

# Coping with NP-completeness: Exact Algorithms

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Advanced Algorithms and Complexity  
Data Structures and Algorithms

Exact algorithms or intelligent exhaustive search: finding an optimal solution without going through all candidate solutions

# Outline

- 1 3-Satisfiability
  - Backtracking
  - Local Search
- 2 Traveling Salesman Problem
  - Dynamic Programming
  - Branch-and-bound

## 3-Satisfiability (3-SAT)

**Input:** A set of clauses, each containing at most three literals (that is, a 3-CNF formula).

**Output:** Find a satisfying assignment (if exists).

# Examples

- The formula

$$(x \vee y \vee z)(x \vee \bar{y})(y \vee \bar{z})$$

is satisfiable: set  $x = y = z = 1$  or  
 $x = 1, y = z = 0$ .

- The formula

$$(x \vee y \vee z)(x \vee \bar{y})(y \vee \bar{z})(z \vee \bar{x})(\bar{x} \vee \bar{y} \vee \bar{z})$$

is unsatisfiable.

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## Goal

Avoid going through all  $2^n$  assignments

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- Backtrack if the current partial solution cannot be extended to a valid solution

# Example

$$(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3 \vee x_4)(\bar{x}_1)(x_1 \vee x_2 \vee \bar{x}_3)(x_1 \vee \bar{x}_2)(x_2 \vee \bar{x}_4)$$

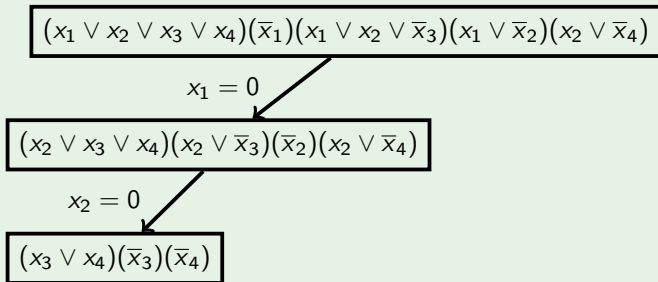
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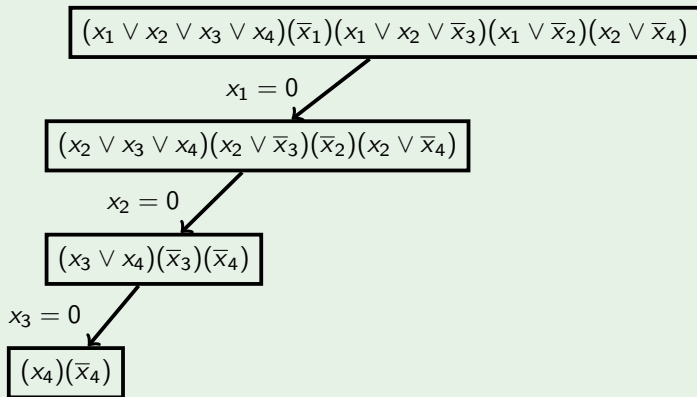
$$x_1 = 0$$

