

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

$$p(n) = a_n n^k + \dots + a_1 n + a_0 \text{ where } k \text{ is a constant}$$

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:

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

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 $\text{Halt}(P, I)$ that solves the halting problem. $\text{Halt}(P, I)$ returns true if and only if P halts on I . Otherwise, it returns false. Using $\text{Halt}(P, I)$, 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
```

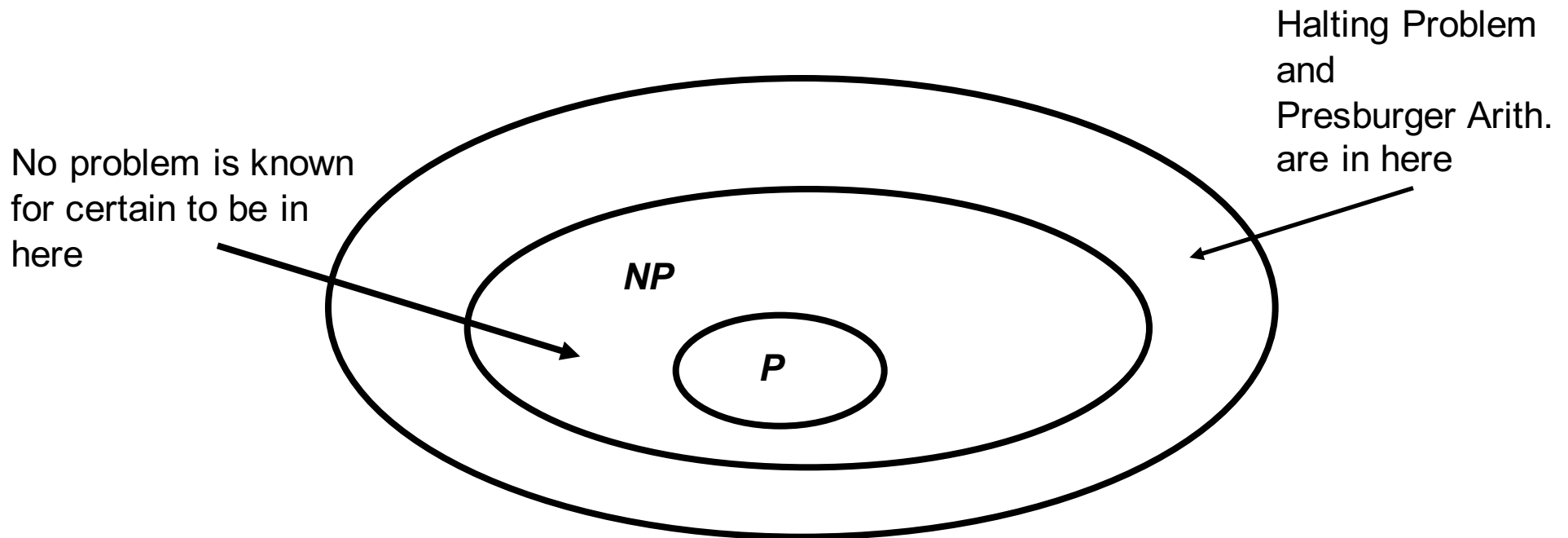
- Case 1: Program Z halts on input Z. By the correctness of Halt, $\text{Halt}(Z, Z)$ returns true. Thus, program Z loops forever on input Z, printing “ha ha ha” Contradiction.
- Case 2: Program Z does not halt on input Z. $\text{Halt}(Z, Z)$ returns false. Hence, program Z halts. Contradiction.

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

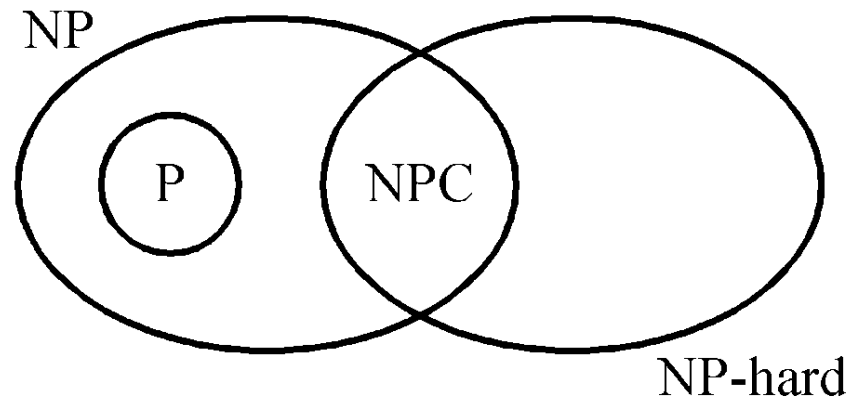


Problems Proven to be Intractable

- 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 $m \geq 3$
- ...



- **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 nondeterministic algorithm consists of
phase 1: guessing
phase 2: checking
- If the checking stage of a nondeterministic algorithm is of polynomial time-complexity, then this algorithm is called an NP (**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
- Nondeterministic searching algorithm:
 $j \leftarrow \text{choice}(1 : n)$ /* 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 no one has yet 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.

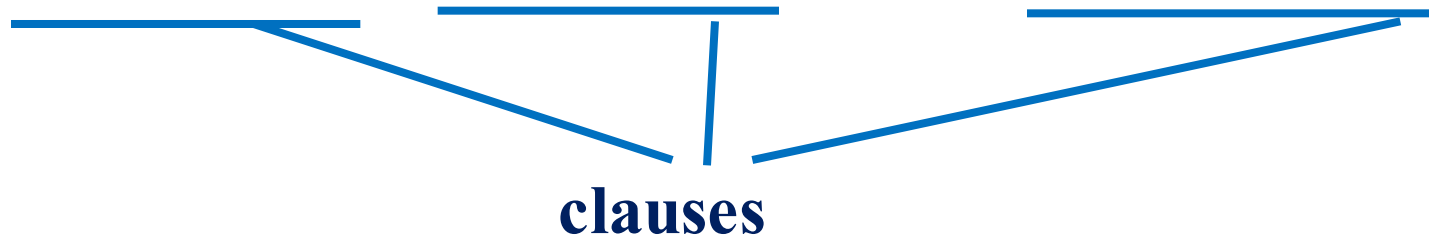
Satisfiability (SAT) problem

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, $\neg x$, is a literal.
- A **clause** is a disjunction (an OR) of literals.
 - Example: $(x \vee y \vee \neg z)$ is a clause
- A formula is in **Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF)** if it is a conjunction (an AND) of clauses.
 - Example: $(x \vee \neg z) \wedge (y \vee z)$ 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.

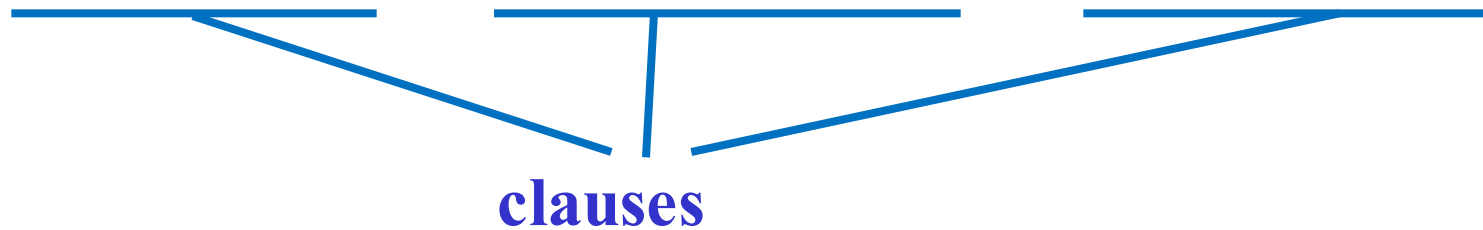
$$(x_1 \vee \neg x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (x_4 \vee x_2 \vee x_5) \wedge \dots \wedge (x_3 \vee \neg x_2 \vee \neg x_1)$$



- A literal is a variable or the negation of a var.
- A clause is a disjunction (an OR) of literals.
- A formula is in Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF) if it is a conjunction (an AND) of clauses.
- A CNF formula is a conjunction of disjunctions of literals.

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

