

Chapter 23

NP Completeness and Cook-Levin Theorem

OLD CS 473: Fundamental Algorithms, Spring 2015

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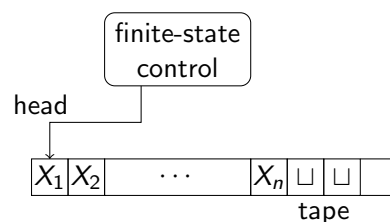
23.0.1 NP

23.0.1.1 P and NP and Turing Machines

- (A) Polynomial vs. polynomial time verifiable...
 - (A) **P**: set of decision problems that have polynomial time algorithms.
 - (B) **NP**: set of decision problems that have polynomial time non-deterministic algorithms.
- (B) **Question**: What is an algorithm? Depends on the model of computation!
- (C) What is our model of computation?
- (D) Formally speaking our model of computation is Turing Machines.

23.0.2 Turing machines

23.0.2.1 Turing Machines: Recap



- (A) Infinite tape.
- (B) Finite state control.
- (C) Input at beginning of tape.
- (D) Special tape letter "blank" \square .
- (E) Head can move only one cell to left or right.

23.0.2.2 Turing Machines: Formally

- (A) A **TM** $M = (Q, \Sigma, \Gamma, \delta, q_0, q_{accept}, q_{reject})$:
 - (A) Q is set of states in finite control
 - (B) q_0 start state, q_{accept} is accept state, q_{reject} is reject state
 - (C) Σ is input alphabet, Γ is tape alphabet (includes \sqcup)
 - (D) $\delta : Q \times \Gamma \rightarrow \{L, R\} \times \Gamma \times Q$ is transition function
 - (A) $\delta(q, a) = (q', b, L)$ means that M in state q and head seeing a on tape will move to state q' while replacing a on tape with b and head moves left.
- (B) $L(M)$: language accepted by M is set of all input strings s on which M accepts; that is:
 - (A) **TM** is started in state q_0 .
 - (B) Initially, the tape head is located at the first cell.
 - (C) The tape contain s on the tape followed by blanks.
 - (D) The **TM** halts in the state q_{accept} .

23.0.2.3 P via TMs

- (A) Polynomial time Turing machine.

Definition 23.0.1. 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.

- (B) Polynomial time language.

Definition 23.0.2. L is a language in **P** iff there is a polynomial time **TM** M such that $L = L(M)$.

23.0.2.4 NP via TMs

- (A) **NP** language...

Definition 23.0.3. L is an **NP** language iff there is a non-deterministic polynomial time **TM** M such that $L = L(M)$.

- (B) **Non-deterministic TM**: each step has a choice of moves
 - (A) $\delta : Q \times \Gamma \rightarrow \mathcal{P}(Q \times \Gamma \times \{L, R\})$.
 - (A) 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) .
 - (B) $L(M)$: set of all strings s on which there *exists* some sequence of valid choices at each step that lead from q_0 to q_{accept}

23.0.2.5 Non-deterministic TMs vs certifiers

- (A) Two definition of **NP**:
 - (A) L is in **NP** iff L has a polynomial time certifier $C(\cdot, \cdot)$.
 - (B) L is in **NP** iff L is decided by a non-deterministic polynomial time **TM** M .

(B) Equivalence...

Claim 23.0.4. *Two definitions are equivalent.*

(C) Why?

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

(E) 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*.

23.0.2.6 Non-determinism, guessing and verification

(A) 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.

(B) 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”.

(C) Note: Symmetry 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.

23.0.2.7 Algorithms: TMs vs RAM Model

(A) Why do we use **TMs** some times and **RAM** Model other times?

(B) **TMs** are very simple: no complicated instruction set, no jumps/pointers, no explicit loops etc.

(A) Simplicity is useful in proofs.

(B) The “right” formal bare-bones model when dealing with subtleties.

