The Theory of NP

Tractable and intractable problems NP, NP-complete & NP-hard problems

The theory of NP-completeness

- Tractable and intractable problems
- NP-complete problems

Classifying problems

- Classify problems as tractable or intractable.
- Problem is tractable if there exists at least one polynomial bound algorithm that solves it
- An algorithm is polynomial bound if its worst case time complexity is bounded by a polynomial p(n) in the size n of the problem

$$p(n) = a_n n^k + ... + a_1 n + a_0$$
 where k is a constant

Intractable problems

- Problem is intractable if it is not tractable.
- 1st Category: All algorithms that solve the problem are not polynomial bound.
- It has a worst case growth rate f(n) which cannot be bound by a polynomial p(n) in the size n of the problem.
- For intractable problems the bounds are:

$$f(n) = c^n$$
, or $n^{\log n}$, etc.

Another set of intractable problems

- 2nd category: Undecidable problems
 - Cannot give a "yes" or "no" answer
 - E.g., Halting problem
 - No algorithm can be devised to solve the halting problem

Halting problem

- Input: A string P and a string I. Consider P as a program and I as input to P.
- Output: 1 if P halts on I; 0 if P does not halt on I (infinite loop)
- Theorem (Turing circa 1940): There is no program to solve the halting problem. See next slide for proof.

Proof: Halting problem is undecidable

• Proof: To reach a contradiction, assume that there exists a program Halt(P, I) that solves the halting problem. Halt(P, I) returns true if and only if P halts on I. Otherwise, it returns false. Using Halt(P, I), we construct the following program Z:

```
program (string x)
begin
    If Halt (x, x) then
        while(1) printf ("ha ha ha ");
    Else exit(0)
end
```

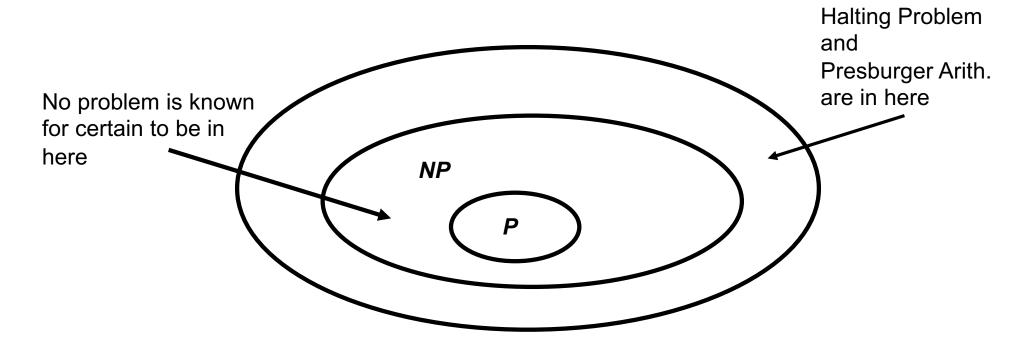
- Case 1: Program Z halts on input Z. By the correctness of Halt, Halt(Z, Z) returns true. Thus, program Z loops forever on input Z, printing "ha ha ha …." Contradiction.
- Case 2: Program Z does not halt on input Z. Halt(Z, Z) returns false. Hence, program Z halts. Contradiction.

Why is this classification useful?

- If problem is intractable, no point in trying to find an efficient algorithm that solves the problem with polynomial time complexity in the worst case
- All algorithms will be too slow for large inputs.

Intractable problems

- Turing showed some problems are so hard that no algorithm can solve them (undecidable)
- Other researchers showed some decidable problems from automata, mathematical logic, etc. are intractable: Presburger arithmetic is doubly exponential



Problems Proven to be Intractable

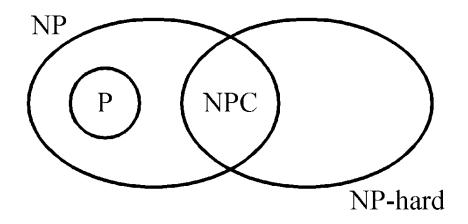
- All Hamiltonian circuits: For a complete undirected graph, there are (n-1)! Circuits
- Halting problem: Undecidable
- Presburger Arithmetic

•

Problems not proven to be intractable but no poly. time alg.

- 0-1knapsack
- Traveling salesperson
- Sum of subsets
- M-coloring for $m \ge 3$

• ...



- NP: the class of problem which can be solved by a non-deterministic polynomial algorithm.
- P: the class of problems which can be solved by a deterministic polynomial algorithm.
- NP-hard: the class of problems to which every NP problem reduces.
- NP-complete (NPC): the class of problems which are NP-hard and belong to NP.

