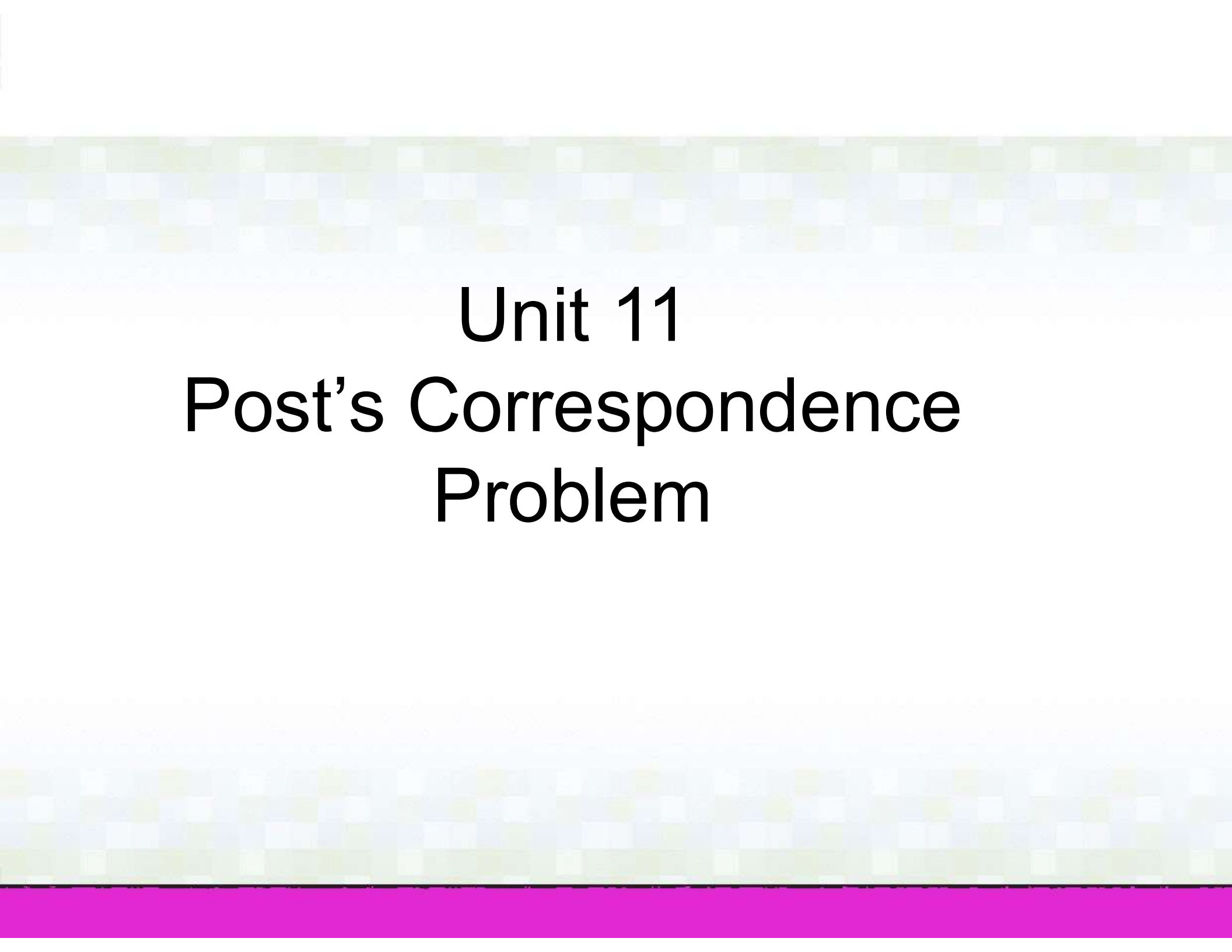


# CS372

# FORMAL LANGUAGES & THE THEORY OF COMPUTATION

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# Unit 11

## Post's Correspondence Problem

# Post's Correspondence Problem (PCP)

## AN INSTANCE OF THE PCP

A PCP instance over  $\Sigma$  is a finite collection  $P$  of dominos

$$P = \{ \begin{array}{c} t_1 \\ b_1 \end{array}, \begin{array}{c} t_2 \\ b_2 \end{array}, \dots, \begin{array}{c} t_k \\ b_k \end{array} \}$$

where for all  $i$ ,  $1 \leq i \leq k$ ,  $t_i, b_i \in \Sigma^+$ .

Given a PCP instance  $P$ , a **match** is a nonempty sequence

$$i_1, i_2, \dots, i_e$$

of numbers from  $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$  (with repetition) such that  $t_{i_1} t_{i_2} \dots t_{i_e} = b_{i_1} b_{i_2} \dots b_{i_e}$


# A match of PCP

Alphabet:  $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$

<i>a</i>	<i>c</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>acb</i>
<i>ac</i>	<i>ba</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ac</i>	<i>b</i>

Concatenation of strings on top: *a c ba a acb*

Concatenation of strings at bottom: *ac ba a ac b*



# Post's Correspondence Problem (PCP)

## QUESTION:

Does a given PCP instance  $P$  have a match?

## LANGUAGE FORMULATION:

$PCP = \{(P) \mid P \text{ is a PCP instance and it has a match}\}$

## THEOREM 11.2

PCP is undecidable.

Proof: By reduction using computation histories. If PCP is decidable then so is  $A_{TM}$ . That is, if PCP has a match, then  $M$  accepts  $w$ .

