{r} 001100010 \\ + 110010000 \\ \hline 111110010 \end{array}$$

which denotes the set $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8\}$, as desired.

The Proof (continued)

- Trouble occurs when there is *carry*:

$$\begin{array}{r} 010000000 \\ + 010000000 \\ \hline 100000000 \end{array}$$

which denotes the wrong set $\{1\}$, not the correct $\{2\}$.

The Proof (continued)

- Or consider

$$\begin{array}{r} 001100010 \\ + 001110000 \\ \hline 011010010 \end{array}$$

which denotes the set $\{2, 3, 5, 8\}$, not the correct $\{3, 4, 5, 8\}$.^a

^aCorrected by Mr. Chihwei Lin (D97922003) on January 21, 2010.

The Proof (continued)

- Carry may also lead to a situation where we obtain our solution $11 \dots 1$ with more than m sets in F .
- For example, with $m = 3$,

$$\begin{array}{r} 000100010 \\ 001110000 \\ 101100000 \\ + 000001101 \\ \hline 111111111 \end{array}$$

- But the correct union result, $\{1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$, is *not* an exact cover.

The Proof (continued)

- And it uses 4 sets instead of the required $m = 3$.^a
- To fix this problem, we enlarge the base just enough so that there are no carries.^b
- Because there are n vectors in total, we change the base from 2 to $n + 1$.
- Every positive integer N has a unique expression in base b : There are **b -adic digits** $0 \leq d_i < b$ such that

$$N = \sum_{i=0}^k d_i b^i, \quad d_k \neq 0.$$

^aThanks to a lively class discussion on November 20, 2002.

^bYou cannot map \cup to \vee because KNAPSACK requires $+$ not \vee !

The Proof (continued)

- Set v_i to be the integer corresponding to the bit vector encoding S_i in base $n + 1$:

$$v_i = \sum_{j \in S_i} 1 \times (n + 1)^{3m-j} \quad (3)$$

- Set

$$K = \sum_{j=0}^{3m-1} 1 \times (n + 1)^j = \overbrace{11 \cdots 1}^{3m} \quad (\text{base } n + 1).$$

- Now in base $n + 1$, if there is a set S such that

$\sum_{i \in S} v_i = \overbrace{11 \cdots 1}^{3m}$, then every position must be contributed by exactly one v_i and $|S| = m$.

The Proof (continued)

- For example, the case on p. 413 becomes

$$\begin{array}{r} 000100010 \\ 001110000 \\ 101100000 \\ + 000001101 \\ \hline 102311111 \end{array}$$

in base $n + 1 = 6$.

- As desired, it no longer meets the goal.

The Proof (continued)

- Suppose F admits an exact cover, say $\{S_1, S_2, \dots, S_m\}$.
- Then picking $I = \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$ clearly results in

$$v_1 + v_2 + \dots + v_m = \overbrace{11\dots 1}^{3m}.$$

- It is important to note that the meaning of addition (+) is independent of the base.^a
 - It is just regular addition.
 - But an S_i may give rise to different integers v_i in Eq. (3) on p. 415 under different bases.

^aContributed by Mr. Kuan-Yu Chen (R92922047) on November 3, 2004.

The Proof (concluded)

- On the other hand, suppose there exists an I such that

$$\sum_{i \in I} v_i = \overbrace{11 \cdots 1}^{3m}$$

in base $n + 1$.

- The no-carry property implies that $|I| = m$ and

$$\{S_i : i \in I\}$$

is an exact cover.

The proof actually proves:

Corollary 47 SUBSET SUM (p. 407) is NP-complete.

An Example

- Let $m = 3$, $U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\}$, and

$$S_1 = \{1, 3, 4\},$$

$$S_2 = \{2, 3, 4\},$$

$$S_3 = \{2, 5, 6\},$$

$$S_4 = \{6, 7, 8\},$$

$$S_5 = \{7, 8, 9\}.$$

- Note that $n = 5$, as there are 5 S_i 's.