$$(x_2 \vee x_3 \vee x_4)(x_2 \vee \bar{x}_3)(\bar{x}_2)(x_2 \vee \bar{x}_4)$$

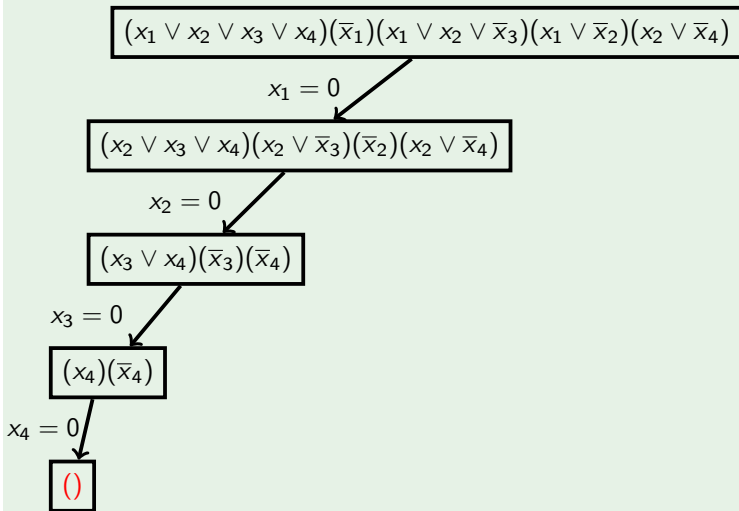
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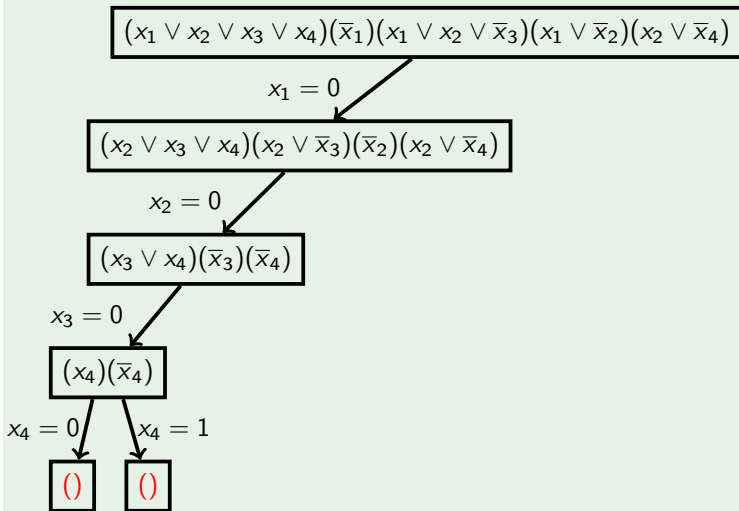
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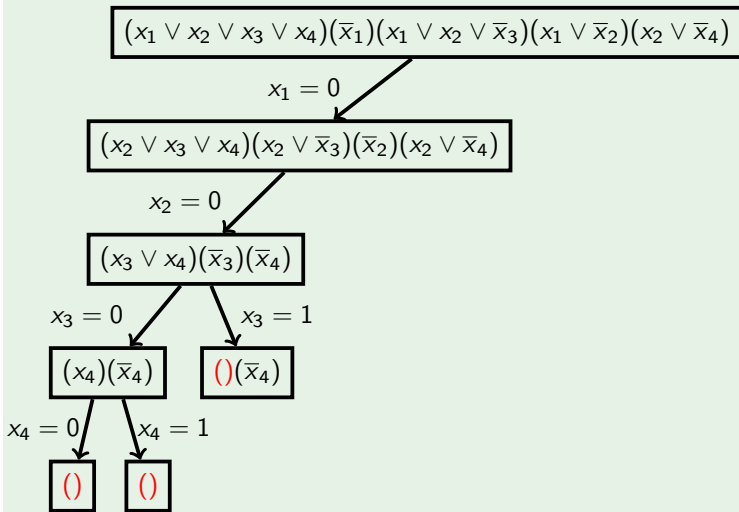


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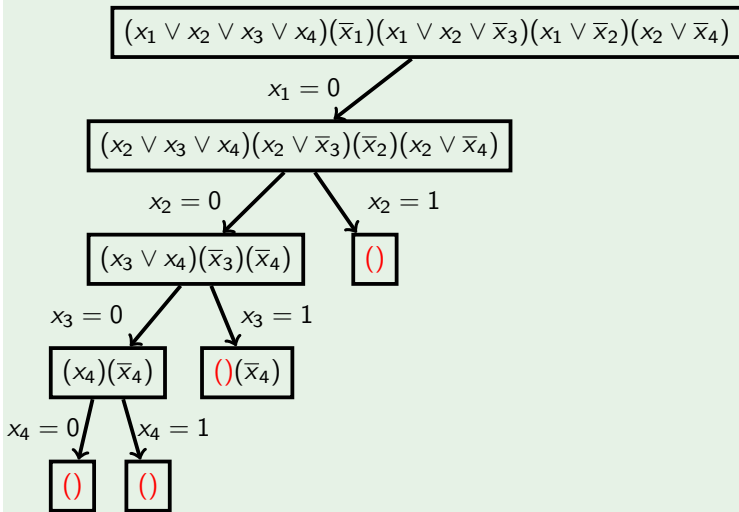




