

# Theory of Computing 2024: Time Complexity and NP-Completeness

(Based on [Sipser 2006, 2013])

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## 1 Measuring Complexity

### Time Complexity

- Decidability of a problem merely indicates that the problem is computationally solvable *in principle*.
- It may not be solvable *in practice* if the solution requires an inordinate amount of time or memory.
- We shall introduce a way of measuring the time used to solve a problem.
- We then show how to classify problems according to the amount of time required.

### Measuring Time Complexity

- Let  $A = \{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\}$ .
- How much time does a single-tape TM need to decide  $A$ ?
- A single-tape TM  $M_1$  for  $A$  works as follows:
  1. Scan across the tape and reject if a 0 appears to the right of a 1.
  2. Repeat Stage 3 if both 0s and 1s remain on the tape.
  3. Scan across the tape, crossing off a single 0 and a single 1.
  4. If no 0s or 1s remain on the tape, *accept*; otherwise, reject.
- Intuitively, the running time of the Turing machine will be longer when the input is longer.

### Measuring Time Complexity (cont.)

- We shall compute the running time of an algorithm purely as a function of the length of the string representing the input.

**Definition 1** (7.1). Let  $M$  be a deterministic TM that halts on all inputs.

The **running time** or **time complexity** of  $M$  is the function  $f : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ , where  $f(n)$  is the *maximum* number of steps that  $M$  uses on any input of length  $n$ .

If  $f(n)$  is the running time of  $M$ , we say that  $M$  *runs in time*  $f(n)$  or that  $M$  *is an*  $f(n)$  *time Turing machine*.

- We will mostly focus on *worst-case analysis*, measuring the longest running time of all inputs of a particular length.

## Asymptotic Analysis

- The exact running time of an algorithm is a complex expression.
- We seek to understand the running time of the algorithm when it is run on large inputs.
- We do so by considering only the highest-order term of the expression of its running time (discarding the coefficient of that term and any lower-order terms).
- For example, if  $f(n) = 6n^3 + 2n^2 + 20n + 45$ , we say that  $f$  is *asymptotically* at most  $n^3$ .
- The *asymptotic notation*, or *big-O notation*, for describing this relationship is  $f(n) = O(n^3)$ .

## Asymptotic Bounds

- Let  $\mathcal{R}^+$  be the set of positive real numbers.

**Definition 2** (7.2). Let  $f$  and  $g$  be two functions  $f, g : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^+$ .

We say that  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  if positive integers  $c$  and  $n_0$  exist so that, for every integer  $n \geq n_0$ ,

$$f(n) \leq cg(n).$$

When  $f(n) = O(g(n))$ , we say that  $g(n)$  is an (asymptotic) *upper bound* for  $f(n)$ .

## Asymptotic Bounds (cont.)

- Intuitively,  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  means that  $f$  is less than or equal to  $g$  if we disregard differences up to a constant factor.
- Big- $O$  notation gives a way to say that one function is asymptotically *no more than* another.
- Big- $O$  notation can appear in arithmetic expressions such as  $O(n^2) + O(n)$  ( $= O(n^2)$ ) and  $2^{O(n)}$ .
- Bounds of the form  $n^c$ , for  $c > 0$ , are called *polynomial bounds*.
- Bounds of the form  $2^{n^c}$ , for  $c > 0$ , are called *exponential bounds*.

## Asymptotic Bounds (cont.)

- To say that one function is asymptotically *less than* another, we use small- $o$  notation.

**Definition 3** (7.5). Let  $f$  and  $g$  be two functions  $f, g : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^+$ .

We say that  $f(n) = o(g(n))$  if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0.$$

- For example,  $\sqrt{n} = o(n)$  and  $n \log n = o(n^2)$ .

## Analyzing Algorithms

- Consider the single-tape TM  $M_1$  for deciding  $\{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\}$ .
- Stage 1 takes  $2n$  ( $= O(n)$ ) steps:  $n$  steps to scan the input and another  $n$  steps to reposition the head at the left-hand end of the tape.
- Each execution of Stage 3 takes  $2n$  steps and at most  $n/2$  such executions are required. So, Stages 2 and 3 take at most  $(n/2)2n$  ( $= O(n^2)$ ) steps.
- Stage 4 takes  $n$  ( $= O(n)$ ) steps.

