Analysis of the deterministic polynomial time solvability of the 0-1-Knapsack problem.

JERRALD MEEK

Previously the author has demonstrated that a representative polynomial search partition is required to solve a NP-complete problem in deterministic polynomial time. It has also been demonstrated that finding such a partition can only be done in deterministic polynomial time if the form of the problem provides a simple method for producing the partition.

It is the purpose of this article to demonstrate that no deterministic polynomial time method exists to produce a representative polynomial search partition for the Knapsack problem.

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1. INTRODUCTION.

In the article P is a proper subset of NP [Meek Article 1 2008] the present author proved that a NP-complete problem could only be solved in deterministic polynomial time if a representative polynomial search partition can be found in polynomial time. In that same article it has also been demonstrated that finding such a partition by exhaustion requires exponential time on a deterministic machine.

It is then clear that any deterministic polynomial time algorithm for a NP-complete problem requires one of the following:

1. The existence of a method for finding the solution, or a representative polynomial search partition, in deterministic polynomial time by means of examining the form of the problem.
2. The existence of a deterministic polynomial time solution for the SAT problem which can translate into a fast solution for all NP-Complete problems.

These two options are derived from the fact that they are the only ways to avoid an impossible situation which will be reviewed shortly.

The author’s previous conclusion that P ≠ NP was dependant upon the assertion that NP-complete problems have no direct means of generating either a solution or a representative polynomial search partition. The grounds for this conjecture was briefly examined, but not proven conclusively. The intent of this work is to demonstrate in detail that no deterministic polynomial time solution to the 0-1-Knapsack problem exists, if this is representative of all NP-complete problems, then P is a proper subset of NP.
2. PRELIMINARIES.

Previously the author has proven the following theorems which will be assumed correct in this article.

**Theorem 4.4 from** *P is a proper subset of NP.* [Meek Article 1 2008] 2.1.

**P = NP Optimization Theorem.**

The only deterministic optimization of a NP-complete problem that could prove $P = NP$ would be one that can always solve a NP-complete problem by examining no more than a polynomial number of input sets for that problem.

**Theorem 5.1 from** *P is a proper subset of NP.* [Meek Article 1 2008] 2.2.

**P = NP Partition Theorem.**

The only deterministic search optimization of a NP-complete problem that could prove $P = NP$ would be one that can always find a representative polynomial search partition by examining no more than a polynomial number of input sets from the set of all possible input sets.

The definition of the 0-1-Knapsack problem used in this article will be based off of that used by Horowitz and Sahni [Horowitz and Sahni 1974].

—Let $S$ be a set of real numbers with no two identical elements.
—Let $r$ be the number of elements in $S$.
—Let $\delta$ be a set with $r$ elements such that
\[ \delta_i \in \{0, 1\} \quad 1 \leq i \leq r \]
—Let $M$ be a real number.

Then
\[ \sum_{i=1}^{r} \delta_i S_i = M \]

Find a variation of $\delta$ that causes the expression to evaluate true.

3. THE PROCESS OF FINDING A REPRESENTATIVE POLYNOMIAL SEARCH PARTITION.

In *P is a proper subset of NP* [Meek Article 1 2008] it has been demonstrated that if all subsets of the problem set $S$ which contain a specific element of $S$ can be eliminated, then the set of input sets that must be examined may be reduced by an exponential amount, however this representative search partition will still be exponential in size. It has also been determined that if all sets that contain some combination, i.e. all subsets of $S$ that contain both $S_1$ and $S_2$, are eliminated then this will also produce an exponential-sized representative search partition.

3.1 Elimination versus direct search.

The process of finding a representative polynomial search partition by elimination is assumed to be equivalent to a direct search for the partition.

—Let $2^r$ represent the cardinality of the set of all possible variations of $\delta$. 

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Let $r^k$ represent the cardinality of a representative polynomial search partition, where $k$ is a constant exponent.

**Proof.** If a representative polynomial search partition is to be found, then the number of elements eliminated can be represented by

$$2^r - r^k$$

This can be verified by evaluating

$$r^k = 2^r - (2^r - r^k)$$

It is likely to be the case that the easiest way of finding all elements that are not part of a representative polynomial search partition is by first finding the representative polynomial search partition and then identifying all elements of the superset that are not part of the representative polynomial search partition.

