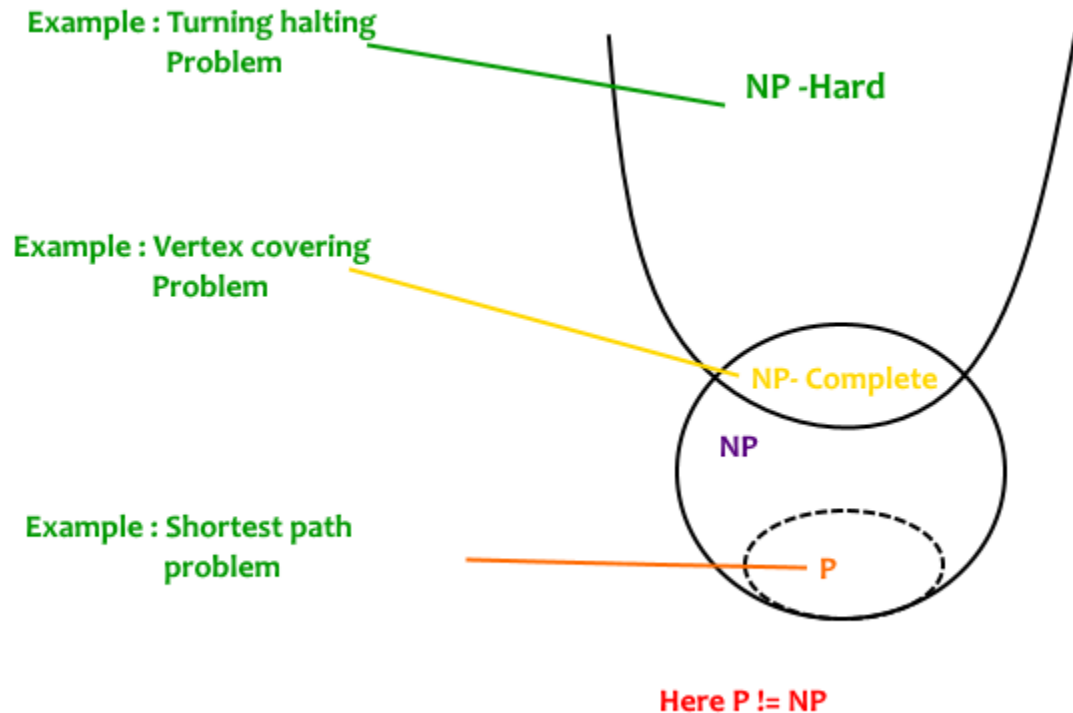


- NP is the set of decision problems for which the program instances, where the answer is “yes”, have proofs verifiable in polynomial time.
- Decision problems are assigned complexity classes (such as NP) based on the fastest known algorithms. Therefore, decision problems may change classes if faster algorithms are discovered.
- It is easy to see that the complexity class P (all problems solvable, deterministically, in polynomial-time) is contained in NP, because if a problem is solvable in polynomial time then a solution is also verifiable in polynomial time by simply solving the problem.
- An algorithm solving a NP-complete problem in polynomial time is also able to solve any other NP problem in polynomial time.



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- Example of a 3CNF formula:

CNF-Satisfiability

$$x_i = \{x_1, x_2, x_3\}$$

$$CNF = (\underbrace{x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2 \vee x_3}_{C_1}) \wedge (\underbrace{\bar{x}_1 \vee x_2 \vee \bar{x}_3}_{C_2})$$

