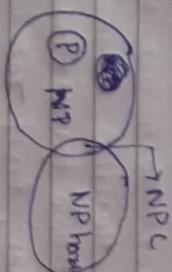


Complexity Classes

Based on degree of difficulty, problems are classified in 4 classes

- ① P-class
- ② NP-class
- ③ NP-hard
- ④ NP-complet.



→ NPC

P class
class P problems are solvable in polynomial time

Time complexity $\rightarrow O(n^k)$

$n \rightarrow 1/p$ size

$k \rightarrow$ constant

P is a class of problem accepted by deterministic time.

NP Class

Eg:- Linear Search $\rightarrow n$

Binary Search $\rightarrow \log n$

Quick Sort $\rightarrow n^2$

Merge Sort $\rightarrow n \log n$

Problems that can be solved in non deterministic polynomial time is called NP class problem.

NP class problem are solvable in exponential time but solvable in polynomial time.

Every P class problem is NP class
Every NP class problem is not a P class

- All P class problems are subset of NP
- P class problem can be solved efficiently, NP class problem cannot be solved efficiently as P-class Problem

- Eg:- Hamiltonian Path problem
Graph Coloring

NP-hard

If there is no solution for problem A and if A can be converted to another problem B, which is with a polynomial time, and which is solvable, then this process is called reduction

NP-hard class problems are not solvable in polynomial time and but can be reduced to another problem solvable in polynomial time.

Eg:- Halting Problem

Qualified Boolean Formulas

NP-Complete

- A problem is NP complete if it is both NP hard and NP complete

- NP-complete problems are the hardest problems in NP

- A problem L is NP-complete if,

① L is in NP

② Every L₂ in NP is polynomial time reducible to L

Eg:- Vertex Cover

Minimum Spanning Tree



Polynomial Time Reduction

- Solving one problem using another problem
When a problem A is polynomial time reducible to B, it means that for given instance of A there is an algorithm for transforming instances of A into instances of B

- Polynomial time reduction proves that the first problem is no more difficult than the second one, because we have an efficient algorithm exist for second problem, one exists for first problem also.

If a problem A is reducible to B, then we denote it as $A \leq B$

Clique

- For a graph $G(V, E)$, clique is a complete subgraph or C_n .
- The size of clique is the number of vertices it contains

$G \rightarrow$

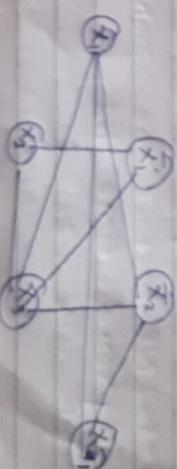
Clique sizes

1. Single vertex
2. Two vertices
3. Three vertices
4. Four vertices
5. Five vertices

(ERT or CDP)
 $L_1 \times L_2$

Rule for constructing clique:

- a) Vertex of same clique should not be connected
- b) we can connect vertex of one clique to vertex of another clique
- c) We should not connect vertex of one clique with negation vertex in another clique.



For above graph, maximum size of clique is 3
 $\therefore k=3$

CLIQUE = $\{G, k\}$: G is a graph containing a clique of size k

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$$\begin{aligned}
 k = 3 & \quad x_1 \quad x_2 \quad x_3 \\
 F = & \quad (\bar{x}_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_2) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_3) \\
 & = (0 \vee 1) \wedge (1 \vee 0) \wedge (0 \vee 1) \\
 & = 1
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence we prove that if we take a CNF with k -clause, then we can make a clique of size k . Thus proved that Clique problem is NP complete.

Prove that Vertex Cover is NPC

A vertex cover of a graph is a set of vertices that covers all the edges in the graph.

The size of the vertex cover is the number of vertices in it.

The vertex-cover problem is to find a ~~min~~ vertex cover of minimum size in a given graph.

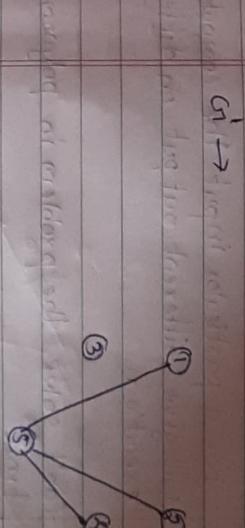
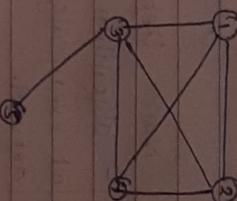
$$\text{VERTEX-COVER} = \left\{ \langle G, k \rangle : \text{Graph } G \text{ has vertex cover of size } k \right\}$$

- Vertex cover is NP because the problem cannot be solved in polynomial time but is verified in polynomial time.
- Given an instance of clique, we will produce a graph $G(V, E)$ and integer k such that G has maximum clique of size k .

it and only if instance in $G'(V, E')$ has vertex cover of size $(v-k)$

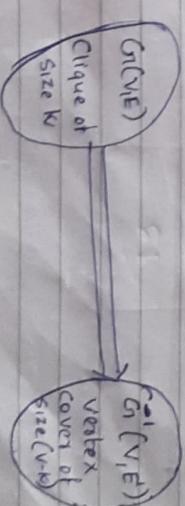
eg:

$G \rightarrow$



Merge G and G' , then we get a complete graph

so $G(V, E) \cup G'(V, E')$ is a complete graph.



