CS 473: Fundamental Algorithms, Fall 2014

NP Completeness and Cook-Levin Theorem

Lecture 22 November 18, 2014

- P: set of decision problems that have polynomial time algorithms.
- NP: set of decision problems that have polynomial time non-deterministic algorithms.

Question: What is an algorithm? Depends on the model of computation!

What is our model of computation?

Formally speaking our model of computation is Turing Machines.

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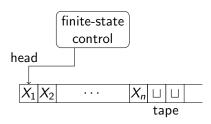
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Turing Machines: Recap



- Infinite tape.
- Finite state control.
- Input at beginning of tape.
- Special tape letter "blank"

 ...
- Head can move only one cell to left or right.

Turing Machines: Formally

- A TM M = $(Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{accept}, q_{reject})$:
 - Q is set of states in finite control
 - ② q₀ start state, q_{accept} is accept state, q_{reject} is reject state
 - **③** Σ is input alphabet, Γ is tape alphabet (includes \sqcup)
 - \bullet $\delta: \mathbf{Q} \times \mathbf{\Gamma} \rightarrow \{\mathbf{L}, \mathbf{R}\} \times \mathbf{\Gamma} \times \mathbf{Q}$ is transition function
 - $\delta(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{a}) = (\mathbf{q}', \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{L})$ means that \mathbf{M} in state \mathbf{q} and head seeing \mathbf{a} on tape will move to state \mathbf{q}' while replacing \mathbf{a} on tape with \mathbf{b} and head moves left.

L(M): language accepted by M is set of all input strings s on which M accepts; that is:

- **1** TM is started in state \mathbf{q}_0 .
- Initially, the tape head is located at the first cell.
- The tape contain s on the tape followed by blanks.
- The TM halts in the state q_{accept}.

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P via TMs

Definition

M is a polynomial time TM if there is some polynomial $p(\cdot)$ such that on all inputs w, M halts in p(|w|) steps.

Definition

L is a language in **P** iff there is a polynomial time TM **M** such that L = L(M).

NP via TMs

Definition

L is an NP language iff there is a non-deterministic polynomial time TM M such that L = L(M).

- - **1** Example: $\delta(q, a) = \{(q_1, b, L), (q_2, c, R), (q_3, a, R)\}$ means that M can non-deterministically choose one of the three
- (2) L(M): set of all strings s on which there exists some sequence

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NP via TMs

Definition

L is an NP language iff there is a non-deterministic polynomial time TM M such that L = L(M).

Non-deterministic TM: each step has a choice of moves

- $\bullet \ \delta: \mathbb{Q} \times \Gamma \to \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{Q} \times \Gamma \times \{\mathsf{L},\mathsf{R}\}).$
 - Example: $\delta(q, a) = \{(q_1, b, L), (q_2, c, R), (q_3, a, R)\}$ means that M can non-deterministically choose one of the three possible moves from (q, a).
- L(M): set of all strings s on which there exists some sequence of valid choices at each step that lead from \mathbf{q}_0 to \mathbf{q}_{accept}

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Non-deterministic TMs vs certifiers

Two definition of **NP**:

- **1** L is in NP iff L has a polynomial time certifier $C(\cdot, \cdot)$.
- L is in NP iff L is decided by a non-deterministic polynomial time TM M.

Claim

Two definitions are equivalent.

Why?

Informal proof idea: the certificate **t** for **C** corresponds to non-deterministic choices of **M** and vice-versa.

In other words L is in NP iff L is accepted by a NTM which first guesses a proof t of length poly in input |s| and then acts as a deterministic TM.

Non-determinism, guessing and verification

- A non-deterministic machine has choices at each step and accepts a string if there exists a set of choices which lead to a final state.
- Equivalently the choices can be thought of as guessing a solution and then verifying that solution. In this view all the choices are made a priori and hence the verification can be deterministic. The "guess" is the "proof" and the "verifier" is the "certifier".
- We reemphasize the asymmetry inherent in the definition of non-determinism. Strings in the language can be easily verified. No easy way to verify that a string is not in the language.