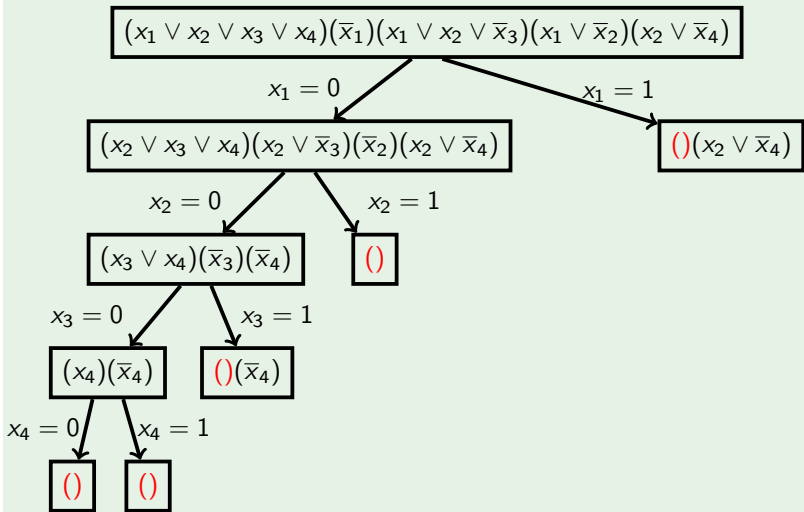
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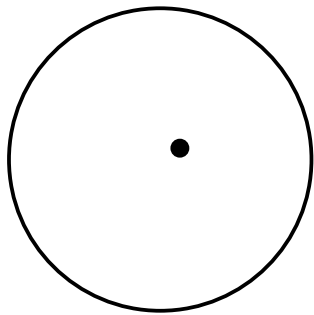
- Backtracking is used in many state-of-the-art SAT-solvers
- SAT-solvers use tricky heuristics to choose a variable to branch on and to simplify a formula before branching
- Another commonly used technique is local search — will consider it in the next part

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# Main Idea of Local Search

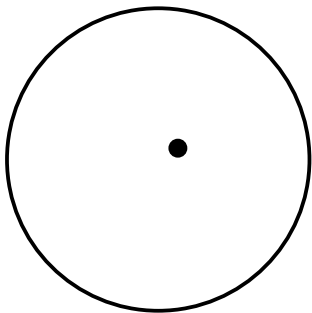
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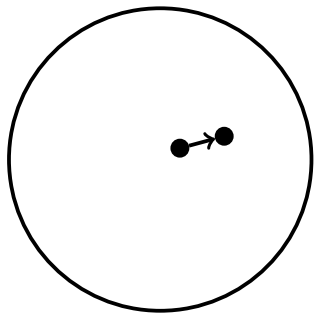
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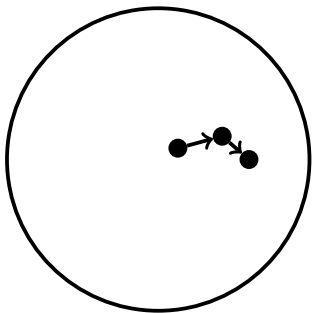
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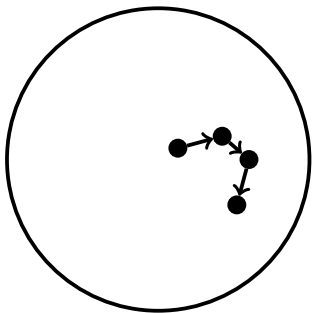
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- A candidate solution is a truth assignment to these variables, that is, a vector from  $\{0, 1\}^n$

