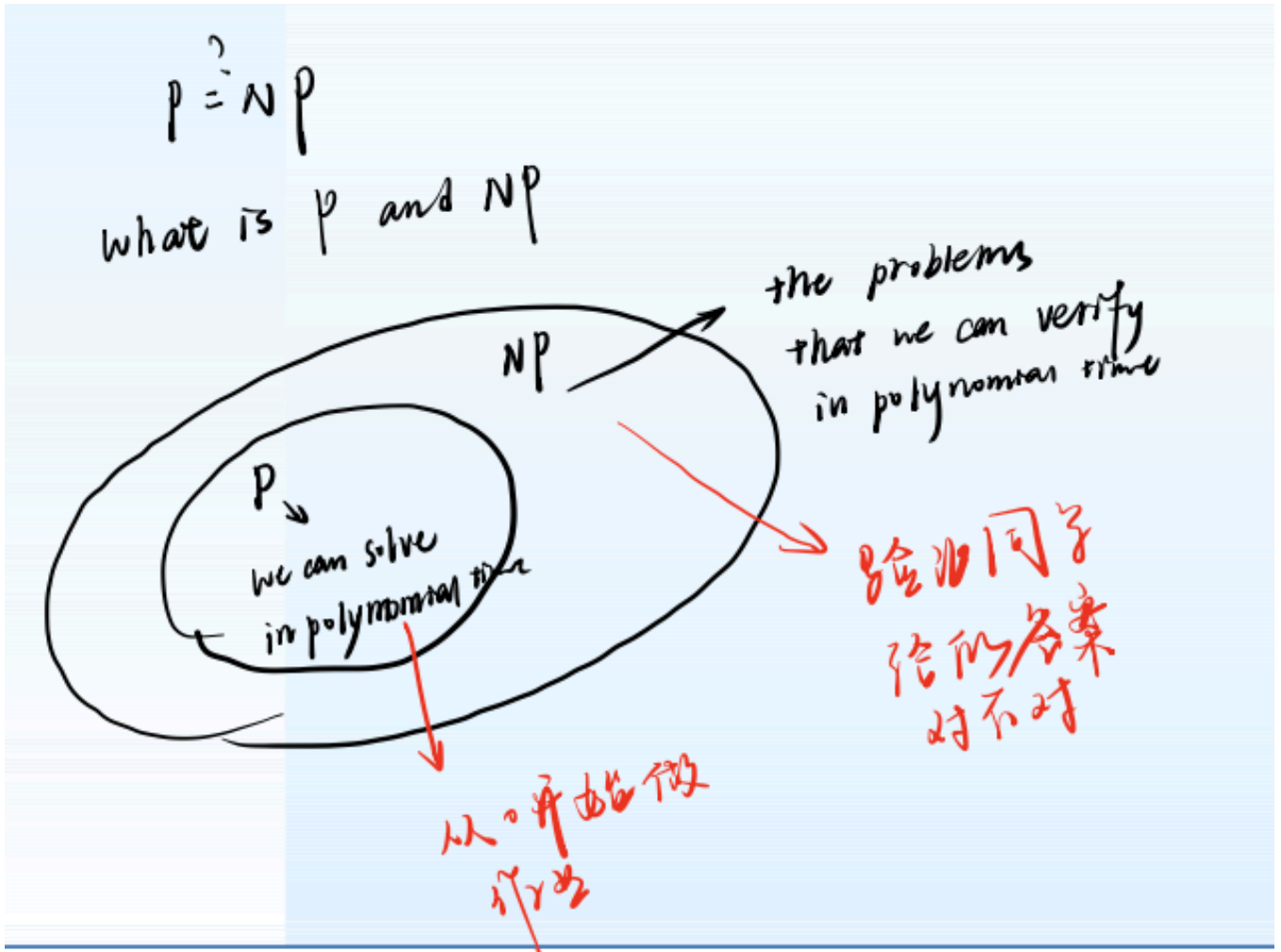


NPC

- Overview for today



Reducibility \Rightarrow Show that one problem is essentially at least as hard as another problem.

Overview for today

- Problems and decision problems
- Polynomial-time solvable problems
- Definition of P
- Polynomial-time verifiable problems
- Definition of NP
- Reducibility
- NP-completeness
- The circuit-satisfiability problem

if a problem is among the hardest problem in NP.

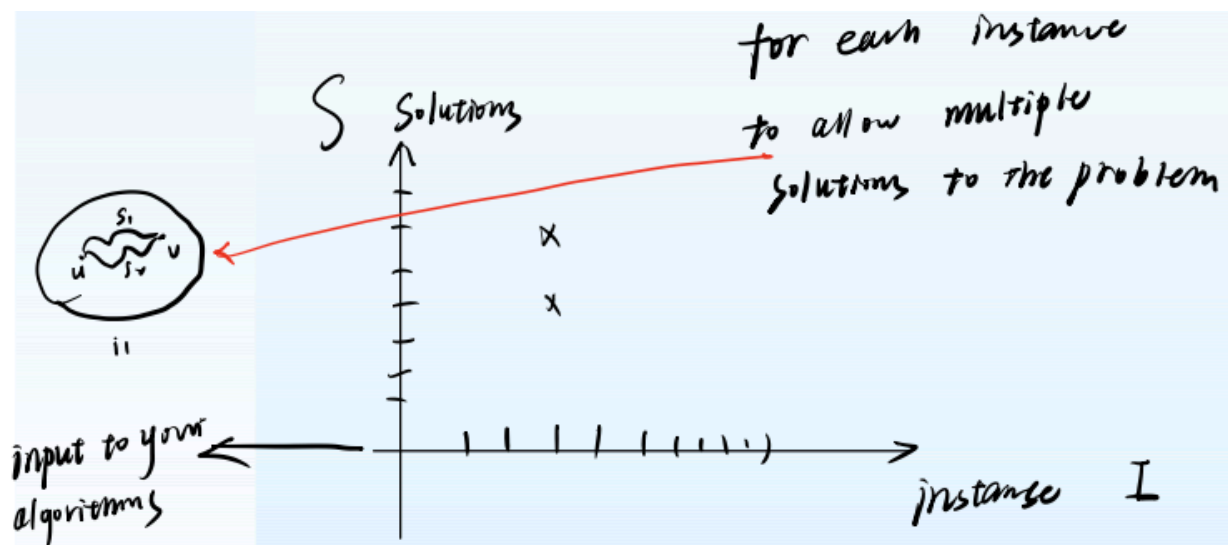
if you can solve an NP-complete problem in polynomial time, then you can solve all problems in NP. in polynomial time → therefore, you have shown that $P = NP$.