An Example (continued)

- Our reduction produces

$$K = \sum_{j=0}^{3 \times 3 - 1} 6^j = \overbrace{11 \cdots 1}_3 = 2015539_{10},$$

$$v_1 = 101100000 = 1734048,$$

$$v_2 = 011100000 = 334368,$$

$$v_3 = 010011000 = 281448,$$

$$v_4 = 000001110 = 258,$$

$$v_5 = 000000111 = 43.$$

An Example (concluded)

- Note $v_1 + v_3 + v_5 = K$ because

$$\begin{array}{r} 101100000 \\ 010011000 \\ + 000000111 \\ \hline 111111111 \end{array}$$

- Indeed,

$$S_1 \cup S_3 \cup S_5 = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9\},$$

an exact cover by 3-sets.

BIN PACKING

- We are given N positive integers a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N , an integer C (the capacity), and an integer B (the number of bins).
- BIN PACKING asks if these numbers can be partitioned into B subsets, each of which has total sum at most C .
- Think of packing bags at the check-out counter.

Theorem 48 BIN PACKING *is NP-complete.*

BIN PACKING (concluded)

- But suppose a_1, a_2, \dots, a_N are randomly distributed between 0 and 1.
- Let B be the smallest number of unit-capacity bins capable of holding them.
- Then B can deviate from its average by more than t with probability at most $2e^{-2t^2/N}$.^a

^aDubhashi and Panconesi (2012).

INTEGER PROGRAMMING (IP)

- IP asks whether a system of linear inequalities with integer coefficients has an integer solution.
- In contrast, LINEAR PROGRAMMING (LP) asks whether a system of linear inequalities with integer coefficients has a *rational* solution.
 - LP is solvable in polynomial time.^a

^aKhachiyan (1979).

IP Is NP-Complete^a

- SET COVERING can be expressed by the inequalities $Ax \geq \vec{1}$, $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \leq B$, $0 \leq x_i \leq 1$, where
 - $x_i = 1$ if and only if S_i is in the cover.
 - A is the matrix whose columns are the bit vectors of the sets S_1, S_2, \dots
 - $\vec{1}$ is the vector of 1s.
 - The operations in Ax are standard matrix operations.
 - The i th row of Ax is at least 1 means item i is covered.

^aKarp (1972); Papadimitriou (1981).

IP Is NP-Complete (concluded)

- This shows IP is NP-hard.
- Many NP-complete problems can be expressed as an IP problem.

Christos Papadimitriou (1949–)



Easier or Harder?^a

- Adding restrictions on the allowable *problem instances* will not make a problem harder.
 - We are now solving a subset of problem instances or special cases.
 - The INDEPENDENT SET proof (p. 350) and the KNAPSACK proof (p. 407): equally hard.
 - CIRCUIT VALUE to MONOTONE CIRCUIT VALUE (p. 299): equally hard.
 - SAT to 2SAT (p. 330): easier.

^aThanks to a lively class discussion on October 29, 2003.

Easier or Harder? (concluded)

- Adding restrictions on the allowable *solutions* (the solution space) may make a problem harder, equally hard, or easier.
- It is problem dependent.
 - MIN CUT to BISECTION WIDTH (p. 382): harder.
 - LP to IP (p. 424): harder.
 - SAT to NAESAT (equally hard by p. 342) and MAX CUT to MAX BISECTION (p. 380): equally hard.
 - 3-COLORING to 2-COLORING (p. 391): easier.