# A “yes” instance of PCP

Alphabet:  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$

	T	B
i	$t_i$	$b_i$
1	11	1
2	1	111
3	0111	10
4	10	0

This instance of PCP has a match of dominos 1, 3, 2, 2, 4:

$$t_1 t_3 t_2 t_2 t_4 = b_1 b_3 b_2 b_2 b_4 = 1101111110$$

# A “no” instance of PCP

Alphabet:  $\Sigma = \{0,1\}$

	T	B
$i$	$t_i$	$b_i$
1	10	01
2	011	100
3	101	010

Why?

# PCP – THE STRUCTURE OF THE UNDECIDABILITY PROOF

The reduction works in two steps:

We reduce  $A_{TM}$  to Modified PCP (MPCP).

We reduce MPCP to PCP.

## MPCP AS A LANGUAGE PROBLEM

$MPCP = \{(P) \mid P \text{ is a PCP instance and it has a match which starts with index 1}\}$

So the solution to MPCP starts with the domino  $\frac{t_1}{b_1}$ . We later remove this restriction in the second part of the proof.

We also assume that the decider for  $M$  never moves its head to the left of the input  $w$ .



# MAPPING REDUCIBILITY

## DEFINITION

Let  $A, B \subseteq \Sigma^*$ . We say that language  $A$  is **mapping reducible** to language  $B$ , written  $A <_m B$ , if and only if

- 1 There is a computable function  $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$  such that
- 2 For every  $w \in \Sigma^*$ ,  $w \in A$  if and only if  $f(w) \in B$ .

The function  $f$  is called a **reduction** of  $A$  to  $B$ .

## THEOREM 11.3

If  $A <_m B$  and  $B$  is decidable, then  $A$  is decidable.

## PROOF

Let  $M$  be a decider for  $B$  and  $f$  be a mapping from  $A$  to  $B$ .

Then  $N$  decides  $A$ .  $N =$  "On input  $w$

- 1 Compute  $f(w)$
- 2 Run  $M$  on input  $f(w)$  and output whatever  $M$  outputs."

If  $A <_m B$  and  $A$  is undecidable, then  $B$  is undecidable.

# SUMMARY OF MAPPING REDUCIBILITY RESULTS

## SUMMARY OF THEOREMS

Assume that  $A <_m B$ . Then

- 1 If  $B$  is decidable then  $A$  is decidable.
- 2 If  $A$  is undecidable then  $B$  is undecidable.
- 3 If  $B$  is Turing-recognizable then  $A$  is Turing-recognizable.
- 4 If  $A$  is not Turing-recognizable then  $B$  is not Turing-recognizable.
- 5  $\overline{A} <_m \overline{B}$

Useful observation:

- Suppose you can show  $A_{TM} <_m \overline{B}$
- This means  $\overline{A_{TM}} <_m B$
- Since  $\overline{A_{TM}}$  is Turing-unrecognizable then  $B$  is Turing-unrecognizable.

# EXAMPLE OF USE

## THEOREM

$EQ_{TM} = \{(M_1, M_2) \mid M_1 \text{ and } M_2 \text{ are TMs and } L(M_1) = L(M_2)\}$  is neither Turing recognizable nor co-Turing-recognizable.

## PROOF IDEA

We show

■  $\overline{A_{TM}} <_m EQ_{TM}$

■  $\overline{A_{TM}} <_m \overline{EQ_{TM}}$

■ These then imply the theorem.

# EXAMPLE OF USE

## PROOF FOR $A_{TM} <_m EQ_{TM}$

We show  $A_{TM} <_m EQ_{TM}$  (and hence  $\overline{A_{TM}} <_m \overline{EQ_{TM}}$ ) with the following  $g$ :

$G =$  “On input  $(M, w)$  where  $M$  is a TM and  $w$  is a string:

1. Construct the following two machines  $M_1$  and  $M_2$

$M_1 =$  “On any input:

1. Accept”

$M_2 =$  “On any input:

1. Run  $M$  on  $w$ . If it accepts, *accept*.”

2. Output  $(M_1, M_2)$ .”

■  $M_1$  accepts everything.

■ If  $M$  accepts  $w$  then  $M_2$  accepts everything. So  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are equivalent.

■ If  $M$  does not accept  $w$  then  $M_2$  accepts nothing. So  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are not equivalent.

■ So  $A_{TM} <_m EQ_{TM}$  (and hence  $\overline{A_{TM}} <_m \overline{EQ_{TM}}$ )

# Summary of Reducibility

We know that language  $A$  is undecidable. By reducing  $A$  to  $B$  we want to show that the language  $B$  is also undecidable.

- 1 Assume that we have a decider  $M_B$  for  $B$ .
- 2 Using  $M_B$  we construct a decider  $M_A$  for the language  $A$ :

$M_A =$  “On input ( $I_A$ )

1. **Algorithmically** construct an input ( $I_B$ ) for  $M_B$ , such that
  - a) Either
  - b) or

If ( $I_A$ )  $\in A$  then ( $I_B$ )  $\in B$

If ( $I_A$ )  $\notin A$  then ( $I_B$ )  $\notin B$

If ( $I_A$ )  $\in A$  then ( $I_B$ )  $\notin B$

If ( $I_A$ )  $\notin A$  then ( $I_B$ )  $\in B$

2. Run the decider  $M_B$  on ( $I_B$ ) for  $M_B$   
Case a):  $M_A$  **accepts** if  $M_B$  accepts, and **rejects** if  $M_B$  rejects Case  
b):  $M_A$  **rejects** if  $M_B$  accepts, and **accepts** if  $M_B$  reject.