$$\phi = (x_1 \vee \neg x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (x_4 \vee x_2 \vee x_5) \wedge \dots \wedge (x_3 \vee \neg x_2 \vee \neg x_1)$$



YES $(x_1 \vee \neg x_2 \vee x_1)$

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

NO $(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (\neg x_4 \vee x_2 \vee x_1) \vee (x_3 \vee x_1 \vee \neg x_1)$

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

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

Boolean Basics: Literals, Clauses, CNF

- Boolean function on n variables is a mapping $\{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$
- **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 (Fact: 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 NP-complete 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

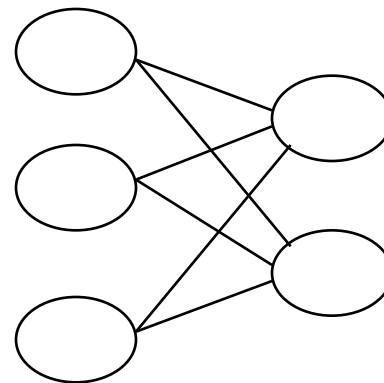
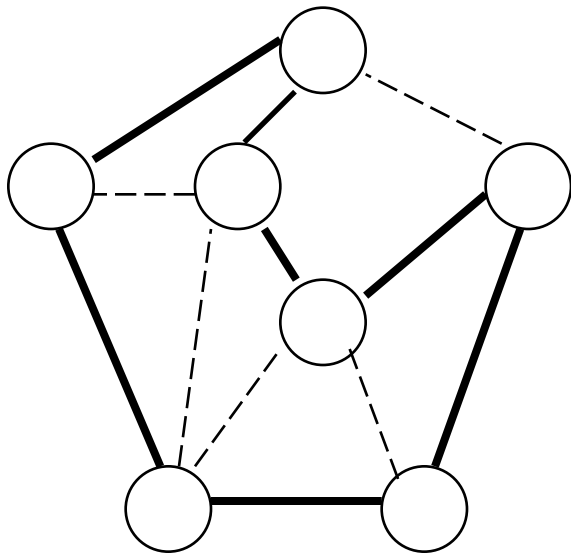
- Decision problems
- Converting optimization problems into decision problems
- The relationship between an optimization problem and its decision version
- The class P
- Verification algorithms
- The class NP
- The concept of polynomial transformations
- The class of NP-complete problems

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 $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_m\}$ 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 $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_m\}$ 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

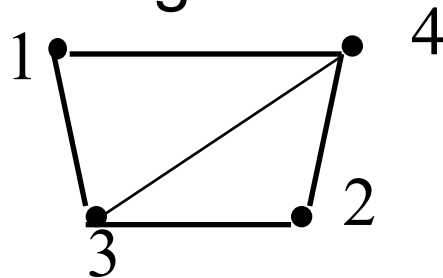
- P is the class of decision problems that are polynomial bound
- Is the following problem in P?
 - Given a weighted graph G , is there a spanning tree of weight at most B ?
- The decision versions of problems such as shortest distance path and minimum spanning tree belong to P
 - Simply compute an MST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



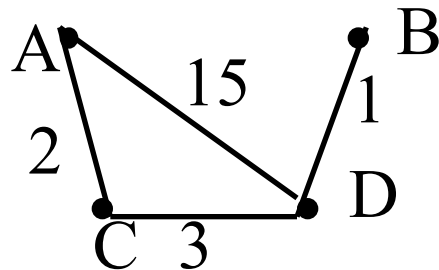
Polynomial bound verification algorithms

- 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

- $P \subseteq NP$
- It is not known whether $P = NP$ or $P \neq NP$
- 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

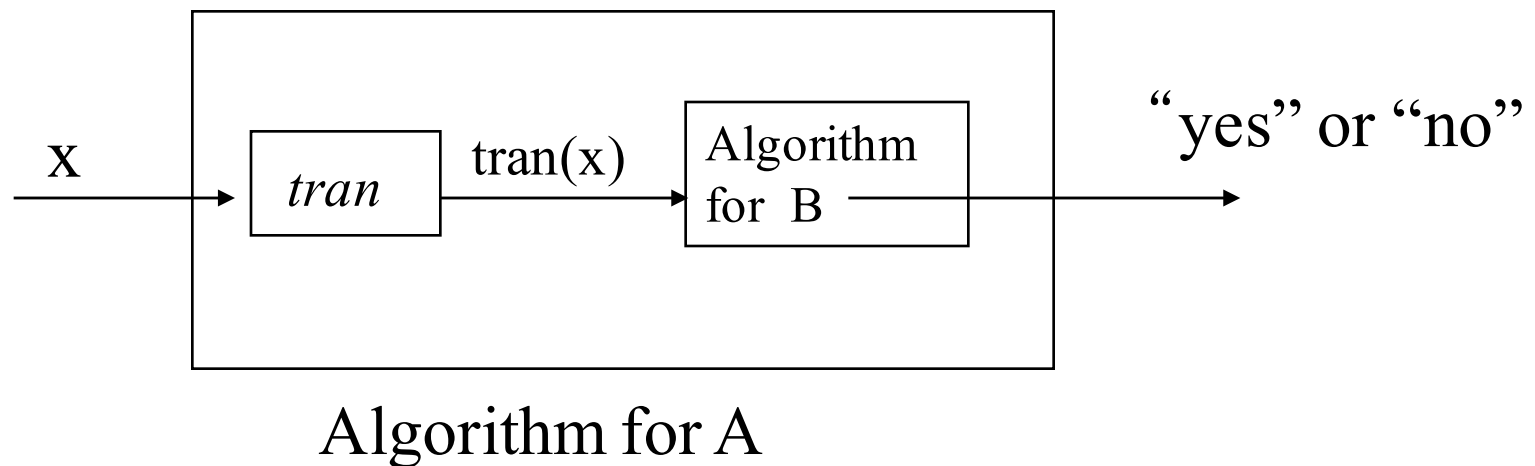
$$A \propto B$$

- Let *tran* be a function that converts any input x for decision problem A into input $\text{tran}(x)$ 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.



Two simple problems

- A: Given n Boolean variables with values x_1, \dots, x_n , does at least one variable have the value True?
- B: Given n integers i_1, \dots, i_n is $\max\{i_1, \dots, i_n\} > 0$?

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 (  $j = 1; j \leq n; j++$ )
    if ( $x_j == \text{true}$ )
       $i_j = 1$ 
    else //  $x_j = \text{false}$ 
       $i_j = 0$ 
```