## Complexity Classes

**Definition 4** (7.7). Let  $t : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$  be a function.

Define the **time complexity class**  $\text{TIME}(t(n))$  to be  $\{L \mid L \text{ is a language decided by an } O(t(n)) \text{ time Turing machine}\}$ .

- $A (= \{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\}) \in \text{TIME}(n^2)$ , since  $M_1$  decides  $A$  in time  $O(n^2)$ .
- Is there a machine that decides  $A$  asymptotically faster?
- In other words, is  $A$  in  $\text{TIME}(t(n))$  for  $t(n) = o(n^2)$ ?

## Complexity Classes (cont.)

- Below is a faster single-tape TM for deciding  $A (= \{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\})$ .
- $M_2 =$  “On input string  $w$ :
  1. Same as Stage 1 of  $M_1$ .
  2. Repeat Stages 3 and 4 if both 0s and 1s remain on the tape.
  3. If the total number of 0s and 1s remaining is odd, reject.
  4. Cross off every other 0 and then every other 1.
  5. If no 0s or 1s remain on the tape, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”
- The running time of  $M_2$  is  $O(n \log n)$  and hence  $A \in \text{TIME}(n \log n)$ .

## Complexity Classes (cont.)

- Below is an even faster TM, which has *two* tapes, for deciding  $A (= \{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\})$ .
- $M_3 =$  “On input string  $w$ :
  1. Same as Stage 1 of  $M_1$ .
  2. Copy the 0s on Tape 1 onto Tape 2.
  3. Scan across the 1s on Tape 1 until the end of the input, crossing off a 0 on Tape 2 for each 1. If there are not enough 0s, reject.
  4. If all the 0s have now been crossed off, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”
- The running time of  $M_3$  is  $O(n)$ .
- This indicates that the complexity of  $A$  depends on the model of computation selected.

## Complexity Relationships among Models

**Theorem 5** (7.8). Let  $t(n)$  be a function, where  $t(n) \geq n$ . Then every  $t(n)$  time multitape Turing machine has an equivalent  $O(t^2(n))$  time single-tape Turing machine.

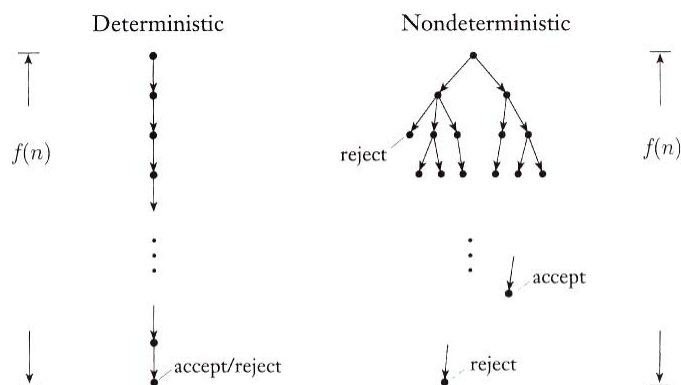
- Let  $M$  be a  $k$ -tape TM running in  $t(n)$  time.
- A single-tape TM  $S$  simulating  $M$  requires  $O(t(n))$  tape cells to store the current contents of  $M$ 's tapes and the respective head positions.
- It takes  $O(t(n))$  time for  $S$  to simulate each of  $M$ 's  $t(n)$  steps.
- So, the running time of  $S$  is  $t(n) \times O(t(n)) = O(t^2(n))$ .

## Complexity Relationships among Models (cont.)

**Definition 6** (7.9). The running time of a nondeterministic TM  $N$  is the function  $f : \mathcal{N} \rightarrow \mathcal{N}$ , where  $f(n)$  is the *maximum* number of steps that  $N$  uses on *any* branch of its computation on any input of length  $n$ .

**Theorem 7** (7.11). Let  $t(n)$  be a function, where  $t(n) \geq n$ . Then every  $t(n)$  time nondeterministic single-tape Turing machine has an equivalent  $2^{O(t(n))}$  time deterministic single-tape Turing machine.

