



Assignment Project Exam Help

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11. INTRACTABILITY

Feasibility of Algorithms

- We say that a (sequential) algorithm is *polynomial time* if for every input it terminates in polynomially many steps in the length of the input.

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This means that there exists a natural number k (independent of the input) so that the algorithm terminates in $T(n) = O(n^k)$ many steps, where n is the size of the input.

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- Exa
 - “Input number n is a prime number.

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- Examples
 - “Input number n is a prime number.”
 - “Input graph G is connected.”

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- “Input number n is a prime number.”
- “Input graph G is connected.”
- “Input graph G has a cycle containing all vertices.”

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This means that there exist a natural number k (independent of the input) so that the algorithm terminates in $T(n) = O(n^k)$ many steps, where n is the size of the input.

- A decision problem is a set of inputs for which there is a yes/no answer.
- Examples:
 - “Input number n is a prime number.”
 - “Input graph G is connected.”
 - “Input graph G has a cycle containing all vertices.”
- We say that a decision problem A is in *polynomial time* if there exists a polynomial time algorithm which solves it.

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- A decision problem is a function $A : \{0, 1\}^* \rightarrow \{\text{YES}, \text{NO}\}$.

• Examples:

- “Input number n is a prime number.”
- “Input graph G is connected.”
- “Input graph G has a cycle containing all vertices.”

- We say that a decision problem A is in *polynomial time* if there exists a polynomial time algorithm which solves it.
- Thus, given an input x , such an algorithm outputs *YES* for all x which satisfy A and outputs *NO* for all x which do not satisfy A .

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- A decision problem is in *polynomial time* if there exists a polynomial time algorithm which solves it.
- Thus, given an input x , such an algorithm outputs *YES* for all x which satisfy A and outputs *NO* for all x which do not satisfy A .
- We denote this by $A \in \mathbf{P}$.

- What is the *length* of an input?

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- It is the number of symbols needed to describe the input precisely.

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- As we will see, definition of polynomial time computability is quite robust with respect to how we represent inputs.

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- For example, we could also define the length of an input as the number of digits in the decimal representation.

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- As we will see, definition of polynomial time computability is quite robust with respect to how we represent inputs.
- For example, we could also define the length of an input as the number of digits in the decimal representation.
- This can only change the constants involved in the running time: $T(n) = O(n^k)$ but not the asymptotic bound.

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- If input is a weighted graph G , then G can be described by giving for each vertex v , a list of edges incident to v , together with their (integer) weights, represented in binary.

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- If input is a weighted graph G , then G can be described by giving for each vertex v_i a list of edges incident to v_i , together with their (integer) weights, represented in binary.

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- Alternative
- If the input is a weighted graph, give the representation of the graph.

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- If input is a weighted graph G , then G can be described by giving for each vertex v_i a list of edges incident to v_i , together with their (integer) weights, represented in binary.

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- Alternative representation of graphs
- If the input is a weighted graph, then we can represent it as a list of edges with their weights.
- However, since we are interested only in whether the algorithm runs in polynomial time and not in the particular degree of the polynomial, such a run time, this does not matter.

- If input is a weighted graph G , then G can be described by giving for each vertex v_i a list of edges incident to v_i , together with their (integer) weights, represented in binary.

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- Alternative representations:
 - If the input is a list of edges, then we can reconstruct the representation of the graph.
 - However, since we are interested only in whether the algorithm runs in polynomial time and not in the particular degree of the polynomial, such a run time, this does not matter.
 - In fact, every precise description without artificial redundancies will do.

- We say that a decision problem $A(x)$ is in *non-deterministic polynomial time*, denoted by $A \in \text{NP}$, if:

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- We say that a decision problem $A(x)$ is in *non-deterministic polynomial time*, denoted by $A \in \text{NP}$, if:

① there exists a problem $B(x, y)$ such that for every input x , $A(x)$ is true just in case there exists y such that $B(x, y)$ is true

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- For example, decision problem “integer x is divisible by integer y ” is true just in case there exists integer y such that $x \equiv 0 \pmod{y}$.

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- We call y a *certificate* for x .
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- Clearly, the problem “ x is divisible by y ” is decidable by an algorithm which runs in time polynomial in the length of x only.
- In fact, “integer x is not prime” is actually decidable in (deterministic) polynomial time, but this is a hard theorem to prove.

Feasibility of Algorithms

Examples of NP -decision problems:

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Feasibility of Algorithms

Examples of NP -decision problems:

- (Vertex Cover) Instance: a graph G and an integer k . Problem: “There exists a subset U consisting of at most k vertices of G (called a vertex cover of G) such that each edge has at least one end belonging to U .

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Problem: “There exists an evaluation of the propositional variables which makes the formula true”.

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Problem: “There exists an evaluation of the propositional variables which makes the formula true”.

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Problem: “There exists an evaluation of the propositional variables which makes the formula true”.

Clearly, given an evaluation of the propositional variables one can determine in polynomial time if the formula is true for such an evaluation.

- If each clause C_i involves exactly three variables we call such decision problem 3SAT.

- As we have mentioned, for example, the decision problem “integer n is not prime” is obviously in NP, but it has been proved in 2002 that it is also in P.

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Polynomial Reductions

- As we have mentioned, for example, the decision problem “integer n is not prime” is obviously in NP, but it has been proved in 2002 that it is also in P. (This is a famous and unexpected result, proved by Indian computer scientists Agrawal, Kayal and Saxena.)

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- Is it the case that *every* NP problem is also in P??

- For every NP problem Φ , is there a polynomial time algorithm that finds a solution of Φ ?

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- Intuitively, this should not be the case; determining if s should be a harder problem than simply checking if a given s makes such a formula true.

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- Is it the case that *every* NP problem is also in P??
- For every NP problem, is there a polynomial time algorithm that finds a solution of the problem?
- Intuitively, this should not be the case; determining if a formula is true should be a harder problem than simply checking if a given assignment of propositional variables makes Φ true?
- However, so far, no one has been able to prove (or disprove) that this is indeed the case, despite a huge effort of very many very famous people!!

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Polynomial Reductions

- As we have mentioned, for example, the decision problem “integer n is not prime” is obviously in NP, but it has been proved in 2002 that it is also in P. (This is a famous and unexpected result, proved by Indian computer scientists Agrawal, Kayal and Saxena.)

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- Is it the case that *every* NP problem is also in P??
- For example, is there a polynomial time algorithm that decides whether a given propositional formula Φ is satisfiable? That is, does there exist a truth assignment of propositional variables makes Φ true?
- Intuitively, this should not be the case; determining if a formula is satisfiable should be a harder problem than simply checking if a given truth assignment makes such a formula true.
- However, so far, no one has been able to prove (or disprove) that this is indeed the case, despite a huge effort of very many very famous people!!
- Conjecture that NP is a strictly larger class of decision problems than P is known as “ $P \neq NP$ ” hypothesis, and it is widely believed that it is one of the hardest open problems in the whole of Mathematics!!