Video: <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=e2cF8a5aAhE>

- NP is a complexity class that represents the set of all decision problems for which the instances where the answer is “yes” have proofs that can be verified in polynomial time.
- NP-complete is a complexity class which represents the set of all problems X in NP for which it is possible to reduce any other NP problem Y to X in polynomial time. Intuitively, this means that we can solve Y quickly if we know how to solve X quickly. E.g. it can be shown that every NP problem can be reduced to 3-SAT.
- What makes NP-complete problems important is that if a deterministic polynomial time algorithm can be found to solve one of them, then every NP problem is solvable in polynomial time (one problem to rule them all).
- NP-hard: intuitively, these are the problems that are at least as hard as the NP-complete problems/ Note that NP-hard problems do not have to be in NP, and they do not have to be decision problems. NP-hard definition: a problem X is NP-hard, if there is an NP-complete problem Y, such that Y is reducible to X in polynomial time.
- The 0/1 knapsack problem is NP-complete.
- P1054 we define an **abstract problem** Q to be a binary relation on a set I of problem instances and a set S of problem solutions.
- The theory of NP-completeness restricts attention to decision problems only.
- P1055 A computer algorithm that “solves” some abstract decision problem actually takes an encoding of a problem instance as input. We call a problem whose instance set is the set of binary strings a **concrete problem**.
- P1056 We say that a function  $f: \{0,1\}^* \rightarrow \{0,1\}^*$  is **polynomial-time computable** if there exists a polynomial-time algorithm A that, given any input  $x \in \{0,1\}^*$ , produces as output  $f(x)$ . For some set I of problem instances, we say that two encoding  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  are **polynomially related** if there exist two polynomial-time computable functions  $f_{12}$  and  $f_{21}$  such that for any  $i \in I$ , we have  $f_{12}(e_1(i)) = e_2(i)$  and  $f_{21}(e_2(i)) = e_1(i)$ .
- If two encodings  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  of an abstract problem are polynomially related, whether the problem is polynomial-time solvable or not is independent of which encoding we use.
- P1056 Lemma 34.1  
Let Q be an abstract decision problem on an instance set I, and let  $e_1$  and  $e_2$  be polynomially related encodings on I. Then,  $e_1(Q) \in P$  if and only if  $e_2(Q) \in P$ .
- P1057 formal language framework
- P1058 concatenation and closure of L
- P1058 From the point of view of language theory, the set of instances for any decision problem Q is simply the set  $\Sigma^*$  where  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$ .
- Note: a language is a set.
- P1058 The language **accepted** by an algorithm A is the set of strings  $L = \{x \in \{0,1\}^* : A(x) = 1\}$ . An algorithm A rejects a string x if  $A(x) = 0$ .
- A language L is **decided** by an algorithm A if every binary string in L is accepted by A and every binary string not in L is rejected by A.
- To accept a language, an algorithm need only produce an answer when provided a string in L, but to decide a language, it must correctly accept or reject every string in  $\{0,1\}^*$ .
- P1059  $P = \{L \in \{0,1\}^* : \text{there exists an algorithm A that decides L in polynomial time}\}$
- Theorem 34.2

$P = \{L: L \text{ is accepted by a polynomial-time algorithm}\}$

i.e.  $P$  is the class of languages that can be accepted in polynomial time

- P1061 Formally, a **Hamiltonian cycle** of an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a simple cycle that contains each vertex in  $V$ . A graph that contains a Hamiltonian cycle is said to be Hamiltonian.
- $HAM-CYCLE = \{ \langle G \rangle : G \text{ is a Hamiltonian graph} \}$
- P1063 We define a verification algorithm as being a two-argument algorithm  $A$ , where one argument is an ordinary input string  $x$  and the other is a binary string  $y$  called a certificate.
- P1064 A language belongs to  $NP$  if and only if there exist a two-input polynomial-time algorithm  $A$  and a constant  $c$  such that

$L = \{x \in \{0,1\}^* : \text{there exists a certificate } y \text{ with } |y| = O(|x|^c) \text{ such that } A(x, y) = 1\}$

We say that algorithm  $A$  verifies language  $L$  in polynomial time.

- If  $L \in P$ , then  $L \in NP$ .
- We define the complexity class **co-NP** as the set of languages  $L$  such that the complement of  $L \in NP$ .
- Fig 34.3 (d)
- P1067 If any  $NP$ -complete problem can be solved in polynomial time, then every problem in  $NP$  has a polynomial-time solution, that is,  $P = NP$ .
- The  $NP$ -complete languages are the “hardest” languages in  $NP$ .
- P1067 definition of polynomial-time reducible
- P1068 If  $L_1 \leq_P L_2$ , then  $L_1$  is not more than a polynomial factor harder than  $L_2$ , which is why the “less than or equal to” notation for reduction.
- P1069 A language  $L \subseteq \{0,1\}^*$  is **NP-complete** if
  1.  $L \in NP$ , and
  2.  $L' \leq_P L$  for every  $L' \in NP$ .