Coping with NP-Complete/NP-Hard Problems

- Rely on approximation algorithms, heuristics, etc.
- Sometimes we need to solve only a restricted version of the problem.
- If the restricted problem is tractable, design an algorithm for the restricted version

Nondeterministic algorithms

- A <u>nondeterminstic algorithm</u> consists of phase 1: <u>guessing</u> phase 2: <u>checking</u>
- If the <u>checking</u> stage of a nondeterministic algorithm is of polynomial time-complexity, then this algorithm is called an <u>NP</u> (**nondeterministic polynomial**) algorithm.
- NP problems: (must be decision problems)
 - e.g. searching, MST, sorting satisfiability problem (SAT) traveling salesperson problem (TSP)

Nondeterministic operations and functions

- Choice(S): arbitrarily chooses one of the elements in set S
- Failure: an unsuccessful completion
- Success: a successful completion
- Nonderministic searching algorithm:

```
j ← choice(1:n) /* guessing */
if A(j) = x then success /* checking */
else failure
```

- A nondeterministic algorithm terminates unsuccessfully iff there exist no set of choices leading to a success signal.
- The time required for *choice(1 : n)* is O(1)

Hard practical problems

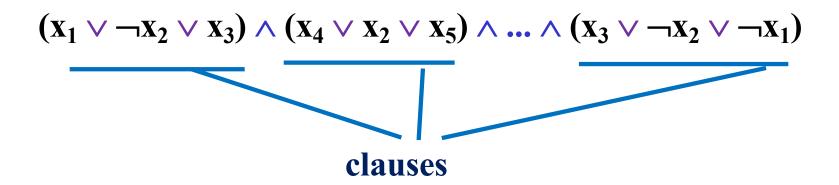
- There are many practical problems for which <u>no one</u> <u>has yet</u> found a polynomial bound algorithm.
- Examples: 3-SAT, traveling salesperson, 0/1 knapsack, sum of subsets, graph coloring, bin packing etc.
- Most design automation problems such as testing and routing.
- Many OS, networks, database and graph problems.

Satisfiability (SAT) problem

Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)

- A literal is a variable or the negation of a var.
 - Example: The variable x is a literal, and its negation, ¬x, is a literal.
- A clause is a disjunction (an OR) of literals.
 - Example: $(x \lor y \lor \neg z)$ is a clause
- A formula is in Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)
 if it is a conjunction (an AND) of clauses.
 - Example: $(x \lor \neg z) \land (y \lor z)$ is in CNF.
- A CNF formula is a conjunction of disjunctions,
 i.e., a product (AND) of sums (OR)

Definition: A CNF formula is a 3CNF-formula iff each clause has exactly 3 literals.



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Definition: A CNF formula is a 3CNF-formula iff each clause has exactly 3 literals.

$$\phi = (\mathbf{x}_1 \vee \neg \mathbf{x}_2 \vee \mathbf{x}_3) \wedge (\mathbf{x}_4 \vee \mathbf{x}_2 \vee \mathbf{x}_5) \wedge \dots \wedge (\mathbf{x}_3 \vee \neg \mathbf{x}_2 \vee \neg \mathbf{x}_1)$$
clauses

$$\mathbf{YES} \qquad (\mathbf{x}_1 \vee \neg \mathbf{x}_2 \vee \mathbf{x}_1)$$

NO
$$(x_3 \lor x_1) \land (x_3 \lor \neg x_2 \lor \neg x_1)$$

NO
$$(x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3) \land (\neg x_4 \lor x_2 \lor x_1) \lor (x_3 \lor x_1 \lor \neg x_1)$$

$$NO \qquad (x_1 \vee \neg x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (x_3 \wedge \neg x_2 \wedge \neg x_1)$$

 $3SAT = \{ \phi \mid \phi \text{ is a satisfiable 3cnf-formula } \}$

Boolean Basics: Literals, Clauses, CNF

- Boolean function on n variables is a mapping {0,1}ⁿ→{0,1}
- Literal = Boolean variable or its negation
- Clause = disjunction of literals (no complementary pair)
- Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF) = conjunction of clauses, i.e., product-of-sums (<u>Fact</u>: Every Boolean function has a CNF representation)

Cook's theorem

- SAT is NP-complete
- 3-SAT is NP-complete (1-SAT or 2-SAT is P)
- It is the first NP-complete problem
- Every NP problem reduces to SAT
- NP = P iff the SAT problem is a P problem

How are they handled?