## Complexity Relationships among Models (cont.)



**FIGURE 7.10**  
Measuring deterministic and nondeterministic time

Source: [Sipser 2006]

## Complexity Relationships among Models (cont.)

- Every branch of  $N$ 's computation tree has a length of at most  $t(n)$ .
- The total number of nodes in the tree is  $O(b^{t(n)})$ , where  $b$  is the maximum number of legal choices given by  $N$ 's transition function.
- The running time of a simulating deterministic 3-tape TM is  $O(t(n)) \times O(b^{t(n)}) = 2^{O(t(n))}$ .
- The running time of a simulating deterministic single-tape TM is  $(2^{O(t(n))})^2 = 2^{O(2t(n))} = 2^{O(t(n))}$ .

## 2 The Class P

### Polynomial Time

- For our purposes, *polynomial differences* in running time are considered to be small, whereas *exponential differences* are considered to be large.
- Exponential time algorithms typically arise when we solve problems by searching through a space of solutions, called *brute-force search*.
- All “reasonable” deterministic computational models are *polynomially equivalent*, i.e., any one of them can simulate another with a polynomial increase in running time.
- We shall focus on aspects of time complexity theory that are unaffected by polynomial differences in running time.

## The Class P

**Definition 8** (7.12). **P** is the class of languages that are decidable in *polynomial* time on a *deterministic* single-tape Turing machine. In other words,

$$P = \bigcup_k \text{TIME}(n^k)$$

- P is invariant for all models of computing that are polynomially equivalent to the deterministic single-tape Turing machine.
- P roughly corresponds to the class of problems that are “realistically solvable” on a computer.

## Analyzing Algorithms for P Problems

- Suppose that we have given a high-level description of a polynomial-time algorithm with stages. To analyze the algorithm,
  1. we first give a polynomial upper bound on the number of stages that the algorithm uses, and
  2. we then show that the individual stages can be implemented in polynomial time on a reasonable deterministic model.
- A “reasonable” encoding method for problems should be used, which allows for polynomial-time encoding and decoding of objects into natural internal representation or into other reasonable encodings.

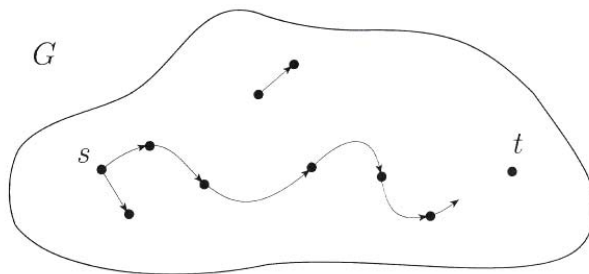
## Problems in P

- $PATH = \{\langle G, s, t \rangle \mid G \text{ is a directed graph that has a directed path from } s \text{ to } t\}$ .

**Theorem 9** (7.14).  $PATH \in P$ .

- $M =$  “On input  $\langle G, s, t \rangle$ :
  1. Place a mark on node  $s$ .
  2. Repeat Stage 3 until no additional nodes are marked.
  3. Scan all the edges of  $G$ . If an edge  $(a, b)$  is found going from a marked node  $a$  to an unmarked node  $b$ , mark node  $b$ .
  4. If  $t$  is marked, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

## Problems in P (cont.)



**FIGURE 7.13**

The *PATH* problem: Is there a path from  $s$  to  $t$ ?

Source: [Sipser 2006]

### Problems in P (cont.)

- $RELPRIME = \{\langle x, y \rangle \mid x \text{ and } y \text{ are relatively prime}\}$ .

**Theorem 10** (7.15).  $RELPRIME \in P$ .

- The input size of a number  $x$  is  $\log x$  (not  $x$  itself).
- $E =$  “On input  $\langle x, y \rangle$ :
  1. Repeat Stages 2 and 3 until  $y = 0$ .
  2. Assign  $x \leftarrow x \bmod y$ .
  3. Exchange  $x$  and  $y$ .
  4. Output  $x$ .”
- $R =$  “On input  $\langle x, y \rangle$ :
  1. Run  $E$  on  $\langle x, y \rangle$ .
  2. If  $E$ 's output is 1, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

### Problems in P (cont.)

**Theorem 11** (7.16). *Every context-free language belongs to P.*

We assume that a CFG in Chomsky normal form is given for the context-free language.