—Let $S$ be the set of all possible inputs for a *NP-Complete* problem.
—Let $P(S)$ be a representative polynomial search partition of $S$.
—$\overline{P}(S) = \neg P(S)$; all elements of $S$ not in $P(S)$.
—Let $A(S)$ be an algorithm which identifies $P(S)$.
—Let $\overline{A}(S)$ be an algorithm which identifies $\overline{P}(S)$.

Then by definition,

$$A(S) \Rightarrow P(S)$$

$$\overline{A}(S) \Rightarrow \overline{P}(S)$$

Is it true that

$$A(S) \equiv \neg \overline{A}(S)$$

$$A(S) \equiv \neg \overline{A}(S)$$

$$P(S) \equiv \neg \overline{P}(S)$$

$$P(S) \equiv \neg (\neg P(S))$$

$$P(S) \equiv P(S)$$

It is then the case that if $A(S)$ is found, then $\overline{A}(S)$ can be found by the relation that $A(S) = \neg \overline{A}(S)$. Also, if $\overline{A}(S)$ is found, then $A(S)$ can be found by the same relation. It then follows that if it is provable that either $A(S)$ or $\overline{A}(S)$ does not exist, then both $A(S)$ and $\overline{A}(S)$ do not exist. \(\square\)

3.2 The difficulty of ensuring that a polynomial search partition is representative.

In *P is a proper subset of NP* [Meek Article 1 2008] the requirements of a representative polynomial search partition are described. A polynomial search partition will only be useful for solving a problem if the search partition is representative of the problem. That is, a representative polynomial search partition has the qualities:

1. It must be polynomial in size to allow a polynomial time solution without violating the *P = NP Optimization Theorem*. 

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(2) It must contain at least one input set that will result in the problem evaluating *true* if such a set exists.

(3) If a representative polynomial search partition is to be used in an algorithm that solves a *NP-complete* problem in deterministic polynomial time, then it must be possible to find the representative polynomial search partition in polynomial time on a Deterministic Turing Machine.

If the first requirement were the only qualification of a representative polynomial search partition, then there would be no difficulty in proving $P = NP$. It is the second and third requirements that create the true complexity of the problem.

Notice that the union of requirement 1 and requirement 2 implies that the representative polynomial search partition not only must contain at least one input that results in a *true* evaluation, but the algorithm for finding the partition must not require that all input sets that result in a *true* evaluation be a part of the search partition. This is due to the fact that sometimes the number of input sets that evaluate *true* may exceed the size of the representative polynomial search partition.

### 3.3 Identifying a representative polynomial search partition in deterministic polynomial time.

The *P = NP Search Partition Theorem* [Meek Article 1 2008] stipulates that a representative polynomial search partition can not be found in deterministic polynomial time by examining all elements of the set of all possible input sets. Doing so would require an exponential amount of time on a Deterministic Turing Machine.

There is then a conundrum created by the fact that a deterministic polynomial time algorithm for finding a representative polynomial search partition requires that a representative polynomial search partition must first be found.

**Proof.** Assume:

— Let $S$ be the set of all possible inputs for a SAT problem.
— Let $O(x)$ be a search algorithm which identifies an input set for a SAT problem, from the set $x$ of possible input sets for the problem, which results in that problem being a tautology.
— Let $P(x)$ be a search algorithm which identifies a representative polynomial search partition for a SAT problem, from the set $x$ of possible input sets for the problem.

Then

— $|S|$ is exponential.
— $O(S)$ must run in exponential time as required by the *P = NP Optimization Theorem*.
— $O(x)$ may run in polynomial time if the set $x$ is polynomial in size.
— $P(S)$ must run in exponential time as required by the *P = NP Search Partition Theorem*.
— $P(x)$ may run in polynomial time if the set $x$ is polynomial in size.

Therefore

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— $O(P(S)) \Rightarrow O(x)$ runs in polynomial time, and $P(S)$ runs in exponential time. Therefore $O(P(S))$ runs in exponential time.

— $O(P(P(S))) \Rightarrow O(x)$ runs in polynomial time, and $P(x)$ runs in polynomial time, and $P(S)$ runs in exponential time. Therefore $O(P(P(S)))$ runs in exponential time.

