DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS (DAA 2018)

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Based on slides by Veli Mäkinen



Master's Programme in Computer Science

NP-hardness & approximability

Week V

NP-hardness

Definitions, reductions, examples

Book Chapter 34

DECISION VS OPTIMIZATION PROBLEM

Decision problem is a problem with yes/no answer.

 <u>Hamiltonian Cycle Problem</u>: Given a graph, is there a cycle that visits every vertex exactly once.

Optimization problem seeks a solution with a minimal or maximal value.

 <u>Traveling Salesperson Problem</u>: Given a weighted graph, find a Hamiltonian cycle with the smallest total weight.

Optimization problems have decisions versions:

 <u>Traveling Salesperson Problem</u>: Given a weighted graph and a value W, is there a Hamiltonian cycle with a total weight ≤W.

Obviously, if we can solve the optimization problem, we can solve the decision version, but the opposite is usually true too (blackboard).

Complexity classes are usually defined for decision problems.

• Hard decision version implies hard optimization version.



COMPLEXITY CLASSES P AND NP

P = problems that can be solved in $O(n^k)$ time

- k constant
- n input length, when encoded
- **NP** = problems that can be *verified* in $O(n^k)$ time
 - k constant

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- n input length + proof length, when encoded
- NP stands for *nondeterministic polynomial time*: The problems can be "solved" using the following nondeterministic algorithm:
- 1. Nondeterministically "guess" an optimal solution/proof/certificate
 - For example, guess a list of edges for Hamiltonian cycle
- 2. Verify the solution/proof/certificate in polynomial time.
- 3. Return "yes" if verified and "no" otherwise
 - Every "yes" instances must have a certificate that can verified (co-NP = problems with polytime verification of "no" instances)

Next

week

NP-HARD AND NP-COMPLETE

NP-hard = problems s. t. a polynomial time algorithm for it implies polynomial time algorithm for every NP problem

- Proof by reduction from any NP-complete problem
- Optimization problem is NP-hard if its decision version is

NP-complete = NP-hard problems that are in NP

 Proof by reduction from any other NP-complete problem plus polynomial time verification

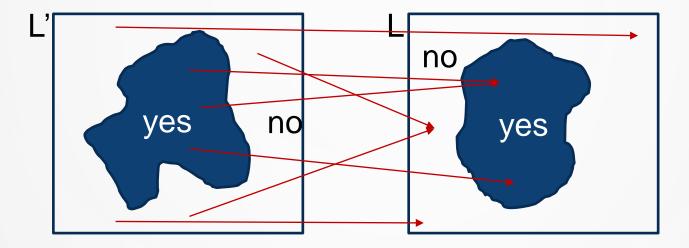
The unproven but generally accepted conjecture P≠NP implies

- NP contains problems that have no polynomial time algorithm
- No NP-hard problem has a polynomial time algorithm

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REDUCTIONS

We denote L'≤_pL if any input x' to decision problem L' can be converted in polynomial time (i.e. O(n^k) time) to an input x of L such that L'(x')=L(x)∈ {*yes, no*}.





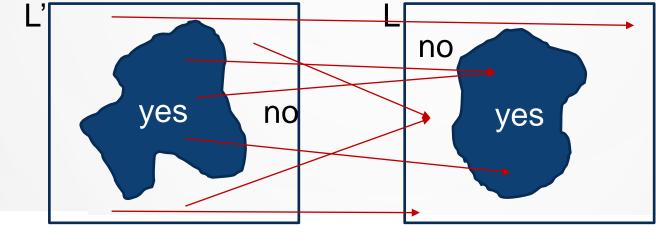
DEFINITIONS

Definition: Problem L is NP-complete if

- **1.** L∈ *NP*
- 2. $L' \leq_p L$ for every $L' \in NP$.

Definition: Problem L is *NP-hard* if <u>2</u>. holds for its *decision version* L^{dec}:

L^{dec}(x)="Is L(x)<t for given t?" [L minimization problem]



TOOL TO PROVE NP-HARDNESS

Lemma: Problem L is NP-hard if there is NP-complete problem L" such that $L'' \leq_p L^{dec}$, where L^{dec} is the decision version of L.