$D =$  “On input  $w = w_1w_2 \cdots w_n$ ,

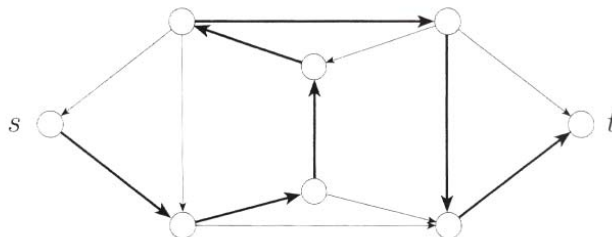
1. If  $w = \varepsilon$  and  $S \rightarrow \varepsilon$  is a rule, *accept*.
2. For  $i = 1$  to  $n$ ,
3.   For each variable  $A$ ,
4.     Is  $A \rightarrow b$ , where  $b = w_i$ , a rule?
5.     If yes, add  $A$  to  $table(i, i)$ .
6. For  $l = 2$  to  $n$ ,
7.   For  $i = 1$  to  $n - l + 1$ ,
8.     Let  $j = i + l - 1$ ,
9.     For  $k = i$  to  $j - 1$ ,
10.     For each rule  $A \rightarrow BC$ ,
11.     If  $B \in table(i, k)$  and  $C \in table(k + 1, j)$ ,  
      then put  $A$  in  $table(i, j)$ .
12. If  $S \in table(1, n)$ , *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

## 3 The Class NP

### The Hamiltonian Path Problem

- A *Hamiltonian path* in a directed graph is a directed path that goes through each node exactly once.
- $HAMPATH = \{\langle G, s, t \rangle \mid G \text{ is a directed graph with a Hamiltonian path from } s \text{ to } t\}$ .
- We can easily obtain an exponential time algorithm for  $HAMPATH$ .
- No one knows whether  $HAMPATH$  is solvable in polynomial time.
- However, *verifying* the existence of a Hamiltonian path may be much easier than *determining* its existence.

## The Hamiltonian Path Problem (cont.)



**FIGURE 7.17**  
A Hamiltonian path goes through every node exactly once

Source: [Sipser 2006]

## The Class NP

**Definition 12** (7.18). A **verifier** for a language  $A$  is an algorithm  $V$ , where

$$A = \{w \mid V \text{ accepts } \langle w, c \rangle \text{ for some string } c\}.$$

The information represented by the symbol  $c$  is called a *certificate*, or *proof*, of membership in  $A$ .

A *polynomial-time verifier* runs in polynomial time in the length of  $w$ .

**Definition 13** (7.19). **NP** is the class of *polynomially verifiable* languages, i.e., languages that have polynomial-time verifiers.

## The Class NP (cont.)

**Theorem 14** (7.20). *A language is in NP iff it is decided by some nondeterministic polynomial time Turing machine.*

- Let  $V$  be a verifier for  $A \in \text{NP}$  that runs in time  $n^k$ . Construct a decider  $N$  for  $A$  as follows.
- $N =$  “On input  $w$  of length  $n$ :
  1. Nondeterministically select string  $c$  of length  $n^k$ .
  2. Run  $V$  on input  $\langle w, c \rangle$ .
  3. If  $V$  accepts, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

## The Class NP (cont.)

- Let  $N$  be a nondeterministic decider for a language  $A$  that runs in time  $n^k$ . Construct a verifier  $V$  for  $A$  as follows.
- $V =$  “On input  $\langle w, c \rangle$ :
  1. Simulate  $N$  on input  $w$ , treating each symbol of  $c$  as a description of the nondeterministic choice to make at each step.
  2. If this branch of  $N$ 's computation accepts, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

## The Class NP (cont.)

**Definition 15** (7.21).  $\text{NTIME}(t(n)) = \{L \mid L \text{ is a language decided by an } O(t(n)) \text{ time nondeterministic Turing machine}\}$ .