如果一个问题是NP中最难的。

• Definition of a problem

1. Consider a set I of instances and a set S of solutions.
2. An abstract problem is a binary relation between I and S , i.e., a subset of $I \times S$.

For *SHORTEST – PATH*, an instance is a triple $\langle G, s, t \rangle$.



A solution is a sequence of vertices forming a shortest s to t path.

- **Decision problems**

Problems with 1/0 (yes/no) answers. Hence, $S = \{0, 1\}$.

the algorithm should
output either 0/
yes/no,
instead of saying it is
a shortest path

Example of a decision problem: *PATH*.

$PATH(\langle G, u, v, k \rangle) = 1$ if there is a $u - to - v$ path in G with at most k edges. Otherwise,
 $PATH(\langle G, u, v, k \rangle) = 0$.

We can regard a decision problem as a mapping from instances to $S = \{0, 1\}$.

$$\langle G, u, v, k \rangle \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$$

Instances with solution 1 are called yes-instances. Instances with solution 0 are called no-instances.

Optimization problems (like SHORTEST-PATH) can usually be turned into decision problems (like PATH).

Optimization \rightarrow Decision problem

之间的关联? 如果已经有一个在 poly 时间内运行的 path 算法, 如何得到一个 poly 内找 shortest path 的算法?

decrement k until no instance

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如果有子一个算法 (PATH), 我们可以
 从 $k=|V|-1$ 开始, 如果 $s=1$, 到 $k-1$
 直到 $s=0 \rightarrow$ 最短 PATH
 ↓ 算法
 最小的 $s=1$ 的 k ↑
 ↓ 持续 run PATH
 ↓ 算法
 但只能找到 distance 而非 PATH

• *Polynomial-time solvable problems* => *Class of P*

能在多项式时间内解决的。

1. We assume that *instances* of a problem are *encoded as binary strings*.
2. An algorithm *solves* a problem in time $O(T(n))$ if for any instance of length n , the algorithm returns a solution (0 or 1) in time $O(T(n))$.

在 $O(T(n))$ 内解决任何输入长度为 n
 的问题, 输出为 $\{0,1\}$ 的算法。
 在 $O(T(n))$ 内

3. If $T(n) = O(n^k)$ for some constant k , the problem is *polynomial-time solvable*.

Suppose we define P as the class of polynomial-time solvable problems.

• What is missing in this definition? Which encoding of the input is assumed?



We haven't specified how
 we encode the input?
 很重要, 因为我们的运行时间和 $input\ size$
 向 $input\ size$ 取决定于我们如何表示

In the lecture, we pick binary encoding, giving input size $n = \lfloor \lg k \rfloor + 1$.

- In this case, running time is $\Theta(k) = \Theta(2^n)$ which is exponential in the input size.

!!! Remember that we need to specify how do we represent our input.

- These two ways of encoding k correspond to two different problems.

☆ 当说一个问题时也要说如何 encode 一个问题的输入。

In particular, numbers are represented in **binary**, not unary.

We use the notation $\langle x \rangle$ to refer to a chosen encoding of instance x of a problem. \Rightarrow Already converted to a binary string.

Encodings are always **binary** strings in our setting.

- **Languages**

Alphabet: finite set Σ of symbols.

Language L over Σ : a set of strings of symbols from Σ .

Example: $\Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$ and $L = \{a, ba, cab, bbac, \dots\}$.

We also allow an empty string and denote it by ϵ . $\Rightarrow \epsilon \in L$

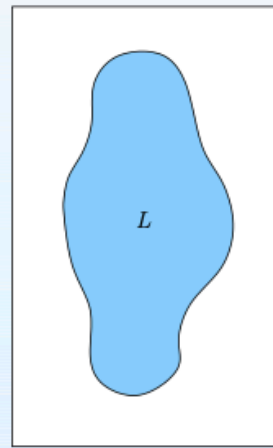
The empty language is denoted \emptyset (It does not contain ϵ).

Σ^* denotes the language of all strings (including ϵ).

- Any language L over Σ is a subset of Σ^* .

Σ 包含 0 和 1
 L is a set of binary strings
 也可包含 ϵ

$$L \subseteq \Sigma^*$$



Σ^*
 包含所有有限个
 二进制字符串。

- Languages and decision problems**

Recall that we *encode instances of a decision problem as binary strings*.

