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# Time Complexity and NP-Completeness (Based on [Sipser 2006, 2013])

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# **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*.

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  - 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.

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# 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 (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.

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# Measuring Time Complexity (cont.)



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

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#### **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  $f(n) = O(n^3)$ .

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#### **Asymptotic Bounds**



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

# Definition (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  $n \ge n_0$ ,

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

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

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### 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  $2^{O(n)}$ .
- Sounds of the form  $n^c$ , for c > 0, are called *polynomial bounds*.
- Sounds 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 (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  $n \log n = o(n^2)$ .

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#### **Analyzing Algorithms**



- Source 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<sup>2</sup>)) steps.
- Stage 4 takes n (= O(n)) steps.

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#### **Complexity Classes**



#### Definition (7.7)

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

- Is there a machine that decides A asymptotically faster?
- In other words, is A in TIME(t(n)) for  $t(n) = o(n^2)$ ?

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## **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  $A \in \text{TIME}(n \log n)$ .

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# **Complexity Classes (cont.)**



- Below is an even faster TM, which has two tapes, for deciding A (= {0<sup>k</sup>1<sup>k</sup> | k ≥ 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*.
  - 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.

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# **Complexity Relationships among Models**



# Theorem (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  $t(n) imes O(t(n)) = O(t^2(n)).$

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# Complexity Relationships among Models (cont.)

# Definition (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 (7.11)

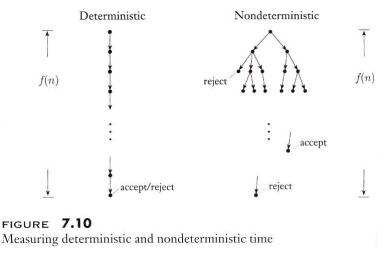
Let t(n) be a function, where  $t(n) \ge n$ . Then every t(n) time nondeterministic single-tape Turing machine has an equivalent  $2^{O(t(n))}$  time deterministic single-tape Turing machine.

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# Complexity Relationships among Models (cont.)



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# 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<sup>t(n)</sup>), 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  $(2^{O(t(n))})^2 = 2^{O(2t(n))} = 2^{O(t(n))}$ .

#### **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.

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#### The Class P



# Definition (7.12)

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

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

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.

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### 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.

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#### Problems in P



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

Theorem (7.14)

 $PATH \in P$ .

•  $M = \text{"On input } \langle G, s, t \rangle$ :

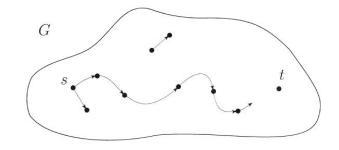
- 1. Place a mark on node s.
- 2. Repeat Stage 3 until no additional nodes are marked.
- 3. Scan all the edges of G. If an edge (a, b) is found going from a marked node a to an unmarked node b, mark node b.
- 4. If t is marked, accept; otherwise, reject."

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#### Problems in P (cont.)





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

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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# Problems in P (cont.)



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

Theorem (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."

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# Problems in P (cont.)