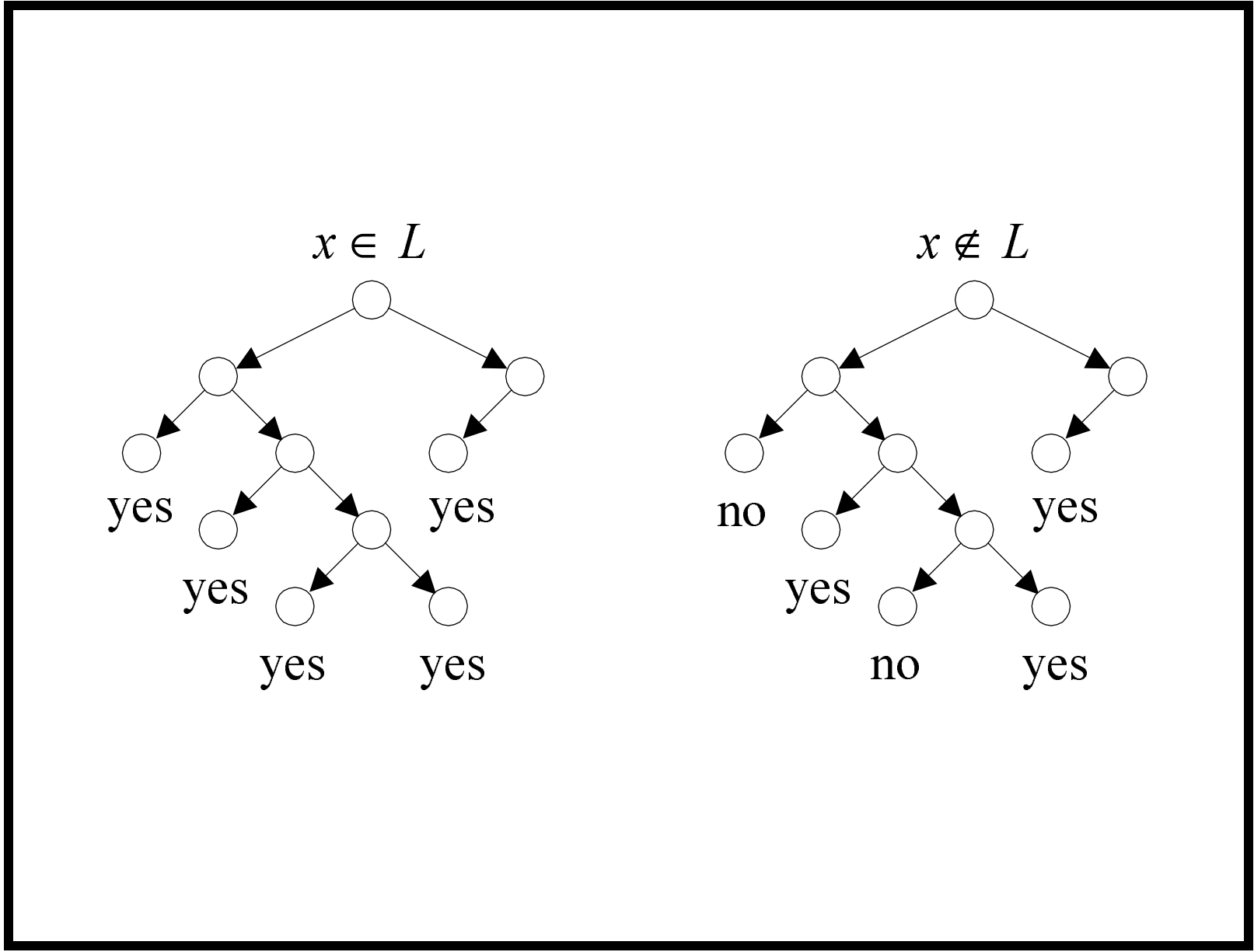
coNP and Function Problems

coNP

- NP is the class of problems that have succinct certificates (recall Proposition 36 on p. 312).
- By definition, coNP is the class of problems whose complement is in NP.
- coNP is therefore the class of problems that have succinct disqualifications:
 - A “no” instance of a problem in coNP possesses a short proof of its being a “no” instance.
 - Only “no” instances have such proofs.

coNP (continued)

- Suppose L is a coNP problem.
- There exists a polynomial-time nondeterministic algorithm M such that:
 - If $x \in L$, then $M(x) = \text{“yes”}$ for all computation paths.
 - If $x \notin L$, then $M(x) = \text{“no”}$ for some computation path.
- Note that if we swap “yes” and “no” of M , the new algorithm M' decides $\bar{L} \in \text{NP}$ in the classic sense (p. 104).



coNP (continued)

- So there are 3 major approaches to proving $L \in \text{coNP}$.
 1. Prove $\bar{L} \in \text{NP}$.
 2. Prove that only “no” instances possess short proofs.
 3. Write an algorithm for it directly.

coNP (concluded)

- Clearly $P \subseteq \text{coNP}$.
- It is not known if

$$P = \text{NP} \cap \text{coNP}.$$

– Contrast this with

$$R = \text{RE} \cap \text{coRE}$$

(see Proposition 10 on p. 150).

