

# **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.

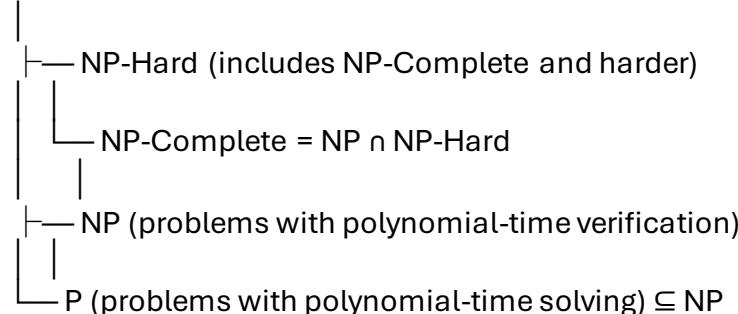
#### Other famous NP-complete problems:

- 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 ∈ 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  $\phi$  with  $n$  variables and  $m$  clauses.
- A certificate: an assignment of truth values to the variables.

#### Verification:

Check each clause of  $\phi$  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 ∈ 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  $\phi$  in CNF (clauses can have any number of literals).

Question: Is  $\phi$  satisfiable?

### Reduction idea:

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

**Case analysis for clause C:** Let  $C = (l_1 \vee l_2 \vee \dots \vee l_k)$  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  $\ell_j$ , 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  $\Pi_1, \Pi_2$  with  $\Pi_1 \leq_p \Pi_2 \Pi_1$ , and  $\Pi_2$  solvable in  $O(n^k)$  with reduction in  $O(n)$ , show  $\Pi_1$  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  $\Pi_1$  to  $\Pi_2$ , 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  $n = |x|$ ).
- $\Pi_2$  is solvable in  **$O(m^k)$**  time (where  $m$  is the input size for  $\Pi_2$  ).

We want to show  $\Pi_1$  is solvable in  **$O(n^k)$**  time.

### 2. Step-by-step solution

Let's formalize:

1. Let  $x$  be an input to  $\Pi_1$ , 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  $\Pi_2$ .

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  $\Pi_2$  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 $\Pi_1$

- Reduction time:  $O(n)$
- Solving  $\Pi_2$  time:  $O(n^k)$

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

Therefore  $\Pi_1$  is solvable in  $O(n^k)$  time.

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

The statement is NOT always true.

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

Why?

To prove a problem  $\Pi$  is NP-complete, we need:

$$\Pi \in NP$$

Every NP problem reduces to  $\Pi$  (i.e., an NP-hardness proof)

But the given condition only provides:

$\Pi \in NP$  and  $\Pi \leq_p \Pi'$ , where  $\Pi'$  is NP-complete.

Counterexample

Take an easy problem, like:

$\Pi = \text{"Is the input string length even?"}$

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

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.

So:  $\Pi \leq_p SAT$

BUT  $\Pi$  is not NP-hard and definitely not NP-complete.

Correct Direction

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

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

This means  $\Pi$  is at least as hard as an NP-complete problem.

 Final Verdict

False.

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

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

## 04. Show that if $L_1 \leq_p L_2$ and $L_2 \leq_p L_3$ , then $L_1 \leq_p L_3$ .

### Proof of transitivity of polynomial-time reductions

We want to show:

$L_1 \leq_p L_2$  and  $L_2 \leq_p L_3$ , then  $L_1 \leq_p L_3$ .

### 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.  $L_1 \leq_p L_2 \Rightarrow \exists$  function  $f$  computable in polynomial time,
2. such that  $x \in L_1 \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in L_2$ .
3.  $L_2 \leq_p L_3 \Rightarrow \exists$  function  $g$  computable in polynomial time,  
such that  $y \in L_2 \Leftrightarrow g(y) \in L_3$ .

We need to construct a polynomial-time computable function  $h$  such that  
 $x \in L_1 \Leftrightarrow h(x) \in L_3$ .

### **Step 3: Construct the reduction from $L_1$ to $L_3$**

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

- **Correctness:**

$$\begin{aligned}x \in L_1 &\Leftrightarrow f(x) \in L_2 \text{ (by reduction } L_1 \leq_p L_2 \text{ )} \\&\Leftrightarrow g(f(x)) \in L_3 \text{ (by reduction } L_2 \leq_p L_3 \text{ )}\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $x \in L_1 \Leftrightarrow h(x) \in L_3$ .

### **Step 4: Show $h$ is polynomial-time computable**

We have:

1. Computation of  $f(x)$  takes time  $p_1(|x|)$  for some polynomial  $p_1$ .

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  $p_2(m)$  for some polynomial  $p_2$ .

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

- Step 1: compute  $f(x)$  in time  $p_1(|x|)$ , producing output of size  $m \leq q(|x|)$ .
- Step 2: compute  $g$  on input of size  $m$  in time  $p_2(m) \leq p_2(q(|x|))$ .

Total time  $\leq p_1(|x|) + p_2(q(|x|))$ , 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  
 $x \in L_1 \Leftrightarrow h(x) \in L_3$ , so  $L_1 \leq_p L_3 \leq_p L_3$ .

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 $P_1, P_2$ are polynomial-time equivalent if $P_1 \leq_p P_2$ and $P_2 \leq_p P_1$ ; 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  $P_1, P_2$ , we say  $P_1 \equiv_p P_2$  if:

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

is polynomial-time reduction.

## Step 2: What does NP-complete mean?

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

## Step 3: Take two arbitrary NP-complete problems P1 and P2

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

**Since P1 is NP-complete, it is NP-hard**  $\Rightarrow$  every problem in NP reduces to P1.

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

$$P_2 \leq_p P_1$$

**Since P2 is NP-complete, it is NP-hard**  $\Rightarrow$  every problem in NP reduces to P2 .

Since  $P_1 \in NP$ :

$$P_1 \leq_p P$$

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.