#### Theorem (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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1.
    If w = \varepsilon and S \to \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 i = i + l - 1,
9. For k = i to i - 1,
          For each rule A \rightarrow BC.
10.
11.
             If B \in table(i, k) and C \in table(k + 1, i),
             then put A in table(i, j).
12. If S \in table(1, n), accept; otherwise, reject."
```

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#### The Hamiltonian Path Problem



- A Hamiltonian path in a directed graph is a directed path that goes through each node exactly once.
- HAMPATH = { $\langle G, s, t \rangle | G$  is a directed graph with a Hamiltonian path from s to t}.
- We can easily obtain an exponential time algorithm for HAMPATH.
- No one knows whether HAMPATH is solvable in polynomial time.

#### The Hamiltonian Path Problem



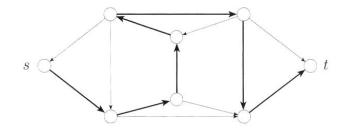
- A Hamiltonian path in a directed graph is a directed path that goes through each node exactly once.
- HAMPATH = { $\langle G, s, t \rangle | G$  is a directed graph with a Hamiltonian path from s to t}.
- We can easily obtain an exponential time algorithm for HAMPATH.
- No one knows whether HAMPATH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

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#### The Hamiltonian Path Problem (cont.)





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

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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The Class NP



#### Definition (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 (7.19)

**NP** is the class of *polynomially verifiable* languages, i.e., languages that have polynomial-time verifiers.

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# The Class NP (cont.)



# Theorem (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."

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# The Class NP (cont.)



- Let N be a nondeterministic decider for a language A that runs in time n<sup>k</sup>. 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.
  - If this branch of N's computation accepts, *accept*; otherwise, *reject*."

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## The Class NP (cont.)



### Definition (7.21)

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

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

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### 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.

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- 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 = { $\langle G, k \rangle \mid G$  is an undirected graph with a k-clique}.

Theorem (7.24)

CLIQUE is in NP.

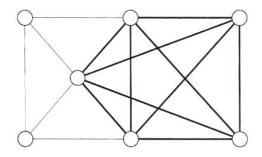
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#### Problems in NP (cont.)





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

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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#### Problems in NP (cont.)



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#### • 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*."

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# 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."

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# Problems in NP (cont.)



SUBSET\_SUM = {⟨S, t⟩ | S = {x<sub>1</sub>, · · · , x<sub>k</sub>} and for some {y<sub>1</sub>, · · · , y<sub>l</sub>} ⊆ S, we have ∑y<sub>i</sub> = t}.

Theorem (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."

# Problems in NP (cont.)



SUBSET\_SUM = {⟨S, t⟩ | S = {x<sub>1</sub>, · · · , x<sub>k</sub>} and for some {y<sub>1</sub>, · · · , y<sub>l</sub>} ⊆ S, we have ∑y<sub>i</sub> = t}.

Theorem (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."

Iternatively,

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."

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### The Class co-NP



- The complements of CLIQUE and SUBSET\_SUM, namely CLIQUE and 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.

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### The Class co-NP

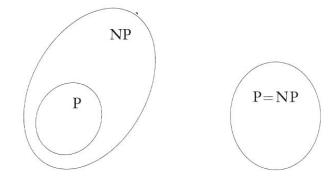


- The complements of CLIQUE and SUBSET\_SUM, namely CLIQUE and SUBSET\_SUM, are not obviously members of NP.
- Verifying that something is not present seems to be more difficult than verifying that it is present.
- The complexity class co-NP contains the languages that are complements of languages in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

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### P vs. NP





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

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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### **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.

### **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 (7.27; Cook-Levin)

 $SAT \in P$  iff P = NP

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