- Let U and V be two decision problems. We say that U is polynomially reducible to V if and only if there exists a function $f(x)$ such that:

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Polynomial Reductions

- Let U and V be two decision problems. We say that U is polynomially reducible to V if and only if there exists a function $f(x)$ such that:

① $f(x)$ maps instances of U into instances of V :

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Polynomial Reductions

- Let U and V be two decision problems. We say that U is polynomially reducible to V if and only if there exists a function $f(x)$ such that:

1. $f(x)$ maps instances of U into instances of V :

2. For every instance x of U we have that $U(x)$ is true just in case $f(x)$ is an instance of V such that $V(f(x))$ is true.

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Polynomial Reductions

- Let U and V be two decision problems. We say that U is polynomially reducible to V if and only if there exists a function $f(x)$ such that:

- $f(x)$ maps instances of U into instances of V .
- For every instance x of U we have that $U(x)$ is true just in case $f(x)$ is an instance of V such that $V(f(x))$ is true.
- $f(x)$ is computable by a polynomial time algorithm.

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Polynomial Reductions

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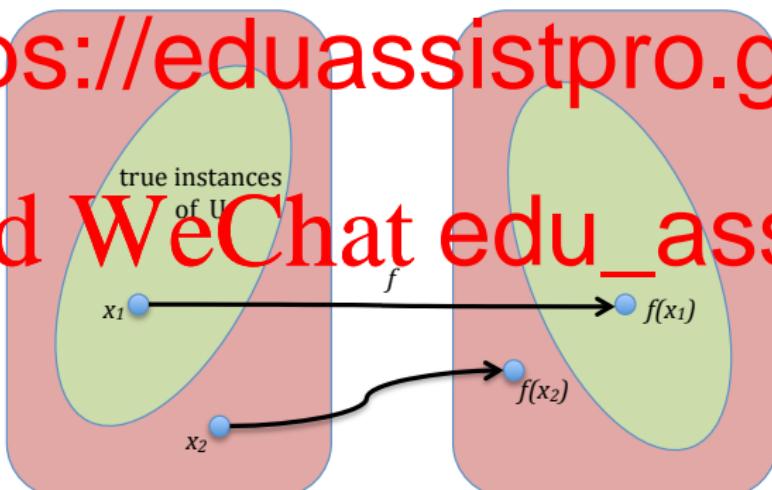
① $f(x)$ maps instances of U into instances of V :

② For every instance x of U we have that $V(x)$ is true just in case $f(x)$ is an instance of V such that $V(f(x))$ is true.

③ $f(x)$ is computable by a polynomial time algorithm.

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Polynomial Reductions

Example of a polynomial reduction:

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Polynomial Reductions

Example of a polynomial reduction:

- Every instance of SAT is polynomially reducible to an instance of 3SAT.

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Polynomial Reductions

Example of a polynomial reduction:

- Every instance of SAT is polynomially reducible to an instance of 3SAT.

- We introduce more propositional variables and replace every clause by a conjunction of several clauses.

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Example of a polynomial reduction:

- Every instance of SAT is polynomially reducible to an instance of 3SAT.
- We introduce more propositional variables and replace every clause by a conjunction of several clauses.
- For example, we replace clause

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with t
variables Q_1, Q_2, Q_3 :
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~~($P_1 \vee \neg P_2 \vee Q_1$) $\wedge (\neg Q_1 \vee \neg P_3 \vee Q_2)$ $\wedge (\neg Q_2 \vee \neg P_4 \vee P_6)$~~ (2)
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- We introduce more propositional variables and replace every clause by a conjunction of several clauses.
- For example, we replace clause

$$(P_1 \vee \neg P_2 \vee Q_1) \wedge (\neg Q_1 \vee \neg P_3 \vee Q_2) \wedge (\neg Q_3 \vee P_4 \vee \neg P_5) \quad (1)$$

with t variables Q_1, Q_2, Q_3 :

$$\underbrace{(P_1 \vee \neg P_2 \vee Q_1)}_{(P'_1 \vee \neg P'_2 \vee Q'_1)} \wedge \underbrace{(\neg Q_1 \vee \neg P_3 \vee Q_2)}_{(\neg Q'_1 \vee \neg P'_3 \vee Q'_2)} \wedge \underbrace{(\neg Q_3 \vee P_4 \vee \neg P_5)}_{(\neg Q'_3 \vee P'_4 \vee \neg P'_5)} \quad (2)$$

- Easy to verify that if an evaluation of P'_i 's makes (??) true, then such evaluation can be extended by an evaluation of Q'_j 's such that (??) is also true

Polynomial Reductions

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- We introduce more propositional variables and replace every clause by a conjunction of several clauses.
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- Easy to verify that if an evaluation of P'_i 's makes (??) true, then such evaluation can be extended by an evaluation of Q'_j 's such that (??) is also true
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- Easy to verify that if an evaluation of P'_i 's makes (??) true, then such evaluation can be extended by an evaluation of Q'_j 's such that (??) is also true
- and vice versa: every evaluation which makes (??) true also makes (??) true.
- Clearly, (??) can be obtained from (??) using a simple polynomial time algorithm.

- **Theorem:** Every NP problem is polynomially reducible to the SAT problem.

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 - ② then running the algorithm that solves U on instance $f(x)$.

- So NP complete problems are the hardest NP problems - a polynomial time algorithm for solving an NP complete problem would make every other NP problem also solvable in polynomial time.

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- Maybe NP complete problems only have theoretical practical relevance??

- Unfortunately, this cannot be farthest from the truth!

- A vast number of practically important decision problems are NP complete!

NP complete problems are everywhere!

- Traveling Salesman Problem

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G instance.

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- ① a map, i.e., a weighted graph with locations as vertices and with

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- Think of a mailman which has to deliver mail to several addresses and then return to the post office. Can he do it while traveling less than L kilometres in total?

NP complete problems are everywhere!

- Register Allocation Problem

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same step of the execution of the program;

- ③ The number of registers K of the
- ② Problem: Is it possible to assign variables to registers such that no edge has both vertices assigned to the same register.

- In graph theoretic terms: Is it possible to color the vertices of a graph G with at most K colors so that no edge has both vertices of the same color.

NP complete problems are everywhere!

• Set Cover Problem

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NP complete problems are everywhere!

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- Assume you want to buy DVDs, each with one out of N movie that you

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- As we will see, many other practically important problems are NP complete.

- Let A be a problem and assume that we have a ‘black box’ device (also called “an oracle”) which for every input x instantaneously computes $A(x)$.

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- Let A be a problem and assume that we have a ‘black box’ device (also called “an oracle”) which for every input x instantaneously computes $A(x)$.
- We consider algorithms which are *polynomial time in A*. This means algorithms which run in polynomial time in the length of the input and which, besides the usual computational steps, can also consult a “black box” for solving problem $A(y)$ for any intermediate output y .