Alexandra (UIUC) CS473 8 Fall 2014 8 / 54

Algorithms: TMs vs RAM Model

Why do we use TMs some times and RAM Model other times?

- TMs are very simple: no complicated instruction set, no jumps/pointers, no explicit loops etc.
 - Simplicity is useful in proofs.
 - The "right" formal bare-bones model when dealing with subtleties.
- RAM model is a closer approximation to the running time/space usage of realistic computers for reasonable problem sizes
 - Not appropriate for certain kinds of formal proofs when algorithms can take super-polynomial time and space

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"Hardest" Problems

Question

What is the hardest problem in NP? How do we define it?

Towards a definition

- Hardest problem must be in NP.
- We Hardest problem must be at least as "difficult" as every other problem in NP.

What is the hardest question in ??

Consider the class **P**. The hardest problem in **P** is:

- (A) Max-Flow
- (B) Linear programming.
- (C) SAT.
- (D) All problems in P are easy.
- (E) All problems in P are hard.

NP-Complete Problems

Definition

A problem **X** is said to be **NP-Complete** if

- \bullet $X \in NP$, and
- **2** (Hardness) For any $Y \in NP$, $Y \leq_P X$.

Solving NP-Complete Problems

Proposition

Suppose X is NP-Complete. Then X can be solved in polynomial time if and only if P = NP.

Proof.

- ⇒ Suppose X can be solved in polynomial time
 - **1** Let $Y \in NP$. We know $Y \leq_P X$.
 - **2** We showed that if $Y \leq_P X$ and X can be solved in polynomial time, then Y can be solved in polynomial time.
 - **3** Thus, every problem $Y \in NP$ is such that $Y \in P$; $NP \subseteq P$.
 - **3** Since $P \subseteq NP$, we have P = NP.
- \Leftarrow Since P = NP, and $X \in NP$, we have a polynomial time algorithm for X.

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NP-Hard Problems

Definition

A problem **X** is said to be **NP-Hard** if

1 (Hardness) For any $Y \in NP$, we have that $Y \leq_P X$.

An NP-Hard problem need not be in NP!

Example: Halting problem is NP-Hard (why?) but not NP-Complete.

If X is NP-Complete

- Since we believe $P \neq NP$,
- 2 and solving X implies P = NP.
- **X** is unlikely to be efficiently solvable.

At the very least, many smart people before you have failed to find an efficient algorithm for **X**.

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NP-Complete Problems

Question

Are there any problems that are NP-Complete?

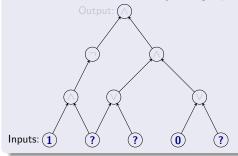
Answer

Yes! Many, many problems are NP-Complete.

Circuits

Definition

A circuit is a directed acyclic graph with

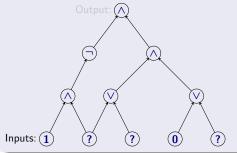


- Input vertices (without incoming edges) labelled with0, 1 or a distinct variable.
- ② Every other vertex is labelled ∨, ∧ or ¬.
- Single node output vertex with no outgoing edges.

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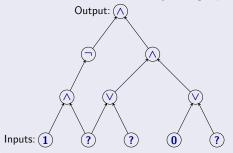


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Cook-Levin Theorem

Definition (Circuit Satisfaction (CSAT).)

Given a circuit as input, is there an assignment to the input variables that causes the output to get value 1?

Theorem (Cook-Levin)

CSAT is NP-Complete.

Need to show

- CSAT is in NP.
- every NP problem X reduces to CSAT.

Monotone CSAT?

Consider an instance of **CSAT** of size **n**, that does not contain any negations. This problem **Monotone CSAT** is

- (A) NP-Hard.
- (B) NP-Complete.
- (C) P.
- (D) Solvable in linear time.
- (E) Solvable in O(2ⁿ) time.