**Corollary 16** (7.22).  $\text{NP} = \bigcup_k \text{NTIME}(n^k)$ .

## Analyzing Algorithms for NP Problems

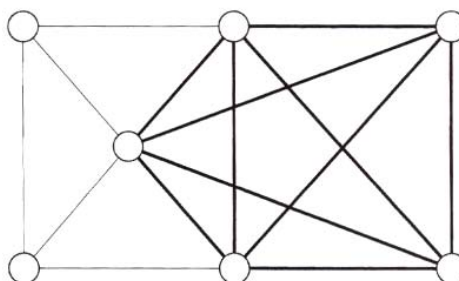
- The class NP is insensitive to the choice of reasonable nondeterministic computational model.
- Like in the deterministic case, we use a high-level description to present a nondeterministic polynomial-time algorithm.
  1. Each stage of a nondeterministic polynomial-time algorithm must have an obvious implementation in polynomial time on a reasonable nondeterministic model.
  2. Every branch of its computation tree uses at most polynomially many stages.

## Problems in NP

- A *clique* in an undirected graph is a subgraph, wherein every two nodes are connected by an edge.
- A *k-clique* is a clique that contains  $k$  nodes.
- $\text{CLIQUE} = \{\langle G, k \rangle \mid G \text{ is an undirected graph with a } k\text{-clique}\}$ .

**Theorem 17** (7.24). *CLIQUE is in NP.*

## Problems in NP (cont.)



**FIGURE 7.23**  
A graph with a 5-clique

Source: [Sipser 2006]

## Problems in NP (cont.)

- $V =$  “On input  $\langle\langle G, k \rangle, c \rangle$ :
  1. Test whether  $c$  is a set of  $k$  nodes in  $G$ .
  2. Test whether  $G$  contains all edges connecting nodes in  $c$ .
  3. If both pass, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”



- Alternatively,  
 $N =$  “On input  $\langle G, k \rangle$ :
  1. Nondeterministically select a subset  $c$  of  $k$  nodes in  $G$ .
  2. Test whether  $G$  contains all edges connecting nodes in  $c$ .
  3. If yes, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

**Problems in NP (cont.)**

- $SUBSET\_SUM = \{ \langle S, t \rangle \mid S = \{x_1, \dots, x_k\} \text{ and for some } \{y_1, \dots, y_l\} \subseteq S, \text{ we have } \sum y_i = t \}$ .

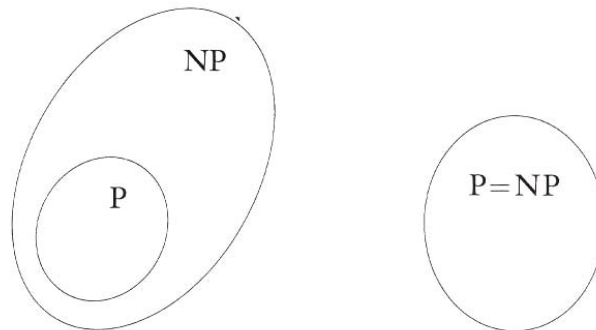
**Theorem 18 (7.25).** *SUBSET\_SUM is in NP.*

- $V =$  “On input  $\langle \langle S, t \rangle, c \rangle$ :
  1. Test whether  $c$  is a collection of numbers that sum to  $t$ .
  2. Test whether  $S$  contains the numbers in  $c$ .
  3. If both pass, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”
- Alternatively,  
 $N =$  “On input  $\langle S, t \rangle$ :
  1. Nondeterministically select a subset  $c$  of the numbers in  $S$ .
  2. Test whether  $c$  is a collection of numbers that sum to  $t$ .
  3. If yes, *accept*; otherwise, reject.”

**The Class co-NP**

- The complements of  $CLIQUE$  and  $SUBSET\_SUM$ , namely  $\overline{CLIQUE}$  and  $\overline{SUBSET\_SUM}$ , are not obviously members of NP.
- Verifying that something is *not* present seems to be more difficult than verifying that it *is* present.
- The complexity class co-NP contains the languages that are complements of languages in NP.
- *We do not know whether co-NP is different from NP.*

**P vs. NP**



**FIGURE 7.26**  
 One of these two possibilities is correct

Source: [Sipser 2006]

## 4 NP-Completeness

### NP-Completeness

- The complexity of certain problems in NP is related to that of the entire class [Cook and Levin].
- If a polynomial-time algorithm exists for any of the problems, all problems in NP would be polynomial-time solvable.
- These problems are called **NP-complete**.
- $SAT = \{\langle \phi \rangle \mid \phi \text{ is a satisfiable Boolean formula}\}$ .