$T(\text{false}, \text{false}, \text{true}, \text{false}) = 0, 0, 1, 0$

- Is this transformation polynomial bound? yes

Does it satisfy all the requirements?

- Can we show that when the answer for an instance x_1, \dots, x_n of A is “yes” the answer for the transformed instance $tran(x_1, \dots, x_n) = i_1, \dots, i_n$ of B is also “yes”?
- If the answer for the given instance x_1, \dots, x_n of A is “yes”, there is some $x_j = \text{true}$.
- 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 $tran(x_1, \dots, x_n) = i_1, \dots, i_n$ is “yes”, the answer for the instance x_1, \dots, x_n of A is also “yes”?
- If the answer for problem B is “yes”, it means that there is an $i_j > 0$ in the transformed instance.
- i_j is either 0 or 1 in the transformed instance. If $i_j = 1$, $x_j = \text{true}$.
- 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, $A' \leq A$
- A problem A is **NP-hard** if
For every other problem A' in NP, $A' \leq A$

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

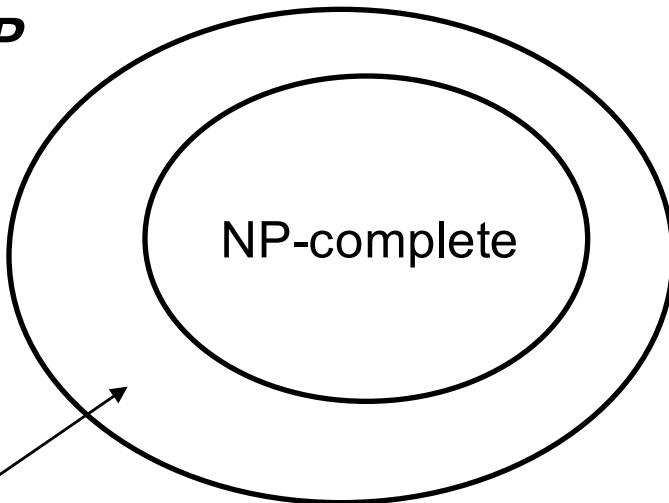
- Example: Halting problem is NP-hard but not NP-complete

Why is NP-complete important?

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

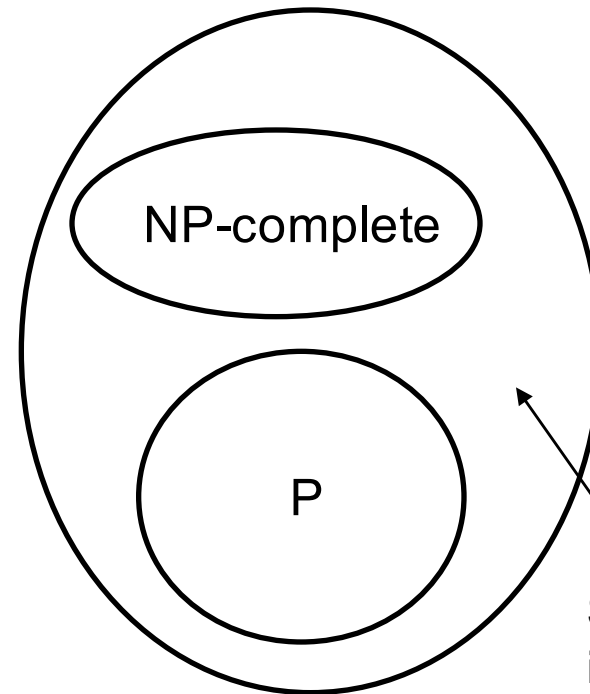
If any NP-complete problem is not polynomial bound, then all NP-Complete problems are not polynomial bound.