Some coNP Problems

- VALIDITY \in coNP.
 - If ϕ is not valid, it can be disqualified very succinctly: a truth assignment that does not satisfy it.
- SAT COMPLEMENT \in coNP.
 - SAT COMPLEMENT is the complement of SAT.
 - The disqualification is a truth assignment that satisfies it.
- HAMILTONIAN PATH COMPLEMENT \in coNP.
 - The disqualification is a Hamiltonian path.

Some coNP Problems (concluded)

- OPTIMAL TSP (D) \in coNP.
 - OPTIMAL TSP (D) asks if the optimal tour has a total distance of B , where B is an input.^a
 - The disqualification is a tour with a length $< B$.

^aDefined by Mr. Che-Wei Chang (R95922093) on September 27, 2006.

A Nondeterministic Algorithm for SAT COMPLEMENT (See also p. 114)

ϕ is a boolean formula with n variables.

```
1: for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  do
2:   Guess  $x_i \in \{0, 1\}$ ; {Nondeterministic choice.}
3: end for
4: {Verification:}
5: if  $\phi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = 1$  then
6:   “no”;
7: else
8:   “yes”;
9: end if
```

Analysis

- The algorithm decides language $\{ \phi : \phi \text{ is unsatisfiable} \}$.
 - The computation tree is a complete binary tree of depth n .
 - Every computation path corresponds to a particular truth assignment out of 2^n .
 - ϕ is unsatisfiable if and only if every truth assignment falsifies ϕ .
 - But every truth assignment falsifies ϕ if and only if every computation path results in “yes.”

An Alternative Characterization of coNP

Proposition 49 *Let $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$ be a language. Then $L \in \text{coNP}$ if and only if there is a polynomially decidable and polynomially balanced relation R such that*

$$L = \{ x : \forall y (x, y) \in R \}.$$

(As on p. 311, we assume $|y| \leq |x|^k$ for some k .)

- $\bar{L} = \{ x : \exists y (x, y) \in \neg R \}$.
- Because $\neg R$ remains polynomially balanced, $\bar{L} \in \text{NP}$ by Proposition 36 (p. 312).
- Hence $L \in \text{coNP}$ by definition.

coNP-Completeness

Proposition 50 *L is NP-complete if and only if its complement $\bar{L} = \Sigma^* - L$ is coNP-complete.*

Proof (\Rightarrow ; the \Leftarrow part is symmetric)

- Let \bar{L}' be any coNP language.
- Hence $L' \in \text{NP}$.
- Let R be the reduction from L' to L .
- So $x \in L'$ if and only if $R(x) \in L$.
- By the law of transposition, $x \notin L'$ if and only if $R(x) \notin L$.

coNP Completeness (concluded)

- So $x \in \bar{L}'$ if and only if $R(x) \in \bar{L}$.
- The *same* R is a reduction from \bar{L}' to \bar{L} .
- This shows \bar{L} is coNP-hard.
- But $\bar{L} \in \text{coNP}$.
- This shows \bar{L} is coNP-complete.

Some coNP-Complete Problems

- SAT COMPLEMENT is coNP-complete.
- VALIDITY is coNP-complete.
 - ϕ is valid if and only if $\neg\phi$ is not satisfiable.
 - $\phi \in \text{VALIDITY}$ is valid if and only if $\neg\phi \in \text{SAT COMPLEMENT}$.
 - The reduction from SAT COMPLEMENT to VALIDITY is hence easy.
- HAMILTONIAN PATH COMPLEMENT is coNP-complete.