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We solve A , i.e. we find a solution for A in polynomial time. We can do this by consulting a ‘black box’ for problem A whenever we need to compute some intermediate value.

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- Example: (The Traveling Salesman Optimisation Problem)

- Instance: A weighted graph (a map of locations representing the lengths of the edges of the graph connecting the locations);

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We see this in the context of NP-hard problems. We will see algorithms for NP-hard problems.

- Note that we do NOT require that A be an NP problem; we even do not require it to be a decision problem - it can also be an optimisation problem.

Example: (The Travelling Salesman Optimisation Problem)

- Instance: A weighted graph (a map of locations representing the lengths of the edges of the graph connecting the locations);
- Problem: Find a cycle in the graph containing all vertices which is of minimal possible total length.

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- We consider algorithms which are *polynomial time in A* . This means algorithms which run in polynomial time in the length of the input and which, besides the usual computational steps, can also consult a “black box” for solving problem $A(y)$ for any intermediate output y .

- We see that we can call the algorithm ‘ A ’ in polynomial time in the length of the input.

which is the case for the Traveling Salesman Problem.

- Note that we do NOT require that A be an NP problem; we even do not require it to be a decision problem - it can also be an optimisation problem.

- Example: (The Traveling Salesman Problem)

- Instance: A weighted graph (a map of locations representing the lengths of the edges of the graph connecting the locations);
- Problem: Find a cycle in the graph containing all vertices which is of minimal possible total length.

- Think of a mailman having to deliver mail to several addresses while having to travel as small total distance as possible.

The Traveling Salesman Optimisation Problem is clearly NP hard:
using a “black box” for solving it, we can solve the Traveling Salesman Decision problem:

- Given a set of cities and the distances between them, determine if there exists a cycle that visits all cities exactly once and returns to the starting city.
- Given a set of cities and the distances between them, determine the length of the shortest possible cycle that visits all cities exactly once and returns to the starting city.
- We can reduce the Traveling Salesman Optimisation Problem to the Traveling Salesman Decision problem by setting L to the length of the shortest possible cycle found in step 2. If there is a cycle of length L , then there is a cycle of length L that visits all cities exactly once and returns to the starting city.
- Since all other NP problems are polynomial-time reducible to the Traveling Salesman Decision problem (which is NP complete), the Traveling Salesman Optimisation Problem is solvable using a “black box” for the Traveling Salesman Decision problem.

The significance of NP hard problems

- It is important to be able to figure out if a problem at hand is NP hard in order to know that one has to abandon trying to come up with a feasible (i.e., polynomial time) solution.

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The significance of NP hard problems

- It is important to be able to figure out if a problem at hand is NP hard in order to know that one has to abandon trying to come up with a feasible (i.e., polynomial time) solution.
- So what do we do when we encounter an NP hard problem?

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- prove that the problem is indeed NP hard, to justify not trying solving the problem exactly;
- look for an approximation algorithm which provides a feasible sub-optimal solution that it is not too bad.

Proving NP completeness

Warning: sometimes distinction between a problem in P and an NP complete problem can be subtle!

in P	NP complete
<p>• Given a graph G and two vertices s and t, does there exist a path from s to t of length at most k?</p> <p>• Given a graph G and two vertices s and t, does there exist a path from s to t that passes through every vertex in G exactly once?</p>	<p>• Given a graph G and two vertices s and t, does there exist a path from s to t that passes through every vertex in G exactly once?</p> <p>• Given a graph G and two vertices s and t, does there exist a path from s to t that passes through every vertex in G exactly once?</p>
<p>• Given a CNF formula in 3CNF form such that every clause has at most three propositional variables, does the formula have a satisfying assignment?</p>	<p>• Given a CNF formula in 3CNF form such that every clause has at most three propositional variables, does the formula have a satisfying assignment?</p>
<p>• Given a graph G, does G have a tour where every edge is traversed exactly once? (An <i>Euler tour</i>.)</p>	<p>• Given a graph G, does G have a tour where every vertex is visited exactly once? (A <i>Hamiltonian cycle</i>.)</p>

Proving NP completeness

Taking for granted that SAT is NP complete, how do we prove NP completeness of another NP problem??

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- **Theorem:** Let U be an NP complete problem, and let V be another NP problem. If U is polynomially reducible to V , then V is also NP complete.

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- Proof: Assume that $g(x)$ is a polynomial reduction of U to V , and let W be any other NP problem.
- Since $U \leq_p W$, we have $U \leq_p V$.
- We can now show that $V \leq_p W$.

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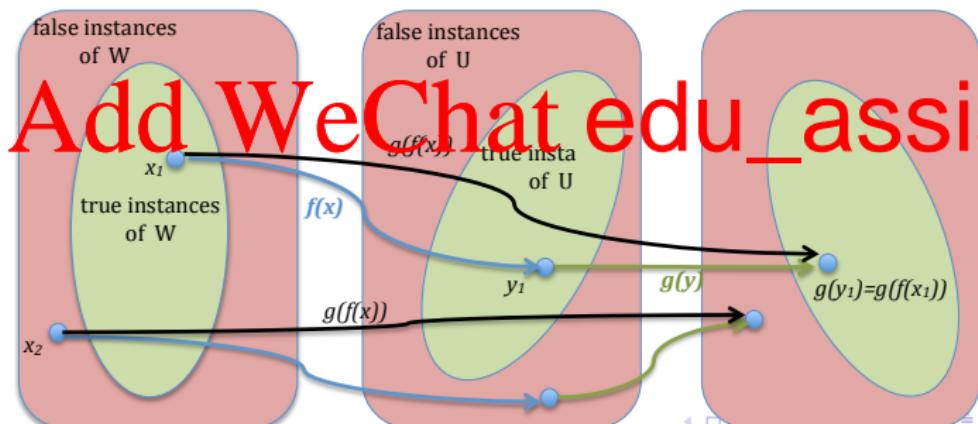
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- Since $g(x)$ is a polynomial reduction of U to V .
- We can show that $g(x)$ is a polynomial reduction of W to U .



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- $g(f(x))$ is a polynomial time reduction of W to V because:

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Proving NP completeness

- $g(f(x))$ is a polynomial time reduction of W to V because:
 - ① since f is a reduction of W to U , $W(x)$ is true just in case $U(f(x))$ is true;

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 - ② since g is a reduction of U to V , $U(f(x))$ is true just in case $V(g(f(x)))$ is true.

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$$|f(x)| \leq P(|x|).$$

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$$|f(x)| \leq P(|x|).$$

- since $g(y)$ is polynomial time computable as w polynomial Q such that for every input after at most $Q(|y|)$ many steps.