As can be seen, in order to search for a representative polynomial search partition in polynomial time, there must already exist a representative polynomial search partition. □

Because this situation can never be satisfied, it follows that the problem of the $P = NP$ Search Partition Theorem must be avoided entirely by any algorithm that solves a $NP$-complete problem in deterministic polynomial time.

It should then be clear that any deterministic polynomial time algorithm for a $NP$-complete problem must produce a representative polynomial search partition in deterministic polynomial time by generating the elements of the partition from an examination of the original problem. If there is no way to directly generate a representative polynomial search partition from the problem in deterministic polynomial time, then there is no deterministic polynomial time solution to the problem; unless SAT is found to have a deterministic polynomial time solution.

4. POSSIBLE METHODS FOR AVOIDING THE $P = NP$ PARTITION THEOREM TRAP.

Prior to examining any possibilities of a polynomial time algorithm for the 0-1-Knapsack problem, issues related to avoiding the conundrum of the $P = NP$ Partition Theorem will first be examined.

The $P = NP$ Partition Theorem removes any hope that there exists some search trick that allows a deterministic polynomial time solution for any $NP$-complete problem. It is clear that if any method does exist for a deterministic polynomial time solution for the 0-1-Knapsack problem, then it must exist within the relationship between the elements of $S$ and the value of $M$; or by finding a solution to SAT.

Fortunately there are a finite number of relationships between the set $S$ and the value $M$.

(1) A predictable relationship may exist between the elements of $S$ which may be compared to $M$.

(2) $M$ may possess some quality that can be compared against $S$.

(3) The elements of $S$ may possess some quality that can be compared against $M$.

5. PREDICTABLE RELATIONS BETWEEN THE ELEMENTS OF $S$.

In this section the relations between the elements of the set $S$ and their effect on the solvability of the 0-1-Knapsack problem will be examined.

5.1 A 0-1-Knapsack problem with a predictable relationship between the elements of $S$.

— Let $S = \{1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, 64\}$

— Let $M = 103$
PROOF. For this problem, the solution is no more difficult than converting a base 10 number to a base 2 number.

— 64 is less than 103, therefore 64 is a member of the solution set.
— 64 + 32 = 96 which is less than 103, therefore 32 is a member of the solution set.
— 96 + 16 = 112 which is greater than 103, therefore 16 is not a member of the solution set.
— 96 + 8 = 104 which is greater than 103, therefore 8 is not a member of the solution set.
— 96 + 4 = 100 which is less than 103, therefore 4 is a member of the solution set.
— 100 + 2 = 102 which is less than 103, therefore 2 is a member of the solution set.
— 102 + 1 = 103 which is equal to 103, therefore 1 is a member of the solution set.

A solution set was found that equals $M$.

\[ 1 + 2 + 4 + 32 + 64 = 103 \]

Given this example, it should be acceptable without further proof that the 0-1-Knapsack problem may have a polynomial time solution when there is a predictable relation between the elements of $S$. \[ \square \]

In article 4 [Meek Article 4 2008], the preceding problem will be examined further. Including a formal proof that base conversion is NP-Complete.

5.2 A 0-1-Knapsack problem without a predictable relationship between the elements of $S$.

Although it may be possible to solve the 0-1-Knapsack problem in deterministic polynomial time when there is a known relation between the elements of $S$, this will not always hold when the elements of $S$ have a random relation.

—Let $S$ be a set of randomly selected real numbers.
—Let $M$ be a real number.

PROOF. If for example $S = \{3, 10, 14, 21, 23, 26, 32\}$ and $M = 103$. Then the previous algorithm would run as follows.

— 32 is less than 103, therefore 32 is a member of the solution set.
— 32 + 26 = 58 which is less than 103, therefore 26 is a member of the solution set.
— 58 + 23 = 81 which is less than 103, therefore 23 is a member of the solution set.
— 81 + 21 = 102 which is less than 103, therefore 21 is a member of the solution set.
— 102 + 14 = 116 which is greater than 103, therefore 14 is not a member of the solution set.

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— 102 + 10 = 112 which is greater than 103, therefore 10 is not a member of the solution set.
— 102 + 3 = 105 which is greater than 103, therefore 3 is not a member of the solution set.

No solution set was found, therefore none exists.

