

NP-Completeness

1. Define P, NP, NP-Complete, NP-Hard complexity classes.

P (Polynomial Time):

The set of **decision problems** that can be **solved** by a deterministic Turing machine in **polynomial time**.

Informal: Problems that can be solved "quickly" (in time $O(n^k)$ for some constant (k)).

Example problems:

- Sorting, shortest path in a graph, minimum spanning tree.
- Determining if a number is prime (AKS primality test, 2002).

NP (Nondeterministic Polynomial Time):

The set of **decision problems** for which a given "yes" solution can be **verified** in **polynomial time** by a deterministic Turing machine, given a suitable certificate (proof).

Equivalently: Problems solvable by a **nondeterministic Turing machine** in polynomial time.

Key: Every problem in **P** is also in **NP**, because if you can solve it, you can certainly verify a solution quickly.

Open question: Is **P = NP**?

Example problems:

- Boolean satisfiability (SAT): Given a Boolean formula, is there an assignment of variables that makes it true?
- Hamiltonian path: Is there a path visiting each vertex exactly once?
- Graph coloring: Can the vertices be colored with (k) colors so no adjacent vertices share a color?

NP-Hard:

A problem is **NP-hard** if **every problem in NP** can be **reduced** to it in **polynomial time**.

- This means it is at least as hard as the hardest problems in NP.
- **NP-hard problems need not be in NP** themselves (can be harder, e.g., not decision problems, or requiring exponential verification).
- An NP-hard decision problem that is also in NP is called **NP-complete**.

Example NP-hard problems not necessarily in NP:

- Halting problem (undecidable, trivially NP-hard by some definitions, but classic reductions use decision problems in NP).
- Optimization versions of NP-complete problems: e.g., "Find the shortest traveling salesman tour" (not a yes/no question).

NP-Complete:

A problem is **NP-complete** if:

1. It is in **NP**.
2. It is **NP-hard**.

Thus, NP-complete problems are the **hardest problems in NP**.

If **any** NP-complete problem can be solved in polynomial time, then **P = NP**.

First NP-complete problem (Cook-Levin theorem, 1971):

Boolean satisfiability (SAT) is NP-complete.

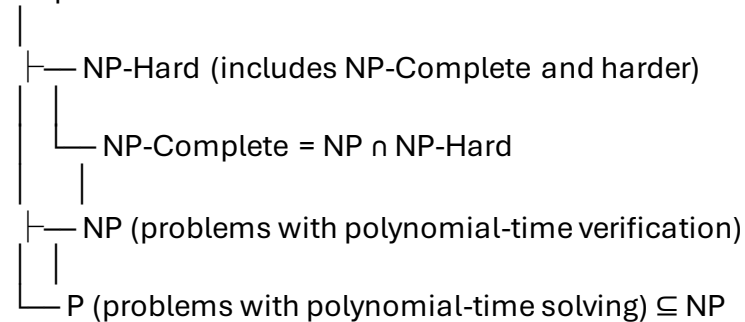
Other famous NP-complete problems:

- 3-SAT
- Traveling salesman (decision version: "Is there a tour of length $\leq k$?")
- Graph coloring
- Clique problem
- Vertex cover

Relationships (Visual Summary):

- $P \subseteq NP$ (likely $P \neq NP$, unproven).
- **NP-complete** = $NP \cap NP\text{-hard}$.
- **NP-hard** includes **NP-complete** and possibly harder problems (even outside NP).

All problems



Key implication:

If you find a polynomial-time algorithm for **any** NP-complete problem, then $P = NP$.

No such algorithm has been found despite decades of effort, so most experts believe $P \neq NP$.

02. Prove that 3SAT problem is NP-complete.

1. **3SAT is in NP**
2. **3SAT is NP-hard** (by reducing **SAT** to **3SAT** in polynomial time).

Step 1: 3SAT \in NP

A 3SAT instance is a Boolean formula in **conjunctive normal form (CNF)** where each clause has **exactly 3 literals**.

Example clause: $(x_1 \vee \neg x_2 \vee x_3)$.

Given:

- A 3CNF formula ϕ with n variables and m clauses.
- A certificate: an assignment of truth values to the variables.

Verification:

Check each clause of ϕ under the given assignment.