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- <https://eduassistpro.github.io>, ie,

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- In total, the computation of $g(f(x))$ terminates in at most $P(|x|) + Q(P(|x|))$ many steps, which is a polynomial bound in $|x|$.

Reducing 3SAT to VC

- Reducing an instance of 3SAT to an instance of a Vertex Cover (VC) problem, thus proving that VC is NP complete:

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- ① for each clause C_i draw a triangle with three vertices v_1^i, v_2^i, v_3^i and three edges connecting these vertices.

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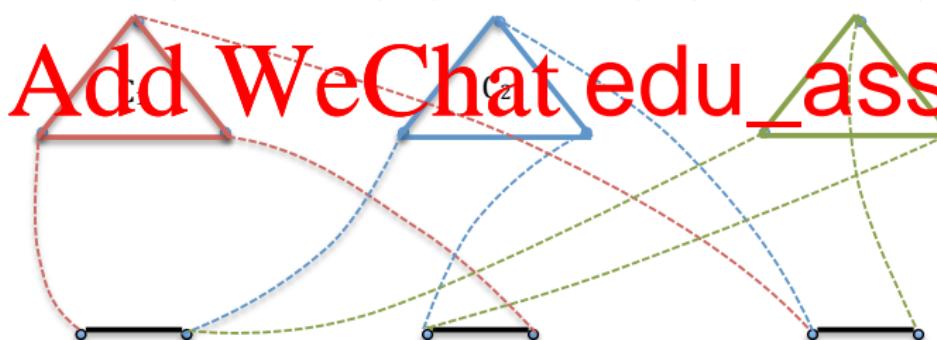
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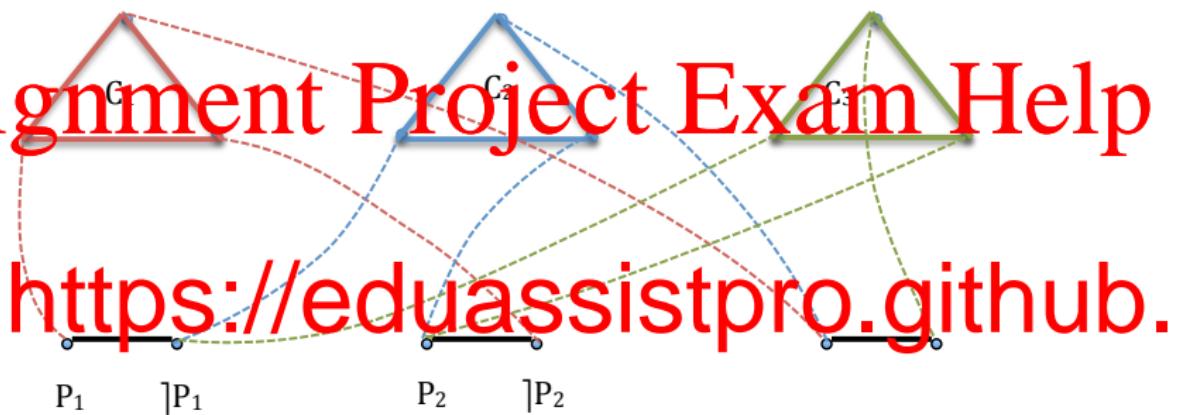
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Reducing 3SAT to VC

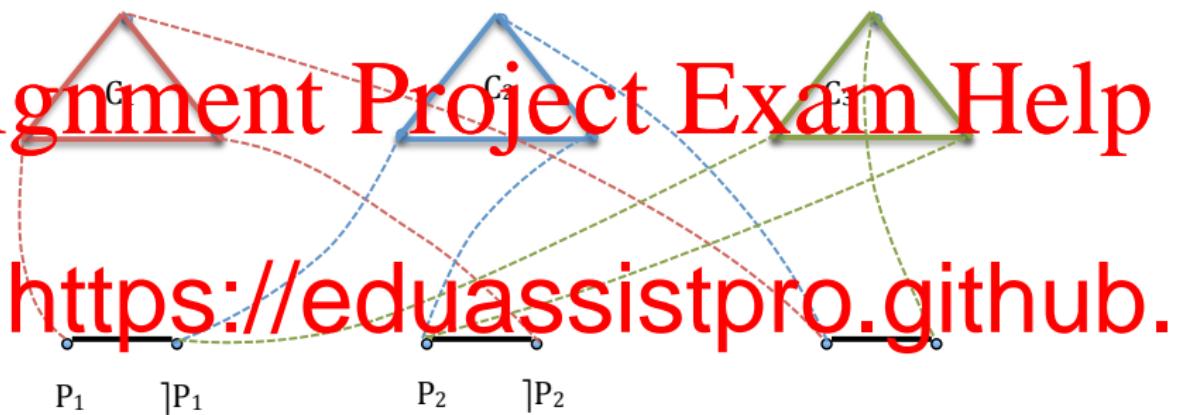
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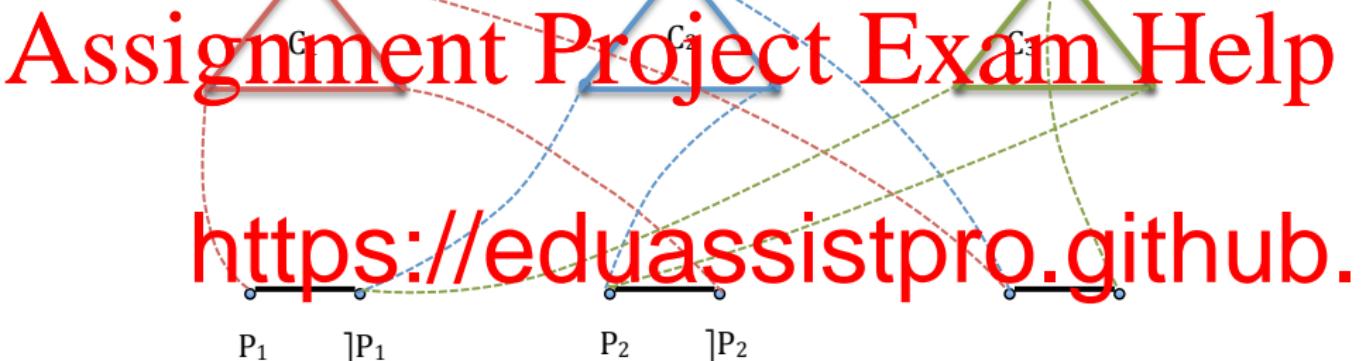
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Reducing 3SAT to VC