**Theorem 19** (7.27; Cook-Levin).  $SAT \in P$  iff  $P = NP$ .

(Equivalently,  $SAT \notin P$  iff  $P \neq NP$ .)

### Polynomial-Time Reducibility

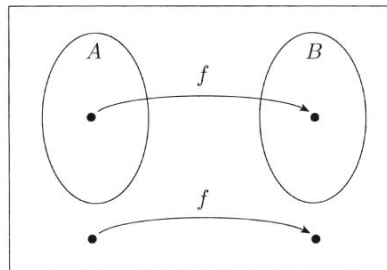
- When problem  $A$  is *efficiently* reducible to problem  $B$ , an efficient solution to  $B$  can be used to solve  $A$  efficiently.

**Definition 20** (7.28). A function  $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$  is a **polynomial-time computable function** if some polynomial-time Turing machine  $M$ , on every input  $w$ , halts with just  $f(w)$  on its tape.

**Definition 21** (7.29). Language  $A$  is **polynomial-time mapping reducible** (polynomial-time reducible) to language  $B$ , written  $A \leq_P B$ , if there is a polynomial-time computable function  $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ , where for every  $w$ ,

$$w \in A \iff f(w) \in B.$$

### Polynomial-Time Reducibility (cont.)



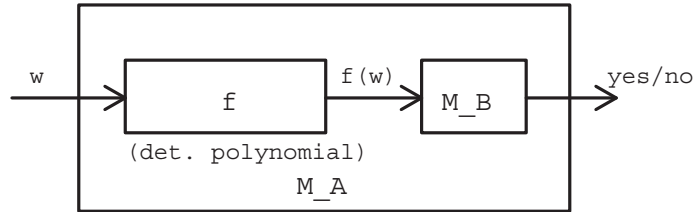
**FIGURE 7.30**  
Polynomial time function  $f$  reducing  $A$  to  $B$

Source: [Sipser 2006]

Function  $f$  transforms the membership problem of  $A$  to that of  $B$ .

### Polynomial-Time Reducibility (cont.)

- $A \leq_P B$ , like  $A \leq_M B$ , means that a Turing machine  $M_A$  for  $A$  can be constructed from a given Turing machine  $M_B$  for  $B$ .



- Furthermore, if  $M_B$  is a polynomial-time decider for  $B$ , then  $M_A$  is a polynomial-time decider for  $A$ .

### Polynomial-Time Reducibility (cont.)

**Theorem 22 (7.31).** *If  $A \leq_P B$  and  $B \in P$ , then  $A \in P$ .*

- Let  $M_B$  be a polynomial-time algorithm deciding  $B$  and  $f$  be the polynomial-time reduction from  $A$  to  $B$ .
- $M_A =$  “On input  $w$ :
  1. Compute  $f(w)$ .
  2. Run  $M_B$  on input  $f(w)$  and output whatever  $M_B$  outputs.”

### Example Polynomial-Time Reducibility

- A Boolean formula is in *conjunctive normal form*, called a CNF-formula, if it comprises several clauses connected with  $\wedge$ s, as in

$$(x_1 \vee \overline{x_2} \vee \overline{x_3} \vee x_4) \wedge (x_3 \vee \overline{x_5} \vee x_6) \wedge (x_3 \vee \overline{x_6})$$

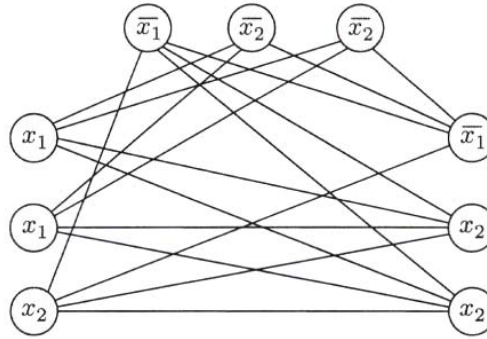
- It is a 3CNF-formula if all the clauses have three literals, as in

$$(x_1 \vee \overline{x_2} \vee \overline{x_3}) \wedge (x_3 \vee \overline{x_5} \vee x_6) \wedge (x_3 \vee \overline{x_6} \vee x_4) \wedge (x_4 \vee x_5 \vee x_6)$$

- $3SAT = \{\langle \phi \rangle \mid \phi \text{ is a satisfiable 3CNF-formula}\}$ .

