Theory of Computing 2013: Time Complexity and NP-Completeness

(Based on [Sipser 2006])

Yih-Kuen Tsay

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 $A = \{0^k 1^k \mid k \ge 0\}.$
- 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.

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 $f : \mathcal{N} \longrightarrow \mathcal{N}$, 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.

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 $f, g : \mathcal{N} \longrightarrow \mathcal{R}^+$. We say that f(n) = O(g(n)) if positive integers c and n_0 exist so that, for every integer $n \ge n_0$,

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

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 $f, g : \mathcal{N} \longrightarrow \mathcal{R}^+$. We say that f(n) = o(g(n)) if

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

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

Analyzing Algorithms

- Consider the single-tape TM M_1 for deciding $\{0^k 1^k \mid k \ge 0\}$.
- 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 $t : \mathcal{N} \longrightarrow \mathcal{N}$ be a function.

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

- $A = \{0^k 1^k \mid k \ge 0\} \in \text{TIME}(n^2)$, 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 TIME(t(n)) for $t(n) = o(n^2)$?

Complexity Classes (cont.)

- Below is a faster single-tape TM for deciding $A \ (= \{0^{k}1^{k} \mid k \ge 0\}).$
- $M_2 =$ "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 $A (= \{0^k 1^k \mid k \ge 0\})$.
- $M_3 =$ "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 $t(n) \ge n$. 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 $f : \mathcal{N} \longrightarrow \mathcal{N}$, 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 $t(n) \ge n$. Then every t(n) time nondeterministic singletape Turing machine has an equivalent $2^{O(t(n))}$ time deterministic single-tape Turing machine.

Complexity Relationships among Models (cont.)

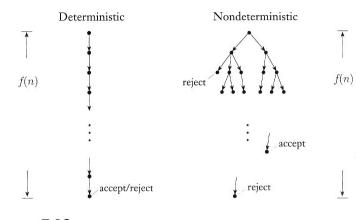


FIGURE 7.10 Measuring deterministic and nondeterministic time

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,

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

- P is invariant for all models of computing that are polynomially equivalent to the deterministic singletape 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.)

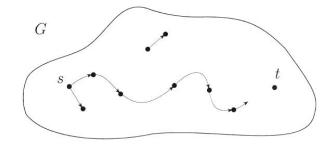


FIGURE 7.13 The *PATH* problem: Is there a path from *s* to *t*?

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 $x \leftarrow x \mod y$.
 - 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 $w = w_1 w_2 \cdots w_n$,

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

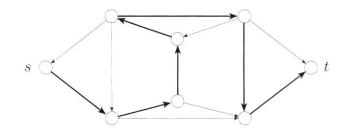


FIGURE 7.17

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 $A \in NP$ 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). 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). 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 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.
- $CLIQUE = \{ \langle G, k \rangle \mid G \text{ is an undirected graph with a } k\text{-clique} \}.$

Theorem 17 (7.24). CLIQUE is in NP.

Problems in NP (cont.)

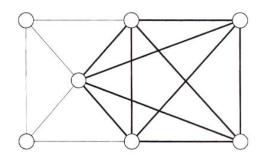


FIGURE **7.23** A graph with a 5-clique

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.)

- $SUBSET_SUM = \{\langle S, t \rangle \mid S = \{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$ and for some $\{y_1, \dots, y_l\} \subseteq S$, 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

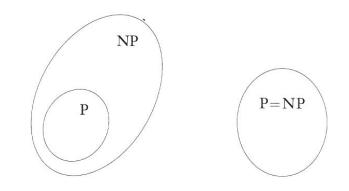


FIGURE **7.26** One of these two possibilities is correct

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.

Polynomial Time Reducibility

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

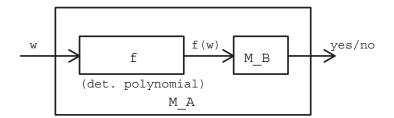
Definition 20 (7.28). A function $f : \Sigma^* \longrightarrow \Sigma^*$ is a **polynomial time computable function** if some polynomial time Turing machine M, on every input w, halts with just f(w) on its tape.

Polynomial Time Reducibility (cont.)

Definition 21 (7.29). Language A is **polynomial time mapping reducible** (polynomial time reducible) to language B, written $A \leq_{\mathbf{P}} B$, if there is a polynomial time computable function $f : \Sigma^* \longrightarrow \Sigma^*$, where for every w,

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

Polynomial Time Reducibility (cont.)



Polynomial Time Reducibility (cont.)

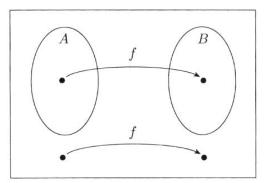


FIGURE **7.30**

Polynomial time function f reducing A to B

Source: [Sipser 2006]

Polynomial Time Reducibility (cont.)