CSAT: Circuit Satisfaction

Claim

CSAT is in NP.

- Certificate: Assignment to input variables.
- Certifier: Evaluate the value of each gate in a topological sort of

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CSAT: Circuit Satisfaction

Claim

CSAT is in NP.

- Certificate: Assignment to input variables.
- Certifier: Evaluate the value of each gate in a topological sort of DAG and check the output gate value.

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Converting into circuit...

Assume any polynomial time algorithm can be converted into a boolean circuit in polynomial time. Then

- (A) A certifier C(s,t) is a polynomial algorithm, and as such there a boolean circuit of polynomial size that implements it.
- (B) A certifier C(s, t) can not be implemented as a circuit since t (the certificate) is not known.
- (C) There are some certifiers (but not all) that can be implemented as a boolean circuit.
- (D) Only certifiers for problems in P are convertible into circuits.

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CSAT is NP-hard: Idea

Need to show that every NP problem X reduces to CSAT.

What does it mean that $X \in NP$?

 $X \in NP$ implies that there are polynomials p() and q() and certifier/verifier program C such that for every string s the following is true:

- If s is a YES instance ($s \in X$) then there is a proof t of length p(|s|) such that C(s, t) says YES.
- ② If s is a NO instance (s $\not\in$ X) then for every string t of length at p(|s|), C(s,t) says NO.
- **3** C(s, t) runs in time q(|s| + |t|) time (hence polynomial time).

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Reducing X to CSAT

X is in NP means we have access to $p(), q(), C(\cdot, \cdot)$. What is $C(\cdot, \cdot)$? It is a program or equivalently a Turing Machine! How are **p()** and **q()** given? As numbers. Example: if 3 is given then $p(n) = n^3$.

Thus an NP problem is essentially a three tuple (p, q, C) where C is either a program or a TM.

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Reducing X to CSAT

Thus an NP problem is essentially a three tuple $\langle p, q, C \rangle$ where C is either a program or TM.

Problem X: Given string s, is $s \in X$?

Same as the following: is there a proof \mathbf{t} of length $\mathbf{p}(|\mathbf{s}|)$ such that $\mathbf{C}(\mathbf{s},\mathbf{t})$ says YES.

How do we reduce X to CSAT? Need an algorithm ${\mathcal A}$ that

- takes **s** (and $\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{C} \rangle$) and creates a circuit **G** in polynomial time in $|\mathbf{s}|$ (note that $\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{C} \rangle$ are fixed).
- G is satisfiable if and only if there is a proof t such that C(s, t) says YES.

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CS473 Fall 2014 24 / 54

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Simple but Big Idea: Programs are essentially the same as Circuits!

- Convert C(s, t) into a circuit G with t as unknown inputs (rest is known including s)
- ② We know that $|\mathbf{t}| = \mathbf{p}(|\mathbf{s}|)$ so express boolean string \mathbf{t} as $\mathbf{p}(|\mathbf{s}|)$ variables $\mathbf{t}_1, \mathbf{t}_2, \dots, \mathbf{t}_k$ where $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{p}(|\mathbf{s}|)$.
- ① Asking if there is a proof t that makes C(s,t) say YES is same as whether there is an assignment of values to "unknown" variables t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k that will make G evaluate to true/YES.

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- ① Asking if there is a proof ${\bf t}$ that makes ${\bf C}({\bf s},{\bf t})$ say YES is same as whether there is an assignment of values to "unknown" variables ${\bf t}_1,{\bf t}_2,\ldots,{\bf t}_k$ that will make ${\bf G}$ evaluate to true/YES.

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- 3 Asking if there is a proof t that makes C(s,t) say YES is same as whether there is an assignment of values to "unknown" variables t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k that will make G evaluate to true/YES.

- Problem: Does G = (V, E) have an Independent Set of size ≥ k?
 - O Certificate: Set S ⊆ V.
 - **Q** Certifier: Check $|S| \ge k$ and no pair of vertices in S is connected by an edge.