(C) **RAM** model is a closer approximation to the running time/space usage of realistic computers for reasonable problem sizes

(A) Not appropriate for certain kinds of formal proofs when algorithms can take super-polynomial time and space

23.0.3 Cook-Levin Theorem

23.0.4 Completeness

23.0.4.1 “Hardest” Problems

(A) Question What is the hardest problem in **NP**? How do we define it?

(B) Towards a definition

(A) Hardest problem must be in **NP**.

(B) Hardest problem must be at least as “difficult” as every other problem in **NP**.

23.0.4.2 NP-Complete Problems

Definition 23.0.5. *A problem X is said to be **NP-Complete** if*

(A) $X \in \mathbf{NP}$, and

(B) (**Hardness**) For any $Y \in \mathbf{NP}$, $Y \leq_P X$.

23.0.4.3 Solving NP-Complete Problems

Proposition 23.0.6. *Suppose X is **NP-Complete**. Then X can be solved in polynomial time if and only if $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$.*

Proof:

\Rightarrow Suppose X can be solved in polynomial time

(A) Let $Y \in \mathbf{NP}$. We know $Y \leq_P X$.

(B) We showed that if $Y \leq_P X$ and X can be solved in polynomial time, then Y can be solved in polynomial time.

(C) Thus, every problem $Y \in \mathbf{NP}$ is such that $Y \in P$; $\mathbf{NP} \subseteq P$.

(D) Since $\mathbf{P} \subseteq \mathbf{NP}$, we have $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$.

\Leftarrow Since $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$, and $X \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have a polynomial time algorithm for X . ■

23.0.4.4 NP-Hard Problems

(A) **NP-Hard** problems:

Definition 23.0.7. *A problem X is said to be **NP-Hard** if*

(A) (**Hardness**) *For any $Y \in \mathbf{NP}$, we have that $Y \leq_P X$.*

(B) An **NP-Hard** problem need not be in **NP**!

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

23.0.4.5 Consequences of proving NP-Completeness

(A) If X is **NP-Complete**

(A) Since we believe $\mathbf{P} \neq \mathbf{NP}$,

(B) and solving X implies $\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{NP}$.

(B) $\implies X$ is **unlikely** to be efficiently solvable.

(C) \implies At the very least, many smart people before you have failed to find an efficient algorithm for X .

(D) (This is proof by mob opinion — take with a grain of salt.)

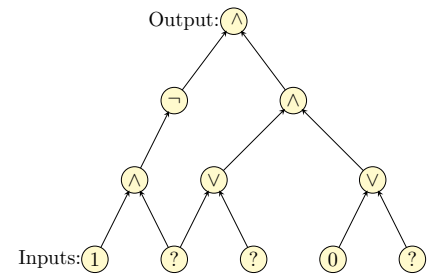
23.0.5 Preliminaries

23.0.5.1 NP-Complete Problems

Question Are there any problems that are **NP-Complete**? Answer Yes! Many, many problems are **NP-Complete**.

23.0.5.2 Circuits

Definition 23.0.8. A circuit is a directed acyclic graph with



23.0.6 Cook-Levin Theorem

23.0.6.1 Cook-Levin Theorem

Definition 23.0.9 (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 23.0.10 (Cook-Levin). CSAT is NP-Complete.

Need to show

- (A) CSAT is in NP.
- (B) every NP problem X reduces to CSAT.

23.0.6.2 CSAT: Circuit Satisfaction

Claim 23.0.11. CSAT is in NP.

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

23.0.6.3 CSAT is NP-hard: Idea

- (A) Need to show that every NP problem X reduces to CSAT.
- (B) What does it mean that $X \in \text{NP}$?
- (C) $X \in \text{NP}$ implies that there are polynomials $p()$ and $q()$ and certifier/verifier program C such that for every string s the following is true:
 - (A) 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.
 - (B) If s is a NO instance ($s \notin X$) then for every string t of length at $p(|s|)$, $C(s, t)$ says NO.
 - (C) $C(s, t)$ runs in time $q(|s| + |t|)$ time (hence polynomial time).