$P = NP$



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

$NP \neq P$



Some Problem is in here

NP-completeness and Reducibility

- The existence of NP-complete problems leads us to *suspect* that $P \neq NP$.
- 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 **$NP \neq P$**

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 $\neg q$ are literals)
- A *clause* is a disjunction of literals
($(p \vee q \vee s)$ and $(\neg q \vee r)$ 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:

$$(p \vee q \vee s) \wedge (\neg q \vee r) \wedge (\neg p \vee r) \wedge (\neg r \vee s) \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg s \vee \neg q)$$

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:
 $(p \vee q \vee s) \wedge (\neg q \vee r) \wedge (\neg p \vee r) \wedge (\neg r \vee s) \wedge (\neg p \vee \neg s \vee \neg q)$
- Note that if $q=F$ then $\neg q=T$
- 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 $X \in NP$ 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
 - E.g., 3-SAT \propto Hamiltonian Cycle Decision Problem, SAT \propto 3-coloring, 3-SAT \propto Clique, ...
 - 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 \propto Traveling Salesperson, Clique \propto vertex cover ...

Shortcut for NP-completeness Proofs

- To prove a language L is NP-complete:

Prove $L \in \text{NP}$.

Choose $L' \in \text{NPC}$, and show $L' \propto L$

- $L \in \text{NP}$. We will show that every $M \in \text{NP}$ satisfies $M \propto L$, and thus L is NP-complete
 - Let $M \in \text{NP}$. $M \propto L'$ (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

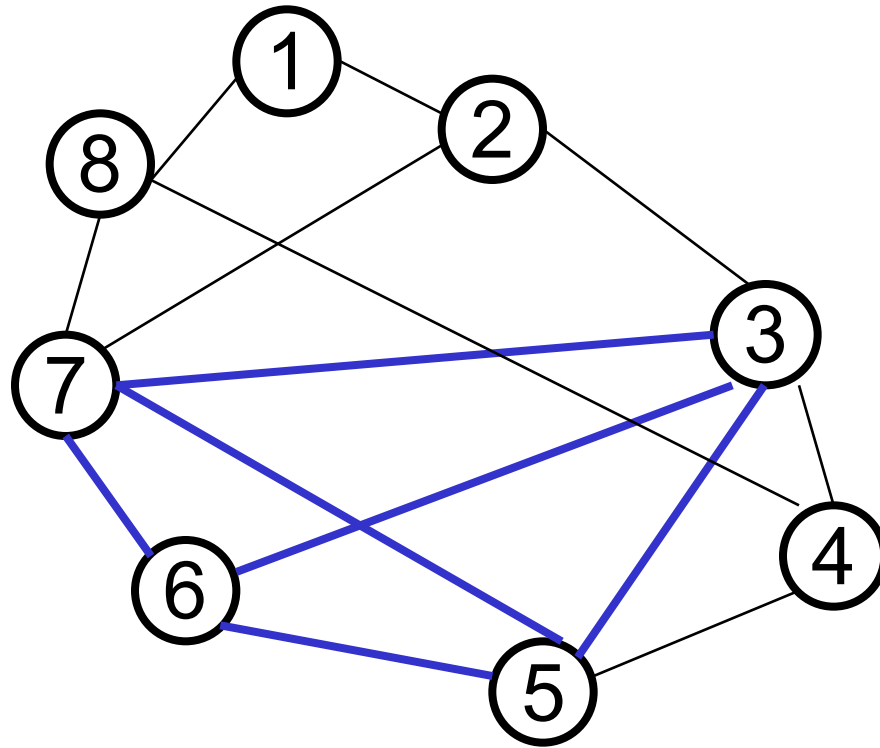
The Clique Problem

- 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

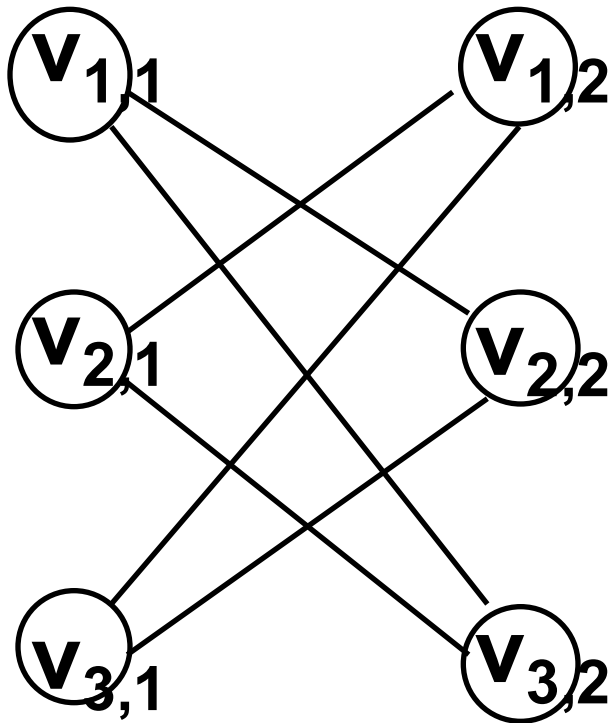
For a formula $C_1 \wedge \dots \wedge C_k$ such that $C_r = l_{1,r} \vee l_{2,r} \vee l_{3,r}$ we construct a graph G with vertices $v_{1,r} \vee v_{2,r} \vee v_{3,r}$ for $r = 1, \dots, k$, where $v_{i,r}$ represents the literal $l_{i,r}$

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 $l_{j,s}$.**

$$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3) \wedge (\bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_2 \vee \bar{x}_3)$$



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 $\binom{k}{2}$ from two different clauses is checked and an edge is added if the literals are not complementary.
 - The reduction is $O(k^2)$