- 3 We know  $M_A$  can not exist so  $M_B$  can not exist.
- 4  $B$  is undecidable.

# COMPUTABLE FUNCTIONS

## IDEA

Turing Machines can also compute function  $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$ .

## COMPUTABLE FUNCTION

A function  $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$  is a **computable function** if and only if there exists a TM  $M_f$ , which on any given input  $w \in \Sigma^*$

- always halts, and
- leaves just  $f(w)$  on its tape.

Examples:

- Let  $f(w) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} ww$  be a function. Then  $f$  is computable.
- Let  $f((n_1, n_2)) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (n)$  where  $n$  and  $n_2$  are integers and  $n = n_1 * n_2$ . Then  $f$  is computable.

# Unit 12

# Time Complexity

# Complexity Theory

**Complexity Theory** aims to make general conclusions of the resource requirements of decidable problems (languages).

We only consider **decidable languages and deciders**.

Our computational model is a Turing Machine.

**Time**: the number of computation steps a TM machine makes to decide on an input of size  $n$ .

**Space**: the maximum number of tape cells a TM machine takes to decide on a input of size  $n$ .



# Motivation

- How much time (or how many steps) does a single tape TM take to decide  $A = \{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\}$ ?

$M$  = “On input  $w$ :

- 1 Scan the tape and *reject* if  $w$  is not of the form  $0^*1^*$ .
- 2 Repeat if both 0s and 1s remain on the tape.
- 3 Scan across the tape crossing off one 0 and one 1.
- 4 If all 0's are crossed and some 1's left, or all 1's crossed and some 0's left, then *reject*; else *accept*.

QUESTION

How many steps does  $M$  take on an input  $w$  of length  $n$ ?

ANSWER (WORST-CASE)

The number of steps  $M$  takes  $n^2$ .

# Some Notions

- The number of steps is measured as a function of  $n$  - **the size of the string representing the input.**
- In **worst-case analysis**, we consider the longest running time of all inputs of length  $n$ .
- In **average-case analysis**, we consider the average of the running times of all inputs of length  $n$ .

## TIME COMPLEXITY

Let  $M$  be a deterministic TM that halts on all inputs. The **time complexity** of  $M$  is the function  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , 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

- $M$  runs in time  $f(n)$
- $M$  is an  $f(n)$ -time TM.

# Asymptotic Analysis

- We seek to understand the running time when the input is “large”.
- Hence we use an **asymptotic notation** or **big-O notation** to characterize the behaviour of  $f(n)$  when  $n$  is large.
- The exact value running time function is not terribly important. What is important is **how  $f(n)$  grows as a function of  $n$ , for large  $n$** . Differences of a constant factor are not important.

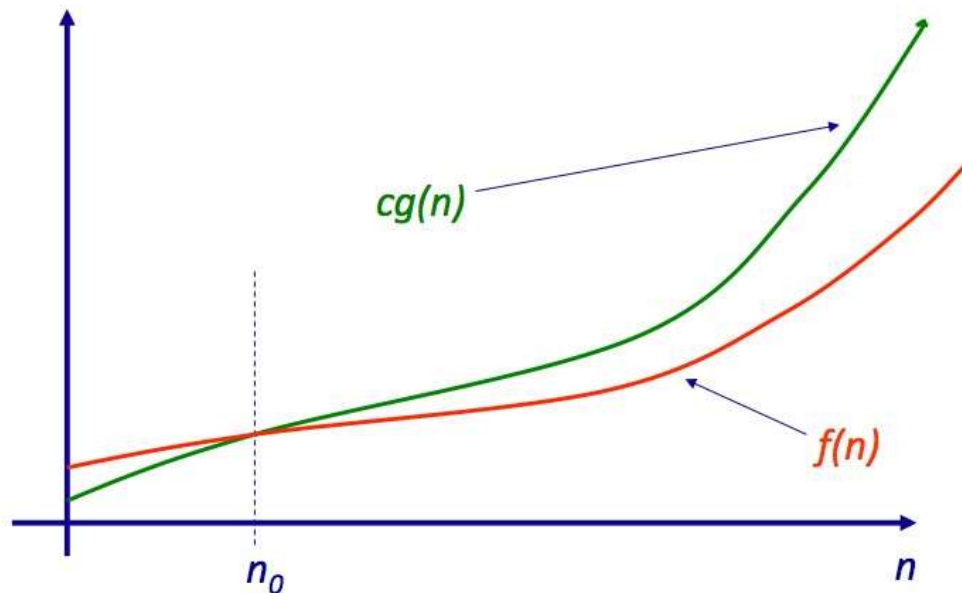
# Asymptotic Upper Bound

## DEFINITION – ASYMPTOTIC UPPER BOUND

Let  $\mathbb{R}^+$  be the set of nonnegative real numbers. Let  $f$  and  $g$  be functions  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ . We say  $f(n) = O(g(n))$ , if there are positive integers  $c$  and  $n_0$ , such that for every  $n \geq n_0$

$$f(n) \leq c g(n).$$

$g(n)$  is an **asymptotic upper bound**.