23.0.6.4 Reducing X to CSAT

- (A) X is in NP means we have access to $p(), q(), C(\cdot, \cdot)$.
- (B) What is $C(\cdot, \cdot)$? It is a program or equivalently a Turing Machine!
- (C) How are $p()$ and $q()$ given? As numbers (coefficients and powers).

- (D) Example: if 3 is given then $p(n) = n^3$.
- (E) Thus an **NP** problem is essentially a three tuple $\langle p, q, C \rangle$ where C is either a program or a **TM**.

23.0.6.5 Reducing X to **CSAT**

- (A) Thus an **NP** problem is essentially a three tuple $\langle p, q, C \rangle$ where C is either a program or **TM**.
- (B) **Problem X:** Given string s , is $s \in X$?
- (C) Same as the following: is there a proof t of length $p(|s|)$ such that $C(s, t)$ says YES.
- (D) How do we reduce X to **CSAT**? Need an algorithm \mathcal{A} that
 - (A) takes s (and $\langle p, q, C \rangle$) and creates a circuit G in polynomial time in $|s|$ (note that $\langle p, q, C \rangle$ are fixed).
 - (B) G is satisfiable if and only if there is a proof t such that $C(s, t)$ says YES.

23.0.6.6 Reducing X to **CSAT**

- (A) How do we reduce X to **CSAT**?
- (B) Need an algorithm \mathcal{A} that
 - (A) takes s (and $\langle p, q, C \rangle$) and creates a circuit G in polynomial time in $|s|$ (note that $\langle p, q, C \rangle$ are fixed).
 - (B) G is satisfiable if and only if there is a proof t such that $C(s, t)$ says YES
- (C) **Simple but Big Idea:** Programs are essentially the same as Circuits!
 - (A) Convert $C(s, t)$ into a circuit G with t as unknown inputs (rest is known including s)
 - (B) We know that $|t| = p(|s|)$ so express boolean string t as $p(|s|)$ variables t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k where $k = p(|s|)$.
 - (C) 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, \dots, t_k that will make G evaluate to true/YES.

23.0.6.7 Example: Independent Set

- (A) **Problem:** Does $G = (V, E)$ have an **Independent Set** of size $\geq k$?
 - (A) **Certificate:** Set $S \subseteq V$.
 - (B) **Certifier:** Check $|S| \geq k$ and no pair of vertices in S is connected by an edge.
- (B) Formally, why is **Independent Set** in **NP**?

23.0.6.8 Example: Independent Set

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

- (A) Input: $\langle n, y_{1,1}, y_{1,2}, \dots, y_{1,n}, y_{2,1}, \dots, y_{2,n}, \dots, y_{n,1}, \dots, y_{n,n}, k \rangle$ encodes $\langle G, k \rangle$.
 - (A) n is number of vertices in G
 - (B) $y_{i,j}$ is a bit which is 1 if edge (i, j) is in G and 0 otherwise (adjacency matrix representation)
 - (C) k is size of independent set.

- (B) Certificate: $t = t_1 t_2 \dots t_n$. Interpretation is that t_i is 1 if vertex i is in the independent set, 0 otherwise.