Theorem 22 (7.31). If $A \leq_{\mathbf{P}} B$ and $B \in P$, then $A \in P$.

- Let M be the polynomial time algorithm deciding B and f be the polynomial time reduction from A to B.
- N = "On input w:
 - 1. Compute f(w).
 - 2. Run M on input f(w) and output whatever M outputs."

Example Polynomial Time Reducibility

• A Boolean formula is in *conjunctive normal form*, called a CNF-formula, if it comprises several clauses connected with ∧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

 $(x_1 \lor \overline{x_2} \lor \overline{x_3}) \land (x_3 \lor \overline{x_5} \lor x_6) \land (x_3 \lor \overline{x_6} \lor x_4) \land (x_4 \lor x_5 \lor x_6)$

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

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

Example Polynomial Time Reducibility (cont.)

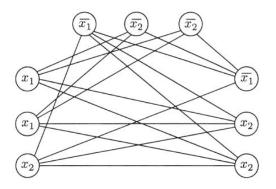


FIGURE **7.33**

The graph that the reduction produces from $\phi = (x_1 \lor x_1 \lor x_2) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor \overline{x_2} \lor \overline{x_2}) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor x_2 \lor x_2)$

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.

Theorem 26 (7.36). If B is NP-complete and $B \leq_{\mathrm{P}} C$ for some $C \in \mathrm{NP}$, 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 ϕ and accept if the assignment satisfies ϕ .
- 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 ϕ 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.)

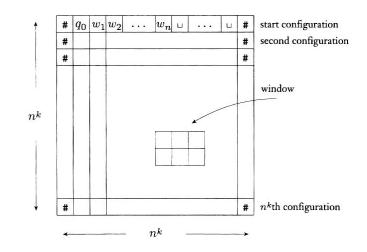


FIGURE **7.38** A tableau is an $n^k \times n^k$ table of configurations

Source: [Sipser 2006]

The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)

- If N accepts, ϕ has a satisfying assignment that corresponds to the accepting computation.
- If N rejects, no assignment satisfies ϕ .
- Let $C = Q \cup \Gamma \cup \{\#\}$. For $1 \le i, j \le n^k$ 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 ϕ as $\phi_{\text{cell}} \wedge \phi_{\text{start}} \wedge \phi_{\text{accept}} \wedge \phi_{\text{move}}$, where ...
 - Size of ϕ_{cell} : $O(n^{2k})$.
 - Size of ϕ_{start} : $O(n^k)$.
 - Size of ϕ_{accept} : $O(n^{2k})$.
 - Size of ϕ_{move} : $O(n^{2k})$.

The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)

$$\phi_{\text{cell}} = \bigwedge_{1 \le i,j \le n^k} \left[\left(\bigvee_{s \in C} x_{i,j,s} \right) \land \left(\bigwedge_{s,t \in C, s \ne t} (\overline{x_{i,j,s}} \lor \overline{x_{i,j,t}}) \right) \right] .$$

$$\phi_{\text{start}} = \begin{array}{c} x_{1,1,\#} \land x_{1,2,q_0} \land \\ x_{1,3,w_1} \land x_{1,4,w_2} \land \dots \land x_{1,n+2,w_n} \land \\ x_{1,n+3,\sqcup} \land \dots \land x_{1,n^k-1,\sqcup} \land x_{1,n^k,\#} \end{array}$$

A ...

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

$$\phi_{\text{accept}} = \bigwedge_{1 \le i, j \le n^k} x_{i, j, q_{\text{accept}}} \ .$$
(window (i, i) is let

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

The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)

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

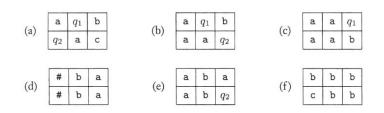


FIGURE 7.39

Examples of legal windows

Source: [Sipser 2006]

The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)

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

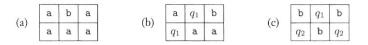


FIGURE **7.40** Examples of illegal windows

Source: [Sipser 2006]

The Cook-Levin Theorem (cont.)

• The condition "window (i, j) is legal" can be expressed as

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

Another NP-Complete Problem

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 $(a_1 \lor a_2 \lor \cdots \lor a_l)$, we can replace it with the l-2 clauses

$$(a_1 \lor a_2 \lor z_1) \land (\overline{z_1} \lor a_3 \lor z_2) \land (\overline{z_2} \lor a_4 \lor z_3) \land \cdots \land (\overline{z_{l-4}} \lor a_{l-2} \lor z_{l-3}) \land (\overline{z_{l-3}} \lor a_{l-1} \lor a_l)$$

5 Additional NP-Complete Problems

NP-Complete Problems

Theorem 29. CLIQUE is NP-complete.