# Complexity Classes

DEFINITION – TIME COMPLEXITY CLASS  $\text{TIME}(t(n))$

Let  $t : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$  be a function.

$\text{TIME}(t(n)) = \{L(M) \mid M \text{ is a decider running in time } O(t(n))\}$

$\text{TIME}(t(n))$  is the **class (collection) of languages** that are decidable by TMs, running in time  $O(t(n))$ .

$\text{TIME}(n) \subset \text{TIME}(n^2) \subset \text{TIME}(n^3) \subset \dots \subset \text{TIME}(2^n) \subset \dots$

Examples:

$\{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\} \in \text{TIME}(n^2)$

$\{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\} \in \text{TIME}(n \log n)$

$\{w \# w \mid w \in \{0, 1\}^*\} \in \text{TIME}(n^2)$

$$\{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\} \in \text{TIME}(n \log n)$$

M = “On input  $w$ :

1. Scan the tape and *reject* if  $w$  is not of the form  $0^*1^*$ .
2. Repeat as long as some 0s and some 1s remain on the tape.
  - Scan across the tape, checking whether the total number of 0s and 1s is even or odd. *Reject* if it is odd.
  - Scan across the tape, crossing off every other 0 starting with the first 0, and every other 1, starting with the first 1.
3. If no 0's and no 1's remain on the tape, *accept*. Otherwise, *reject*.

Steps 2 take  $O(n)$  time.

Step 2 is repeated at most  $1 + \log_2 n$  times. (why?)

Total time is  $O(n \log n)$ .

Hence,  $\{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\} \in \text{TIME}(n \log n)$ .

However,  $\{0^k 1^k \mid k \geq 0\}$  is decidable on a **2-tape TM in time  $O(n)$**

(How ?)

# The Class P

## DEFINITION

**P** is the class of languages that are decidable in polynomial time on a deterministic single-tape TM.

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

The class P is important for two main reasons:

- 1 P is **robust**: The class remains invariant for all models of computation that are polynomially equivalent to deterministic single-tape TMs.
- 2 P (roughly) corresponds to the class of problems that are **realistically** solvable on a computer.

Even though the exponents can be large (though most useful algorithms have “low” exponents), the class P provides a reasonable definition of **practical solvability**.

# Example of Problems in P

## THEOREM

$PATH = \{(G, s, t) \mid G \text{ is a directed graph with } n \text{ nodes that has a path from } s \text{ to } t\} \in P.$

## PROOF

$M =$  “On input  $(G, s, t)$

- 1 Place a mark on  $s$ .
  - 2 Repeat 3 until no new nodes are marked
  - 3 Scan edges of  $G$ . If  $(a, b)$  is an edge and  $a$  is marked and  $b$  is unmarked, mark  $b$ .
  - 4 If  $t$  is marked, *accept* else *reject*.
- Steps 1 and 4 are executed once
    - Each takes at most  $O(n)$  time on a TM.
  - Step 3 is executed at most  $n$  times
    - Each execution takes at most  $O(n^2)$  steps ( $\propto$  number of edges)
  - Total execution time is thus a polynomial in  $n$ .



# Example of Problems in P

THEOREM

$A_{CFG} \in P$

PROOF.

The CYK algorithm decides  $A_{CFG}$  in polynomial time.