- A variety of algorithms based on backtracking, branch and bound, dynamic programming, etc.
- None can be shown to be polynomial bound (exponential in the worst case)

Theory of NP completeness

- The theory of NP-completeness enables showing that these problems are at least as hard as NP-complete problems
- Practical implication of knowing a problem is NPcomplete is that it is **probably** intractable (whether it is or not has not been proved yet)
- So any algorithm that solves it will probably be very slow for large inputs

We will need to discuss

- Decision problems
- Converting optimization problems into decision problems
- The relationship between an optimization problem and its decision version
- The class P
- Verification algorithms
- The class NP
- The concept of polynomial transformations
- The class of NP-complete problems

Decision Problems

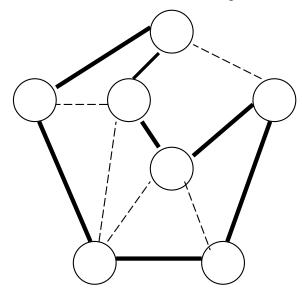
A decision problem answers yes or no for a given input

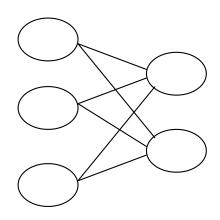
Examples:

- Given a graph G, is there a path from s to t of length at most k?
- Does graph G contain a Hamiltonian cycle?
- Given a graph G, is it bipartite?
- For a 0-1 knapsack problem, is there a solution whose benefit is \$100 or more?

A decision problem: HAMILTONIAN-CYCLE

- A Hamiltonian cycle of a graph G is a cycle that visits each vertex of the graph (except for the starting node) exactly once.
- Problem: Given a graph G, does G have a Hamiltonian cycle?





Converting to decision problems

- Optimization problems can be converted to decision problems (typically) by adding a bound B on the value to optimize, and asking the question:
 - Is there a solution whose value is at most B? (for a minimization problem)
 - Is there a solution whose value is at least B? (for a maximization problem)

An optimization problem: traveling salesman

- Given:
 - A finite set C = $\{c_1,...,c_m\}$ of cities and
 - A distance function d(c_i, c_j) of nonnegative numbers
- Find the length of the minimum distance tour which visits every city exactly once and comes back to the starting city

A decision problem for traveling salesman

- Given a finite set C = {c₁,...,c_m} of cities, a distance function d(c_i, c_j) of nonnegative numbers and a bound B
- Is there a tour of all the cities (in which each city is visited exactly once) with total length at most B?
- There is no known polynomial bound algorithm for TS.

Relation between an optimization problem and the decision problem

- If we have a solution to the optimization problem we can compare the solution to the bound and answer "yes" or "no"
- Therefore if the optimization problem is tractable so is the decision problem
- If the decision problem is "hard" the optimization problem is also "hard"
 - If the optimization is easy then the decision problem is easy

The class P

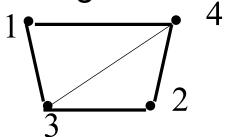
- P is the class of decision problems that are polynomial bound
- Is the following problem in P?
 - Given a weighted graph G, is there a spanning tree of weight at most B?
- The decision versions of problems such as shortest distance path and minimum spanning tree belong to P
 - Simply compute an MST and find its weight to B

The goal of verification algorithms

- The goal of a verification algorithm is to verify a "yes" answer to a decision problem's input (i.e., if the answer is "yes" the verification algorithm verifies this answer)
- The inputs to the verification algorithm are:
 - the original input (problem instance) and
 - a certificate (possible solution)

Verification Algorithms

- A verification algorithm takes a problem instance x and answers "yes", if there exists a certificate y such that the answer for x with certificate y is "yes"
- Consider HAMILTONIAN-CYCLE
- A problem *instance* x lists the vertices and edges of
 G: ({1,2,3,4}, {(3,2), (2,4), (3,4), (4,1), (1, 3)})
- There **exists** a certificate y = (3, 2, 4, 1, 3) for which the verification algorithm answers "yes"



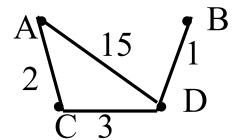
Polynomial bound verification algorithms

- Given a decision problem d
- A verification algorithm for d is polynomial bound if given an input x to d, there exists a certificate y, such that |y|=O(|x|^c) where c is a constant, and a polynomial bound algorithm A(x, y) that verifies an answer "yes" for d with input x

Note: |y| is the size of the certificate, |x| is the size of the input

The problem PATH

- PATH denotes the decision problem version of shortest path.
- PATH: Given a graph G, a start vertex u, and an end vertex v. Does there exist a path in G, from u to v of length at most k?
- The instance is: G=({A, B, C, D}, {(A, C,2), (A, D, 15), (C,D, 3), (D, B, 1)} k=6
- A certificate y=(A, C, D, B)



A verification algorithm for PATH

- Verification algorithm:
 - Given the problem instance x and a certificate y
 - Check that y is indeed a path from u to v.
 - Verify that the length of y is at most k
- Is the verification algorithm for PATH polynomial bound?
- Is the size of y polynomial in the size of x?
- Is the verification algorithm polynomial bound?

Example: A verification algorithm for TS (Traveling Salesman)

- Given a problem instance x for TS and a certificate y
 - Check that y is indeed a cycle that includes every vertex exactly once except for the starting node
 - Verify that the length of the cycle is at most B
- Is the size of y polynomial in the size of x?
- Is the verification algorithm polynomial?