## Definition

Hamming distance (or just distance) between two assignments  $\alpha, \beta \in \{0, 1\}^n$  is the number of bits where they differ:

$$\text{dist}(\alpha, \beta) = |\{i: \alpha_i \neq \beta_i\}|.$$

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## Definition

**Hamming ball** with center  $\alpha \in \{0, 1\}^n$  and radius  $r$ , denoted by  $\mathcal{H}(\alpha, r)$ , is the set of all truth assignments from  $\{0, 1\}^n$  at distance at most  $r$  from  $\alpha$ .



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- $\mathcal{H}(1011, 2) =$   
 $\{1011, 0011, 1111, 1001, 1010,$   
 $0111, 0001, 0010, 1101, 1110, 1000\}$

# Searching a Ball for a Solution

## Lemma

Assume that  $\mathcal{H}(\alpha, r)$  contains a satisfying assignment  $\beta$  for  $F$ . We can then find a (possibly different) satisfying assignment in time  $O(|F| \cdot 3^r)$ .

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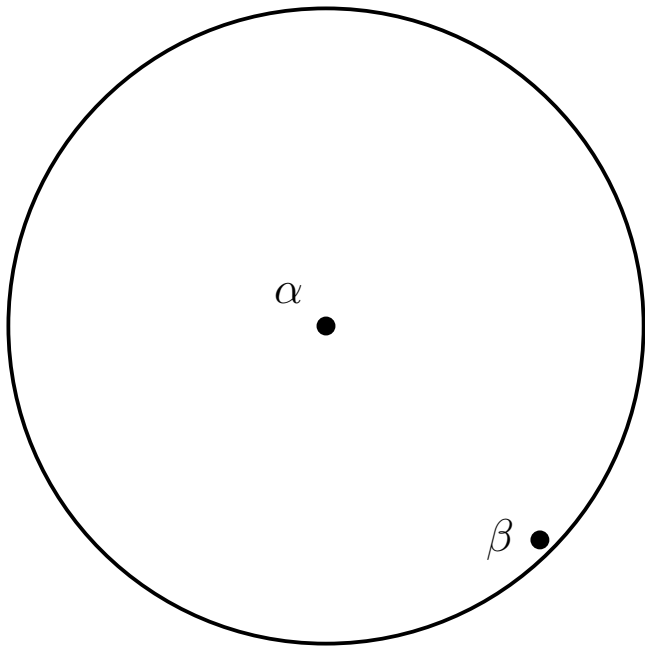