- Each clause has 3 literals \Rightarrow checking one clause takes $O(1)$ time.
- Checking all (m) clauses takes $O(m)$ time, polynomial in input size.

If all clauses are satisfied \Rightarrow output YES; else NO.

Thus, **3SAT \in NP**.

Step 2: 3SAT is NP-hard

We prove by showing $\text{SAT} \leq_p \text{3SAT}$ (SAT polynomial-time reduces to 3SAT).

SAT Problem:

Input: Boolean formula ϕ in CNF (clauses can have any number of literals).

Question: Is ϕ satisfiable?

Reduction idea:

Transform each clause C of ϕ into a set of **3-literal clauses** such that satisfiability is preserved.

Case analysis for clause C : Let $C = (\ell_1 \vee \ell_2 \vee \dots \vee \ell_k)$ with k literals.

Case 1: $k = 1$

Example: $C = (x)$.

Introduce **two new variables** a, b not used elsewhere.

Replace C with: $[(x \vee a \vee b) \wedge (x \vee a \vee \neg b) \wedge (x \vee \neg a \vee b) \wedge (x \vee \neg a \vee \neg b)]$

Check:

The only way to satisfy all 4 clauses is to set $x = \text{True}$ (since setting $x = \text{False}$ would require choosing a, b to satisfy all, impossible — try it).

Case 2: $k = 2$

Example: $C = (x \vee y)$.

Introduce **one new variable** z .

Replace C with: $[(x \vee y \vee z) \wedge (x \vee y \vee \neg z)]$

Check:

To satisfy both clauses, $(x \vee y)$ must be True (because if $x \vee y$ is False, both clauses are False regardless of z).

Case 3: $k = 3$

Example: $C = (x \vee y \vee z)$.

Already a 3-literal clause \Rightarrow keep unchanged.

Case 4: ($k \geq 4$)

Example: $C = (\ell_1 \vee \ell_2 \vee \dots \vee \ell_k)$.

Introduce $k-3$ **new variables** z_1, z_2, \dots, z_{k-3} .

$(\ell_1 \vee \ell_2 \vee z_1) \wedge (\neg z_1 \vee \ell_3 \vee z_2) \wedge (\neg z_2 \vee \ell_4 \vee z_3) \wedge \dots \wedge (\neg z_{k-4} \vee \ell_{k-2} \vee z_{k-3}) \wedge (\neg z_{k-3} \vee \ell_{k-1} \vee \ell_k)$

This is called the **standard reduction**.

Why it works:

- Suppose C is satisfied in original formula \Rightarrow some $\ell_j = \text{True}$.

Set $z_1, \dots, z_{t-1} = \text{True}$ for clauses before ℓ_j , and $z_t, \dots = \text{False}$ for clauses
Then all new clauses are satisfied.

- Conversely, suppose all new clauses are satisfied.

If z_1 is False \Rightarrow first clause forces $\ell_1 \vee \ell_2 = \text{True}$.

If z_1 is True, look at second clause: if z_2 is False $\Rightarrow \ell_3 = \text{True}$, else continue.

Eventually, if all z 's are True, last clause forces $\ell_{k-1} \vee \ell_k = \text{True}$.

So at least one original literal in C is True.

Polynomial time:

Each clause of length k becomes at most $k-2$ new 3-literal clauses.

Total new clauses $\leq \sum (k_i - 2) \leq O(\text{length of original formula})$.

New variables are per clause, easily managed.

Transformation done in **linear time** per clause \Rightarrow polynomial overall.

Conclusion

1. **3SAT \in NP** (easy verification).
2. **SAT \leq_p 3SAT** (by above reduction).
3. **SAT is NP-complete** (Cook–Levin theorem).
4. Therefore, **3SAT is NP-hard** (because any NP problem reduces to SAT, SAT reduces to 3SAT, so any NP problem reduces to 3SAT by composition).
5. Since 3SAT is in NP and is NP-hard \Rightarrow **3SAT is NP-complete**.

SAT is NP-complete

03. Given two problems Π_1, Π_2 with $\Pi_1 \leq_p \Pi_2$, and Π_2 solvable in $O(n^k)$ with reduction in $O(n)$, show Π_1 solvable in $O(n^k)$. (Polynomial-time reduction complexity.)