The class NP (Nondeterministic Polynomial)

- NP is the class of decision problems for which there is a polynomial bound verification algorithm
- It can be shown that:
 - all decision problems in P, and
 - decision problems such as traveling salesman, knapsack, bin packing, are also in NP

The relation between P and NP

- P ⊂ NP
- It is not known whether P = NP or P ≠ NP
- Problems in P can be solved "quickly"
- Problems in NP can be verified "quickly"
- It is easier to verify a solution than solving a problem
- Some researchers believe that P and NP are not the same class (But no one has proved whether or not this is true)

Polynomial reductions

• **Motivation**: The definition of NP-completeness uses the notion of *polynomial reductions* of one problem A to another problem B, written as

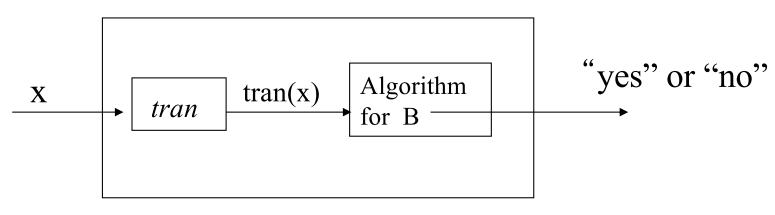
 $A \propto B$

 Let tran be a function that converts any input x for decision problem A into input tran(x) for decision problem B

Polynomial reductions

tran is a polynomial reduction from A to B if:

- 1. *tran* can be computed in polynomial bound time
- 2. The answer to A for input x is yes if and only if the answer to B for input tran(x) is yes.



Algorithm for A

Two simple problems

- A: Given n Boolean variables with values x₁,...,x_n, does at least one variable have the value True?
- B: Given n integers i₁,...,i_n is max{i₁,...,i_n}>0?

Algorithm for B:

Check the integers one after the other. If one is positive, stop and answer "yes" If none is positive, stop and answer "no".

Example:

n=4.

Given integers: -1, 0, 3, and 20.

Algorithm for B answers "yes".

Given integers: -1, 0, 0, and 0.

Algorithm for B answers "no".

Is there a transformation?

- Can we transform an instance of A into an instance of B?
- Yes.

```
tran(x)
for (j=1; j=< n; j++)
if (x_j== true)
i_j=1
else // x_j=false
i_j=0
```

T(false, false, true, false)= 0,0,1,0

Is this transformation polynomial bound? yes

Does it satisfy all the requirements?

- Can we show that when the answer for an instance X₁,...,X_n of A is "yes" the answer for the transformed instance tran(x₁,...,x_n)= i₁,...,i_n of B is also "yes"?
- If the answer for the given instance $x_1,...,x_n$ of A is "yes", there is some x_i =true.
- The transformation assigns i_j=1.
- Therefore the answer for problem B is also "yes" (the maximum is positive)

The other direction

- Can we also show that when the answer for problem B with input $tran(x_1,...,x_n)=i_1,...,i_n$ is "yes", the answer for the instance $x_1,...,x_n$ of A is also "yes"?
- If the answer for problem B is "yes", it means that there is an i_i>0 in the transformed instance.
- i_j is either 0 or 1 in the transformed instance. If i_j=1,
 x_j=true.
- So the answer for A is also "yes"

Polynomial reductions

Theorem:

If $A \propto B$ and B is in P, then A is in P If A is not in P then B is also not in P

NP-complete problems

- A problem A is NP-complete if
 - 1. It is in NP and
 - 2. For every other problem A' in NP, $A' \propto A$
- A problem A is NP-hard if
 For every other problem A' in NP, A'∝ A

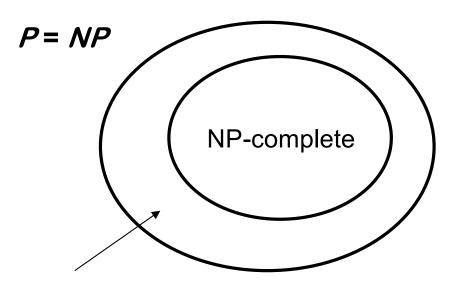
$$NP-complete \subseteq NP-hard$$

• Example: Halting problem is NP-hard but not NP-complete

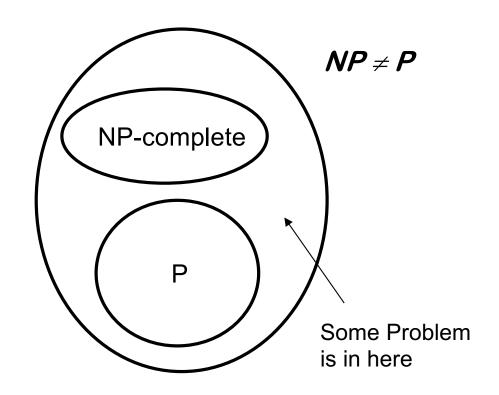
Why is NP-complete important?

If any NP-complete problem is in P, then P = NP.