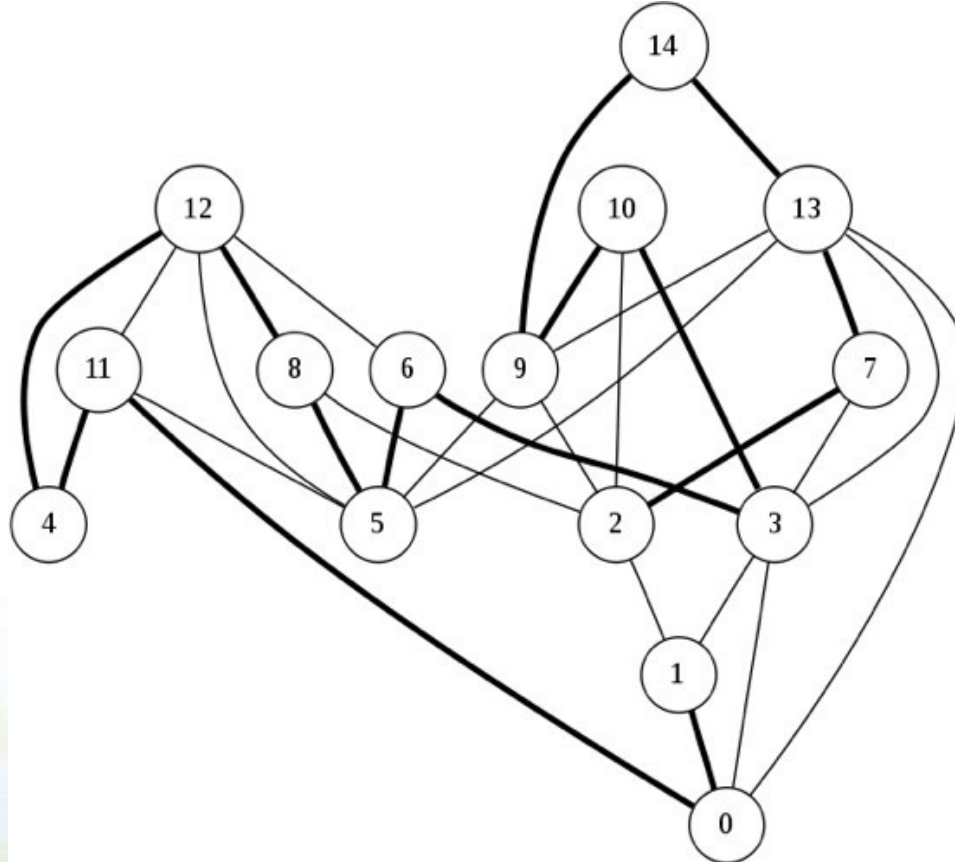
# The Class NP

- For some problems, even though there is an exponentially large search space of solutions (e.g., for the path problem), we can avoid a brute force solution and get a polynomial-time algorithm.
- For some problems, it is not possible to avoid a brute force solution and such problems have so far resisted a polynomial time solution.
- We may not yet know the principles that would lead to a polynomial time algorithm, or they may be “intrinsically difficult.”
- How can we characterize such problems?

# The Hamiltonian Path Problem

## DEFINITION – HAMILTONIAN PATH

A **Hamiltonian path** in a directed graph  $G$  is a directed path that goes through each node exactly once.



# The Hamiltonian Path Problem

## HAMILTONIAN PATH PROBLEM

$HAMPATH = \{(G, s, t) \mid G \text{ is a directed graph with a Hamiltonian path from } s \text{ to } t\}$ .

- We can easily obtain an exponential time algorithm with a brute force approach.  
Generate all possible paths between  $s$  and  $t$  and check if all nodes appear on a path!
- The  $HAMPATH$  problem has a property called **polynomial verifiability**.  
If we can (magically) get a Hamiltonian path, we can verify that it is a Hamiltonian path, **in polynomial time**
- *Verifying* the existence of a Hamiltonian path is “easier” than *determining* its existence.

# The Class NP

## THE CLASS NP

**NP** is the class of languages that have polynomial time verifiers.

- NP stands for **nondeterministic polynomial time**.
- Problems in NP are called **NP-Problems**.
- $P \subset (\subseteq?) NP$ .

# The Class NP

## THEOREM 12.2

A language is in NP, iff it is decided by some nondeterministic polynomial time Turing machine.

## PROOF IDEA

- We show polynomial time verifier  $\Leftrightarrow$  polynomial time decider TM.
  - NTM simulates the verifier by guessing a certificate.
  - The verifier simulates the NTM

## PROOF: NTM GIVEN THE VERIFIER.

Let  $A \in \text{NP}$ . Let  $V$  be a verifier that runs in time  $O(n^k)$ .  $N$  decides  $A$  in nondeterministic polynomial time.

$N =$  “On input  $w$  of length  $n$

- Nondeterministically select string  $c$  of length at most  $n^k$ .
- Run  $V$  on input  $(w, c)$ .
- If  $V$  accepts, *accept*; otherwise *reject*.”



# The Class NP

## DEFINITION

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

## COROLLARY

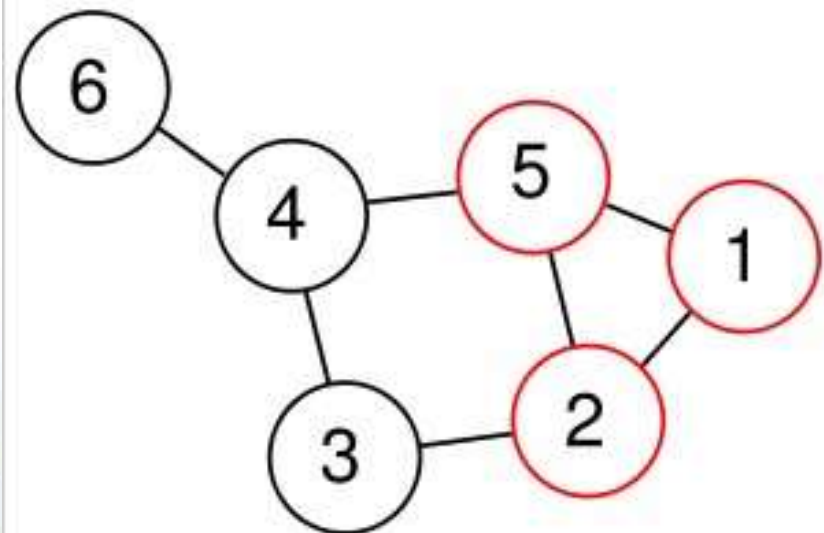
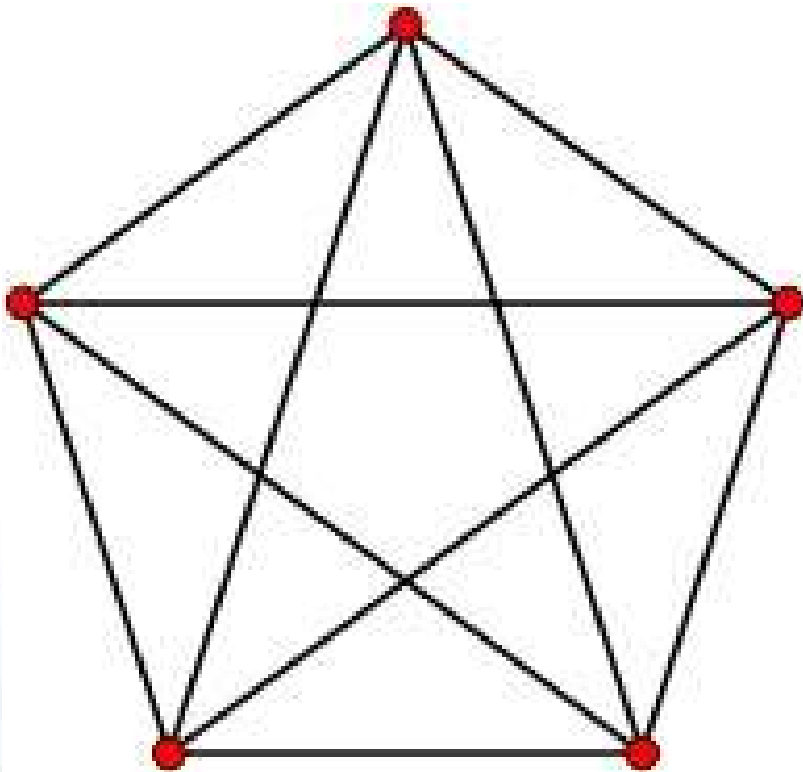
$$\text{NP} = \bigcup_k \text{NTIME}(n^k)$$