Possible Relations between P, NP, coNP

1. $P = NP = \text{coNP}$.
2. $NP = \text{coNP}$ but $P \neq NP$.
3. $NP \neq \text{coNP}$ and $P \neq NP$.
 - This is the current “consensus.”^a

^aCarl Gauss (1777–1855), “I could easily lay down a multitude of such propositions, which one could neither prove nor dispose of.”

The Primality Problem

- An integer p is **prime** if $p > 1$ and all positive numbers other than 1 and p itself cannot divide it.
- PRIMES asks if an integer N is a prime number.
- Dividing N by $2, 3, \dots, \sqrt{N}$ is *not* efficient.
 - The length of N is only $\log N$, but $\sqrt{N} = 2^{0.5 \log N}$.
 - It is an exponential-time algorithm.
- A polynomial-time algorithm for PRIMES was not found until 2002 by Agrawal, Kayal, and Saxena!
- The running time is $\tilde{O}(\log^{7.5} N)$.

```

1: if  $n = a^b$  for some  $a, b > 1$  then
2:   return “composite”;
3: end if
4: for  $r = 2, 3, \dots, n - 1$  do
5:   if  $\text{gcd}(n, r) > 1$  then
6:     return “composite”;
7:   end if
8:   if  $r$  is a prime then
9:     Let  $q$  be the largest prime factor of  $r - 1$ ;
10:    if  $q \geq 4\sqrt{r} \log n$  and  $n^{(r-1)/q} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{r}$  then
11:      break; {Exit the for-loop.}
12:    end if
13:  end if
14: end for{ $r - 1$  has a prime factor  $q \geq 4\sqrt{r} \log n$ .}
15: for  $a = 1, 2, \dots, 2\sqrt{r} \log n$  do
16:   if  $(x - a)^n \not\equiv (x^n - a) \pmod{(x^r - 1)}$  in  $Z_n[x]$  then
17:     return “composite”;
18:   end if
19: end for
20: return “prime”; {The only place with “prime” output.}

```

The Primality Problem (concluded)

- Later, we will focus on efficient “randomized” algorithms for PRIMES (used in *Mathematica*, e.g.).
- $\text{NP} \cap \text{coNP}$ is the class of problems that have succinct certificates and succinct disqualifications.
 - Each “yes” instance has a succinct certificate.
 - Each “no” instance has a succinct disqualification.
 - No instances have both.
- We will see that $\text{PRIMES} \in \text{NP} \cap \text{coNP}$.^a
 - In fact, $\text{PRIMES} \in \text{P}$ as mentioned earlier.

^aAnother important problem in that class is LP.

Primitive Roots in Finite Fields

Theorem 51 (Lucas and Lehmer (1927)) ^a *A number $p > 1$ is a prime if and only if there is a number $1 < r < p$ such that*

1. $r^{p-1} = 1 \pmod{p}$, and
 2. $r^{(p-1)/q} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ for all prime divisors q of $p - 1$.
- This r is called the **primitive root** or **generator**.
 - We will prove one direction of the theorem later.^b

^aFrançois Edouard Anatole Lucas (1842–1891); Derrick Henry Lehmer (1905–1991).

^bSee pp. 461ff.

Derrick Lehmer^a (1905–1991)



^aInventor of the linear congruential generator in 1951.

Pratt's Theorem

Theorem 52 (Pratt (1975)) $\text{PRIMES} \in NP \cap \text{coNP}$.

- PRIMES is in coNP because a succinct disqualification is a proper divisor.
 - A proper divisor of a number n means n is *not* a prime.
- Now suppose p is a prime.
- p 's certificate includes the r in Theorem 51 (p. 448).
 - There may be multiple choices for r .

The Proof (continued)

- Use recursive doubling to check if $r^{p-1} = 1 \pmod p$ in time polynomial in the length of the input, $\log_2 p$.
 - $r, r^2, r^4, \dots \pmod p$, a total of $\sim \log_2 p$ steps.
- We also need all *prime* divisors of $p - 1$: q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k .
 - Whether r, q_1, \dots, q_k are easy to find is irrelevant.
- Checking $r^{(p-1)/q_i} \neq 1 \pmod p$ is also easy.
- Checking q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k are all the divisors of $p - 1$ is easy.