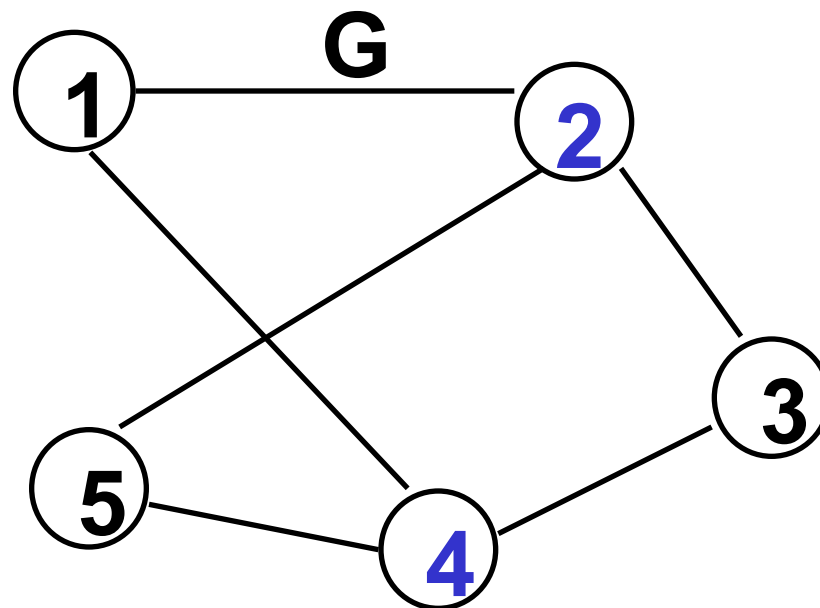
Vertex Cover

- 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 .

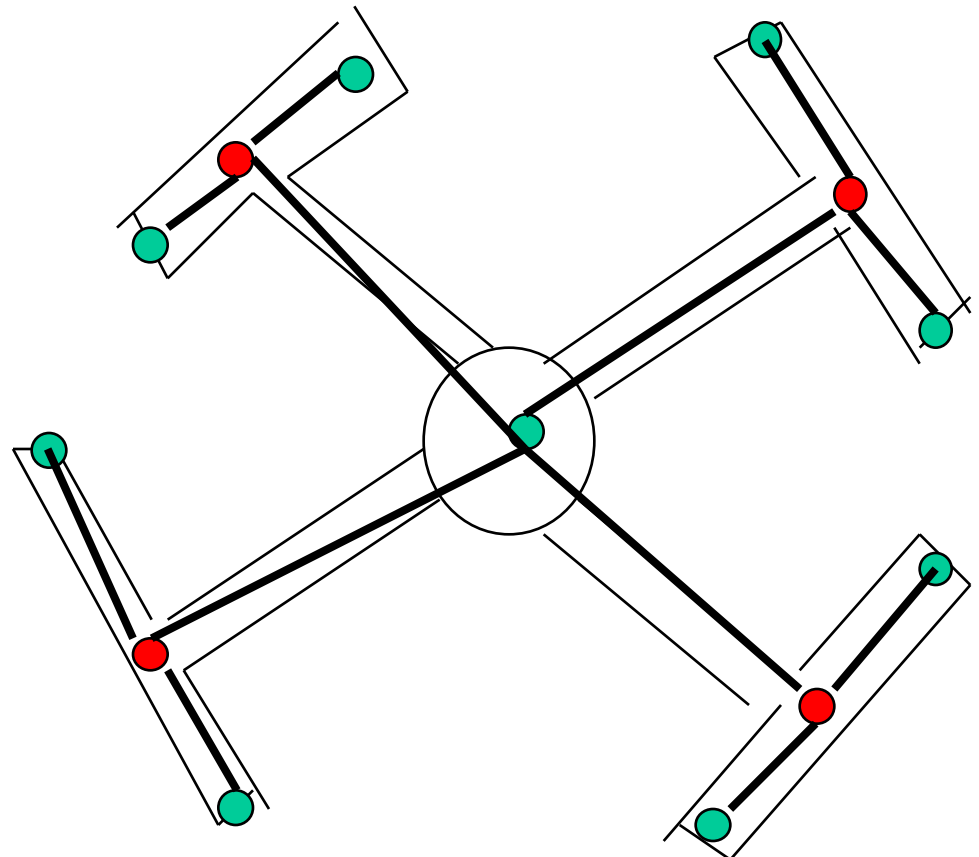
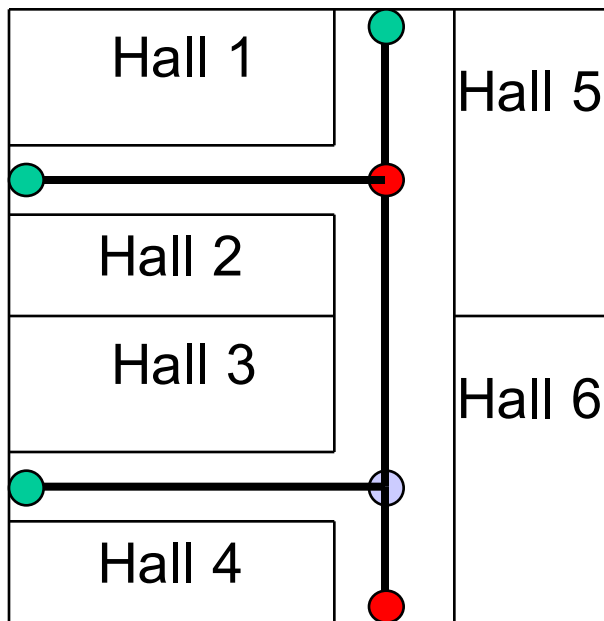
Example of a vertex cover problem