CLIQUE is in NP and $3SAT \leq_{P} CLIQUE$.

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

- A vertex cover of an undirected graph G is a subset of the nodes where every edge of G touches one of those nodes.
- $VERTEX_COVER = \{ \langle G, k \rangle \mid G \text{ is an undirected graph that has a } k\text{-node vertex cover} \}.$

Theorem 30. VERTEX_COVER is NP-complete.

• We show that $3SAT \leq_{\mathbf{P}} VERTEX_{COVER}$.

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

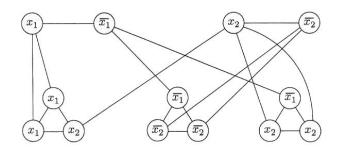


FIGURE **7.45** The graph that the reduction produces from $\phi = (x_1 \lor x_1 \lor x_2) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor \overline{x_2} \lor \overline{x_2}) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor x_2 \lor x_2)$

Source: [Sipser 2006]

Note: Let k be m + 2l, where m is the number of variables and l the number of clauses in ϕ .

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

Theorem 31. HAMPATH is NP-complete.

We show that $3SAT \leq_{\mathbf{P}} HAMPATH$.

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

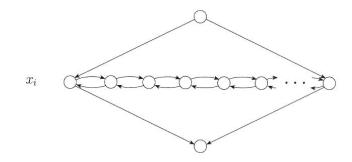


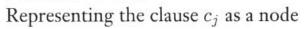
FIGURE 7.47 Representing the variable x_i as a diamond structure

Source: [Sipser 2006]

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)



FIGURE **7.48**



Source: [Sipser 2006]

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

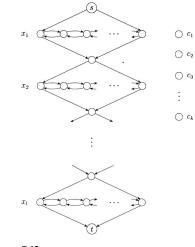


FIGURE **7.49** The high-level structure of G

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

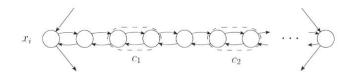


FIGURE 7.50 The horizontal nodes in a diamond structure

Source: [Sipser 2006]

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

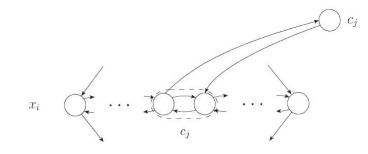


FIGURE 7.51 The additional edges when clause c_j contains x_i

Source: [Sipser 2006]

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

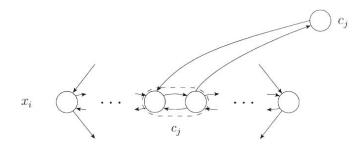


FIGURE 7.52 The additional edges when clause c_i contains $\overline{x_i}$

Source: [Sipser 2006]

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

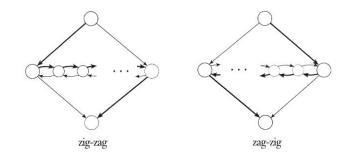


FIGURE **7.53** Zig-zagging and zag-zigging through a diamond, as determined by the satisfying assignment

Source: [Sipser 2006]

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

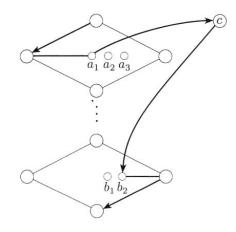


FIGURE **7.54** This situation cannot occur

Source: [Sipser 2006]

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

- Let UHAMPATH be the undirected version of the Hamiltonian path problem HAMPATH. Theorem 32. UHAMPATH is NP-complete.
- An input $\langle G, s, t \rangle$ for HAMPATH is mapped to $\langle G', s', t' \rangle$ for UHAMPATH as follows.
- Each node u of G, except for s and t, is replaced by a triple of nodes u^{in} , u^{mid} , and u^{out} in G'.
- Nodes s and t are replaced by node $s^{\text{out}} = s'$ and $t^{\text{in}} = t'$.
- Edges connect u^{mid} with u^{in} and u^{out} .
- An edge connects u^{out} and v^{in} if (u, v) is an edge of G.

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

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

Theorem 33. SUBSET_SUM is NP-complete.

• We show that $3SAT \leq_{\mathbf{P}} SUBSET_SUM$.

NP-Complete Problems (cont.)

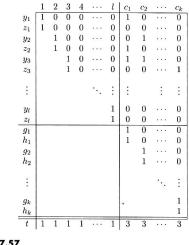


FIGURE **7.57** Reducing *3SAT* to *SUBSET-SUM*