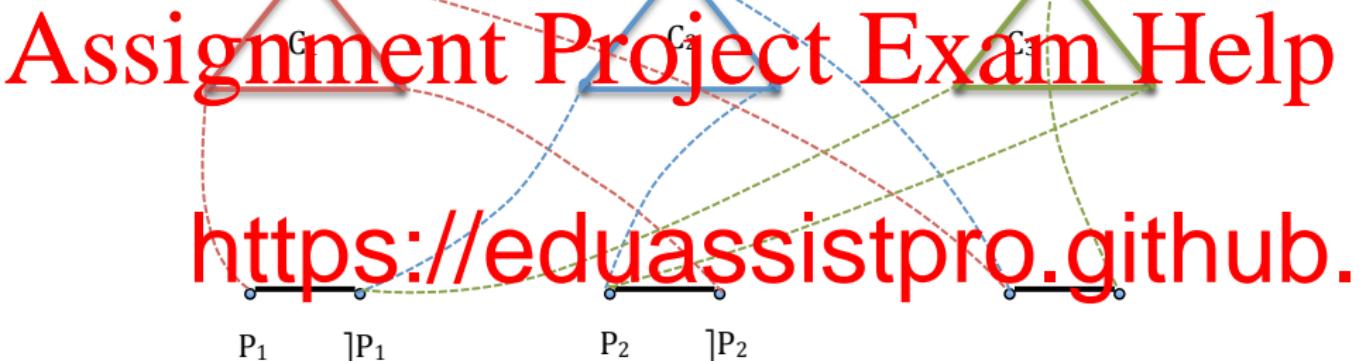
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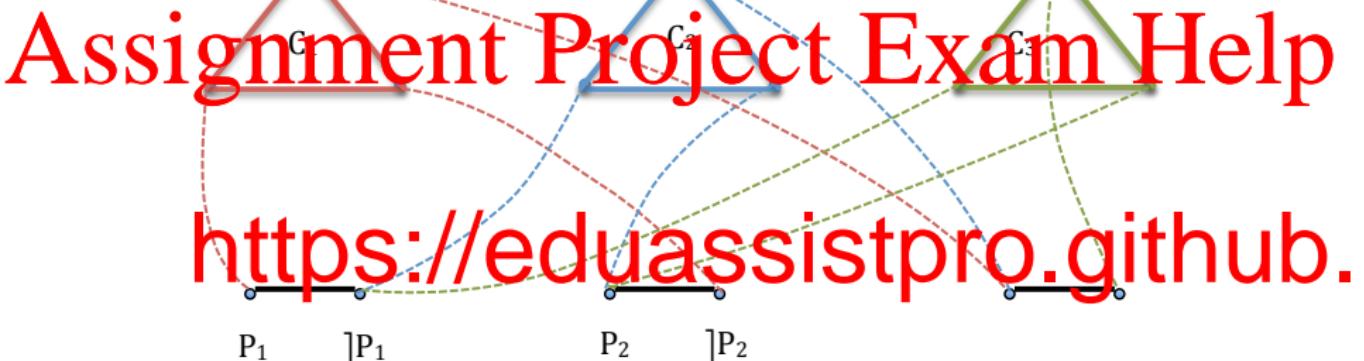
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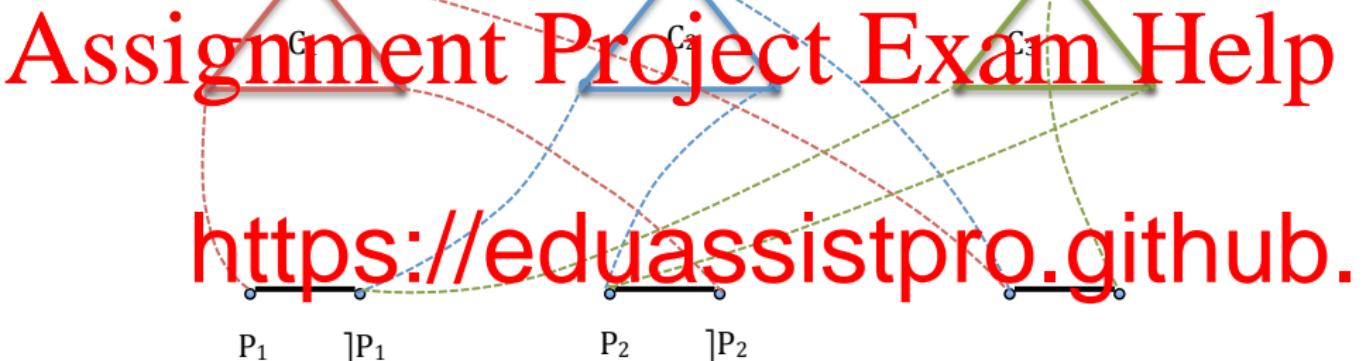
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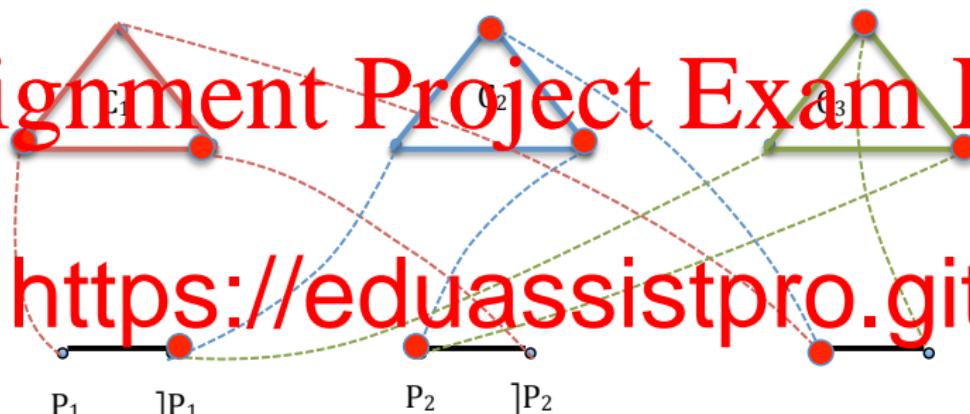
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- Assume there is a vertex cover with at most $2M + N$ vertices chosen. Then
 - ➊ Each triangle must have at least two vertices chosen;
 - ➋ Each segment must have at least one of its ends chosen.
- This is in total $2M + N$ points; thus each triangle must have *exactly* two vertices chosen and each segment must have *exactly* one of its ends chosen.