**Theorem 23 (7.32).** *3SAT is polynomial-time reducible to CLIQUE.*

### Example Polynomial-Time Reducibility (cont.)



**FIGURE 7.33**  
 The graph that the reduction produces from  
 $\phi = (x_1 \vee x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_2 \vee \bar{x}_2) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_2)$

Source: [Sipser 2006]

### NP-Completeness

**Definition 24** (7.34). A language  $B$  is **NP-complete** if it satisfies two conditions:

1.  $B$  is in NP, and
2. every  $A$  in NP is polynomial-time reducible to  $B$  (in which case, we say that  $B$  is NP-hard).

**Theorem 25** (7.35). *If  $B$  is NP-complete and  $B \in P$ , then  $P = NP$ .*

### NP-Completeness (cont.)

- The polynomial-time reducibility relation  $\leq_P$  is a transitive relation. (Mathematically,  $\leq_P$  is a pre-order, i.e., it is reflexive and transitive.)
- Transitivity of  $\leq_P$  allows one to prove NP-completeness of a problem via a known NP-complete problem.
- If  $B$  is NP-complete and  $B \leq_P C$ , then every problem in  $P$  is polynomial-time reducible to  $C$ .

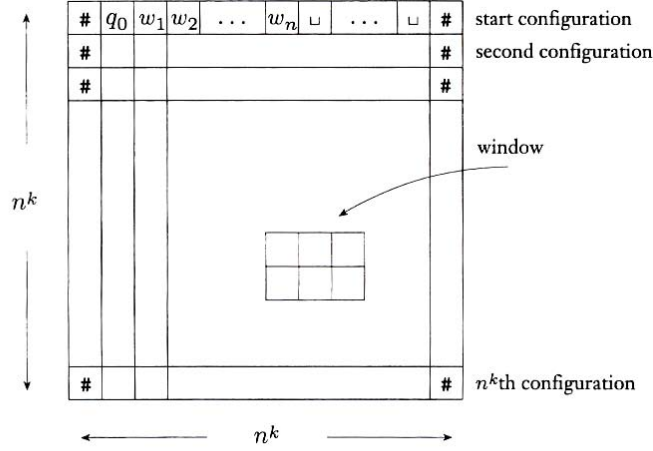
**Theorem 26** (7.36). *If  $B$  is NP-complete and  $B \leq_P C$  for some  $C \in NP$ , then  $C$  is NP-complete.*

### The Cook-Levin Theorem

**Theorem 27** (7.37). *SAT is NP-complete.*

- SAT is in NP, as a nondeterministic polynomial-time TM can guess an assignment to a given formula  $\phi$  and accept if the assignment satisfies  $\phi$ .
- We next construct a polynomial-time reduction for each language  $A$  in NP to SAT.
- The reduction takes a string  $w$  and produces a Boolean formula  $\phi$  that simulates the NP machine  $N$  for  $A$  on input  $w$ .
- Assume that  $N$  runs in time  $n^k$  (with some constant difference) for some  $k > 0$ .

The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)



**FIGURE 7.38**  
A tableau is an  $n^k \times n^k$  table of configurations

Source: [Sipser 2006]

The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)

- If  $N$  accepts,  $\phi$  has a satisfying assignment that corresponds to the accepting computation.
- If  $N$  rejects, no assignment satisfies  $\phi$ .
- Let  $C = Q \cup \Gamma \cup \{\#\}$ . For  $1 \leq i, j \leq n^k$  and  $s \in C$ , we have a variable  $x_{i,j,s}$ .
- Variable  $x_{i,j,s}$  is assigned 1 iff  $cell[i, j]$  contains an  $s$ .
- Construct  $\phi$  as  $\phi_{\text{cell}} \wedge \phi_{\text{start}} \wedge \phi_{\text{accept}} \wedge \phi_{\text{move}}$ , where ...
  - Size of  $\phi_{\text{cell}}$ :  $O(n^{2k})$ .
  - Size of  $\phi_{\text{start}}$ :  $O(n^k)$ .
  - Size of  $\phi_{\text{accept}}$ :  $O(n^{2k})$ .
  - Size of  $\phi_{\text{move}}$ :  $O(n^{2k})$ .