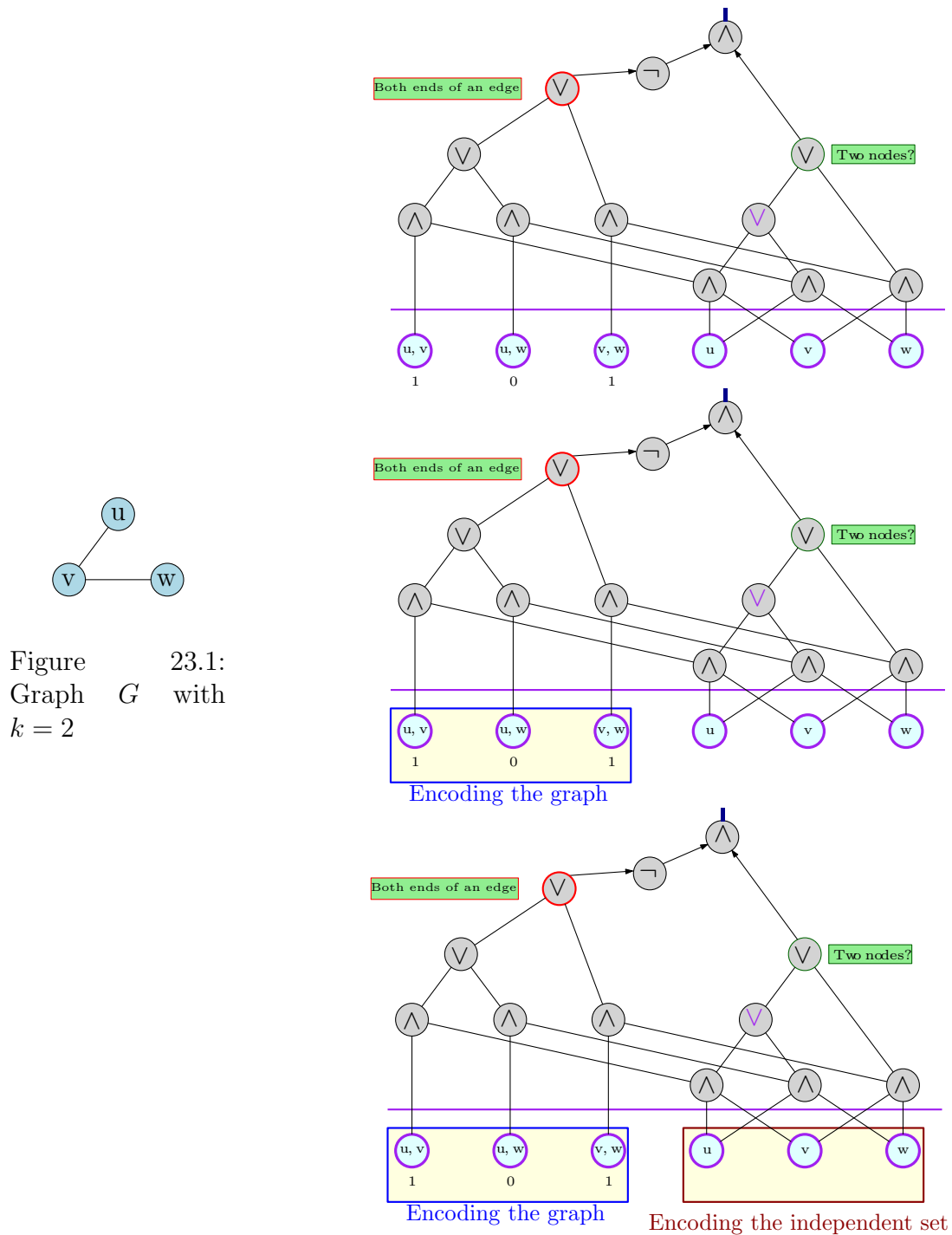
23.0.6.9 Certifier for Independent Set

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

```
if ( $t_1 + t_2 + \dots + t_n < k$ ) then
  return NO
else
  for each  $(i, j)$  do
    if ( $t_i \wedge t_j \wedge y_{i,j}$ ) then
      return NO
return YES
```

23.0.7 Example: Independent Set

23.0.7.1 A certifier circuit for Independent Set



23.0.7.2 Programs, Turing Machines and Circuits

(A) Consider “program” A that takes $f(|s|)$ steps on input string s .

- (B) **Question:** What computer is the program running on and what does *step* mean?
- (C) Real computers difficult to reason with mathematically because
 - (A) instruction set is too rich
 - (B) pointers and control flow jumps in one step
 - (C) assumption that pointer to code fits in one word
- (D) Turing Machines
 - (A) simpler model of computation to reason with
 - (B) can simulate real computers with *polynomial* slow down
 - (C) all moves are *local* (head moves only one cell)

23.0.7.3 Certifiers that at TMs

- (A) Assume $C(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a (deterministic) Turing Machine M
- (B) **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.
- (C) There is an algorithm \mathcal{A} that can reduce above problem to **CSAT** mechanically as follows.
 - (A) \mathcal{A} first computes $p(|s|)$ and $q(|s|)$.
 - (B) Knows that M can use at most $q(|s|)$ memory/tape cells
 - (C) Knows that M can run for at most $q(|s|)$ time
 - (D) Simulates the evolution of the state of M and memory over time using a big circuit.