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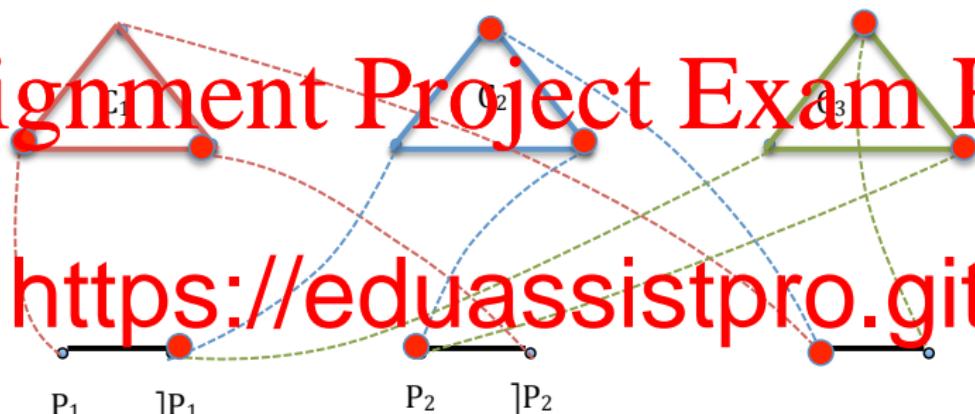
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- Set each propositional letter P_i to true if $\neg P_i$ is covered;

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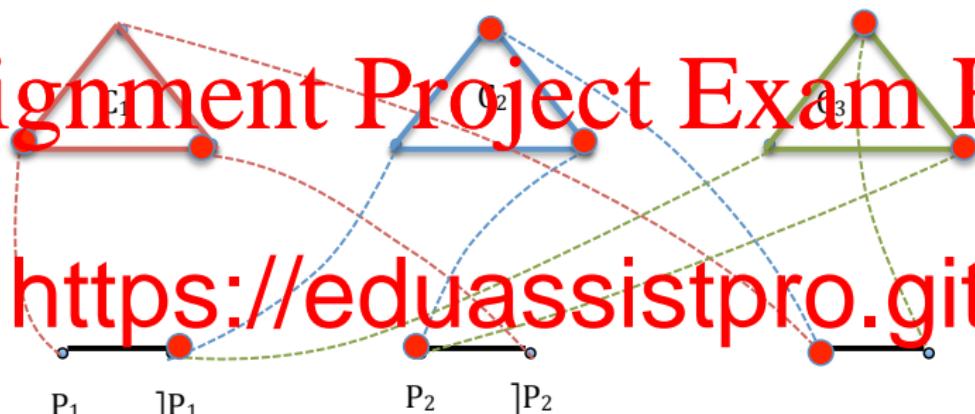
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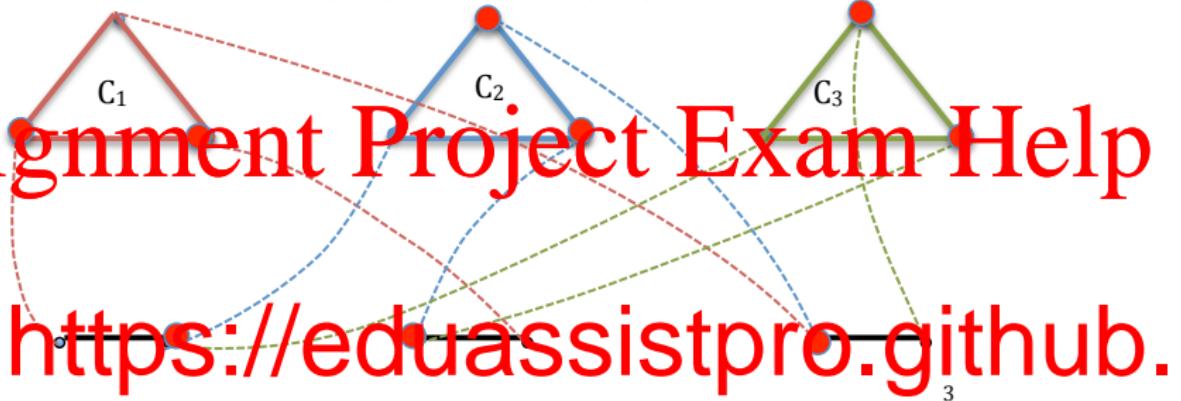


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- Set each propositional letter P_i to true if $\neg P_i$ is covered;
- Otherwise, set a propositional letter P_i to false if $\neg P_i$ is covered,
- In a vertex cover of such a graph every uncovered vertex of each triangle must be connected to a covered end of a segment, which guarantees that the clause corresponding to each triangle is true.

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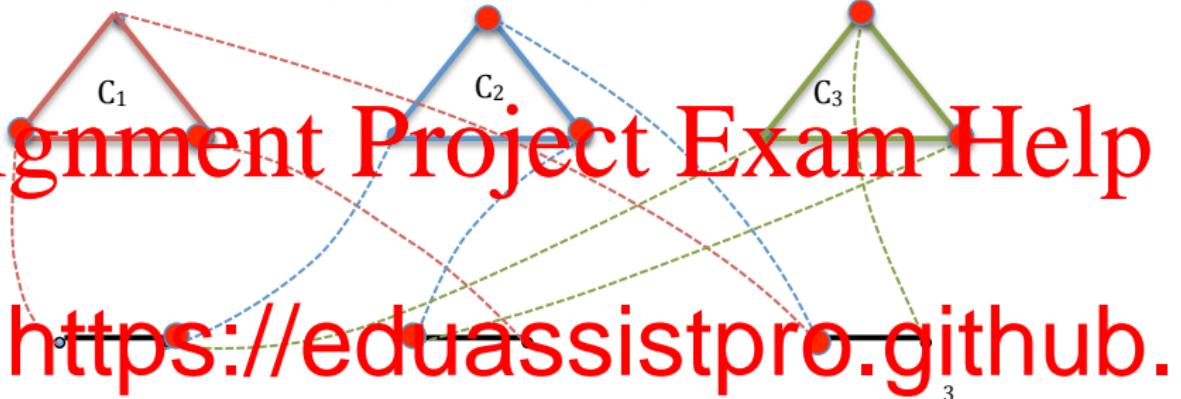


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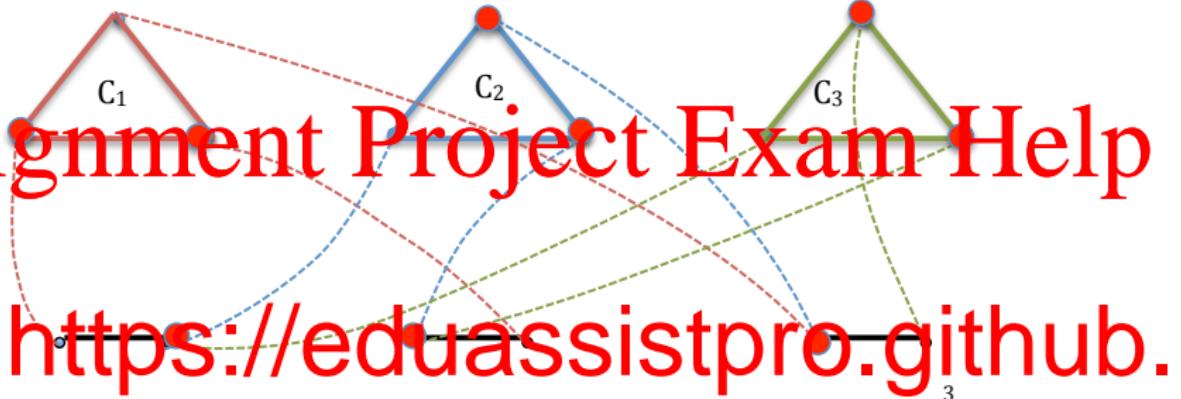


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- For each segment, if it corresponds to a propositional letter evaluation sets to true cover its P_i end.