Formally, why is **Independent Set** in **NP**?

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Formally, why is **Independent Set** in **NP**?

Formally why is **Independent Set** in NP?

- Input:
 - < n, $y_{1,1}, y_{1,2}, \ldots, y_{1,n}, y_{2,1}, \ldots, y_{2,n}, \ldots, y_{n,1}, \ldots, y_{n,n}, k >$ encodes $\langle G, k \rangle$.
 - n is number of vertices in G
 - \mathbf{Q} $\mathbf{y}_{i,j}$ is a bit which is $\mathbf{1}$ if edge (\mathbf{i},\mathbf{j}) is in \mathbf{G} and $\mathbf{0}$ otherwise (adjacency matrix representation)
 - 3 k is size of independent set.
- ② Certificate: $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{t}_1 \mathbf{t}_2 \dots \mathbf{t}_n$. Interpretation is that \mathbf{t}_i is 1 if vertex i is in the independent set, 0 otherwise.

Alexandra (UIUC) CS473 Fall 2014 27 / 54

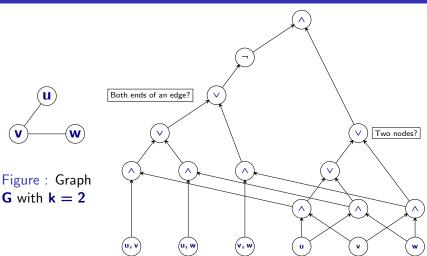
Certifier for Independent Set

Certifier **C**(**s**, **t**) for **Independent Set**:

```
\begin{array}{c} \text{if } (t_1+t_2+\ldots+t_n<\textbf{k}) \text{ then} \\ \text{return } \texttt{NO} \\ \text{else} \\ \text{for } \texttt{each } \textbf{(i,j) do} \\ \text{if } (t_i \wedge t_j \wedge \textbf{y}_{i,j}) \text{ then} \\ \text{return } \texttt{NO} \end{array}
```

return YES

A certifier circuit for Independent Set



What does the following formula compute?

The formula

$$F(x_1,\dots,x_n) = \bigwedge_{i < j} (\overline{x_i} \vee \overline{x_j}) \,.$$

is true if and only if

- (A) All the x_is are one.
- (B) All the x_is are zero.
- (C) There are exactly two ones in x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- (D) There is at most one bit one in x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- (E) There are at most two ones in x_1, \ldots, x_n .

What does the following formula compute?

The formula

$$H(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \left(\bigwedge_{i < j} (\overline{x_i} \vee \overline{x_j})\right) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee \cdots x_n).$$

is true if and only if

- (A) All the x_is are one.
- (B) There are exactly two ones in x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- (C) There is exactly one bit one in x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- (D) There is at most one bit one in x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- (E) There are at most two ones in x_1, \ldots, x_n .

What does the following formula compute?

 $\langle \mathbf{G} \rangle$: a vector of $\binom{n}{2}$ bits describing a graph with \mathbf{n} vertices. $\mathbf{I}(\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_n,\langle \mathbf{G} \rangle)$ formula true $\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_n$ independent set in \mathbf{G} . Input: $\langle \mathbf{x}_1^1,\mathbf{x}_1^2,\mathbf{x}_1^3, \ \mathbf{x}_2^1,\mathbf{x}_2^2,\mathbf{x}_2^3, \ \ldots, \ \mathbf{x}_n^1,\mathbf{x}_n^2,\mathbf{x}_n^3, \ \mathbf{G} \rangle$.