23.0.7.4 Simulation of Computation via Circuit

- (A) Think of M 's state at time ℓ as a string $x^\ell = x_1x_2 \dots x_k$ where each $x_i \in \{0, 1, B\} \times Q \cup \{q_{-1}\}$.
- (B) 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.
- (C) At time $q(|s|)$ we wish to know if M stops in q_{accept} with say all blanks on the tape.
- (D) We write a circuit C_ℓ which captures the transition of M from time ℓ to time $\ell + 1$.
- (E) Composition of the circuits for all times 0 to $q(|s|)$ gives a big (still poly) sized circuit \mathcal{C}
- (F) The final output of \mathcal{C} should be true if and only if the entire state of M at the end leads to an accept state.

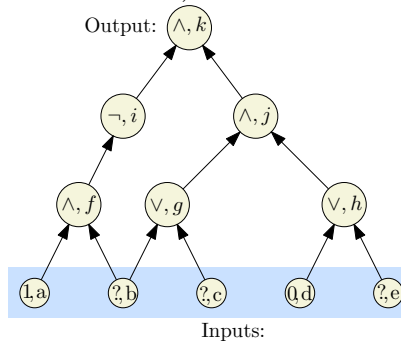
23.0.7.5 NP-Hardness of Circuit Satisfaction

- (A) Key Ideas in reduction:
 - (A) Use **TMs** as the code for certifier for simplicity
 - (B) Since $p()$ and $q()$ are known to \mathcal{A} , it can set up all required memory and time steps in advance
 - (C) Simulate computation of the **TM** from one time to the next as a circuit that only looks at three adjacent cells at a time
- (B) **Note:** Above reduction can be done to **SAT** as well. Reduction to **SAT** was the original proof of Steve Cook.

23.0.8 Other NP Complete Problems

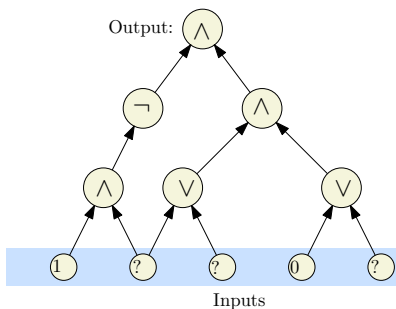
23.0.8.1 SAT is NP-Complete

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

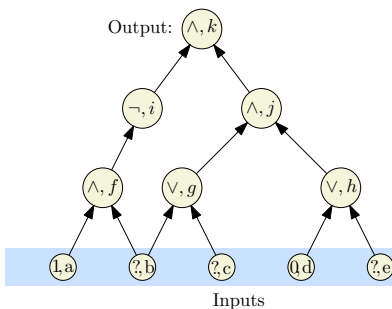


23.0.9 Converting a circuit into a CNF formula

23.0.9.1 Label the nodes



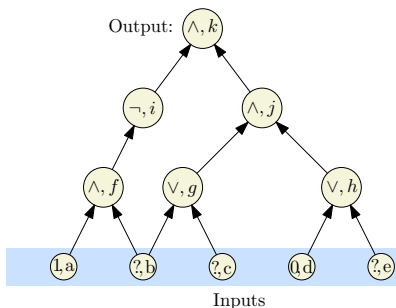
(A) Input circuit



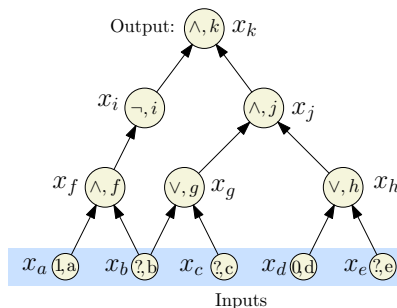
(B) Label the nodes.