Also recall that we may view a decision problem as a mapping $Q(x)$ from instances x to $\Sigma = \{0, 1\}$.

Q can be specified by the binary strings that encode yes-instances of the problem. \Rightarrow If you just specify which strings are yes-instances, then you have also specified Q .

- Thus, we can view Q as a language L :

$$L = \{x \in \Sigma^* \mid Q(x) = 1\}.$$



The language L consists of all strings x
 that Q maps to 1

语言 L 是由 $Q(x) \rightarrow 1$ 的所有字符串组成

所以 L 包含所有 yes-instances

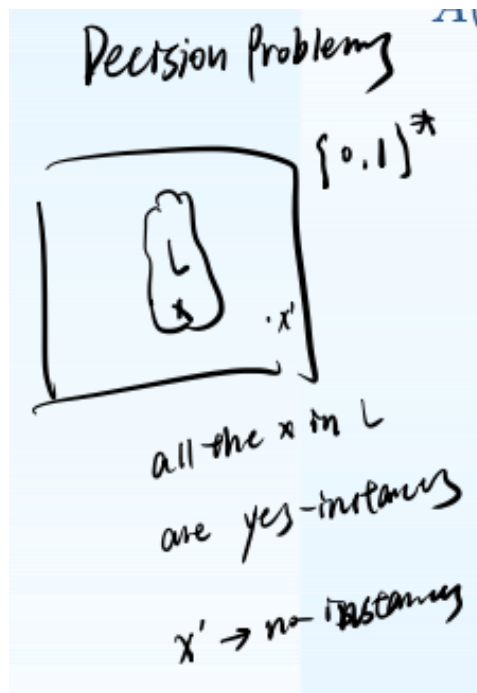
My Understanding: Q can encode x and maps it into 1. L contains all the yes-instances.

- For instance, PATH is the language of binary strings $\langle G, u, v, k \rangle$ where G is a graph, u and v are vertices of G , and there is a u -to- v path in G with at most k edges.

PATH is a language consists of yes-instances.
 all these

- Language accepted/decided by an algorithm**

Let A be an algorithm for a decision problem and denote by $A(x) \in \{0, 1\}$ its output (if any) on input x .



A accepts a string x if $A(x) = 1$, A rejects a string x if $A(x) = 0$.

There may be strings that A neither accepts nor rejects. $\Rightarrow A$ loop forever.

The language accepted by A is,

$$L = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* \mid A(x) = 1\}$$

Suppose in addition that all strings not in L are rejected by A , i.e., $A(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^* \setminus L$.

Then we say that L is decided by A .

- Then we say that L is *decided* by A .

Accept → !
loop

terminate on all strings

Decide → {!
0
Stronger

Deciding a language is stronger than accepting it.

Accepting/deciding in polynomial time

- Language L is *accepted* by an algorithm A in polynomial time if A accepts L and runs in polynomial time on strings from L .
- L is *decided* by A in polynomial time if A decides L and runs in polynomial time on all strings.

loop

require that it terminates in poly time.

Example: $PATH$ can both be accepted and decided in polynomial time.

Define the complexity class P :

$$P = \{L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^* \mid \text{there exists an algorithm } A \text{ that decides } L \text{ in polynomial time}\}.$$

all the languages

if you have a language L and you can find an algorithm A that decides L in polynomial time → then $L \in P$

- P in terms of acceptance

Lemma

$$P \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^* \mid \text{there exists an algorithm that} \\ \text{decides } L \text{ in polynomial time}\} \\ = \{L \subseteq \{0, 1\}^* \mid \text{there exists an algorithm that} \\ \text{accepts } L \text{ in polynomial time}\}.$$

• \subseteq : straightforward. 上面被下面包含。

Stronger: if A decides L also accepts $L \Rightarrow \subseteq$

But for the other direction, we need to show that if L is accepted by a polynomial-time algorithm A , it is decided by a polynomial-time algorithm A' .

P in terms of acceptance

- Need to show: if L is accepted by a polynomial-time algorithm A , it is decided by a polynomial-time algorithm A' .
- Since A accepts L , it runs in at most cn^k steps before halting on any n -length string from L , where c and k are constants.
- Now let s be any string in Σ^* .
- A' simulates A with input s for at most $c|s|^k$ steps.
- If the simulation has not halted after this many steps, A' halts and outputs 0.
- Otherwise, A' outputs whatever A outputs.
- A' decides L and runs in polynomial time.

P 是一个可以在多项式时间内被解决的
问题的集合。

- **Verification**

Let L be a language.

We might not have an efficient algorithm that accepts L .

We might not have an efficient algorithm that accepts L .

polynomial time

所以我们只能设计一个
算法来验证这个问题

Consider an algorithm A taking two parameters, $x, c \in \Sigma^*$. \Rightarrow If you need to solve an assignment, it might be simpler to verify the solution of your fellow students and having to solve the assignment from scratch. You can think of c is a candidate solution that you are given with the problem instance.

Instead of trying to **find** a solution to x (which may take long time), A instead **verifies** that c is a solution to x .

- **HAM-CYCLE problem**

An undirected graph G is hamiltonian if it contains a simple cycle containing every vertex of G . \Rightarrow A cycle visits every vertex exactly once in a graph. Cannot visit the same vertex more than once.

We define:

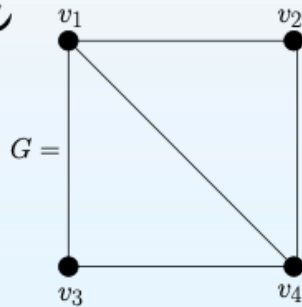
$$HAM - CYCLE = \{ \langle G \rangle \mid G \text{ is Hamiltonian} \}.$$

It is very hard can be decided in polynomial time, however, it is easy to show that $HAM - CYCLE$ can be verified in polynomial time.