If any NP-complete problem is not polynomial bound, then all NP-Complete problems are not polynomial bound.



The trivial decision problem that always answers "yes" in here



NP-completeness and Reducibility

- The existence of NP-complete problems leads us to suspect that P ≠NP.
- If HAMILTONIAN CYCLE, which is an NP-complete problem, can be solved in polynomial time, every problem in NP can be solved in polynomial time. This means every problem in NP is polynomial bound and, therefore, P=NP.
- If HAMILTONIAN CYCLE could not be solved in polynomial time, every NP-complete problem cannot be solved in polynomial time. Thus NP ≠ P

Revisit the SAT problem

- First, Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF) will be defined
- Second, satisfiability (SAT) problem will be defined
- Finally, we will show a polynomial bounded verification algorithm for the problem

Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)

- A logical (Boolean) variable is a variable that may be assigned the value true or false (p, q, r and s are Boolean variables)
- A literal is a logical variable or the negation of a logical variable (p and ¬q are literals)
- A clause is a disjunction of literals
 ((p∨q∨s) and (¬q ∨ r) are clauses)

Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)

- A logical (Boolean) expression is in CNF if it is a conjunction of *clauses*
- The following expression is in conjunctive normal form:

$$(p \lor q \lor s) \land (\neg q \lor r) \land (\neg p \lor r) \land (\neg r \lor s) \land (\neg p \lor \neg s \lor \neg q)$$

Satisfiability (SAT) problem

- Is there a truth assignment to the n variables of a logical expression in CNF which makes the value of the expression true?
- The answer is yes, if all clauses evaluate to true
- Otherwise, the answer is "no"

SAT problem

- p=T, q=F, r=T and s=T is a truth assignment for:
 (p∨q∨s) ∧(¬q∨r) ∧(¬p∨r) ∧(¬r∨s) ∧(¬p∨¬s∨¬q)
- Note that if q=F then ¬q=T
- Each clause evaluates to true

A verification algorithm for SAT

- 1. Check that the certificate s is a string of exactly n characters which are T or F.
- 2. while (there are unchecked clauses) { select next clause if (clause evaluates to false) return("no") }
- 3. return ("yes")
- Is verification algorithm polynomial bound?
- Satisfiability is in NP since there exists a polynomial bound verification algorithm for it

Cook's theorem

- SAT (at least 3-SAT) problem is NP complete
 - Cook proved that SAT is NP and every problem in NP reduces to SAT
 - First problem proved to be NP complete
 - Proof idea: encode the workings of a
 Nondeterministic Turing machine for an instance I
 of problem X ∈ NP as a SAT formula so that the
 formula is satisfiable iff the nondeterministic
 Turing machine accepts the instance I

- After Cook's theorem, many NP-complete problems are found

 - How to do this? See the following slides
- More NP-complete problems are found from NP complete problems that are not 3-SAT
 - E.g., Hamiltonian cycle ∞ Traveling Salesperson,
 Clique ∞ vertex cover ...

Shortcut for NP-completeness Proofs

• To prove a language L is NP-complete: Prove $L \in NP$.

Choose $L' \in NPC$, and show $L' \propto L$

- $L \in NP$. We will show that every $M \in NP$ satisfies $M \propto L$, and thus L is NP-complete
 - Let M ∈ NP. M \propto L' (definition of NPC), and L' \propto L (proved by us). So by transitivity M \propto L

Reductions

For example, let's discuss how to:

- Reduce 3-SAT to Clique
- Reduce Clique to Vertex Cover
- Reduce 3-SAT to Hamiltonian Cycle
- Reduce Hamiltonian Cycle to TSP

Clique

• Show clique is a NP-complete problem via reduction

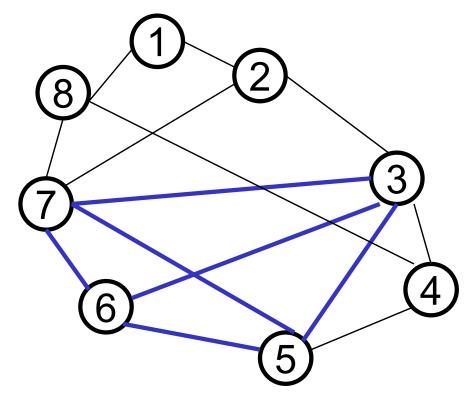
The Clique Problem

• A *clique* is a complete undirected graph where every vertex is connected to every other vertex.

CLIQUE

- **Input**: An undirected graph *G* and a positive integer *k*.
- Output: YES iff a clique of size k exists in G.

Clique example



- G contains a clique of 4 (with vertices 3, 5, 6, 7)
- The 4 people 3, 5, 6, 7 "know" (can work with each other) each other

The Clique Problem

- Theorem: CLIQUE is NP-complete.
- Proof:
- Step 1. CLIQUE \in NP

Given a certificate that contains a set of k vertices $V \subseteq V$, we can check if V forms a clique by checking for every pair of nodes $u, v \in V$ that $(u,v) \in E$

Clearly, this can be done in polynomial time.