Proof.

L" is NP-complete $\rightarrow L' \leq_p L''$ for every $L' \in NP$ (by def.)

 $L'' \leq_p L^{dec} \rightarrow L' \leq_p L'' \leq_p L^{dec}$ for every $L' \in NP$

transitivity $\rightarrow L' \leq_p L^{dec}$ for every $L' \in NP$.

Corollary. We just need to show one problem NP-complete directly from definition. Then we can reduce all other problems from that.



BOOLEAN SATISFIABILITY: SAT

Decide if a boolean formula φ is true or not, where φ is composed of

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n boolean variables x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n.
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m boolean connectives:

 \land (and), \lor (or), \neg (negation), \Rightarrow (implication), \Leftrightarrow (iff)

Parentheses

THEOREM (Cook-Levin): SAT is NP-complete.

We shall prove this next week.

Now we use this fact to show other problems NP-complete.



3CNF is like SAT but ϕ is in a *3-Conjunctive Normal Form*:

Each *clause* (formula in parenthesis) contains 3 variables or their negations (*literals*) connected by two or's \lor .

- No variable can appear twice in the same clause.

Clauses are connected by and's \wedge .

 $E.g.\varphi^{3CNF} = (x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \neg x_3) \land (\neg x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3)$

To show 3CNF NP-complete, we first need to show it is in NP and then show that we can convert any ϕ into $3CNF \phi^{3CNF}$ in polynomial time such that ϕ =true iff ϕ^{3CNF} =true.

The proof works in several phases, converting the formula closer and closer to 3CNF form.



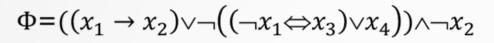
3CNF is in NP:

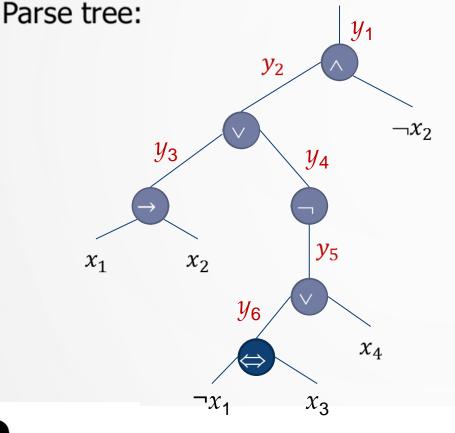
We need a solution/proof/certificate for any "yes" instance and a polynomial time algorithm for verifying the certificate.

- For 3CNF, the certificate is an assignment of truth values to variables s.t. the formula is satisfied.
- In simple cases like this, writing down the actual algorithm is not required... but for the sake of practice:
 - Read the assignments to variables.
 - Read the 3CNF and evaluate a clause at a time. Return false if any clause evaluates false. Otherwise return true.
 - (exact details left as exercise).



We will work out the conversion through an example:

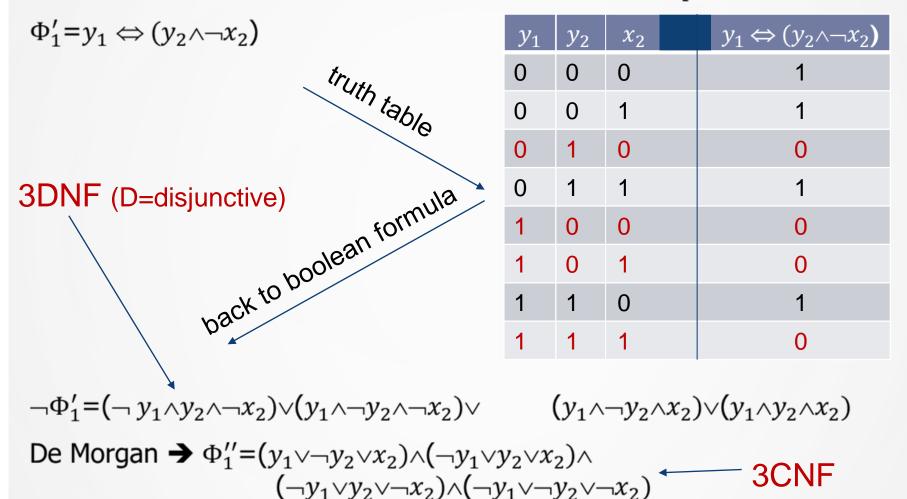




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We are done, except for a special case:

If we have less than three literals after converting Φ'_i to Φ''_i , we need to add *dummy* variables to have the clauses in 3CNF.

E.g. $y_1 = (y_1 \lor a \lor b) \land (y_1 \lor a \lor \neg b) \land (y_1 \lor \neg a \lor b) \land (y_1 \lor \neg a \lor \neg b)$

– Any assignment of a and b makes y_1 decisive on one clause, others evaluate to true.

Let Φ''' be the 3CNF after these conversions.

Finally, all conversion steps can be done in polynomial time:

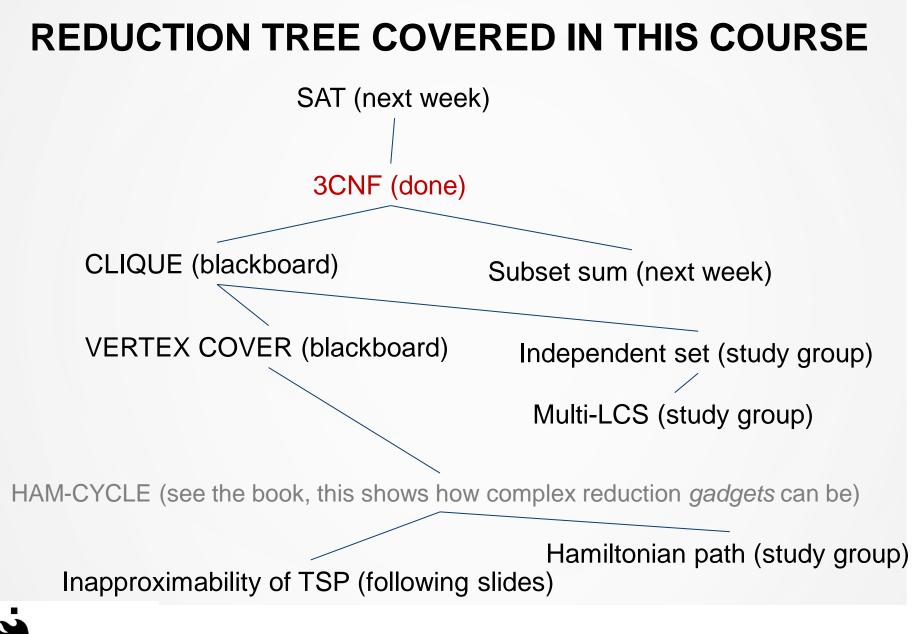
Each *connective* in $\Phi \rightarrow$ at most 1 variable and 1 clause in Φ' .

Each clause in $\Phi' \rightarrow$ at most 8 clauses in Φ'' .

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Each clause in \Phi'' \rightarrow at most 4 clauses in \Phi'''.
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 $\Phi' = \mathbf{y}_1 \land (\mathbf{y}_1 \Leftrightarrow (\mathbf{y}_2 \land \neg \mathbf{x}_2))$ $\wedge(y_2 \Leftrightarrow (y_3 \lor y_4))$ $\wedge (y_3 \Leftrightarrow (x_1 \rightarrow x_2))$ $\wedge(y_4 \Leftrightarrow \neg y_5)$ $\wedge (y_5 \Leftrightarrow (y_6 \lor x_4))$ $\wedge (y_6 \Leftrightarrow (\neg x_1 \Leftrightarrow x_3))$



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SOME NP-HARD PROBLEMS

Max-Clique: Given a graph G, find the maximum clique (fully connected subgraph) in G.

CLIQUE: Does a graph G contain a clique of size k.