Verifying HAM-CYCLE

- Consider instead an algorithm A_{ham} taking two parameters, $\langle G \rangle$ and $\langle C \rangle$.
- A_{ham} checks that $\langle G \rangle$ defines an undirected graph G and that $\langle C \rangle$ encodes a cycle C containing every vertex of G exactly once.
- If so, A_{ham} outputs 1, otherwise 0.

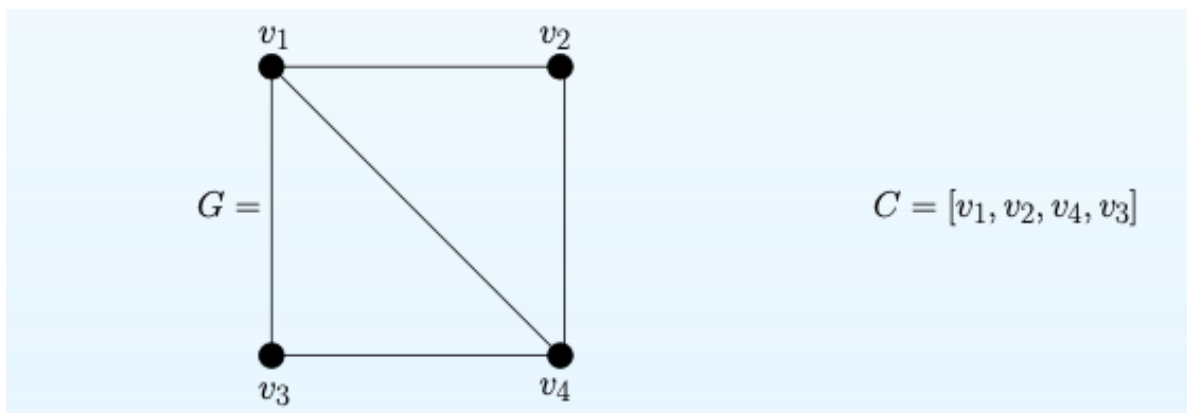
Does not need to find HAMILTONIAN cycle just to verify C represents a HAMILTONIAN cycle.



$$C = [v_1, v_2, v_3, v_4]$$

- What is $A_{ham}(\langle G \rangle, \langle C \rangle)$?

$$A_{ham}(\langle G \rangle, \langle C \rangle) = 0.$$



$$A_{ham}(\langle G \rangle, \langle C \rangle) = 1.$$

Designing A_{ham} to run in polynomial time is easy. Hence, we can verify *HAM - CYCLE* in polynomial time.

• **Verifying a language**

A *verification algorithm* is an algorithm A taking two arguments, $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^*$, where y is the *certificate*. $x \rightarrow$ instances, $y \rightarrow$ certificate.

A verifies a string x if there is a certificate y such that $A(x, y) = 1$.

The language **verified** by A is,

$$L = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* \mid \text{there is a } y \in \{0, 1\}^* \text{ such that } A(x, y) = 1\}.$$

- Example:

$$\text{HAM-CYCLE} = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* \mid \text{there is a } y \in \{0, 1\}^* \text{ such that } A_{\text{ham}}(x, y) = 1\}.$$

如果 x 无环则输出永远是 0.

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- The complexity class NP

NP is the class of languages that can be **verified** in polynomial time.

More precisely, $L \in NP$ if and only if there is a polynomial-time **verification** algorithm A and a constant c such that

$$L = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* \mid \text{there is a } y \in \{0, 1\}^* \text{ with } |y| = O(|x|^c) \text{ such that } A(x, y) = 1\}.$$

↓
have to be short.

- We have seen that HAM-CYCLE \in NP.
- If $L \in P$ then $L \in NP$. Why? \rightarrow Why P is contained in NP?

$(P) \subset NP \Rightarrow P \subseteq NP \Rightarrow$ 既然正解都出来了, 验证 c 只须比较下即可.

之所以定义 NP 是因为通常只有 NP 才能找到多项式解法。

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如果有一个算法A决定L (多项式内)
 那么验证这个必然在多项式内
 直接让A去算, 不用 certificate 也能
 在多项式内。

- *NP-complete problems*

There are problems in NP that are “*the most difficult*” in that class.

If any one of them can be *solved* in polynomial time then *every problem in NP can be solved in polynomial time*.

These difficult problems are called *NP-complete*.