The conclusion from this algorithm is incorrect.

\[3 + 10 + 14 + 21 + 23 + 32 = 103\]

It has been demonstrated that a deterministic polynomial time algorithm may exist for the 0-1-Knapsack problem when the elements of \(S\) are restricted to always possess some predictable relation. However, if the relation between the elements of \(S\) is random, then by the very nature of a random relation it is not predictable. It is then the case that any algorithm that relies on a predictable relation between the elements of \(S\) will not work for all instances of the Knapsack problem.

**Theorem 5.1. Knapsack Random Set Theorem.**

*Deterministic Turing Machines cannot exploit a random relation between the elements of \(S\) to produce a polynomial time solution to the Knapsack problem.*

6. **QUALITIES OF \(M\).**

In this section qualities of \(M\) and their effect on the solvability of the 0-1-Knapsack problem will be examined.

6.1 A quality of \(M\) that can be compared to \(S\).

If a set of numbers sums to some number \(M\), then that set is said to be a composition of \(M\). Essentially the 0-1-Knapsack problem is the problem of finding a composition of \(M\) within the set \(S\). The most obvious quality of \(M\) that can be compared to \(S\) is the compositions of \(M\).

If \(M\) and the elements of \(S\) can be any real number, then \(S\) must be compared to the real compositions of \(M\). The set of real compositions of \(M\) is infinite.

**Proof.** For example, if \(M = 5\) then:

\[5 = 1 + 4, \text{ or } 5 = 1.1 + 3.9, \text{ or } 5 = 1.2 + 3.8\]

There are an infinite number of real numbers between 1 and 2 and an infinite number of real numbers between \(M - 2\) and \(M - 1\). Therefore, the number of real compositions of \(M\) which contain only two elements such that each element exists in the ranges 1 to 2 or \(M - 2\) to \(M - 1\) is infinite. It is therefore easy to see that the number of real compositions of \(M\) is also infinite; comparing them to the elements of \(S\) would require infinite time.

If \(M\) and the elements of \(S\) are restricted to integers, then \(S\) must be compared to the integer compositions of \(M\). The set of integer compositions of \(M\) is infinite.

**Proof.** Again let \(M = 5\), then:

\[5 = 6 + (-1), \text{ or } 5 = 7 + (-2), \text{ or } 5 = 8 + (-3)\]
There are an infinite number of negative integers. For each negative integer there exists a positive integer such that the sum of the negative and the positive integer equals \( M \). Therefore, the number of integer compositions of \( M \) which contain only two elements is infinite. It is then easy to see that the number of integer compositions of \( M \) is also infinite; comparing them to the elements of \( S \) would require infinite time.

If \( M \) and the elements of \( S \) are further restricted to whole numbers, then \( S \) must be compared to the whole number compositions of \( M \), which are finite. With the absence of negative numbers, any element of \( S \) greater than \( M \) will not be an element of any whole number composition of \( M \).

The problem of determining if a set is a subset of another set can be solved in deterministic polynomial time. Therefore, when \( M \) and the elements of \( S \) are restricted to whole numbers and all whole number compositions of \( M \) are known, then the 0-1-Knapsack problem could be solved in deterministic polynomial time.

This method will work only under two conditions. One being that the number of compositions of \( M \) must be polynomial relative to the cardinality of \( S \) and the other is that the whole number compositions of \( M \) can be found in deterministic polynomial time. However, both of these conditions are false. The number of whole compositions of \( M \) can be represented as \( 2^{M-1} \), and grows exponentially as \( M \) increases. Also, the problem of finding all compositions of \( M \) is the same thing as finding all input sets that evaluate true for a 0-1-Knapsack problem where \( S \) contains all whole numbers less than or equal to \( M \).

**Proof.** Notice that if \( M \) is a small number, for example 5, then

\[
\Sigma = \{1, 1, 1, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}
\]

the problem of finding the compositions of \( M \) is the problem of finding all variations of \( \Delta \) that result in a true evaluation of the problem

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{2|\Sigma|} \Delta_i \Sigma_i = 5
\]

Computations Required: \( 10(2^{10}) = 10,240 \)

Compositions Found: \( 2^{5-1} = 16 \)

The process of finding all solution sets to this problem and determining if any are subsets of \( S \) may be faster than solving the problem by standard means when there are several elements of \( S \), and \( M \) is small.

Notice that this optimization may not work when \( M \) is large. If \( M = 45,182 \), and the set \( S \) only contains 15 elements, then obviously the original problem will be easier to solve than the problem of finding the compositions of \( M \).