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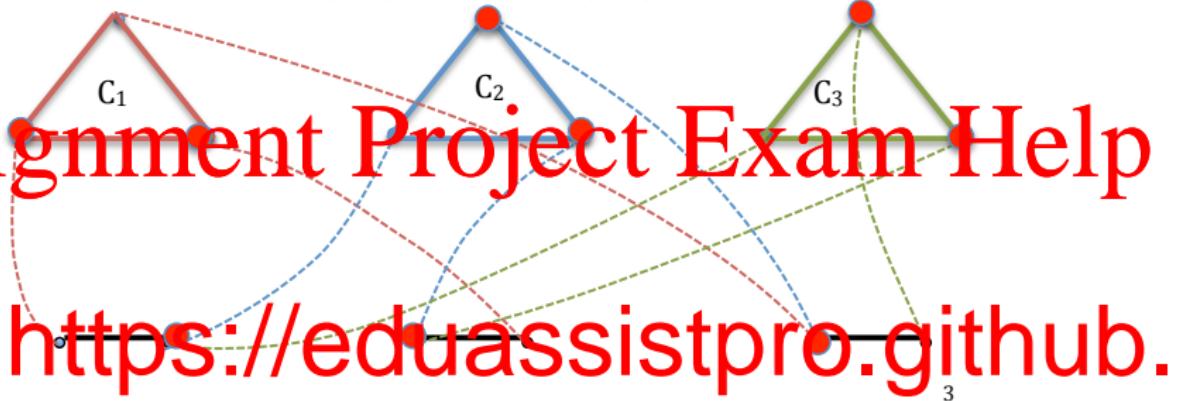


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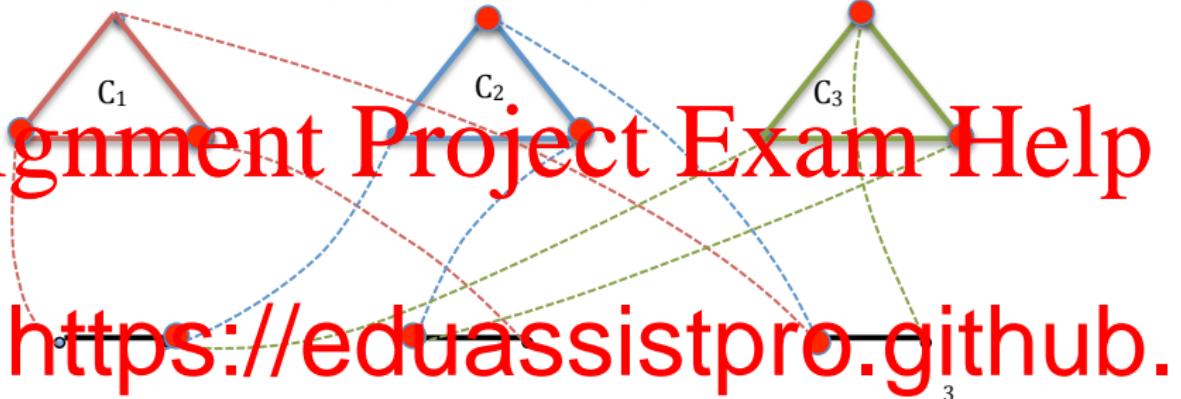
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- In this way we cover exactly $2M + N$ vertices of the graph and clearly every edge between a segment and a triangle has at least one end covered.

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Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- If an optimisation problem is NP hard, we do not try to solve it exactly, but instead, try to find a feasible (i.e., P time) algorithm which produces a solution that is not too bad.

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- If an optimisation problem is NP hard, we do not try to solve it exactly, but instead, try to find a feasible (i.e., P time) algorithm which produces a solution that is not too bad.
- Example: Vertex Cover has an approximation algorithm which always produces a covering set with at most twice the number of the smallest vertex cover.

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 - Thus we have produced a vertex cover of size at most twice the size of the minimal vertex cover.

Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- Example: Metric Traveling Salesman Problem (MTSP).

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Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- Example: Metric Traveling Salesman Problem (MTSP).
- Instance: A complete weighted graph G with weights $d(i, j)$ of edges (to be interpreted as distances) satisfying the “triangle inequality”: for any three vertices i, j, k ,
$$d(i, j) + d(j, k) \geq d(i, k)$$

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- Claim: at most one edge can be removed from T such that the resulting tree with one of its edges e removed represents a spanning tree, we have that the total weight of T satisfies $w(T) \leq opt - w(e)$
- If we do depth-first traverse of the tree, we will travel in total $2w(T) \leq 2opt$

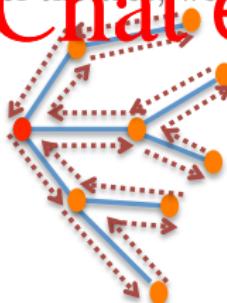
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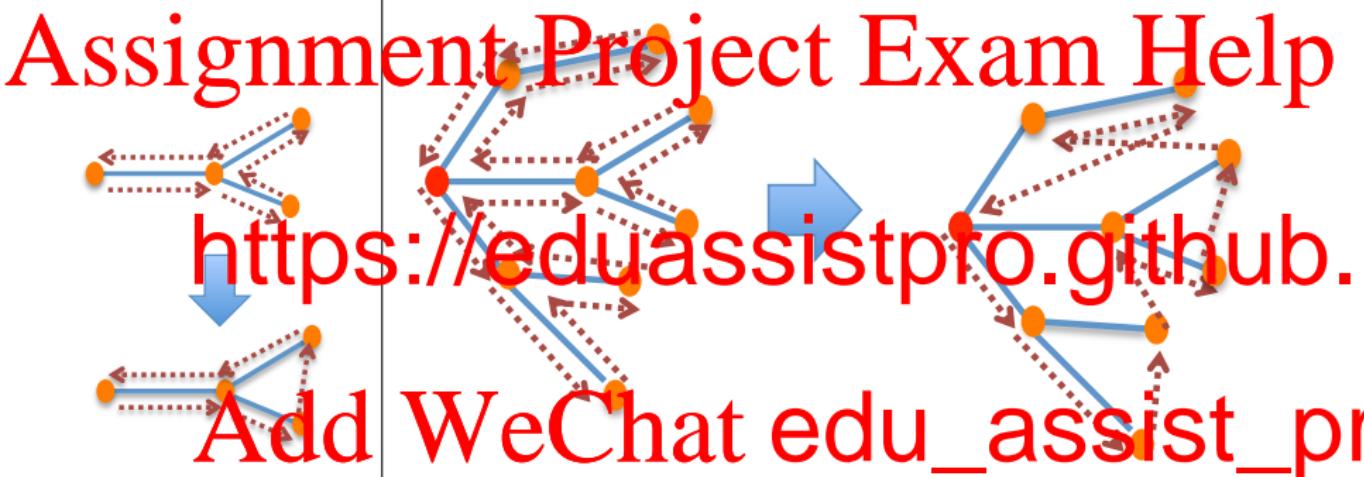
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- Claim: at most one edge can be removed from T such that T' still remains a spanning tree.
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- We now take shortcuts to avoid visiting vertices more than once; because of the triangle inequality, this operation does not increase the length of the tour.