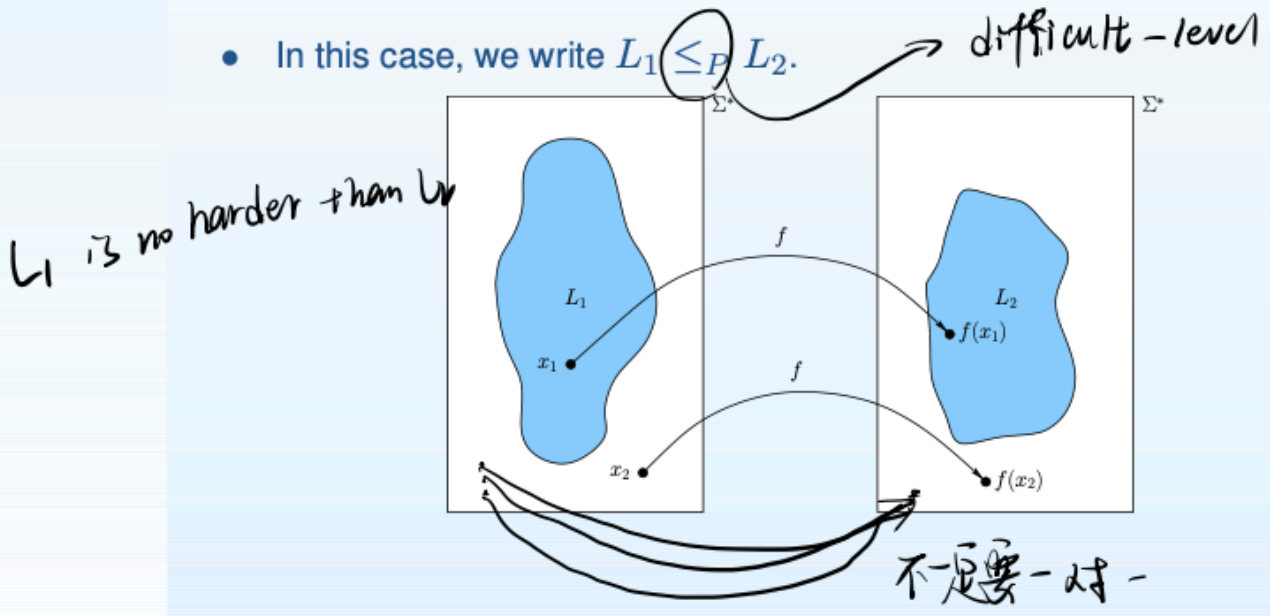
- HAM-CYCLE is NP-complete.
- Hence, if we could show HAM-CYCLE $\in P$ then $P = NP$.

- *Polynomial-time Reducibility*

- Language L_1 is polynomial-time *reducible* to language L_2 if there is a polynomial-time computable function $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ such that for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$x \in L_1 \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in L_2.$$

- In this case, we write $L_1 \leq_P L_2$.



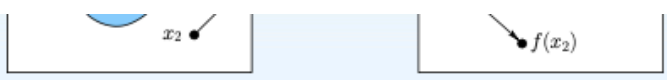
If $L_1 \leq_P L_2$ then L_1 is in a sense no harder to solve than L_2 .

- More precisely,

$$L_1 \leq_P L_2 \wedge L_2 \in P \Rightarrow L_1 \in P.$$

if L_2 is easy, then L_1 is no more difficult than L_2 , then L_1 must be easy as well.

如果你有一个 fast 算法 for L_2
 他可以迅速决定 x 是否属于 L_2 .
 那你怎么 get a fast 算法
 能确定一个 x 是否属于 L_1 呢?
 也
 reduce L_1 to L_2 and
 then solve L_2 .



More precisely,

$$L_1 \leq_P L_2 \wedge L_2 \in P \Rightarrow L_1 \in P.$$

This follows since any instance x of L_1 can be solved by transforming it in polynomial time to an instance $y = f(x)$ of L_2 and then solving y with a polynomial-time algorithm for L_2 .

→ 可以用 B 的算法解决 A

- NP-complete languages

- Language L is NP-complete if

1. $L \in NP$ and
2. $L' \leq_P L$ for every $L' \in NP$.

实际上 NP 问题中所有问题一样难

L is NP-hard if property 2 holds (and possibly not property 1).

So if you take any problem in NP, you reduce that to your NPC, and then you run your NPC's poly algorithm, therefore, you are basically showing that arbitrary problem and NP could be solved in polytime.
 $\Rightarrow P = NP.$

- The class of NP-complete languages is denoted NPC.
- If some language of NPC belongs to P then $P = NP$. Why?



$$L_1 \in P \wedge L_2 \in NPC \Rightarrow L_2 \in P$$



Suppose $L_2 \in NPC$

\therefore any other problems in NP $\in L_1$

$\therefore L_1 \in P$

- **Circuit satisfiability**

- A *boolean combinational circuit* consists of a collection of logic gates connected together with wires.
- The logic gates allowed are AND, OR, and NOT.
- Each wire has a value which is either 0 or 1.
- Some wires are specified by input values and the rest by the logic gates.
- Other wires specify output values.
- We can represent a circuit as an acyclic graph.

- Given a boolean combinational circuit C with one output wire.
- A *satisfying assignment* for C is an assignment of values to input wires of C causing an output of 1.
- The *circuit satisfiability problem* CIRCUIT-SAT is to decide if a given circuit has a satisfying assignment:

$$\text{CIRCUIT-SAT} = \{ \langle C \rangle \mid C \text{ is a satisfiable boolean combinational circuit} \}.$$

- We will show that CIRCUIT-SAT is NP-complete.

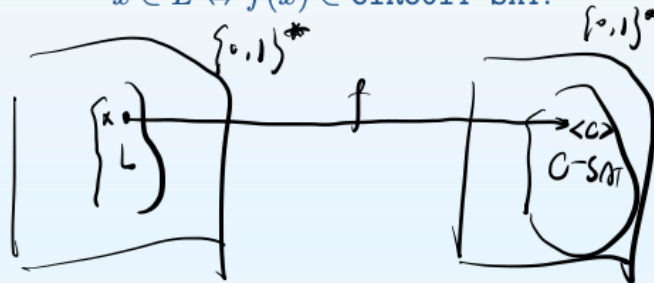
1. Showing $\text{CIRCUIT-SAT} \in \text{NP}$

- We construct algorithm A with inputs x and y .
- A checks that x represents a boolean combinational circuit C with one output wire and that y represents an assignment of truth values to the wires of C .
- If so, A checks that y represents a valid truth assignment.
- If so, A checks that the single output is 1.
- If this is the case, A returns 1; otherwise it returns 0.
- A is a verification algorithm for CIRCUIT-SAT and can easily be made to run in polynomial time.
- Thus, $\text{CIRCUIT-SAT} \in \text{NP}$.