It has been demonstrated that examining compositions of \( M \) can only work when \( M \) and the elements of \( S \) are restricted to whole numbers. Furthermore, this method does not always produce a faster means of solving the 0-1-Knapsack problem.

**Theorem 6.1. Knapsack Composition Theorem.**

Compositions of \( M \) cannot be relied upon to always produce a deterministic polynomial time solution to the 0-1-Knapsack problem.

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6.2 Other qualities of $M$ that can be compared to $S$.

It is possible for other qualities of $M$ to be found that could be compared to $S$. However, $S$ is a set of numbers that represent elements of possible compositions of $M$. Also, the subset that is being looked for is a composition of $M$. It is then the case that any quality of $M$ that can be compared to $S$ must ultimately produce a composition of $M$.

Furthermore, qualities of $M$ are not related to $S$. If $M$ remains constant and $S$ changes then $M$ retains all qualities previously held by $M$. It is then obvious that if a quality of $M$ can be used to find a composition of $M$ that is in $S$, then that quality must be capable of generating any composition of $M$.

**Theorem 6.2. Knapsack $M$ Quality Reduction Theorem.**

Any quality of $M$ that could be used to find a composition of $M$ within $S$ would be equivalent to finding all compositions of $M$.

7. QUALITIES OF THE ELEMENTS OF $S$ THAT CAN BE COMPARED TO $M$.

The most obvious quality of the elements of $S$ that can be compared to $M$ is that $S$ may or may not contain a composition of $M$. In fact, determining this quality is exactly what the 0-1-Knapsack problem is.

Another quality of the elements of $S$ could exist within a predictable relation between the elements of $S$; however this relation has already been examined.

Any quality of the elements of $S$ not equivalent to the previous two suffers form the problem that if $S$ remains constant and $M$ is changed, then the quality of $S$ will remain unchanged and may no longer apply to $M$. It is then the case that any quality of the elements of $S$ that identifies a representative polynomial search partition must be applicable to all possible values of $M$. The existence of such a quality is absurd.

Let $S = \{1, 16, 43, 102\}$

**Proof.** All subsets of $S$ are

| Table I. Subsets of $S$ |
|-------------------------|
| $\emptyset$            | $\{1\}$ | $\{16\}$ | $\{43\}$ | $\{102\}$ |
| $\{1, 16\}$            | $\{1, 43\}$ | $\{1, 102\}$ | $\{16, 43\}$ | $\{16, 102\}$ | $\{43, 102\}$ |
| $\{1, 16, 43\}$        | $\{1, 16, 102\}$ | $\{1, 43, 102\}$ | $\{16, 43, 102\}$ |
| $\{1, 16, 43, 102\}$   |                     |                     |                     |

The summations of these sets are

| Table II. Sums of subsets of $S$ |
|-------------------------------|
| $0$ | $1$ | $16$ | $43$ | $102$ | $17$ | $44$ | $103$ | $59$ | $118$ | $145$ | $45$ | $119$ | $146$ | $161$ | $162$ |
Notice that in this example no two subsets of \( S \) sum to the same number. It is then the case that a quality of \( S \) must be able to produce any one of an exponential number of possible values for \( M \). This results in a search problem over an exponential set. \( \Box \)

**Theorem 7.1. Knapsack Set Quality Theorem.**

Using any quality of the elements of \( S \) to solve the 0-1-Knapsack problem will be no less complex than the standard means of solving the 0-1-Knapsack problem.

8. **THE BACKPACKER’S CARD GAME.**

Up to this point, various methods have been examined which are representative of all possible methods for optimizing the 0-1-Knapsack problem from relations between the set \( S \) and the value of \( M \). Some of these methods do produce optimizations under limited conditions, but none produce optimizations under all conditions.

Because special conditions exist where the 0-1-Knapsack problem can be solved in deterministic polynomial time; it is necessary to prove that a problem exists where none of these special conditions are present.

In this section we examine the results of a polynomial algorithm for a FNP problem. For this analysis, a problem will be introduced which is related to the 0-1-Knapsack problem.

The *Backpacker’s Card Game* problem involves one or more decks of cards with 52 cards in a deck, and two 6 sided dice. The cards will each be assigned a numeric value derived from rolling the dice. The first card will have a value from 2 to 12, the second card will have a value equal to that of the first card plus a random value from 2 to 12. This method will be continued until all cards have an assigned value.