1. Understanding the problem setup

We have: $\Pi_1 \leq_p \Pi_2$

- This means: there is a polynomial-time reduction from Π_1 to Π_2 , i.e., There exists a polynomial-time computable function (f) such that:

$$x \in \Pi_1 \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in \Pi_2$$

for all input x .

- The reduction runs in **$O(n)$** time (where $n = |x|$).
- Π_2 is solvable in **$O(m^k)$** time (where m is the input size for Π_2).

We want to show Π_1 is solvable in **$O(n^k)$** time.

2. Step-by-step solution

Let's formalize:

1. Let x be an input to Π_1 , with size $n = |x|$.
2. Since $\Pi_1 \leq_p \Pi_2$ in $O(n)$ time, we can compute $f(x)$ in $O(n)$ time.

Let $m = |f(x)| =$ size of the instance of Π_2 .

Since the reduction runs in $O(n)$ time, the output $f(x)$ can be at most **$O(n)$ size** (because in $O(n)$ steps, you can write at most $O(n)$ symbols, assuming a reasonable encoding model).

More formally: in polynomial-time reductions, the output size is bounded by a polynomial in (n) . Here it's linear time, so $m \leq cn$ for some constant c .

3. Therefore $m = O(n)$.
4. Now we solve Π_2 on input $f(x)$. This takes $O(m^k)$ time.
5. Since $m = O(n)$, $O(m^k) = O((cn)^k) = O(n^k)$.

3. Total time for Π_1

- Reduction time: $O(n)$
- Solving Π_2 time: $O(n^k)$

Total: $O(n) + O(n^k) = O(n^k)$ (since $k \geq 1$ for polynomial time).

Therefore Π_1 is solvable in $O(n^k)$ time.

04. Decide truth of: if $\Pi \in \text{NP}$ and $\Pi \leq_p \Pi'$ where Π' is NP-complete, then Π is NP-complete.

The statement is NOT always true.

It is not sufficient for a problem Π to be in NP and reducible to an NP-complete problem to conclude that Π is NP-complete.

Why?

To prove a problem Π is NP-complete, we need:

$$\Pi \in \text{NP}$$

Every NP problem reduces to Π (i.e., an NP-hardness proof)

But the given condition only provides:

$\Pi \in \text{NP}$ and $\Pi \leq_p \Pi'$, where Π' is NP-complete.

Counterexample

Take an easy problem, like:

Π = "Is the input string length even?"

This is solvable in linear time \rightarrow so $\Pi \in \text{P} \subseteq \text{NP}$.

We can reduce it to SAT (NP-complete) trivially:

Output a fixed satisfiable formula for even-length inputs and an unsatisfiable one for odd inputs.

$$\text{So: } \Pi \leq_p \text{SAT}$$

BUT Π is not NP-hard and definitely not NP-complete.

Correct Direction

The reverse direction is the one used to prove NP-completeness:

$$\Pi' \leq_p \Pi \text{ (where } \Pi' \text{ is NP-complete)}$$

This means Π is at least as hard as an NP-complete problem.

 Final Verdict

False.

From $\Pi \in \text{NP}$ and $\Pi \leq_p \Pi'$ where Π' is NP-complete, we cannot conclude Π is NP-complete.

We must instead show $\Pi' \leq_p \Pi$.

04. Show that if $L1 \leq_p L2$ and $L2 \leq_p L3$, then $L1 \leq_p L3$.

Proof of transitivity of polynomial-time reductions

We want to show:

$L1 \leq_p L2$ and $L2 \leq_p L3$, then $L1 \leq_p L3$.

Step 1: Understanding the definition of \leq_p

$A \leq_p B$ means:

There exists a **polynomial-time computable** function f such that:

$$x \in A \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in B$$

for all inputs x .

Step 2: What is given

1. $L1 \leq_p L2 \Rightarrow \exists$ function f computable in polynomial time,
2. such that $x \in L1 \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in L2$.
3. $L2 \leq_p L3 \Rightarrow \exists$ function g computable in polynomial time, such that $y \in L2 \Leftrightarrow g(y) \in L3$.

We need to construct a polynomial-time computable function h such that $x \in L1 \Leftrightarrow h(x) \in L3$.