2. Showing that CIRCUIT-SAT is NP-hard

- Consider any language $L \in \text{NP}$.
- We need to give a polynomial-time reduction from L to **CIRCUIT-SAT**.
- In other words, we need to find a polynomial-time algorithm A computing a function $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ such that

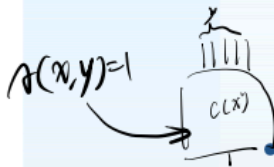
$$x \in L \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in \text{CIRCUIT-SAT}.$$



Showing that CIRCUIT-SAT is NP-hard

- Since $L \in \text{NP}$, there is a polynomial-time algorithm A such that

$$L = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* \mid \text{there is a } y \in \{0, 1\}^* \text{ with } |y| = O(|x|^c) \text{ such that } A(x, y) = 1\}.$$



- Given string x , f outputs a circuit $C(x)$ with $O(|x|^c)$ input wires.
- We ensure that $C(x)$ has a satisfying assignment of its input wires if and only if $A(x, y) = 1$ for some y with $|y| = O(|x|^c)$.
- This way,

问题到此

$$x \in L \Leftrightarrow f(x) = \langle C(x) \rangle \in \text{CIRCUIT-SAT}.$$

- Each y with $|y| = O(|x|^c)$ defines an input to $C(x)$.
- Intuition: Circuit $C(x)$ implements algorithm A on input (x, y) with x fixed.
- We ensure that $A(x, y) = 1$ if and only if y is a satisfying assignment.

- There is a constant k such that the worst-case running time $T(n)$ of A on an input (x, y) is $O(n^k)$ where $n = |x|$.
- The machine executing A has a certain *configuration* at each time step.
- The configuration gives a complete specification of the current memory, CPU state, and so on.
- When executing A on (x, y) , the machine goes through a series of configurations $c_0, c_1, \dots, c_{T(n)}$ (assume for simplicity that A runs for exactly $T(n)$ steps on (x, y)).
- Configuration c_0 specifies inputs x and y and the program code for A .
- One bit of the last configuration $c_{T(n)}$ specifies the 0/1-output of A .

- Let M be the circuit implementing the hardware of the machine.
- We feed the initial configuration c_0 as input wires to M .
- M performs a single step of A and the new configuration c_1 is stored on output wires.
- These output wires feed into M which makes another step, forming c_2 as output, and so on.
- In total, we glue $T(n)$ copies of M together.
- This gives a BIG circuit representing the entire execution of A on input (x, y) .
- The size of the circuit is still polynomial in n , however.

- We modify the circuit by hard-wiring part of the input to that specified by binary string x and so that the only output wire is that corresponding to the output of A .
- The circuit now only takes inputs y .
- The resulting circuit $C(x)$ has a satisfying assignment y if and only if $A(x, y) = 1$.
- $C(x)$ can be computed from x in time polynomial in $|x|$.
- This shows that $L \leq_P \text{CIRCUIT-SAT}$.
- Thus, CIRCUIT-SAT is NP-hard.
- Since also $\text{CIRCUIT-SAT} \in \text{NP}$, it follows that CIRCUIT-SAT is NP-complete.

$\text{CIRCUIT-SAT} \leq_P \text{SAT} \leq_P \text{3-CNF-SAT}$
 $\leq_P \text{SUBSET-SUM},$
 $\text{3-CNF-SAT} \leq_P \text{CLIQUE} \leq_P \text{VERTEX-COVER}$
 $\leq_P \text{HAM-CYCLE} \leq_P \text{TSP}$

Overview for today

- NP-completeness and reductions
- NP-completeness of:
 - SAT
 - 3-CNF-SAT
 - CLIQUE
 - VERTEX-COVER
 - (HAM-CYCLE)
 - TSP
 - SUBSET-SUM

为什么有用 \rightarrow 有些问题适合用
 证明 NP

Approximation 来解决
 而不是精确值。所以
 如果表明那个问题是 NP。
 那么你不可能找到一个
 多项式时间内运行的
 算法，那么你就会去找
 别的工具而不是找
 精确的算法。

\rightarrow 不涉及

- *Decision problems and languages*

- A *decision problem* Q consists of yes-instances and no-instances.
- Example, $Q = \text{HAM-CYCLE}$: $\langle G \rangle$ is a yes-instance if G contains a simple cycle containing all vertices of G ; otherwise $\langle G \rangle$ is a no-instance.
- We can view a problem Q as a mapping of yes-instances to 1 and no-instances to 0.
- We can also view Q as a language L :

$$L = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* \mid Q(x) = 1\}.$$

- A *verification algorithm* is an algorithm A taking two arguments, $x, y \in \{0, 1\}^*$, where y is the *certificate*.
- A *verifies* a string x if there is a certificate y such that $A(x, y) = 1$.
- The language verified by A is

$$L = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* \mid \text{there is a } y \in \{0, 1\}^* \text{ such that } A(x, y) = 1\}.$$

The complexity class NP

- NP is the class of languages that can be verified in polynomial time.
- In other words, $L \in \text{NP}$ if and only if there is a polynomial-time verification algorithm A and a constant c such that

$$L = \{x \in \{0, 1\}^* \mid \text{there is a } y \in \{0, 1\}^* \text{ with } |y| = O(|x|^c) \text{ such that } A(x, y) = 1\}.$$

- We saw that $P \subseteq \text{NP}$.
- Big open problem: is $P = \text{NP}$?