The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)

$$\phi_{\text{cell}} = \bigwedge_{1 \leq i, j \leq n^k} \left[ \left( \bigvee_{s \in C} x_{i,j,s} \right) \wedge \left( \bigwedge_{s, t \in C, s \neq t} (\overline{x_{i,j,s}} \vee \overline{x_{i,j,t}}) \right) \right] .$$

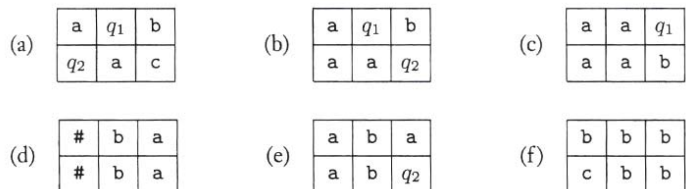
$$\phi_{\text{start}} = x_{1,1,\#} \wedge x_{1,2,q_0} \wedge x_{1,3,w_1} \wedge x_{1,4,w_2} \wedge \cdots \wedge x_{1,n+2,w_n} \wedge x_{1,n+3,\square} \wedge \cdots \wedge x_{1,n^k-1,\square} \wedge x_{1,n^k,\#} .$$

$$\phi_{\text{accept}} = \bigvee_{1 \leq i, j \leq n^k} x_{i,j,q_{\text{accept}}} .$$

$$\phi_{\text{move}} = \bigwedge_{1 \leq i \leq (n^k-1), 2 \leq j \leq (n^k-1)} (\text{window } (i, j) \text{ is legal}) .$$

### The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)

- Assume that  $\delta(q_1, a) = \{(q_1, b, R)\}$  and  $\delta(q_1, b) = \{(q_2, c, L), (q_2, a, R)\}$ .

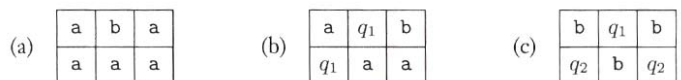


**FIGURE 7.39**  
Examples of legal windows

Source: [Sipser 2006]

### The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)

- Assume that  $\delta(q_1, a) = \{(q_1, b, R)\}$  and  $\delta(q_1, b) = \{(q_2, c, L), (q_2, a, R)\}$ .



**FIGURE 7.40**  
Examples of illegal windows

Source: [Sipser 2006]

### The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)

- The condition “window  $(i, j)$  is legal” can be expressed as

$$\bigvee_{a_1, \dots, a_6 \text{ legal}} (x_{i,j-1,a_1} \wedge x_{i,j,a_2} \wedge x_{i,j+1,a_3} \wedge x_{i+1,j-1,a_4} \wedge x_{i+1,j,a_5} \wedge x_{i+1,j+1,a_6})$$

### Another Two NP-Complete Problems

**Theorem 28.** *3SAT is NP-complete.*

- The proof of the Cook-Levin theorem can be modified so that the Boolean formula involved is in conjunctive normal form.
- A CNF-formula can be converted in polynomial time to a 3CNF-formula (with a length polynomially bounded in the length of the CNF-formula).
- If a clause contains  $l$  literals  $(a_1 \vee a_2 \vee \dots \vee a_l)$ , we can replace it with the  $l - 2$  clauses

$$(a_1 \vee a_2 \vee z_1) \wedge (\bar{z}_1 \vee a_3 \vee z_2) \wedge (\bar{z}_2 \vee a_4 \vee z_3) \wedge \dots \wedge (\bar{z}_{l-4} \vee a_{l-2} \vee z_{l-3}) \wedge (\bar{z}_{l-3} \vee a_{l-1} \vee a_l)$$

### Another Two NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

**Theorem 29.** *CLIQUE is NP-complete.*

*CLIQUE* is in NP and  $3SAT \leq_P CLIQUE$ .