—Let \( S \) be the set of all numeric values represented by the cards in the deck.
—Let \( r \) be the number of elements in \( S \).
—Let \( \delta \) be a set with \( r \) elements such that

\[
\delta \in \{0, 1\} \quad 1 \leq i \leq r
\]

—Variations of \( \delta \) are restricted to those having exactly 5 elements equal to 1.
—Let \( M \) be the sum of the values of 5 cards that are drawn from the deck at random.

**Proof.** Given the value of \( M \) and the values of all cards, find in deterministic polynomial time any set of cards that sum to \( M \). The problem can then be represented by the expression

\[
\sum_{i=1}^{r} \delta_i S_i = M
\]

Find one variation of \( \delta \) that causes this expression to evaluate *true*.

The number of possible 5 card combinations from a 52 card deck is represented by \( \binom{52}{5} = \frac{52!}{(52-5)!5!} = 2,598,960 \). Notice that if the restriction of only using 5 card hands were not in place then the total number of possible variations of \( \delta \) would be...
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2^{52} = 4,503,599,627,370,496. It is then obvious that the *Backpacker’s Card Game* is a less complex problem than the 0-1-Knapsack problem.

Also, there is no predictable relation between the elements of $S$ that can be depended upon because the elements of $S$ are determined by rolling dice. The lowest possible value of $M$ is $2 + 4 + 6 + 8 + 10 = 30$ (when the 5 lowest cards were produced by rolling 2), while the highest possible value is $336 + 348 + 360 + 372 + 384 = 1800$ (when all 52 dice rolls produced 12). However, when rolling two six-sided dice the odds of rolling 2 is 1:12, the odds of rolling 12 is 1:12, but the odds of rolling 7 is 1:4. It is then the case that the average lowest value card will be 7 and the average highest value card will be around $7 \times 52 = 364$. The value of $M$ should be expected to most often come somewhere close to $\left( \frac{52}{2} \times 7 \right) \times 5 = 910$.

The problem of finding all compositions of $M$ when $M = 910$ will require more than $2^{52}$ computations. It will then be easier to solve this problem by standard means.

Notice that the *Backpacker’s Card Game* is not a NP-complete problem. In this problem there is always at least one set that evaluates true, but the objective is to find one of these sets. The problem is then a function problem that could be solved in polynomial time on a Non Deterministic Turing Machine. It is then a member of the FNP complexity class and is NP-hard.

8.1 Time requirement for the *Backpacker’s Card Game*.

If the *Backpacker’s Card Game* is solvable in deterministic polynomial time, then there exists a function in the form of $r^k$ that represents the maximum number of computations required to solve the problem. By Cook’s definition of polynomial time [Cook 2006] this should actually be $r^k + k$, however this would make the math much more complex. If we add 1 to $k$ then the second term can be dropped because $r^k > r^{k-1} + (k - 1)$, therefore the maximum number of computations can be bounded by a monomial.

At this time it is necessary to recall that a Non Deterministic Turing Machine has the ability to simulate an extremely lucky guesser who always guesses correctly regardless of the odds. This ability is the one difference between deterministic machines and non deterministic machines. Because Deterministic Turing Machines cannot guess, it is then the case that any deterministic algorithm must abide by the laws of probability.

In the *Backpacker’s Card Game* it is guaranteed that there is always one input set that sums to $M$. However, there is no guarantee that there are any additional input sets that sum to $M$. So the worst possible odds that any particular guess will be the set that sums to $M$ happens when there exists only one such set.

Therefore, when there is only one set that sums to $M$, the odds of any particular guess being correct can be represented by 1:2,598,960. It is then the case that a deterministic machine will only have a 100% chance of finding the correct answer after evaluating all 2,598,960 possibilities.

**Proof.** Let $c$ represent the number of computations required to evaluate a single input set. The deterministic polynomial time algorithm would then require a number of computations that is represented by

$$r^k = 2,598,960c$$
For simplicity, \( c \) will be assumed equal to 1. Then
\[
r^k = 2,598,960 \Rightarrow k \approx 3.73822
\]

If this deterministic polynomial time algorithm truly works for the problem, then it must work not only when one deck is used, but also when any numbers of decks are used. If the shuffle is increased to 2 decks then there are 64 cards. In this case the number of possible 5 card hands is
\[
\binom{64}{5} = \frac{64!}{(64-5)!5!} \approx 1.27 \times 10^{84}.
\]

The algorithm uses \( 64^{3.73822} = 5,648,044 \) computations to evaluate \( 1.27 \times 10^{84} \) possible input sets. This is obviously impossible for a deterministic machine.