Reducibility

- Language L_1 is polynomial-time *reducible* to language L_2 if there is a polynomial-time computable function $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ such that for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$x \in L_1 \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in L_2.$$

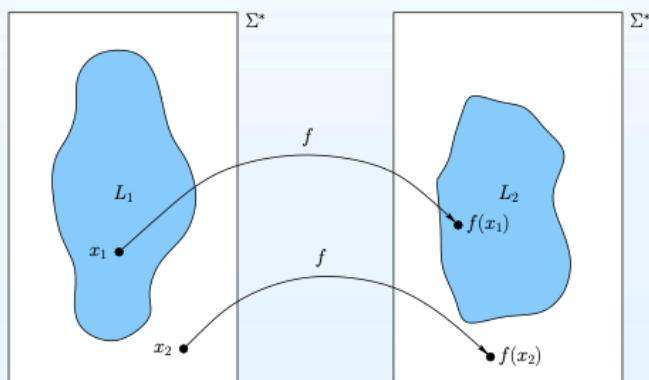
reduces



There should be an algorithm that implements this function and it should run in poly time.

如果 x 在 L_1 里, 那么 $f(x)$ 就在 L_2 里, 如果 $f(x)$ 不在 L_2 里, 则 x 不在 L_1 里.

$$x \in L_1 \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in L_2.$$



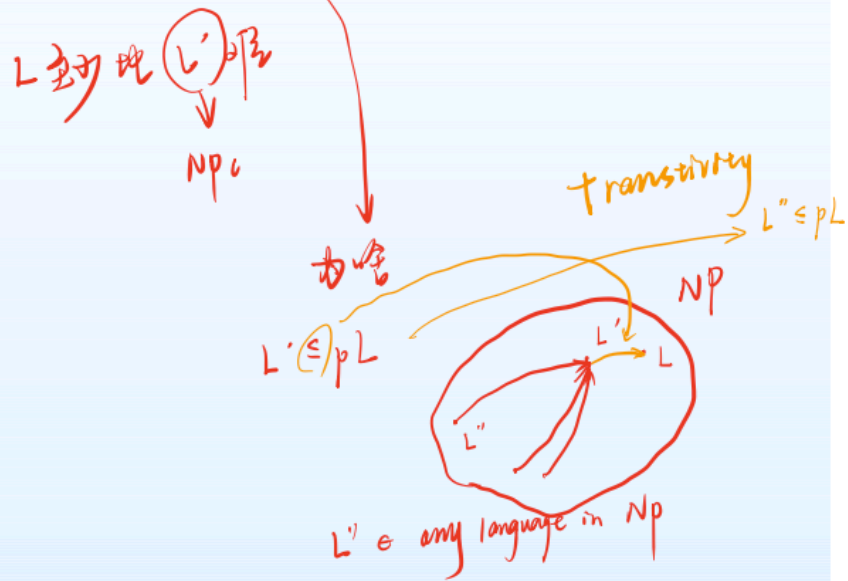
- We use the notation $L_1 \leq_P L_2$ for this.
- We saw that

$$\star \quad L_1 \leq_P L_2 \wedge L_2 \in P \Rightarrow L_1 \in P$$

- Language L is *NP-complete* if
 - $L \in \text{NP}$ and
 - $L' \leq_P L$ for every $L' \in \text{NP}$.
- L is *NP-hard* if L satisfies property 2 (and possibly not property 1).
- We saw that if any language of NPC belongs to P then $P = \text{NP}$.
- We also showed that **CIRCUIT-SAT** is NP-complete.

- NP-completeness of other problems via reduction*

- Let L and L' be two languages with $L' \in \text{NPC}$.
- If $L' \leq_P L$ then L is NP-hard.



NP-completeness of other problems via reduction

上次在证明电路是NPC时，我们不得不从NP里挑一个一般情况来证明，那说可以 reduce 到电路问题的，所有都小心...

- Let L and L' be two languages with $L' \in \text{NPC}$.
- If $L' \leq_P L$ then L is NP-hard.
- If in addition $L \in \text{NP}$ then L is NP-complete.
- General technique to show NP-completeness of a language L :
 - Show that $L \in \text{NP}$.

Just to reduce from one language if that language is NP hard.

只要证明 NPC 一样即可

Recipe

- General technique to show NP-completeness of a language L :
 - Show that $L \in \text{NP}$.
 - Pick another language L' known to be NP-complete (for instance, CIRCUIT-SAT).
 - Show that $L' \leq_P L$, i.e., show that there is a polynomial-time computable function $f : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{0, 1\}^*$ such that for all $x \in \{0, 1\}^*$,

$$x \in L' \Leftrightarrow f(x) \in L.$$

- SAT problem**

The SAT problem

- A *boolean formula* ϕ consists of boolean variables x_1, \dots, x_n , boolean connectives $\wedge, \vee, \neg, \rightarrow, \leftrightarrow$, and parentheses (and).
- Example: $\phi = (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge (x_2 \vee x_3 \vee \neg x_4)$.
- A *satisfying assignment* for a boolean formula ϕ is an assignment of 0/1-values to variables that makes ϕ evaluate to 1.
- ϕ is *satisfiable* if there exists a satisfying assignment for ϕ .
- We can now define the problem SAT:

$\text{SAT} = \{ \langle \phi \rangle \mid \phi \text{ is a satisfiable boolean formula} \}$.