# The clique problem

## DEFINITION - CLIQUE

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.





# The Clique Problem

## THEOREM 12.3

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

### PROOF

The clique is the certificate.

$V =$  “On input  $((G, k), c)$ :

- 1 Test whether  $c$  is a set of  $k$  nodes in  $G$ .
  - 2 Test whether  $G$  has all edges connecting nodes in  $c$ .
  - 3 If both pass, *accept*; otherwise *reject*.”
- All steps take polynomial time

### ALTERNATIVE PROOF

Use a NTM as a decider.

$N =$  “On input  $(G, k)$ :

- 1 Nondeterministically select a subset  $c$  of  $k$  nodes of  $G$ .
- 2 Test whether  $G$  has all edges connecting nodes in  $c$ .
- 3 If yes *accept*; otherwise *reject*.”

# The Class CoNP

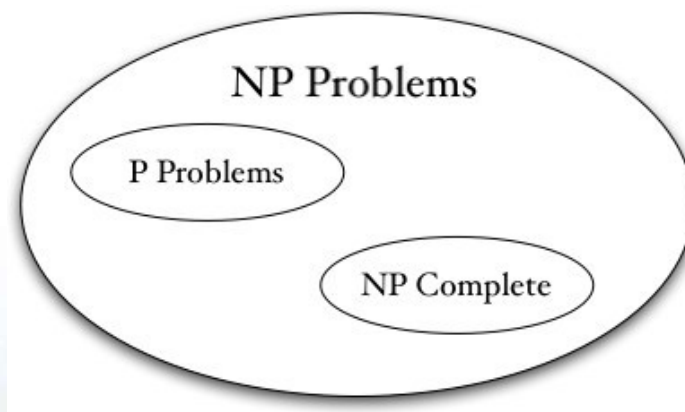
- It turns out  $\overline{CLIQUE}$  or  $\overline{SUBSET-SUM}$  are NOT in NP.
- Verifying something is NOT present seems to be more difficult than verifying it IS present.
- The class **coNP** contains all problems that are complements of languages in NP.
- We do not know if  $\text{coNP} \neq \text{NP}$ .

# Unit 13

# NP Completeness

# Summary of Complexity

- Time complexity: Big-O notation, asymptotic complexity
- Simulation of multi-tape TMs with a single tape deterministic TM can be done with a polynomial slow-down.
- Simulation of nondeterministic TMs with a deterministic TM is exponentially slower.
- The Class P: The class of languages for which membership can be *decided* quickly.
- The Class NP: The class of languages for which membership can be *verified* quickly.



- We do not yet know if  $P = NP$ , or not.

# NP Problems

- The best method known for solving languages in NP deterministically uses exponential time, that is

$$\text{NP} \subseteq \text{EXPTIME} = \bigcup_k \text{TIME}(2^{n^k})$$

- It is not known whether NP is contained in a smaller deterministic time complexity class.

# NP-complete Problems

- Cook and Levin in early 1970's showed that certain problems in NP were such that
  - If any of these problems had a deterministic polynomial-time algorithm, then
  - All problems in NP had deterministic polynomial-time algorithms.
- Such problems are called **NP-complete** problems.
- This is important for a number of reasons:
  - 1 If one is attempting to show that  $P \neq NP$ , s/he may focus on an NP-complete problem and try to show that it needs more than a polynomial amount of time.
  - 2 If one is attempting to show that  $P = NP$ , s/he may focus on an NP-complete problem and try to come up with a polynomial time algorithm for it.
  - 3 One may avoid wasting searching for a nonexistent polynomial time algorithm to solve a particular problem, if one can show it reduces to an NP-complete problem

# The Satisfiability Problem

## DEFINITION – BOOLEAN VARIABLES

A **boolean variable** is a variable that can take on values TRUE (1) and FALSE (0).

- We have **Boolean operations** of AND ( $x \wedge y$ ), OR ( $x \vee y$ ) and NOT ( $\neg x$  or  $\bar{x}$ ) on boolean variables.

AND	OR	NOT
$0 \wedge 0 = 0$	$0 \vee 0 = 0$	$\underline{0} = 1$
$0 \wedge 1 = 0$	$0 \vee 1 = 1$	$1 = 0$
$1 \wedge 0 = 0$	$1 \vee 0 = 1$	
$1 \wedge 1 = 1$	$1 \vee 1 = 1$	

# The Satisfiability Problem

## DEFINITION – BOOLEAN FORMULA

A **Boolean** formula is an expression involving Boolean variables and operations.