Min-Vertex-Cover: Given a graph G, find the smallest set V' of vertices s.t. every edge in G is incident to a vertex in V'.

VERTEX-COVER: Does a graph G have a vertex cover of size ≤k.



Approximability

Definitions, examples

Book Chapter 35

APPROXIMATION ALGORITHMS

- We will see in study groups and exercises that many important optimization problems are NP-hard.
- However, it turns out that one can sometimes find good enough results in polynomial time.
- Consider a minimization problem whose optimal solution has cost OPT. A *c-approximation algorithm* returns an answer that is at most c*OPT, where c>1.

Maximization problem $\rightarrow (1/c)^{*OPT}$.

- There are O(1) approximations, O(log n) approximations, etc.
- $(1 + \epsilon)OPT =$ approximation scheme, $\epsilon > 0$.

PTAS = pol. in **n** for fixed ϵ , e.g. $O(n^{1/\epsilon})$.

FPTAS = pol. in **n** and in $1/\epsilon$, e, g. $O((1/\epsilon)^{100} n^{c})$, for constant **c**.

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VERTEX COVER 2-APPROXIMATION

Minimum vertex cover: Find minimum size subset of vertices in an undirected graph G=(V,E) such that each edge is *incident* to at least one vertex in this subset.

Approximation algorithm:

Repeat until |E|=0:

- 1. Add u and v to solution C for any $(u,v) \in E$.
- 2. Remove all edges incident to **u** or to **v**.

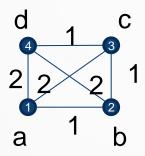
Theorem: The above algorithm is a 2-approximation to vertex cover.

Proof. Clearly C is a vertex cover. Let A be the set of edges selected at line 1. One of the endpoints of an edge in A needs to belong to an arbitrary vertex cover. No vertex is added twice in C: $OPT \ge |A| \otimes |C| = 2|A| \le 2 * OPT$.



METRIC TSP 2-APPROXIMATION

Traveling salesperson problem (TSP) asks to find a minimum cost Hamiltonian cycle (one visiting each vertex exactly ones) in a complete undirected graph G=(V,E). Cost of a path is the sum of costs of edges. Metric TSP is a variant where $c(u,w) \le c(u,v) + c(v,w)$ for all v, for all edges (u,w).





METRIC TSP 2-APPROXIMATION

Spanning tree is a tree on V with edges $E' \subseteq E$. Minimum spanning tree has smallest cost of edges.

н

С

d

b

a

cost

1

2

1

6

c + 2

Approximation algorithm:

H= list of vertices in the preorder of T, where T is a *minimum spanning* tree of G=(V,E).

Return the cycle induced by H

Theorem. The above algorithm is a 2-approximation for metric TSP.

Proof.

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TSP is a spanning tree, after one edge is removed

 $C(T) = \sum_{(u,v)\in T} c(u,v) \le OPT_{TSP}$

Consider a *full walk* over T, where each edge visited twice (once going down, once going up). Cost of full walk is 2C(T).

The cycle induced by H has at most the cost of the full walk:

- Full walk (c,d),(d,c),(c,b),(b,a),(a,b),(b,c)
- Cycle induced by H (c,d), (d,b), (b,a), (a,c)

preorder makes shortcuts to full walk and by triangle inequality the cost is less

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INAPPROXIMABILITY

Some problems are hard to approximate well. An example is general TSP (without triangle inequality).

Theorem. If P≠NP, then for any constant c≥1, there is no polynomial time c-approximation algorithm for general TSP.

Proof. Reduction from Hamiltonian Cycle:

- Let G=(V,E) be the Hamiltonian Cycle instance.
- Let G'=(V,E') be the complete graph on V.
- Let w be the edge cost function:
 w(e)=1 if e∈E and w(e)=c|V|+1 otherwise.
- Then a Hamiltonian cycle in G has cost |V| in G' and any other cycle has cost at least c|V|+1+|V|-1 = (c+1)|V| > c|V|.
- Thus any c-approximation algorithm would have to find a Hamiltonian cycle if it exists.

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