The formula

$$\begin{split} &\left(\bigwedge_{i=1}^{n}H\left(x_{i}^{1},x_{i}^{2},x_{i}^{3}\right)\right)\bigwedge I\left(x_{1}^{1},x_{2}^{1},x_{3}^{1},\ldots,x_{n}^{1},\langle G\rangle\right) \\ &\bigwedge I\left(x_{1}^{2},x_{2}^{2},x_{3}^{2},\ldots,x_{n}^{2},\langle G\rangle\right)\bigwedge I\left(x_{1}^{3},x_{2}^{3},x_{3}^{3},\ldots,x_{n}^{1},\langle G\rangle\right) \end{split}$$

is satisfiable if and only if

- (A) The graph **G** contains a clique.
- (B) The graph **G** can be colored by two colors.
- (C) The graph **G** can be colored by three colors.
- (D) The graph **G** encodes a satisfiable instance of 3DM.
- (E) None of the above.

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Programs, Turing Machines and Circuits

Consider "program" A that takes f(|s|) steps on input string s.

Question: What computer is the program running on and what does *step* mean?

Real computers difficult to reason with mathematically because

- instruction set is too rich
- e pointers and control flow jumps in one step
- assumption that pointer to code fits in one word

Turing Machines

- simpler model of computation to reason with
- can simulate real computers with polynomial slow down
- all moves are local (head moves only one cell)

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Turing Machines

- simpler model of computation to reason with
- 2 can simulate real computers with polynomial slow down
- 3 all moves are local (head moves only one cell)

Certifiers that are TMs

Assume $C(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a (deterministic) Turing Machine M

Problem: Given M, input s, p, q decide if there is a proof t of length p(|s|) such that M on s, t will halt in q(|s|) time and say YES.

There is an algorithm \mathcal{A} that can reduce above problem to **CSAT** mechanically as follows.

- **1** A first computes p(|s|) and q(|s|).
- **②** Knows that M can use at most q(|s|) memory/tape cells
- **3** Knows that M can run for at most q(|s|) time
- Simulates the evolution of the state of M and memory over time using a big circuit.

Simulation of Computation via Circuit

- ① Think of M's state at time ℓ as a string $x^{\ell}=x_1x_2\dots x_k$ where each $x_i\in\{0,1,B\}\times Q\cup\{q_{-1}\}$.
- ② At time 0 the state of M consists of input string s a guess t (unknown variables) of length p(|s|) and rest q(|s|) blank symbols.
- **3** At time q(|s|) we wish to know if M stops in q_{accept} with say all blanks on the tape.
- **3** We write a circuit C_{ℓ} which captures the transition of M from time ℓ to time $\ell+1$.
- **Solution** Of the circuits for all times $\mathbf{0}$ to $\mathbf{q}(|\mathbf{s}|)$ gives a big (still poly) sized circuit \mathbf{C}
- **o** The final output of $\mathcal C$ should be true if and only if the entire state of $\mathbf M$ at the end leads to an accept state.

NP-Hardness of Circuit Satisfaction

Key Ideas in reduction:

- Use TMs as the code for certifier for simplicity
- ② Since p() and q() are known to A, it can set up all required memory and time steps in advance
- Simulate computation of the TM from one time to the next as a circuit that only looks at three adjacent cells at a time

Note: Above reduction can be done to **SAT** as well. Reduction to **SAT** was the original proof of Steve Cook.

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To show NP-Completeness

Let X be a decision problem.

We know that **CSAT** is **NP-Complete**.

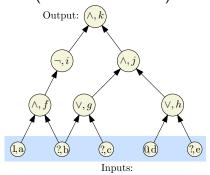
To show that **X** is **NP-Complete** we need to:

- (A) Provide a polynomial time reduction from X to CSAT.
- (B) Provide a polynomial time reduction from X to CSAT and show that $X \in NP$.
- (C) Provide a polynomial time reduction from CSAT to X.
- (D) Provide a polynomial time reduction from CSAT to X and show that X ∈ NP.
- (E) Provide a polynomial time reduction from CSAT to X and show that $X \notin P$.