9. OTHER POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS FOR THE 0-1-KNAPSACK PROBLEM.
The possibility for a deterministic polynomial time search algorithm for \( NP-complete \) problems has been ruled out [Meek Article 1 2008]. The possibility of a fast solution from the form of the problem has also been eliminated. There are now only two remaining possibilities. These possible methods will briefly be mentioned here.

9.1 Algorithms relying on probabilistic methods.
It may be possible to produce an algorithm that quickly generates input sets that are more likely to be accepted than other input sets. However, the nature of a probabilistic solution is such that sometimes the most likely result will not be correct. This is exactly the reason why the Rabin-Miller test requires several runs to determine the primality of a number [Hurd 2003].

If a method exists which can generate inputs in descending order of their probability of acceptance then the probability that an accepting input will be found will increase as \( n \) increases when \( n \) is the number of inputs that have been tried. However, if no accepting input has been found after some polynomial number of attempts, then there is no guarantee that an accepting input does not exist within the set that has not been examined.

For example, suppose an algorithm can find an accepting input set if such a set exists within a deterministically polynomial bounded time limit with a 99.9% success rate. Then that means for every 1000 \( NP-complete \) problems, there is 1 \( NP-complete \) problem such that this algorithm does not produce a correct solution in deterministic polynomial time.

Such a method could have some of the advantages of a \( P = NP \) algorithm, and would definitely be useful. However, a probabilistic algorithm would only prove \( P = NP \) if it can give a 100% probability of finding an accepting input set within deterministic polynomial time. Such an algorithm would then be equivalent to a solution that produces a representative polynomial search partition.

9.2 A deterministic polynomial time algorithm for SAT.
Any \( NP-complete \) problem would be solvable in deterministic polynomial time if SAT had a deterministic polynomial time solution. However, a deterministic polynomial time solution for SAT would only be found by first finding a deterministic polynomial time solution for some other \( NP-complete \) problem.

—Let \( a, b, \) and \( c \) be \( true \) or \( false \), but the values are unknown.

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\[ a \Rightarrow x = 1, \neg a \Rightarrow x = 0. \]
\[ b \Rightarrow y = 1, \neg b \Rightarrow y = 0. \]
\[ c \Rightarrow z = 1, \neg c \Rightarrow z = 0. \]

Notice that the two statements are logically equivalent.

\[ a \lor b \lor c \equiv [x + y + z > 0] \]

Therefore, a deterministic polynomial time solution for SAT actually implies that one inequality can produce the value for three unknown variables.

Because it is impossible to directly develop a deterministic polynomial time solution to SAT, then the only way to prove that SAT has a deterministic polynomial time solution is by transferring one from another \textit{NP-complete} problem. It is then the case that SAT can only really be proven to have no fast solution by proving that all other \textit{NP-complete} problems have no fast solutions.

It is now known that no deterministic polynomial time solution for the \textit{Knapsack} problem exists (unless SAT provides one). It is the purpose of the article \textit{Analysis of the postulates produced by Karp’s Theorem}. [Meek Article 4 2008] to demonstrate that a deterministic polynomial time solution can not be produced for SAT from another \textit{NP-Complete} problem. Therefore, \textit{P} is without a doubt strictly contained within \textit{NP}.

10. CONCLUSION.

It was stated earlier that the \textit{Backpacker’s Card Game} is a less complex problem than the 0-1-\textit{Knapsack} problem. Assuming SAT has no deterministic polynomial time solution, then because the \textit{Backpacker’s Card Game} can not be solved in deterministic polynomial time, it follows that the 0-1-\textit{Knapsack} problem is also unsolvable in deterministic polynomial time.

Q.E.D.

11. VERSION HISTORY.

The author wishes to encourage further feedback which may improve, strengthen, or perhaps disprove the content of this article. For that reason the author does not publish the names of any specific people who may have suggested, commented, or criticized the article in such a way that resulted in a revision, unless permission has been granted to do so.

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