- We will show that SAT is NP-complete.

存在问题的解

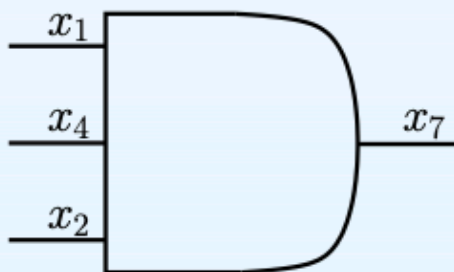
SAT

A boolean formula belongs to SAT exactly when it is satisfiable.

- To show $\text{SAT} \in \text{NPC}$, we follow our recipe:
 - Show that $\text{SAT} \in \text{NP}$.
 - Show that $\text{CIRCUIT-SAT} \leq_P \text{SAT}$.
- To show that $\text{SAT} \in \text{NP}$, we construct a verification algorithm A taking inputs x and y .
- It regards x as a boolean formula ϕ and y as an assignment of values to variables of ϕ .
- A returns 1 if y defines a satisfying assignment for ϕ ; otherwise, A returns 0.
- We can easily make A run in polynomial time.
- Thus, $\text{SAT} \in \text{NP}$.

Showing CIRCUIT-SAT \leq_P SAT

- Given a circuit C , we transform it into a boolean function ϕ as follows.
- Associate a variable x_i with each wire of C ; let x_m be the output wire variable. xi -> ith wire
- We can view each gate of C as a function mapping the values on its input wires to the value on its output wire. subformula for each gate
- Construct a sub-formula for each such function.
- Example:



Sub-formula for gate: $x_7 \leftrightarrow (x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge x_4)$

- If ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_k are the sub-formulas, we define ϕ to be $x_m \wedge \phi_1 \wedge \phi_2 \wedge \dots \wedge \phi_k$.

- Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi = & x_{10} \wedge (x_4 \leftrightarrow \neg x_3) \wedge (x_5 \leftrightarrow (x_1 \vee x_2)) \\ & \wedge (x_6 \leftrightarrow \neg x_4) \wedge (x_7 \leftrightarrow (x_1 \wedge x_2 \wedge x_4)) \\ & \wedge (x_8 \leftrightarrow (x_5 \vee x_6)) \wedge (x_9 \leftrightarrow (x_6 \vee x_7)) \\ & \wedge (x_{10} \leftrightarrow (x_7 \wedge x_8 \wedge x_9)). \end{aligned}$$

- ϕ can be constructed in polynomial time.
- In words, ϕ is stating that the output wire is 1 and that each gate behaves as it is supposed to.
- Thus, C is satisfiable if and only if ϕ is satisfiable:

$$\langle C \rangle \in \text{CIRCUIT-SAT} \Leftrightarrow \langle \phi \rangle \in \text{SAT}.$$

The formula we constructed is equivalent to

- We have now shown that SAT is NP-complete. *the circuit we started with*

- 3 - CNF - SAT

$\text{SAT} \leq_p \text{3 - CNF - SAT}$.

- SUBSET - SUM

$\text{3 - CNF - SAT} \leq_p \text{SUBSET - SUM}$.

- CLIQUE

$\text{3 - CNF - SAT} \leq_p \text{CLIQUE}$. => 构造 vertex triple 图。正过来是选1，连起来发现是个 CLIQUE。反过来是找一个 CLIQUE 然后令其分别为 1，未知的点随便选，发现 $\phi = 1$ 。

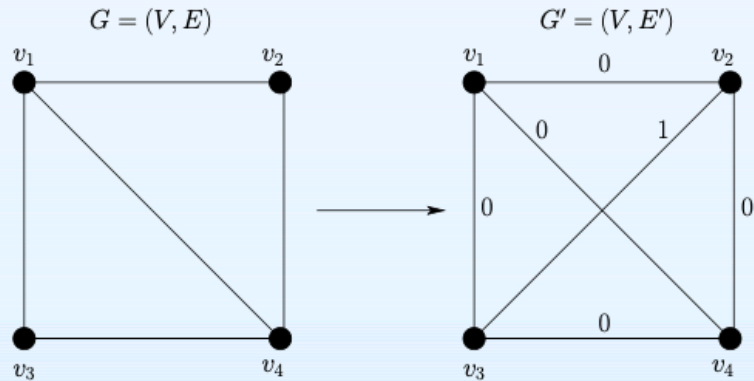
- VERTEX - COVER

$\text{CLIQUE} \leq_p \text{VERTEX - COVER}$. => 找补集。

- HAM - CYCLE \leq_p TSP

- Let $G = (V, E)$ be an instance of the Hamilton-cycle problem.
- We construct a complete graph $G' = (V, E')$ on vertex set V .
- Define a cost function c on E' by

$$c(u, v) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } (u, v) \in E, \\ 1 & \text{if } (u, v) \notin E. \end{cases}$$



- Show that: $\langle G \rangle \in \text{HAM-CYCLE} \Leftrightarrow \langle G', c, 0 \rangle \in \text{TSP}$.

⇒
↓
1. 构造 Ham cycle
2. 每两点相连
3. Ham cycle cost=0
4. 新加的是 1
上. 得到一个 TSP
反.
1. 有一个 TSP

完全图。

All the proof refers to the *Slides - NPC2*.