- As we have mentioned, all NP complete problems are in a sense equally difficult because any of them is reducible to any other via a polynomial time transformation.

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Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- As we have mentioned, all NP complete problems are in a sense equally difficult because any of them is reducible to any other via a polynomial time transformation.
- However, in a sense they can also be extremely different. For example, as we have seen, the Vertex Cover problem allows an approximation which produces a cov size.

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Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

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- However, in a sense they can also be extremely different. For example, as we have seen, the Vertex Cover problem allows an approximation which produces a cover size.
- On the other hand, there can be a polynomial time algorithm which for every instance is at most K times longer than the optimal tour of matter how large K is chosen!

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- As we have mentioned, all NP complete problems are in a sense equally difficult because any of them is reducible to any other via a polynomial time transformation.
- However, in a sense they can also be extremely different. For example, as we have seen, the Vertex Cover problem allows an approximation which produces a cover size.

- On the other hand, there can be a polynomial time algorithm which for every instance is at most K times longer than the optimal tour of matter how large K is chosen!
- To prove this, we show that if there existed an algorithm producing a tour which is at most K times longer than the optimal tour, then we could obtain an algorithm which solves in polynomial time the Hamiltonian Cycle Problem, i.e., which for every graph G determines if G contains a cycle visiting all vertices exactly once, which is impossible because this problem is known to be NP complete.

Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- To see this, let G be an arbitrary graph with n vertices.

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Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- To see this, let G be an arbitrary graph with n vertices.
- We turn this graph into a complete weighted graph G^* by setting the weights of all existing edges to 1 and then add edges between the remaining pairs of vertices and set their weights to $L \cdot n$.

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Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- To see this, let G be an arbitrary graph with n vertices.
- We turn this graph into a complete weighted graph G^* by setting the weights of all existing edges to 1 and then add edges between the remaining pairs of vertices and set their weights to $K \cdot n$.
- We now apply the approximation algorithm (which we have assumed to exist) to produce a tour of all vertices of total length at most $K \cdot \text{opt}$ where opt is the length of the shortest tour in G .

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Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- To see this, let G be an arbitrary graph with n vertices.
- We turn this graph into a complete weighted graph G^* by setting the weights of all existing edges to 1 and then add edges between the remaining pairs of vertices and set their weights to K/n .
- We now apply the approximation algorithm (which we have assumed to exist) to produce a tour of all vertices of total length at most $K \cdot \text{opt}$ where opt is the length of a shortest tour.
- Clearly, G^* has a tour of length $K \cdot \text{opt}$.

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Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- To see this, let G be an arbitrary graph with n vertices.
- We turn this graph into a complete weighted graph G^* by setting the weights of all existing edges to 1 and then add edges between the remaining pairs of vertices and set their weights to $K \cdot n$.
- We now apply the approximation algorithm (which we have assumed to exist) to produce a tour of all vertices of total length at most $K \cdot \text{opt}$ where opt is the length of a shortest tour in G .
- Clearly, if G has a tour of length l , then G^* has a tour of length $l + K \cdot (n - l)$.
- Otherwise, if the original graph G does not have a tour, then G^* must contain at least one cycle of length $K \cdot n$.

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Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- To see this, let G be an arbitrary graph with n vertices.
- We turn this graph into a complete weighted graph G^* by setting the weights of all existing edges to 1 and then add edges between the remaining pairs of vertices and set their weights to $K \cdot n$.
- We now apply the approximation algorithm (which we have assumed to exist) to produce a tour of all vertices of total length at most $K \cdot \text{opt}$ where opt is the length of an optimal tour through G .
- Clearly, if G has a tour of length $K \cdot n$, then G^* has a tour of length $(K \cdot n) + (n - 1) \cdot 1 = K \cdot n + n - 1 < K \cdot n + K \cdot n = 2K \cdot n$.

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has a tour
length
of $K \cdot n$

Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- To see this, let G be an arbitrary graph with n vertices.
- We turn this graph into a complete weighted graph G^* by setting the weights of all existing edges to 1 and then add edges between the remaining pairs of vertices and set their weights to $K \cdot n$.
- We now apply the approximation algorithm (which we have assumed to exist) to produce a tour of all vertices of total length at most $K \cdot \text{opt}$ where opt is the length of a shortest tour in G .

- Clearly, if G has a tour of length $K \cdot n$, then G^* has a tour of length $(K \cdot n) + (n - 1) \cdot 1 = K \cdot n + n - 1$, which is still at most $K \cdot n + n - 1 < K \cdot n + K \cdot n = 2K \cdot n$.
- Otherwise, if the original graph G does not have a tour of length $K \cdot n$, then the optimal tour through G^* must contain at least one edge of weight $K \cdot n$. In this case the optimal tour through G^* has length $(K \cdot n) + (n - 1) \cdot 1 > K \cdot n$.
- Thus, our approximation algorithm can return a tour of length at most $K \cdot n$ if and only if it actually returns a tour of length of size n , which happens just in the case G has a Hamiltonian cycle.

Dealing with NP hard optimisation problems

- To see this, let G be an arbitrary graph with n vertices.
- We turn this graph into a complete weighted graph G^* by setting the weights of all existing edges to 1 and then add edges between the remaining pairs of vertices and set their weights to $K \cdot n$.
- We now apply the approximation algorithm (which we have assumed to exist) to produce a tour of all vertices of total length at most $K \cdot \text{opt}$ where opt is the length of a shortest tour in G .

- Clearly, if G has a tour of length $K \cdot n$, then G^* has a tour of length $(K \cdot n) + (n - 1) \cdot 1 = K \cdot n + n - 1$.
- Otherwise, if the original graph G does not have a tour of length $K \cdot n$, then the optimal tour through G^* must contain at least one edge of weight $K \cdot n$. In this case the optimal tour through G^* has length $(K \cdot n) + (n - 1) \cdot 1 > K \cdot n$.
- Thus, our approximation algorithm can return a tour of length at most $K \cdot n$ if and only if it actually returns a tour of length of size n , which happens just in case G has a Hamiltonian cycle.
- This is impossible, because this would be a polynomial time decision procedure for determining in G has a Hamiltonian cycle.