Let G has a clique of size k , that implies G' has vertex cover of size $(v-k)$.

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Hence we prove that some of the instances of CHque can be reduced to vertex cover. Hence vertex cover is also NPC for that particular instance.

Deterministic Algo

- Non Deterministic Algorithm
Algorithm in which the result of every algo is uniquely defined.

- For a particular input the computer will give always the same output
- For a particular input the computer will give different output on different execution.

Can solve problem in polynomial time

- + Can determine the next step of execution
- Cannot determine the next step of execution due to more than one path the algorithm can take

**Flow Networks**

A flow network $G = (V, E)$ is a directed graph in which each edge $(u, v) \in E$ has a non-negative capacity $C(u, v) \geq 0$.

Network flow

Let $G = (V, E)$ be a flow network. Let s be the source of the network, and let t be the sink. A flow in G is a real-valued function $f: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that the following properties hold:

- ① Capacity constraint:

$$\text{for all } u, v \in V, \text{ we need } f(u, v) \leq C(u, v)$$

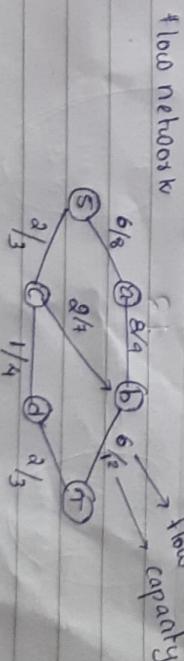
- ② Skew Symmetry:

$$\text{for all } u, v \in V, \text{ we need } f(u, v) = -f(v, u)$$

- ③ Flow Conservation:

$$\text{for all } u \in V - \{s, t\} \text{ we require} \\ \sum_{v \in V} f(u, v) = \sum_{u \in V} f(u, v) = 0$$

In Maximum-Flow problem, we are given a flow network G with source s and sink t , and we need to find a flow of maximum value from s to t .



flow network

capacity

Saath

Approximation algorithm

An approximation algo is way of dealing with NP complete for optimization problem. Goal of a approximation algo is to come close as possible to optimal solution in polynomial time

e.g:-

- ① all pair shortest path problem
 - ② knapsack problem
 - ③ sum of subset
- optimization problem

objective is to
maximize or minimize

In approximation algo

C^* → cost of solution

$f(n) \rightarrow f(n) \rightarrow$ cost of optimal soln

$n \rightarrow$ input size

we deal with two problems

- ① maximization problem

$$\frac{C^*}{C} \leq f(n)$$

- ② minimization

$$\frac{C}{C^*} \leq f(n) \quad \text{and } f(n) > 1$$

Approximation ratio gives the ratio between our solution (cost) and optimal solution(cost)

Vertex cover Problem

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V



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$$\{1, 2, 5, 3\} \quad \{2, 4, 3, 1\}$$

$$\{1, 2\} \quad \{3, 2\} \quad \{1, 3\}$$

$\{2, 3\} \rightarrow$ minimization.

Approximation algorithm for Vertex Cover

Let $G = (V, E)$ be an APPROX-VERTEX-COVER instance

- 1) $C = \emptyset$ (initially covered set is empty)
- 2) $E' = E \cdot E$
- 3) while $E' \neq \emptyset$
- 4) let (u, v) be an arbitrary edge of E'
- 5) $C = C \cup \{u, v\}$
- 6) remove every edges incident on either u or v from E'
- 7) return C



Let M_A be the set of edges chosen by the algorithm and $|M_A| = 2$.

The minimum lower bound have only 2 end points

- Step 1: pick any edge $\{u, v\}$ from edges of Graph G
 2: Add both u & v in C
 3: delete u and v and all its incident edges
 from G
 ④ Repeat until any edges remain in G

The set C of vertices that is returned by APPROX-VERTEX-COVER is a vertex cover, since the algorithm loops until every edge in $G-E$ has been covered by some vertex in C .

Time complexity of vertex cover = $O(|V|+|E|)$, and so it is polynomial.

It remains to be shown that the solution is no more than twice the size of the optimal cover. We will do so by finding a lower bound on the optimal.