$k=2$

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



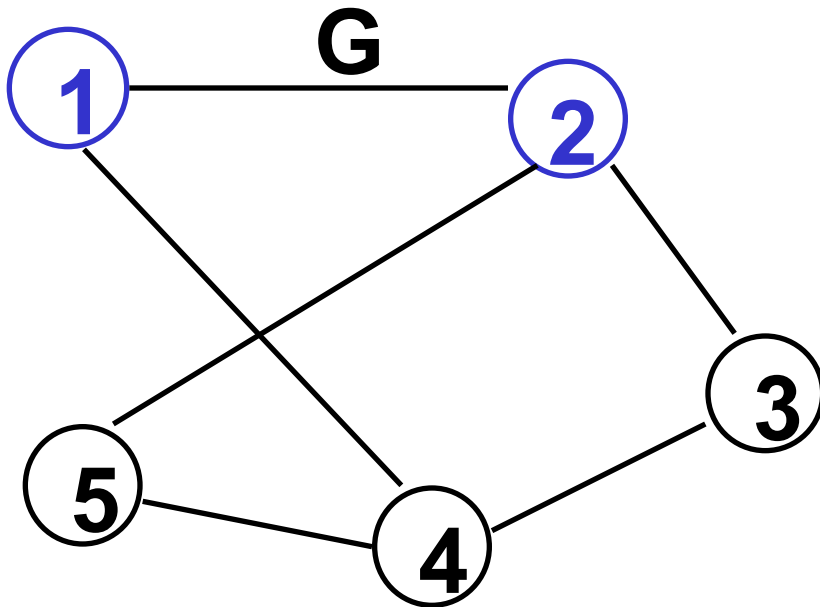
The vertex-cover problem

- **Theorem:** VERTEX-COVER is NP-complete.
- **Proof: Step 1.** VERTEX-COVER \in NP (obvious algorithm, given a subset of vertices).
- **Step 2.** We select CLIQUE (will show that CLIQUE \propto VERTEX-COVER)

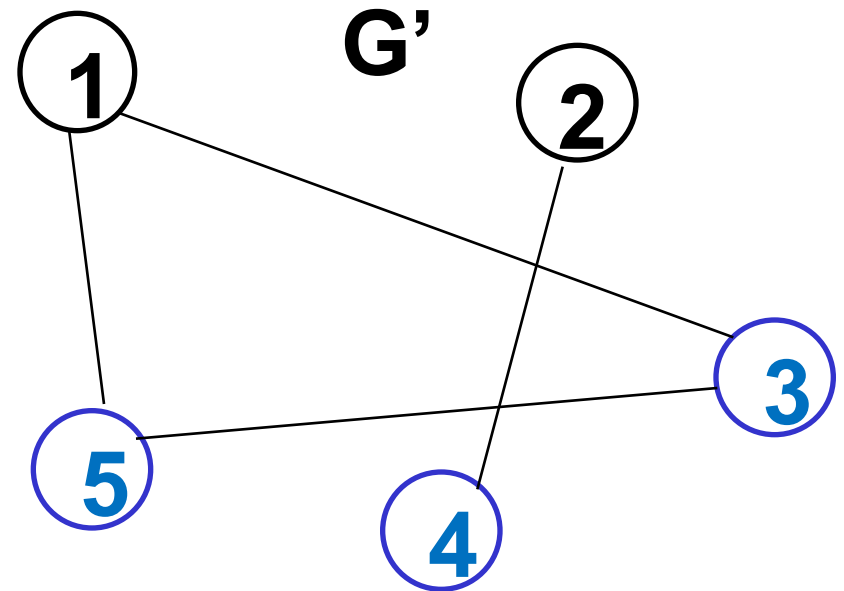
The reduction

- **Step 3.** The mapping.
- Given an instance of the CLIQUE problem $\langle G, k \rangle$ we output an instance $\langle G', |V| - k \rangle$ 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



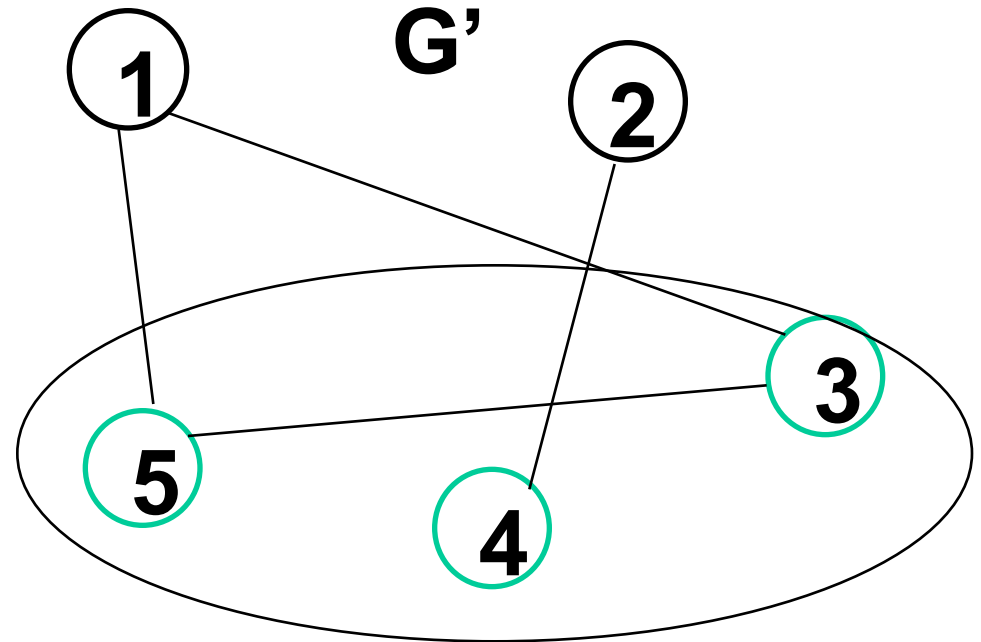
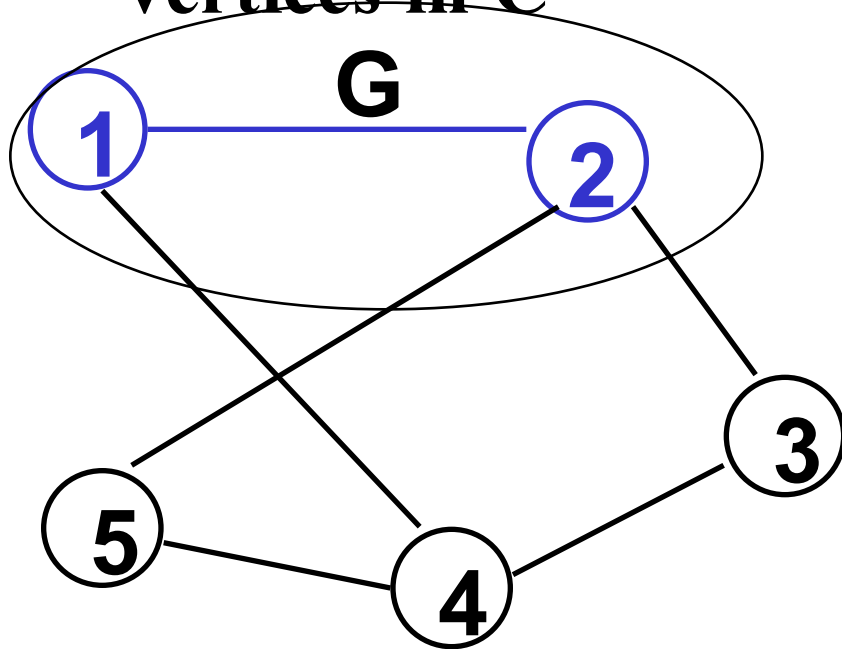
**Clique {1,2} of
size 2**