23.0.10 Converting a circuit into a CNF formula

23.0.10.1 Introduce a variable for each node



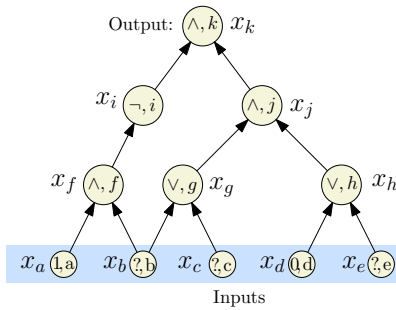
(B) Label the nodes.



(C) Introduce var for each node.

23.0.11 Converting a circuit into a CNF formula

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



(C) Introduce var for each node.

x_k (Demand a sat' assignment!)

$$x_k = x_i \wedge x_j$$

$$x_j = x_g \wedge x_h$$

$$x_i = \neg x_f$$

$$x_h = x_d \vee x_e$$

$$x_g = x_b \vee x_c$$

$$x_f = x_a \wedge x_b$$

$$x_d = 0$$

$$x_a = 1$$

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

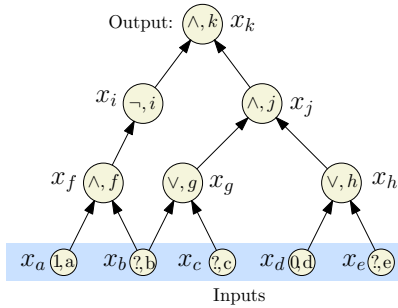
23.0.12 Converting a circuit into a CNF formula

23.0.12.1 Convert each sub-formula to an equivalent CNF formula

x_k	x_k
$x_k = x_i \wedge x_j$	$(\neg x_k \vee x_i) \wedge (\neg x_k \vee x_j) \wedge (x_k \vee \neg x_i \vee \neg x_j)$
$x_j = x_g \wedge x_h$	$(\neg x_j \vee x_g) \wedge (\neg x_j \vee x_h) \wedge (x_j \vee \neg x_g \vee \neg x_h)$
$x_i = \neg x_f$	$(x_i \vee x_f) \wedge (\neg x_i \vee \neg x_f)$
$x_h = x_d \vee x_e$	$(x_h \vee \neg x_d) \wedge (x_h \vee \neg x_e) \wedge (\neg x_h \vee x_d \vee x_e)$
$x_g = x_b \vee x_c$	$(x_g \vee \neg x_b) \wedge (x_g \vee \neg x_c) \wedge (\neg x_g \vee x_b \vee x_c)$
$x_f = x_a \wedge x_b$	$(\neg x_f \vee x_a) \wedge (\neg x_f \vee x_b) \wedge (x_f \vee \neg x_a \vee \neg x_b)$
$x_d = 0$	$\neg x_d$
$x_a = 1$	x_a

23.0.13 Converting a circuit into a CNF formula

23.0.13.1 Take the conjunction of all the CNF sub-formulas



$$\begin{aligned}
 & x_k \wedge (\neg x_k \vee x_i) \wedge (\neg x_k \vee x_j) \\
 & \wedge (x_k \vee \neg x_i \vee \neg x_j) \wedge (\neg x_j \vee x_g) \\
 & \wedge (\neg x_j \vee x_h) \wedge (x_j \vee \neg x_g \vee \neg x_h) \\
 & \wedge (x_i \vee x_f) \wedge (\neg x_i \vee x_g) \\
 & \wedge (x_h \vee \neg x_d) \wedge (x_h \vee \neg x_e) \\
 & \wedge (\neg x_h \vee x_d \vee x_e) \wedge (x_g \vee \neg x_b) \\
 & \wedge (x_g \vee \neg x_c) \wedge (\neg x_g \vee x_b \vee x_c) \\
 & \wedge (\neg x_f \vee x_a) \wedge (\neg x_f \vee x_b) \\
 & \wedge (x_f \vee \neg x_a \vee \neg x_b) \wedge ([\] \neg x_d \wedge x_a
 \end{aligned}$$