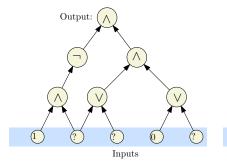
Alexandra (UIUC) CS473 37 Fall 2014 37 / 54

SAT is NP-Complete

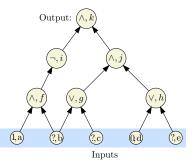
- We have seen that $SAT \in NP$
- To show NP-Hardness, we will reduce Circuit Satisfiability (CSAT) to SAT Instance of CSAT (we label each node):



Label the nodes

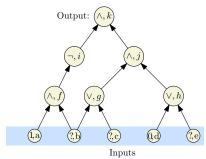


(A) Input circuit

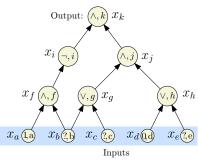


(B) Label the nodes.

Introduce a variable for each node

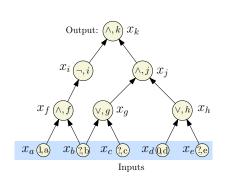


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Write a sub-formula for each variable that is true if the var is computed correctly.



(C) Introduce var for each node.

$$\begin{array}{l} x_k & \text{(Demand a sat' assignment!)} \\ x_k = x_i \wedge x_k \\ x_j = x_g \wedge x_h \\ x_i = \neg x_f \\ x_h = x_d \vee x_e \\ x_g = x_b \vee x_c \\ x_f = x_a \wedge x_b \\ x_d = 0 \\ x_a = 1 \end{array}$$

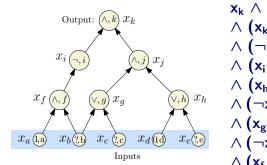
(D) Write a sub-formula for each variable that is true if the var is computed correctly.

Convert each sub-formula to an equivalent CNF formula

X _k	x _k
$x_k = x_i \wedge x_j$	$(\neg x_k \lor x_i) \land (\neg x_k \lor x_j) \land (x_k \lor \neg x_i \lor \neg x_j)$
$x_j = x_g \wedge x_h$	$ (\neg x_j \lor x_g) \land (\neg x_j \lor x_h) \land (x_j \lor \neg x_g \lor \neg x_h) $
$x_i = \neg x_f$	$(x_i \vee x_f) \wedge (\neg x_i \vee x_f)$
$x_h = x_d \lor x_e$	$(x_h \vee \neg x_d) \wedge (x_h \vee \neg x_e) \wedge (\neg x_h \vee x_d \vee x_e)$
$x_g = x_b \vee x_c$	$(x_g \vee \neg x_b) \wedge (x_g \vee \neg x_c) \wedge (\neg x_g \vee x_b \vee x_c)$
$x_f = x_a \wedge x_b$	$(\neg x_f \lor x_a) \land (\neg x_f \lor x_b) \land (x_f \lor \neg x_a \lor \neg x_b)$
$x_d = 0$	$\neg x_d$
$x_a = 1$	X _a

Alexandra (UIUC) CS473 Fall 2014 42 / 54

Take the conjunction of all the CNF sub-formulas



$$\begin{array}{l} x_k \wedge \left(\neg x_k \vee x_i \right) \wedge \left(\neg x_k \vee x_j \right) \\ \wedge \left(x_k \vee \neg x_i \vee \neg x_j \right) \wedge \left(\neg x_j \vee x_g \right) \\ \wedge \left(\neg x_j \vee x_h \right) \wedge \left(x_j \vee \neg x_g \vee \neg x_h \right) \\ \wedge \left(x_i \vee x_f \right) \wedge \left(\neg x_i \vee x_f \right) \\ \wedge \left(x_h \vee \neg x_d \right) \wedge \left(x_h \vee \neg x_e \right) \\ \wedge \left(\neg x_h \vee x_d \vee x_e \right) \wedge \left(x_g \vee \neg x_b \right) \\ \wedge \left(x_g \vee \neg x_c \right) \wedge \left(\neg x_g \vee x_b \vee x_c \right) \\ \wedge \left(\neg x_f \vee x_a \right) \wedge \left(\neg x_f \vee x_b \right) \\ \wedge \left(x_f \vee \neg x_a \vee \neg x_b \right) \wedge \left(\neg x_d \right) \wedge x_a \end{array}$$

We got a CNF formula that is satisfiable if and only if the original circuit is satisfiable.