The Reduction

Step 2. Selection

3-CNF-SAT which is NP-Complete.

Step 3. Mapping

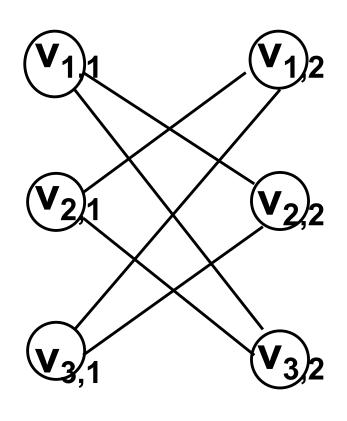
For a formula $C_1 \wedge ... \wedge C_k$ such that $C_r = l_{1,r} \vee l_{2,r} \vee l_{3,r}$ we construct a graph G with vertices $v_{1,r} v_{2,r} v_{3,r}$ for r = 1,..., k, where $v_{i,r}$ represents the literal $l_{i,r}$

The Reduction

We put an edge between $v_{i,r}$ and $v_{j,s}$ if both of the following hold:

- 1. $r \neq s$ and
- 2. $l_{i,r}$ is not the negation of $l_{j,s}$.

$$(x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3) \land (\overline{x}_1 \lor \overline{x}_2 \lor \overline{x}_3)$$



k=2
The graph has 6
cliques of size 2

Step 4a. Yes for 3-Sat implies yes for clique

- Assume formula satisfiable.
- With the satisfying assignment each clause contains at least 1 literal that is assigned 1.
- Since each literal from each clause is a vertex in the graph, if we pick out a literal that is assigned 1 from each of the k clauses, we get k vertices in the graph.

Step 4a. Yes for 3-SAT implies yes for Clique

- This set of k vertices is a clique.
 - For any two vertices, the corresponding literals are from different clauses, and are both assigned 1, so they cannot be complements of a single variable
 - Thus there is an edge between any two such vertices.

Step 4b. Yes for Clique implies yes for 3-Sat

- Assume G has a clique V' of size k
- No edge connects vertices in the same clause, so each of k triples has exactly one vertex in V'
- Assign 1 to each literal in V' without getting an inconsistent assignment (why?), and assign arbitrary values to the rest of the variables
- For this assignment, each clause is satisfied and thus the answer for 3-SAT is yes

Step 5. Reduction is polynomial

- Step 5. The reduction is polynomial.
 - The formula is read and 3k vertices are generated in O(k) steps. Then, each pair of literals $\binom{9}{2}$ from two different clauses is checked and an edge is added if the literals are not complimentary.
 - The reduction is $O(k^2)$

Vertex Cover

• Reduce clique to vertex cover

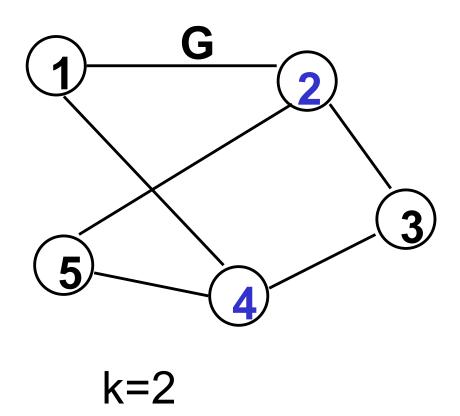
The vertex-cover problem

• A vertex cover of an undirected graph is a set of vertices V' such that for every edge (u,v), either u or v or both are in V'. The problem is to find a cover of minimum size.

VERTEX-COVER

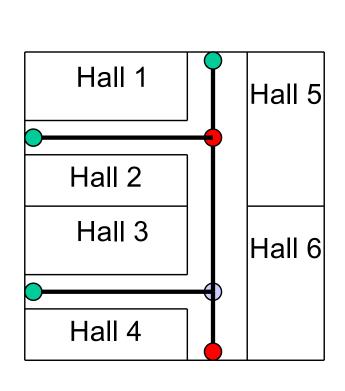
- Input: A graph G and a number k.
- Output: YES iff G has a vertex cover of size k.