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# **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 (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.

# Definition (7.29)

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

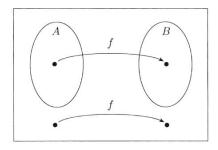
$$w \in A \iff f(w) \in B.$$

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# 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.

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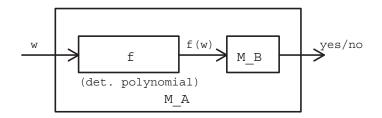
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# Polynomial-Time Reducibility (cont.)



•  $A \leq_{\mathrm{P}} B$ , like  $A \leq_{\mathrm{M}} B$ , means that a Turing machine  $M_A$  for A can be constructed from a given Turing machine  $M_B$  for B.



Furthermore, if M<sub>B</sub> is a polynomial-time decider for B, then M<sub>A</sub> is a polynomial-time decider for A.

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# Polynomial-Time Reducibility (cont.)



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### Theorem (7.31)

If  $A \leq_{\mathrm{P}} B$  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.
- $M_A = \text{``On input } w$ :
  - 1. Compute f(w).
  - 2. Run  $M_B$  on input f(w) and output whatever  $M_B$  outputs."

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# Example Polynomial-Time Reducibility



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

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

😚 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 (7.32)

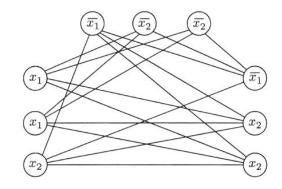
3SAT is polynomial-time reducible to CLIQUE.

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# 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]

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### **NP-Completeness**



### Definition (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 (7.35)

If B is NP-complete and  $B \in P$ , then P = NP.

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# **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.)

# **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.)
- Iransitivity of ≤<sub>P</sub> 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 (7.36)

If B is NP-complete and  $B \leq_{P} C$  for some  $C \in NP$ , then C is NP-complete.

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# The Cook-Levin Theorem



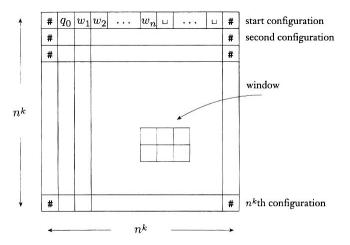
Theorem (7.37)

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.

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

Source: [Sipser 2006] Yih-Kuen Tsay (IM.NTU)

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- If *N* accepts,  $\phi$  has a satisfying assignment that corresponds to the accepting computation.
- If N rejects, no assignment satisfies  $\phi$ .
- Itet C = Q ∪ Γ ∪ {#}. For 1 ≤ i, j ≤ n<sup>k</sup> and s ∈ C, we have a variable x<sub>i,j,s</sub>.
- Variable  $x_{i,j,s}$  is assigned 1 iff cell[i, j] contains an s.
- $\bigcirc$  Construct  $\phi$  as  $\phi_{
  m cell} \wedge \phi_{
  m start} \wedge \phi_{
  m accept} \wedge \phi_{
  m move}$ , where  $\dots$

Size of 
$$\phi_{cell}$$
:  $O(n^{2k})$ .  
Size of  $\phi_{start}$ :  $O(n^k)$ .  
Size of  $\phi_{accept}$ :  $O(n^{2k})$ .  
Size of  $\phi_{move}$ :  $O(n^{2k})$ .

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$$\begin{split} \phi_{\text{cell}} &= \bigwedge_{1 \leq i,j \leq n^k} \left[ \left( \bigvee_{s \in C} x_{i,j,s} \right) \land \left( \bigwedge_{s,t \in C, s \neq t} \left( \overline{x_{i,j,s}} \lor \overline{x_{i,j,t}} \right) \right) \right] \\ \phi_{\text{start}} &= \begin{array}{c} x_{1,1,\#} \land x_{1,2,q_0} \land \\ x_{1,3,w_1} \land x_{1,4,w_2} \land \cdots \land x_{1,n+2,w_n} \land \\ x_{1,n+3,\sqcup} \land \cdots \land x_{1,n^k-1,\sqcup} \land x_{1,n^k,\#} \end{array} . \end{split}$$

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

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

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

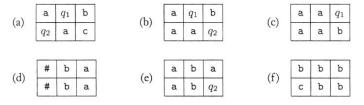


FIGURE **7.39** Examples of legal windows

Source: [Sipser 2006]

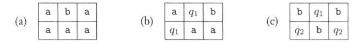
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• Assume that 
$$\delta(q_1, a) = \{(q_1, b, R)\}$$
 and  $\delta(q_1, b) = \{(q_2, c, L), (q_2, a, R)\}.$ 



#### FIGURE **7.40** Examples of illegal windows

Source: [Sipser 2006]

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

$$\bigvee_{a_1,\cdots,a_6} \underset{\mathsf{legal}}{\bigvee} \begin{array}{l} (x_{i,j-1,a_1} \wedge x_{i,j,a_2} \wedge x_{i,j+1,a_3} \wedge \\ x_{i+1,j-1,a_4} \wedge x_{i+1,j,a_5} \wedge x_{i+1,j+1,a_6}) \end{array}$$

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# Another Two NP-Complete Problems



#### Theorem

#### 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 *I* literals ( $a_1 \lor a_2 \lor \cdots \lor a_l$ ), we can replace it with the *I* − 2 clauses

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

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Another Two NP-Complete Problems (cont.)



Theorem

CLIQUE is NP-complete.

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

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