**Cover {3,4,5} of
size 3**

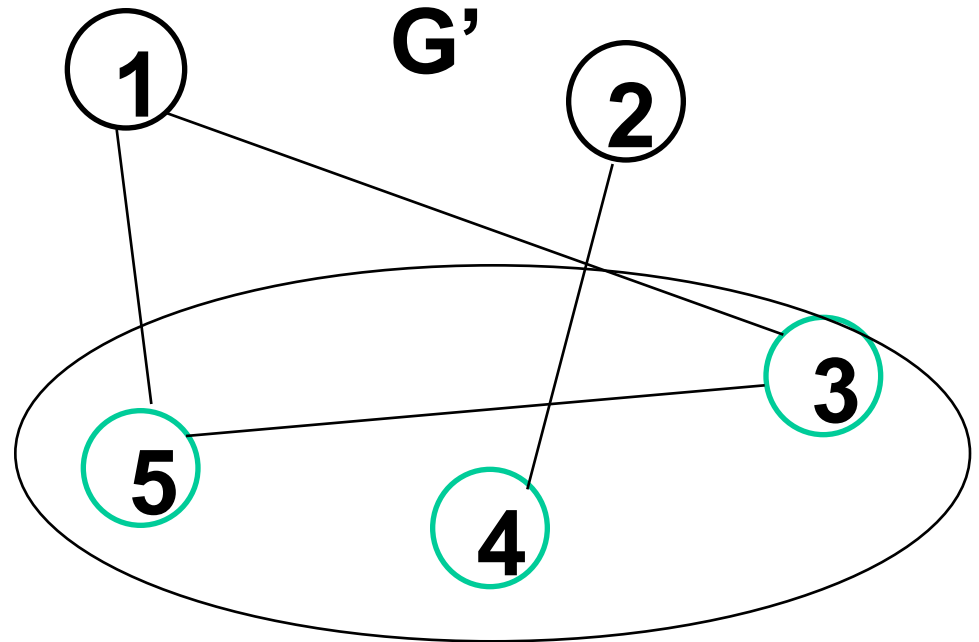
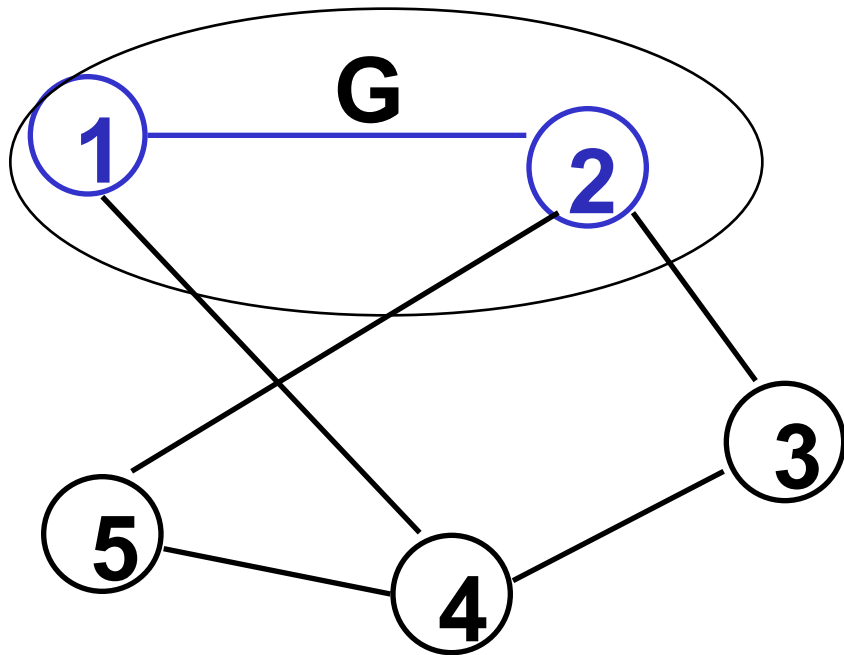
Step 4. Correctness of the reduction