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

23.0.13.2 Reduction: $\text{CSAT} \leq_P \text{SAT}$

- (A) For each gate (vertex) v in the circuit, create a variable x_v
 (B) **Case** \neg : v is labeled \neg and has one incoming edge from u (so $x_v = \neg x_u$). In **SAT** formula generate, add clauses $(x_u \vee x_v)$, $(\neg x_u \vee \neg x_v)$. Observe that

$$x_v = \neg x_u \text{ is true} \iff \begin{array}{l} (x_u \vee x_v) \\ (\neg x_u \vee \neg x_v) \end{array} \text{ both true.}$$

23.0.14 Reduction: $\text{CSAT} \leq_P \text{SAT}$

23.0.14.1 Continued...

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

$$\left(x_v = x_u \vee x_w \right) \text{ is true} \iff \begin{array}{l} (x_v \vee \neg x_u), \\ (x_v \vee \neg x_w), \\ (\neg x_v \vee x_u \vee x_w) \end{array} \text{ all true.}$$

23.0.15 Reduction: $\text{CSAT} \leq_P \text{SAT}$

23.0.15.1 Continued...

- (A) **Case** \wedge : So $x_v = x_u \wedge x_w$. In **SAT** formula generated, add clauses $(\neg x_v \vee x_u)$, $(\neg x_v \vee x_w)$, and $(x_v \vee \neg x_u \vee \neg x_w)$. Again observe that

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

23.0.16 Reduction: $\text{CSAT} \leq_P \text{SAT}$

23.0.16.1 Continued...

- (A) 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 $\neg x_v$
- (B) Add the clause x_v where v is the variable for the output gate

23.0.16.2 Correctness of Reduction

Need to show circuit C is satisfiable iff φ_C is satisfiable

\Rightarrow Consider a satisfying assignment a for C

- (A) Find values of all gates in C under a
- (B) Give value of gate v to variable x_v ; call this assignment a'
- (C) a' satisfies φ_C (exercise)

\Leftarrow Consider a satisfying assignment a for φ_C

- (A) Let a' be the restriction of a to only the input variables
- (B) Value of gate v under a' is the same as value of x_v in a
- (C) Thus, a' satisfies C

23.0.16.3 Showed that...

Theorem 23.0.12. SAT is **NP-Complete**.

23.0.16.4 Proving that a problem X is NP-Complete

- (A) To prove X is **NP-Complete**, show
 - (A) Show X is in **NP**.
 - (A) certificate/proof of polynomial size in input
 - (B) polynomial time certifier $C(s, t)$
 - (B) Reduction from a known **NP-Complete** problem such as **CSAT** or **SAT** to X
- (B) $\text{SAT} \leq_P X$ implies that every **NP** problem $Y \leq_P X$. Why?
- (C) Transitivity of reductions:
- (D) $Y \leq_P \text{SAT}$ and $\text{SAT} \leq_P X$ and hence $Y \leq_P X$.

23.0.16.5 NP-Completeness via Reductions

- (A) What we know so far:
 - (A) **CSAT** is **NP-Complete**.
 - (B) $\text{CSAT} \leq_P \text{SAT}$ and **SAT** is in **NP** and hence **SAT** is **NP-Complete**.
 - (C) $\text{SAT} \leq_P \text{3-SAT}$ and hence 3-SAT is **NP-Complete**.
 - (D) $\text{3-SAT} \leq_P \text{Independent Set}$ (which is in **NP**) and hence **Independent Set** is **NP-Complete**.
 - (E) **Vertex Cover** is **NP-Complete**.
 - (F) **Clique** is **NP-Complete**.
- (B) Gazillion of different problems from many areas of science and engineering have been shown to be **NP-Complete**.

(C) A surprisingly frequent phenomenon!

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S. Even, A. Itai, and A. Shamir. On the complexity of timetable and multicommodity flow problems. *SIAM J. Comput.*, 5(4):691–703, 1976.