The Proof (concluded)

- We still need certificates for the primality of the q_i 's.
- The complete certificate is recursive and tree-like:

$$C(p) = (r; q_1, C(q_1), q_2, C(q_2), \dots, q_k, C(q_k)). \quad (4)$$

- We next prove that $C(p)$ is succinct.
- As a result, $C(p)$ can be checked in polynomial time.

The Succinctness of the Certificate

Lemma 53 *The length of $C(p)$ is at most quadratic at $5 \log_2^2 p$.*

- This claim holds when $p = 2$ or $p = 3$.
- In general, $p - 1$ has $k \leq \log_2 p$ prime divisors $q_1 = 2, q_2, \dots, q_k$.

– Reason:

$$2^k \leq \prod_{i=1}^k q_i \leq p - 1.$$

- Note also that, as $q_1 = 2$,

$$\prod_{i=2}^k q_i \leq \frac{p - 1}{2}. \tag{5}$$

The Proof (continued)

- $C(p)$ requires:
 - 2 parentheses;
 - $2k < 2 \log_2 p$ separators (at most $2 \log_2 p$ bits);
 - r (at most $\log_2 p$ bits);
 - $q_1 = 2$ and its certificate 1 (at most 5 bits);
 - q_2, \dots, q_k (at most $2 \log_2 p$ bits);^a
 - $C(q_2), \dots, C(q_k)$.

^aWhy?

The Proof (concluded)

- $C(p)$ is succinct because, by induction,

$$\begin{aligned} |C(p)| &\leq 5 \log_2 p + 5 + 5 \sum_{i=2}^k \log_2^2 q_i \\ &\leq 5 \log_2 p + 5 + 5 \left(\sum_{i=2}^k \log_2 q_i \right)^2 \\ &\leq 5 \log_2 p + 5 + 5 \log_2^2 \frac{p-1}{2} \quad \text{by inequality (5)} \\ &< 5 \log_2 p + 5 + 5 [(\log_2 p) - 1]^2 \\ &= 5 \log_2^2 p + 10 - 5 \log_2 p \leq 5 \log_2^2 p \end{aligned}$$

for $p \geq 4$.

A Certificate for 23^a

- Note that 5 is a primitive root modulo 23 and $23 - 1 = 22 = 2 \times 11$.^b

- So

$$C(23) = (5; 2, C(2), 11, C(11)).$$

- Note that 2 is a primitive root modulo 11 and $11 - 1 = 10 = 2 \times 5$.

- So

$$C(11) = (2; 2, C(2), 5, C(5)).$$

^aThanks to a lively discussion on April 24, 2008.

^bOther primitive roots are 7, 10, 11, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20, 21.

A Certificate for 23 (concluded)

- Note that 2 is a primitive root modulo 5 and $5 - 1 = 4 = 2^2$.

- So

$$C(5) = (2; 2, C(2)).$$

- In summary,

$$C(23) = (5; 2, C(2), 11, (2; 2, C(2), 5, (2; 2, C(2))))).$$

- In *Mathematica*, `PrimeQCertificate[23]` yields

$$\{23, 5, \{2, \{11, 2, \{2, \{5, 2, \{2\}\}\}\}\}\}$$

Turning the Proof into an Algorithm^a

- How to turn the proof into a polynomial-time nondeterministic algorithm?
- First, guess a $\log_2 p$ -bit number r .
- Then guess up to $\log_2 p$ numbers q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k each containing at most $\log_2 p$ bits.
- Then recursively do the same thing for each of the q_i to form a certificate (4) on p. 452.
- Finally check if the two conditions of Theorem 51 (p. 448) hold throughout the tree.

^aContributed by Mr. Kai-Yuan Hou (B99201038, R03922014) on November 24, 2015.