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



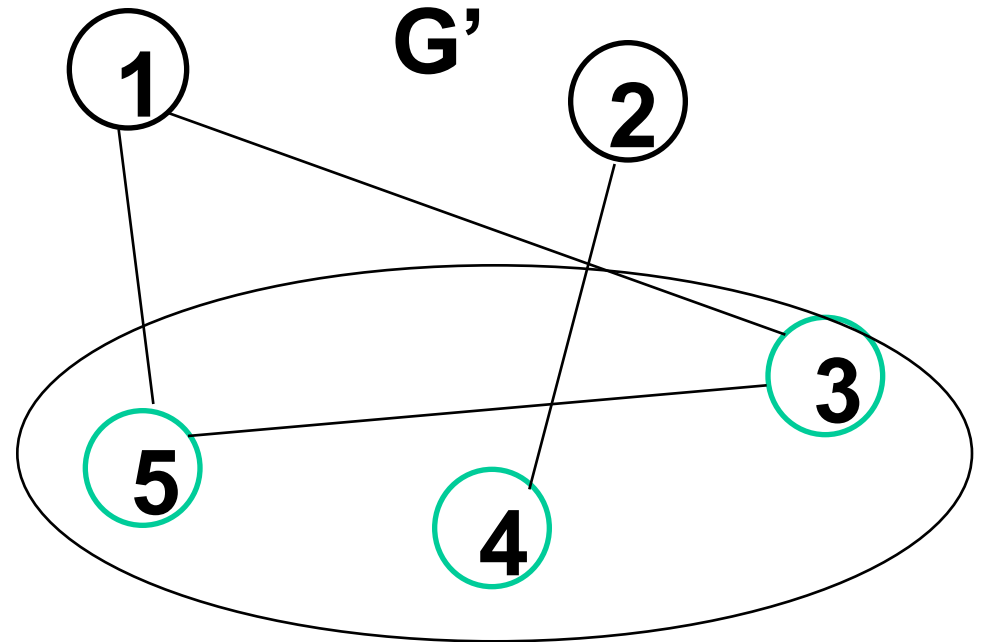
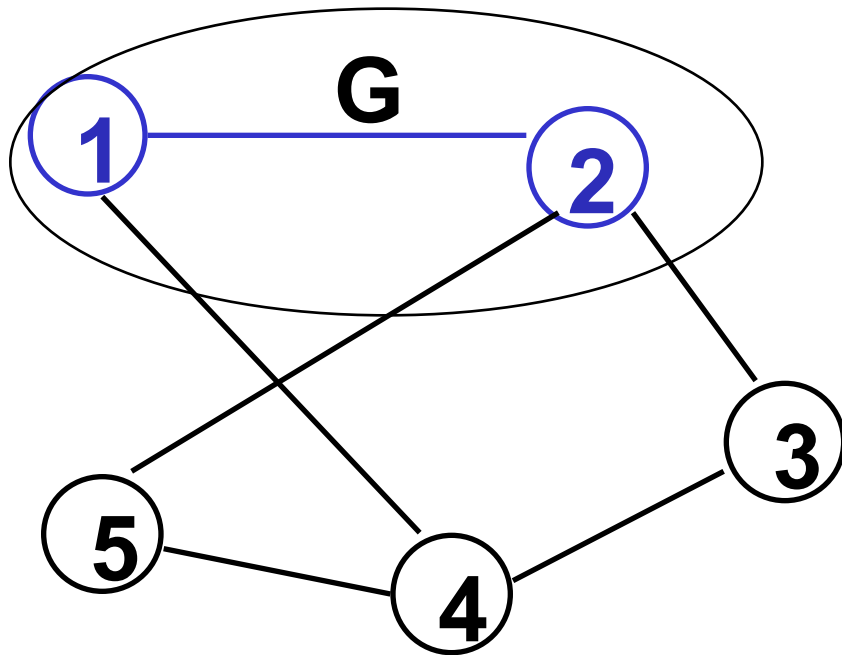
Step 4 cont

- 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 .

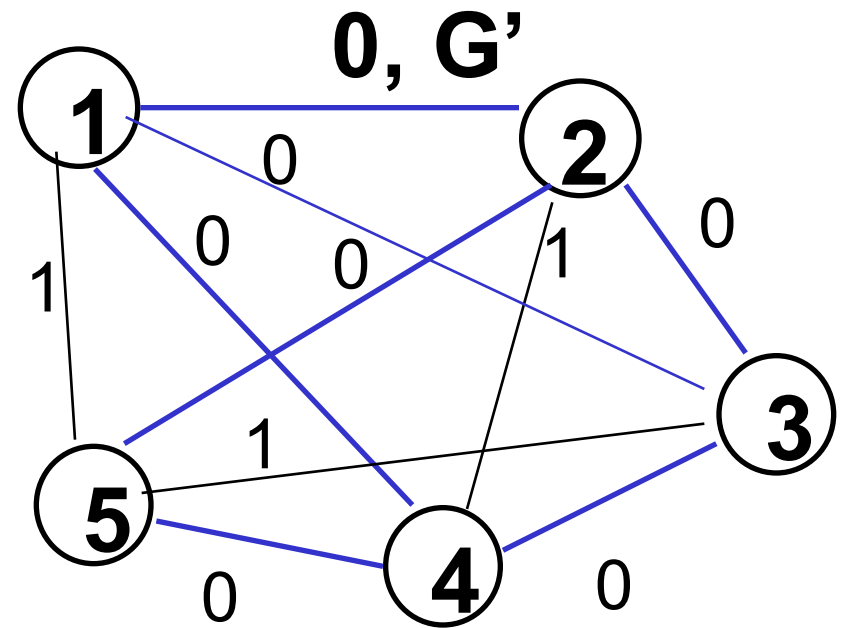
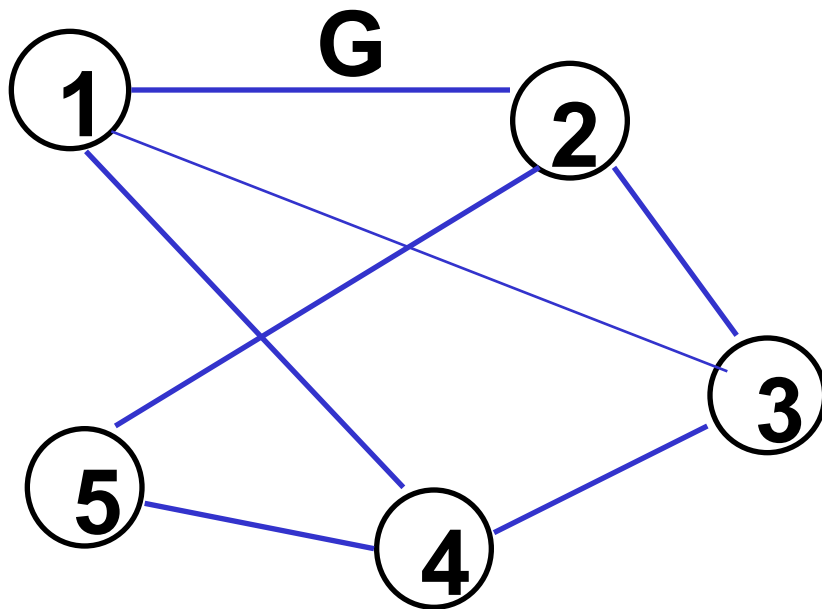
Traveling Salesman

- **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 $\text{TSP} \in \text{NP}$.

The reduction

- **Step 2: Select HAM-CYCLE (We will show that $\text{HAM-CYCLE} \propto \text{TSP}$).**
- **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?