Alexandra (UIUC) CS473 43 Fall 2014 43 / 54

Reduction: $CSAT \leq_P SAT$

- lacktriangle For each gate (vertex) $oldsymbol{v}$ in the circuit, create a variable $oldsymbol{x_v}$
- ② Case \neg : \mathbf{v} is labeled \neg and has one incoming edge from \mathbf{u} (so $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{v}} = \neg \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{u}}$). In SAT formula generate, add clauses $(\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{u}} \lor \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{v}})$, $(\neg \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{u}} \lor \neg \mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{v}})$. Observe that

$$x_v = \neg x_u$$
 is true \iff $(x_u \lor x_v)$ both true.

Reduction: $CSAT \leq_P SAT$

Continued...

1 Case \vee : So $\mathbf{x_v} = \mathbf{x_u} \vee \mathbf{x_w}$. In **SAT** formula generated, add clauses $(\mathbf{x_v} \vee \neg \mathbf{x_u})$, $(\mathbf{x_v} \vee \neg \mathbf{x_w})$, and $(\neg \mathbf{x_v} \vee \mathbf{x_u} \vee \mathbf{x_w})$. Again, observe that

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$$\begin{aligned} x_v &= x_u \wedge x_w \text{ is true} &\iff & \begin{aligned} & (\neg x_v \vee x_u), \\ & (\neg x_v \vee x_w), \\ & (x_v \vee \neg x_u \vee \neg x_w) \end{aligned} \text{ all true}.$$

Reduction: **CSAT** < **P SAT**

Continued...

- ① If v is an input gate with a fixed value then we do the following. If $x_v=1$ add clause x_v . If $x_v=0$ add clause $\neg x_v$
- 2 Add the clause x_v where v is the variable for the output gate

Correctness of Reduction

Need to show circuit **C** is satisfiable iff $\varphi_{\mathbf{C}}$ is satisfiable

- ⇒ Consider a satisfying assignment **a** for **C**
 - Find values of all gates in C under a
 - **2** Give value of gate \mathbf{v} to variable $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{v}}$; call this assignment \mathbf{a}'
 - \circ a' satisfies φ_{C} (exercise)
- \Leftarrow Consider a satisfying assignment **a** for $arphi_{\mathsf{C}}$
 - Let a' be the restriction of a to only the input variables
 - 2 Value of gate \mathbf{v} under \mathbf{a}' is the same as value of $\mathbf{x}_{\mathbf{v}}$ in \mathbf{a}
 - Thus, a' satisfies C

Theorem

SAT is NP-Complete.

Proving that a problem X is NP-Complete

To prove **X** is **NP-Complete**, show

- Show X is in NP.
 - certificate/proof of polynomial size in input
 - $oldsymbol{o}$ polynomial time certifier C(s,t)
- Reduction from a known NP-Complete problem such as CSAT or SAT to X

SAT \leq_P X implies that every **NP** problem $\mathbf{Y} \leq_P \mathbf{X}$. Why? Transitivity of reductions:

 $Y \leq_P SAT$ and $SAT \leq_P X$ and hence $Y \leq_P X$.

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NP-Completeness via Reductions

- **OCSAT** is NP-Complete.
- ② CSAT ≤_P SAT and SAT is in NP and hence SAT is NP-Complete.
- **SAT** \leq_{P} **3-SAT** and hence 3-SAT is NP-Complete.
- 3-SAT ≤_P Independent Set (which is in NP) and hence Independent Set is NP-Complete.
- **5** Vertex Cover is NP-Complete.
- Clique is NP-Complete.

Hundreds and thousands of different problems from many areas of science and engineering have been shown to be **NP-Complete**.

A surprisingly frequent phenomenon!

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