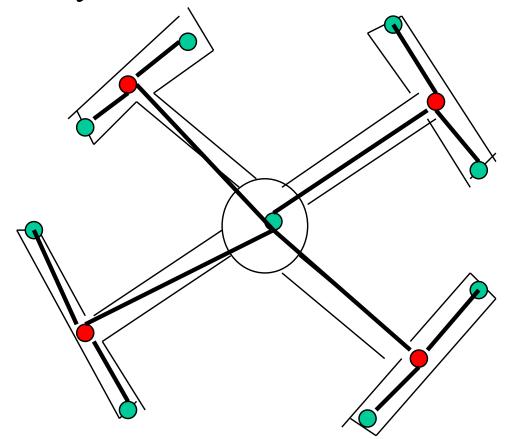
Example of a vertex cover problem



Application of vertex cover

• What is the fewest # of guards we need to place in a museum to cover all the corridors? An airport to cover all the main walkways





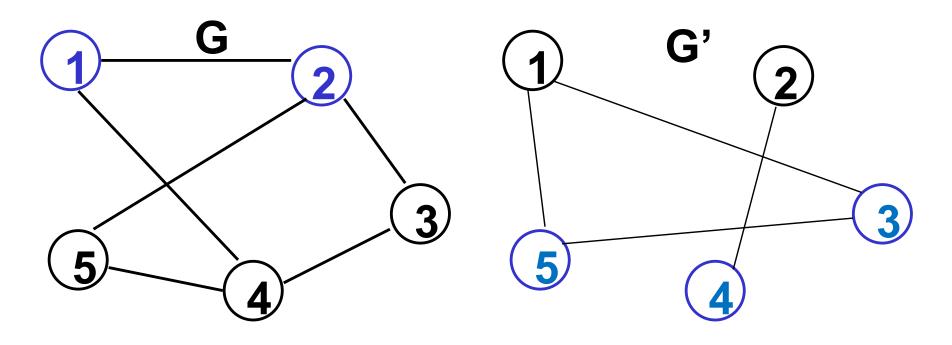
The vertex-cover problem

- Theorem: VERTEX-COVER is NP-complete.
- **Proof: Step 1.** VERTEX-COVER ∈ NP (obvious algorithm, given a subset of vertices).

The reduction

- **Step 3**. The mapping.
- Given an instance of the CLIQUE problem <G, k> we output an instance <G', |V|-k> of the VERTEX-COVER problem.
- G' has the same vertices as G and exactly those edges that are not in G.
- It is easy to show the reduction is polynomial (step 5)

Reduction Example

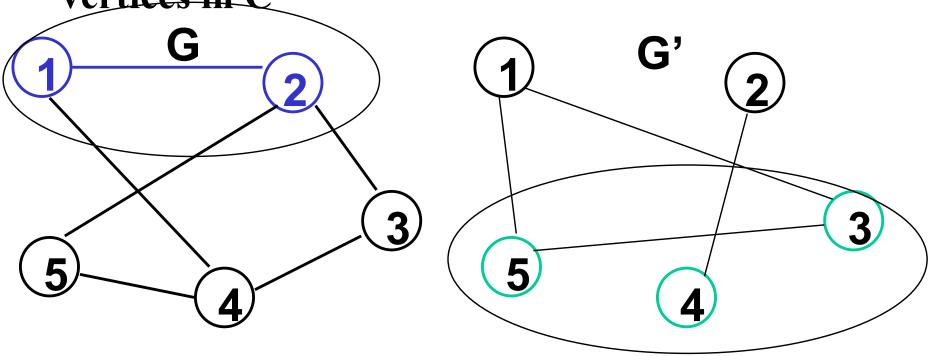


Clique {1,2} of size 2

Cover {3,4,5} of size 3

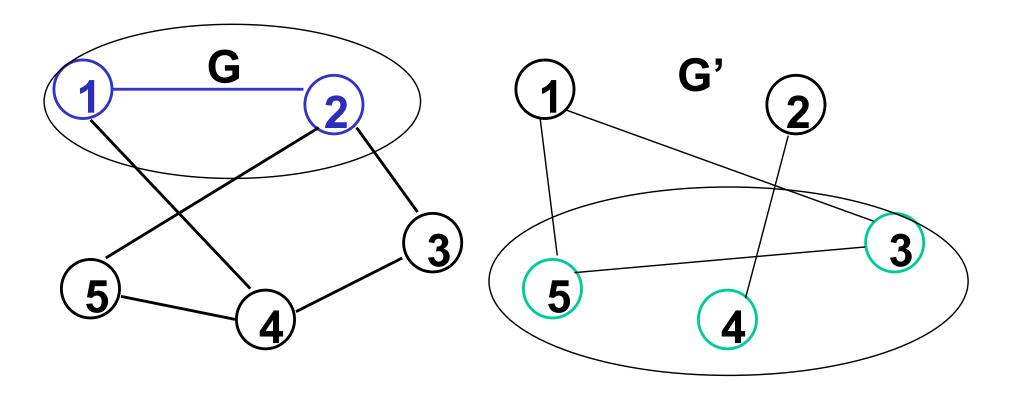
Step 4. Correctness of the reduction

- Assume G has a clique C of size k.
- In G' there are no edges between any pair of vertices in C