Step 3: Construct the reduction from $L1$ to $L3$

Define $h(x) = g(f(x))$.

- **Correctness:**

$$\begin{aligned} x \in L1 &\Leftrightarrow f(x) \in L2 \text{ (by reduction } L1 \leq_p L2 \text{)} \\ &\Leftrightarrow g(f(x)) \in L3 \text{ (by reduction } L2 \leq_p L3 \text{)} \end{aligned}$$

Thus $x \in L1 \Leftrightarrow h(x) \in L3$.

Step 4: Show h is polynomial-time computable

We have:

1. Computation of $f(x)$ takes time $p1(|x|)$ for some polynomial $p1$.

Let $m = |f(x)|$. Because f runs in polynomial time, the output size m is bounded by a polynomial in $|x|$, say $m \leq q(|x|)$ for some polynomial q .

2. Computation of g on input of size m takes time $p2(m)$ for some polynomial $p2$.

Therefore, total time for $h(x) = g(f(x))$:

- Step 1: compute $f(x)$ in time $p1(|x|)$, producing output of size $m \leq q(|x|)$.
- Step 2: compute g on input of size m in time $p2(m) \leq p2(q(|x|))$.

Total time $\leq p1(|x|) + p2(q(|x|))$, which is polynomial in $|x|$, because the sum/composition of polynomials is a polynomial.

Step 5: Conclusion

We have constructed a polynomial-time computable function h satisfying $x \in L1 \Leftrightarrow h(x) \in L3$, so $L1 \leq_p L3$.

Transitivity holds.

This transitivity property is crucial for building the “reduction chain” in NP-completeness proofs, allowing us to conclude that if $A \leq_p B$ and B is NP-hard, then A is NP-hard.

05. Two problems $P1, P2$ are polynomial-time equivalent if $P1 \leq_p P2$ and $P2 \leq_p P1$; prove/disprove that every two NP-Complete problems are polynomial-time equivalent.

Claim: Every two NP-complete problems are polynomial-time equivalent.

Step 1: Understanding the statement

Polynomial-time equivalence means:

For two problems $P1, P2$, we say $P1 \equiv_p P2$ if:

$$P1 \leq_p P2 \text{ and } P2 \leq_p P1$$

is polynomial-time reduction.

Step 2: What does NP-complete mean?

- A problem P is **NP-complete** if:
 - $P \in \text{NP}$
 - P is **NP-hard**: For every problem $Q \in \text{NP}$, $Q \leq_p P$.

Step 3: Take two arbitrary NP-complete problems P_1 and P_2

We must check if $P_1 \leq_p P_2$ and $P_2 \leq_p P_1$ both hold.

Since P_1 is NP-complete, it is NP-hard \Rightarrow every problem in NP reduces to P_1 .

In particular, $P_2 \in \text{NP}$ (because $\text{NP-complete} \subseteq \text{NP}$), so:

$$P_2 \leq_p P_1$$

Since P_2 is NP-complete, it is NP-hard \Rightarrow every problem in NP reduces to P_2 .

Since $P_1 \in \text{NP}$:

$$P_1 \leq_p P_2$$

Thus:

$$P_1 \leq_p P_2 \text{ and } P_2 \leq_p P_1$$

Therefore $P_1 \equiv_p P_2$ by definition.

Step 4: Conclusion

The statement is **true**. All NP-complete problems are polynomial-time equivalent.

True

06. Define 3SAT and Vertex Cover decision problem.

3SAT (3-Satisfiability) Decision Problem

Instance:

A Boolean formula F in **3-Conjunctive Normal Form (3-CNF)**, meaning:

$$F = C_1 \wedge C_2 \wedge \dots \wedge C_m$$

where each clause C_i contains **exactly three literals**, and each literal is either a variable x_j or its negation $\neg x_j$

Question:

Does there exist a truth assignment to the variables such that the whole formula evaluates to **TRUE**?

Vertex Cover (VC) Decision Problem

Instance:

An undirected graph $G = (V, E)$ and a positive integer k .

Question:

Does there exist a subset $C \subseteq V$ with $|C| \leq k$ such that **every edge in E has at least one endpoint in C** ?

That is, C "covers" all edges.

✓ Both are decision problems.

✓ 3SAT is NP-complete.

✓ Vertex Cover is NP-complete.