If a language  $L$  satisfies property 2, then  $L$  is **NP-hard**.

(For  $NP$ -completeness proof, we usually use Lemma 34.8 in 34.4)

- $NP$ -completeness is critical in deciding whether  $P = NP$ .
- Theorem 34.4  
If any  $NP$ -complete problem is polynomial-time solvable, then  $P = NP$ . Equivalently, if any problem in  $NP$  is not polynomial-time solvable, then no  $NP$ -complete problem is polynomial-time solvable.
- Since no polynomial-time algorithm for any  $NP$ -complete problem has yet been discovered, a proof that a problem is  $NP$ -complete provides excellent evidence that it is intractable.
- P1071 A **Boolean combinational circuit** consists of one or more Boolean combinational elements interconnected by wires.
- P1071 The number of element inputs fed by a wire is called the **fan-out** of the wire.

- Boolean combinational circuits cannot contain cycles.
- P1072 a one-output Boolean combinational circuit is **satisfiable** if it has a **satisfying assignment**: a truth assignment that causes the output of the circuit to be 1.
- CIRCUIT-SAT = {<C>: C is a satisfiable Boolean combinational circuit}
- P1078 Lemma 34.8  
If  $L$  is a language such that  $L' \leq_P L$  for some  $L' \in \text{NPC}$ , then  $L$  is NP-hard. If, in addition,  $L \in \text{NP}$ , then  $L \in \text{NPC}$ .
- SAT = {< $\varphi$ >:  $\varphi$  is a satisfiable Boolean formula}
- P1080 Theorem 34.9  
Satisfiability of Boolean formulas is NP-complete.

### 3-CNF satisfiability

- P1082 A **literal** in a Boolean formula is an occurrence of a variable or its negation.
- A Boolean formula is in **conjunctive normal form**, or **CNF**, if it is expressed as an AND of clauses, each of which is the OR of one or more literals.
- See P1082 for an example of 3-CNF formula
- P1082 Theorem 34.10  
Satisfiability of Boolean formulas in 3-CNF is NP-complete.
- P1084  
NOT(a AND b) = NOT a OR NOT b  
NOT(a OR b) = NOT a AND NOT b
- In contrast to those more general problems which are NP-complete, 2-satisfiability can be solved in polynomial time.

### The clique problem

- P1086 A **clique** in an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a subset  $V' \subseteq V$  of vertices, each pair of which is connected by an edge in  $E$ . A clique is a complete subgraph of  $G$ .
- The size of a clique is the number of vertices it contains.
- Optimization version of a clique problem: find a clique of maximum size
- Decision version of a clique problem:  
CLIQUE = {<G,k>:  $G$  is a graph containing a clique of size  $k$ }
- Theorem 34.11  
The clique problem is NP-complete

### The vertex-cover problem

- P1089 A **vertex cover** of an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a subset  $V' \subseteq V$  such that if  $(u, v) \in E$ , then  $u \in V'$  or  $v \in V'$  or both.
- A vertex cover for  $G$  is a set of vertices that covers all the edges in  $E$ .
- **The size of a vertex cover is the number of vertices in it.**
- The optimization version of vertex-cover problem is to find a vertex cover of minimum size in a given graph.
- The decision problem of vertex-cover problem is to determine whether a graph has a vertex cover of a given size  $k$ .  
 $\text{VERTEX-COVER} = \{ \langle G, k \rangle : \text{graph } G \text{ has a vertex cover of size } k \}$
  
- Theorem 34.12  
The vertex-cover problem is NP-complete.
  
- Reduction of vertex-cover problem: the graph  $G$  has a clique of size  $k$  if and only if the complement of  $G$  has a vertex cover of size  $|V| - k$ .
- The size of a vertex cover produced by the approximation algorithm is at most twice the minimum size of a vertex cover.