Solution C^*

- Let A be the set of edges chosen in line 4 of the algorithm APPROX-VERTEX-COVER algorithm.

- Any vertex covers must covers atleast one endpoint of every edge.

- No two edges in A share a vertex (algorithm) So in order to cover A , the optimal solution C^* must have atleast be atleast:

$$|A| \leq |C^*| \rightarrow \text{eq ①}$$

Since execution of line 4 of algorithm picks an edge for which neither endpoint is yet in C , and adds that two vertices to C , we know that relation eq ①

$$|C| = 2|A| \rightarrow \text{eq ②}$$

From eq 1 and eq 2
 $|C| \leq 2|C^*| \rightarrow$ approximation ratio by relating the size of the solution returned to lowerbound.
 That is, $|C|$ cannot be larger than twice the optimal, so approx APPROX-VERTEX-COVER is a polynomial time 2-approximation algorithm.

Schwartz-Zippel Lemma and Polynomial Identity Testing

Given a polynomial $P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

1. Fix a finite set, S

2. Choose n values, x_1, \dots, x_n , independently and uniformly at random from S .

3. Evaluate $P(x_1, \dots, x_n)$. If $P(x_1, \dots, x_n) = 0$ output "P=0". Otherwise return "P ≠ 0".

$$\text{ex: } P(x) = x^2 - 1$$

$n = 1$ (no. of variables)

$d = 2$ (degree)

$$\text{Probability } [P(1) = 0] \leq \frac{d}{|S|} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{6} \leq \frac{2}{6}$$

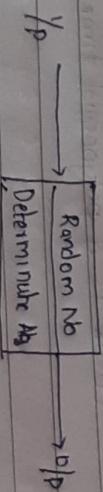
$$P(x) = x^4 - 1$$

$$n = 1 \quad d = 4$$

$$\text{Probability } [P(1) = 0] \leq \frac{d}{|S|} \Rightarrow \frac{4}{|S|} \text{ (lower bound)}$$

1 2 3 10 9 8
 ↑

- An algorithm that uses random numbers to decide what to do next anywhere in its logic is called Randomised algorithm.
- It is used to reduce time and space complexity.



In this algorithm output depends on - selection of IP random no.

Two types of randomized algorithms

① Las Vegas Algo

② Monte Carlo Algo

In Las Vegas, o/p is always correct answer

Eg: randomized Quicksort.

Randomized Quicksort

Best case time complexity of Quicksort = $O(n \log n)$

Worst case time complexity of Quicksort = $O(n^2)$.

Eg:

3 10 9 8 2 1 6 5 7 4 11 12

In the normal quicksort we have to select pivot as the last element in the list and after the

1st iteration the selected pivot get correct position and the value less than the pivot become the left side of pivot and vice versa.

The new quicksort called Randomized-partition in place of partition

The problem is one side becomes small and second side becomes big. It makes the running time of quicksort into worst-case condition. In order to avoid this condition we select pivot as random numbers in every iteration.

When partition is fair or median we will get best case $O(n \log n)$

If pivot is closer to the median of IP. There is a chance of achieving best case complexity.

Introducing randomness may achieve better result, so

(a) input can be shuffled

(b) choice of pivot can be done randomly everytime

Algorithm (Randomization algorithm)

Randomized-partition (A, P, i, r)

① $i = \text{Random}(P, r)$ // picking any random numbers

② Exchange $A[i]$ with $A[r]$ // returning partition(A, P, i, r)

③ Randomized-Quicksort (A, P, i, r)

④ $P[i] = \text{Random}(P, r)$

⑤ $i = \text{Randomized-partition}(A, P, i, r)$

⑥ Randomized-Quicksort (A, P, i, r)

Rounding algorithm

The process of converting fractional solution [0,1] to integers is called Rounding.

- 1. If the number is greater than or equal to 0.5 then round up.
- 2. If the number is less than 0.5 then round down.
- 3. If the number is equal to 0.5 then round up.

Example: Round off 0.875 to the nearest integer.
Solution: Since 0.875 is greater than 0.5, round up to 1.

Example: Round off 0.456 to the nearest integer.

Solution: Since 0.456 is less than 0.5, round down to 0.

Example: Round off 0.5 to the nearest integer.
Solution: Since 0.5 is equal to 0.5, round up to 1.

roundable approximation methods

(i) ceiling function

For a number x , ceiling function $\lceil x \rceil$ is defined as the smallest integer which is greater than or equal to x .

Example: ceiling of 3.7 is 4, ceiling of -3.7 is -3.

(ii) floor function

For a number x , floor function $\lfloor x \rfloor$ is defined as the largest integer which is less than or equal to x .

Example: floor of 3.7 is 3, floor of -3.7 is -4.