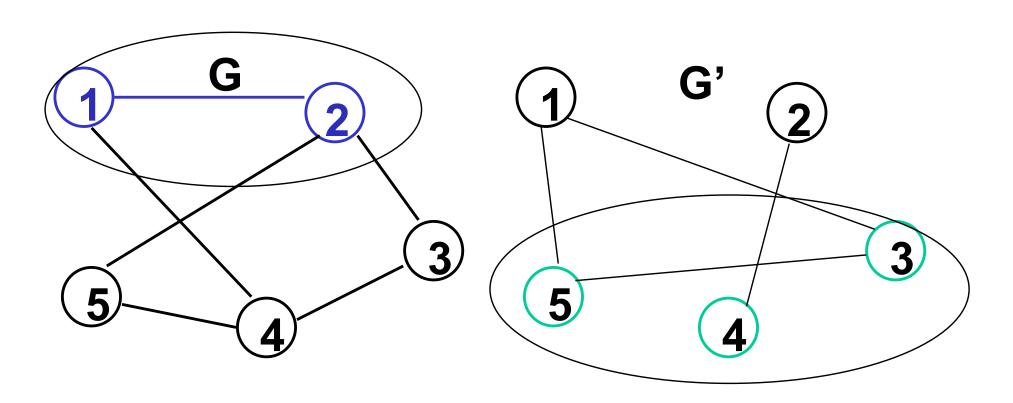
Step 4 cont

- So all edges in G' are between a node in C and a node in V-C, or two nodes in V-C.
- So V-C is a vertex cover for G'.



Step 4. Correctness of the reduction

- Assume G'=(V, E') has a vertex cover $V' \subseteq V$, where |V'| = |V|-k.
- Thus for all $u, v \in V-V'$ (not in the cover), $(u,v) \notin E'$ and thus $(u,v) \in E$
- V-V' is thus a clique.



Hamiltonian Cycle

• A Hamiltonian cycle of a graph G is a cycle that contains each vertex in V exactly once. A graph is Hamiltonian if it has a Hamiltonian cycle.

HAM-CYCLE

- Input: A graph G.
- Output: YES iff G is Hamiltonian.
- Theorem: HAM-CYCLE is NP-complete.
 - 3-CNF-SAT \propto HAM-CYCLE (proof omitted).

Traveling Salesperson

• Reduce Hamiltonian Cycle to Traveling Salesperson

Traveling Salesman

• A tour is a Hamiltonian cycle in a graph. We want the minimum cost tour in a weighted graph.

TSP:

- **Input**: A graph G, weights c for edges and a positive integer k.
- Output: YES iff G with weights c has a TS tour of cost at most k.

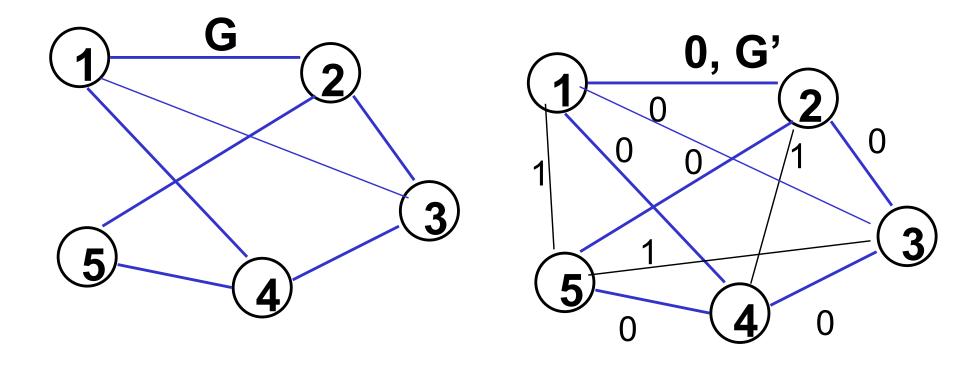
Traveling Salesman

- Theorem: TSP is NP-complete.
- **Proof**: Step 1: TSP is in NP
 - The certificate is a representation of the tour, for example a permutation of the cities.
 - This certificate can be verified easily by checking that all cities are included exactly once and that the sum of the distances between all pairs of consecutive tour nodes is k or less.
 - This can be done in polynomial time, so TSP ∈ NP.

The reduction

- Step 2: Select HAM-CYCLE (We will show that HAM-CYCLE ∝ TSP).
- Step 3: The reduction
 - Given an instance G of HAM-CYCLE, we construct a graph G' = (V, E'). G' is a complete graph and c(i,j) = 0 if (i,j) is an edge and 1 otherwise.
 - The instance of TSP is then (G', c, 0) where 0 is the bound on the cost of the tour. This conversion can be done in polynomial time (step 5).

The reduction (example)



The reduction (step 4)

- If G has a Hamiltonian cycle h, each edge in h belongs to E and thus has no cost in G'. Thus h is a tour with cost 0.
- If G' has a tour of cost 0, the tour must have edges from E (since any edge not in E adds 1 to the cost). Thus, the tour must be a Hamiltonian cycle in G.

Questions?