For example:  $\varphi = (x \neg \wedge y) \vee (x \wedge z) \vee (y \wedge z)$  is a Boolean formula.

## DEFINITION – SATISFIABILITY

A Boolean formula is **satisfiable** if some assignment of 0s and 1s to the variables makes the formula evaluate to 1.

We say the assignment satisfies  $\varphi$ .

- What possible assignments satisfy the formula above?

## DEFINITION – THE SATISFIABILITY PROBLEM

The **satisfiability problem** checks if a Boolean formula is satisfiable.

$$SAT = \{(\varphi) \mid \varphi \text{ is a satisfiable Boolean formula}\}$$



# Polynomial Time Reducibility

## DEFINITION – POLYNOMIAL TIME COMPUTABLE FUNCTION

A function  $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$  is a **polynomial time computable function** if some polynomial time TM  $M$  exists that halts with  $f(w)$  on its tape, when started on any input  $w$ .

## DEFINITION – POLYNOMIAL TIME REDUCIBILITY

Language  $A$  is **polynomial time mapping reducible** or **polynomial time reducible**, to language  $B$ , notated  $A \leq_P B$ , if a polynomial time computable function  $f : \Sigma^* \rightarrow \Sigma^*$  exists, where for every  $w$ ,

$$w \in A \Leftrightarrow f(w) \in B$$

The function  $f$  is called the **polynomial time reduction** of  $A$  to  $B$ .

- To test whether  $w \in A$  we use the reduction  $f$  to map  $w$  to  $f(w)$  and test whether  $f(w) \in B$ .

# Polynomial Time Reducibility

## THEOREM 7.31

If  $A \leq_P B$  and  $B \in P$ , then  $A \in P$ .

## PROOF

- It takes polynomial time to reduce  $A$  to  $B$ .
- It takes polynomial time to decide  $B$ .

# Variations on the Satisfiability Problem

- A **literal** is a Boolean variable or its negated version ( $x$  or  $\bar{x}$ ).
- A **clause** is several literals connected with  $\vee$  (OR), e.g.,  $(x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2 \vee x_4)$ .
- A Boolean formula is in **conjunctive normal form** (or is a **cnf-formula**) if it consists of several clauses connected with  $\wedge$  (AND), e.g.

$$(x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2 \vee x_4 \vee x_5) \wedge (x_2 \vee \bar{x}_3 \vee \bar{x}_4) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3 \vee \bar{x}_5)$$

- A cnf-formula is a **3cnf-formula** if all clauses have 3 literals, e.g.

$$(x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2 \vee x_4) \wedge (x_2 \vee \bar{x}_3 \vee \bar{x}_4) \wedge (x_1 \vee x_3 \vee \bar{x}_5)$$

- $3SAT = \{(\varphi) \mid \varphi \text{ is a satisfiable 3cnf-formula}\}$ .
  - In a satisfiable cnf-formula, each clause must contain at least one literal that is assigned 1.

# An example reduction: Reducing 3SAT to *CLIQUE*

## THEOREM 13.2

3SAT is polynomial time reducible to *CLIQUE*.

## PROOF IDEA

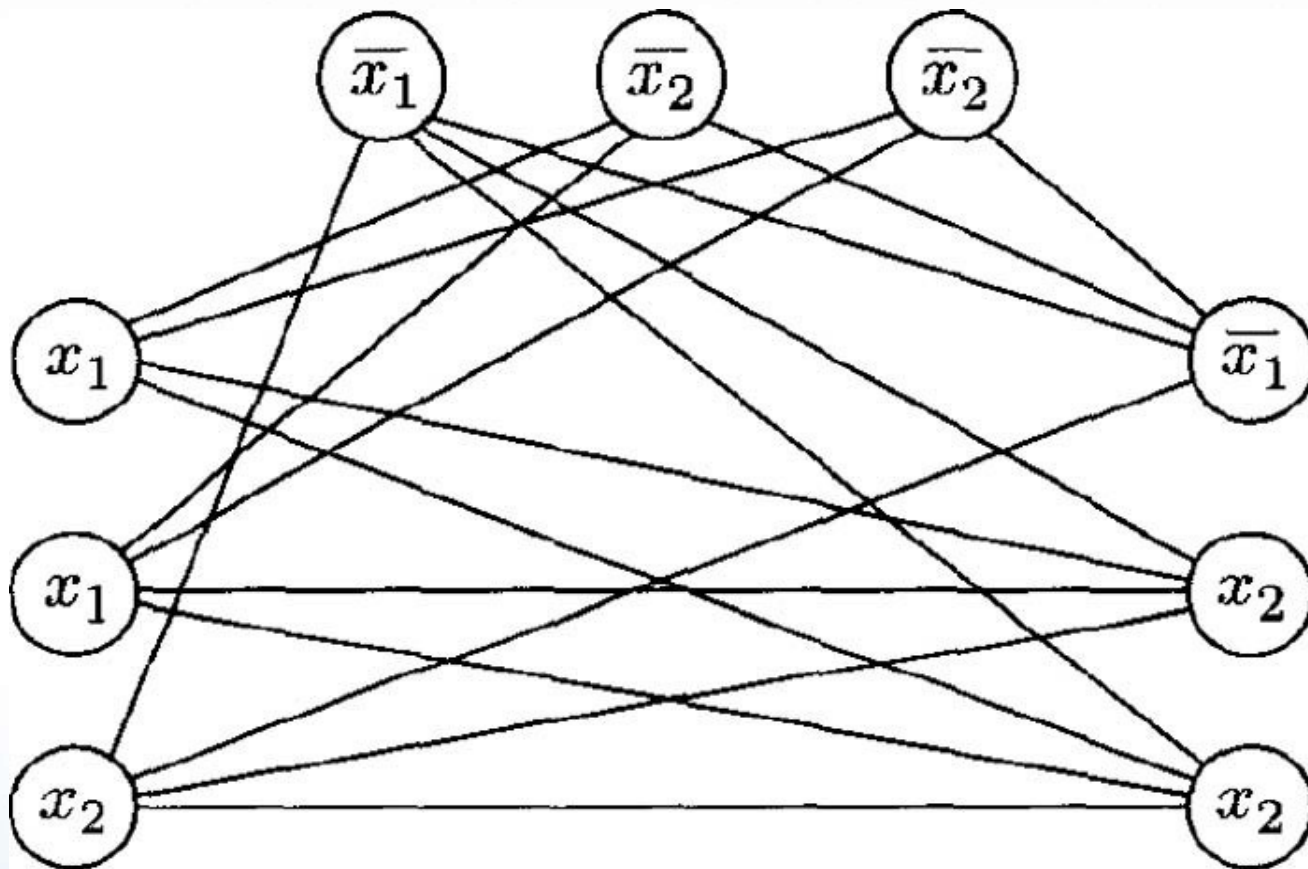
Take any 3SAT formula and polynomial-time reduce it to a graph such that if the graph has a clique then the 3cnf-formula is satisfiable.

### ■ Some details:

- $\varphi$  is a formula with  $k$  clauses each with 3 literals.
- The  $k$  clauses in  $\varphi$  map to  $k$  groups of 3 nodes each called a **triple**.
- Each node in the triple corresponds to one of the literals in the corresponding clause.
- No edges between the nodes in a triple.
- No edges between “conflicting” nodes (e.g.,  $x$  and  $\bar{x}$ )

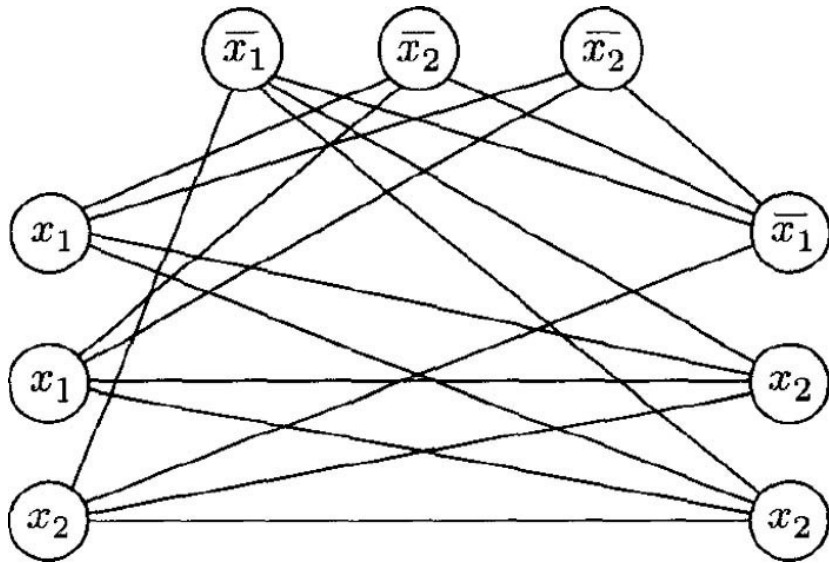
# An Example Reduction: Reducing *SAT* to *CLIQUE*

$$\varphi = (x_1 \vee x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee \overline{x_2} \vee x_2) \wedge (\overline{x_1} \vee x_2 \vee x_2)$$



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- If  $\varphi$  has a satisfying assignment, then at least one literal in each clause needs to be 1.
- We select the corresponding nodes in the corresponding triples.
- These nodes should form a  $k$ -clique.
- If  $G$  has a  $k$ -clique, then selected nodes give a satisfying assignment to variables.

# NP - Completeness

## DEFINITION – NP-COMPLETENESS

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  $B$ .

## THEOREM

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

## THEOREM

If  $B$  is NP-complete and  $B \leq_P C$  for  $C$  in NP, then  $C$  is NP-complete.

## PROOF

All  $A \leq_P B$  and  $B \leq_P C$  thus all  $A \leq_P C$ .



# The Cook – Levin Theorem

## THEOREM

*SAT* is NP-Complete.

## PROOF IDEA

- Showing *SAT* is in NP is easy.
  - Nondeterministically guess the assignments to variables and accept if the assignments satisfy  $\varphi$
- We can encode the **accepting computation history** of a polynomial time NTM for every problem in NP as a *SAT* formula  $\varphi$ .
- Thus every language  $A \in \text{NP}$  is polynomial-time reducible to *SAT*.
  - $N$  is a NTM that can decide  $A$  in time  $O(n^k)$
  - **$N$  accepts  $w$  if and only if  $\varphi$  is satisfiable.**