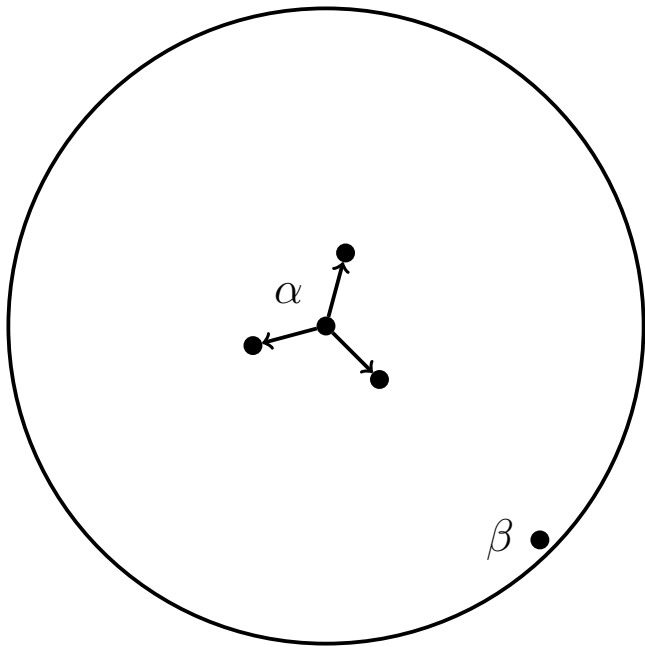
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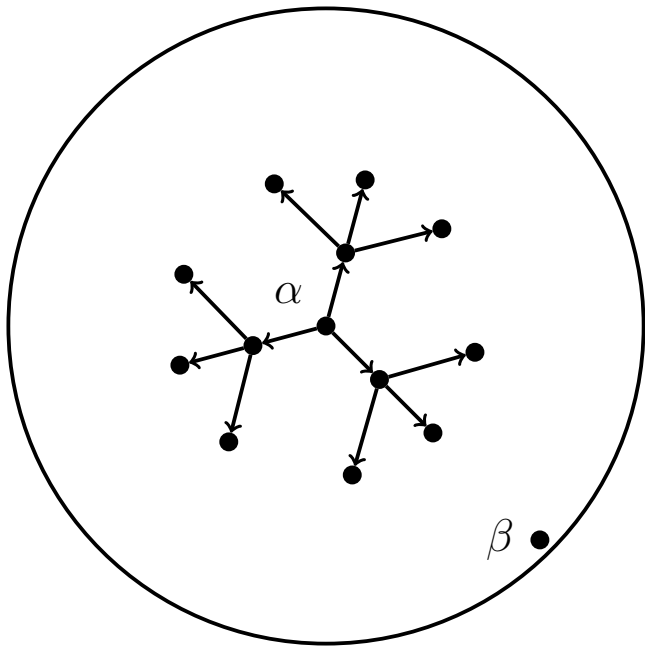
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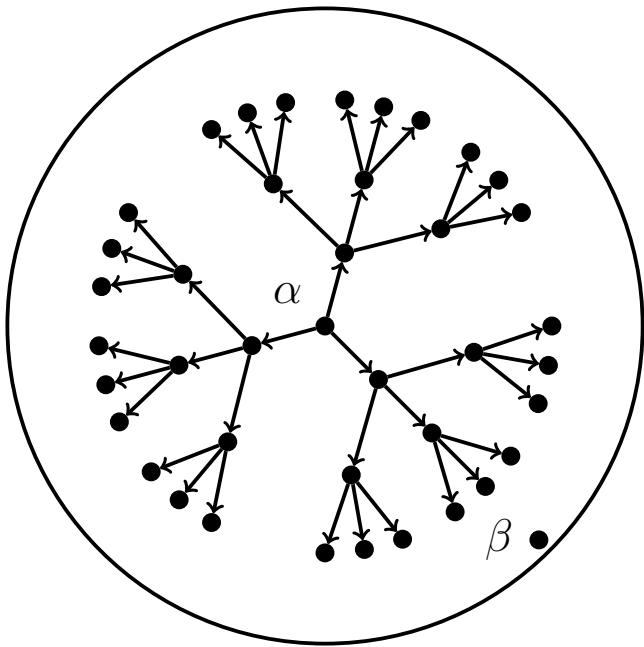
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- Hence there are at most  $3^r$  recursive calls □









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- Thus, it suffices to make two calls:  
 $\text{CheckBall}(F, 11 \dots 1, n/2)$  and  
 $\text{CheckBall}(F, 00 \dots 0, n/2)$

# Running Time

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- On one hand, this is still exponential
- On the other hand, it is exponentially faster than a brute force search algorithm that goes through all  $2^n$  truth assignments!

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# Traveling salesman problem (TSP)

**Input:** A complete graph with weights on edges and a budget  $b$ .

**Output:** A cycle that visits each vertex exactly once and has total weight at most  $b$ .

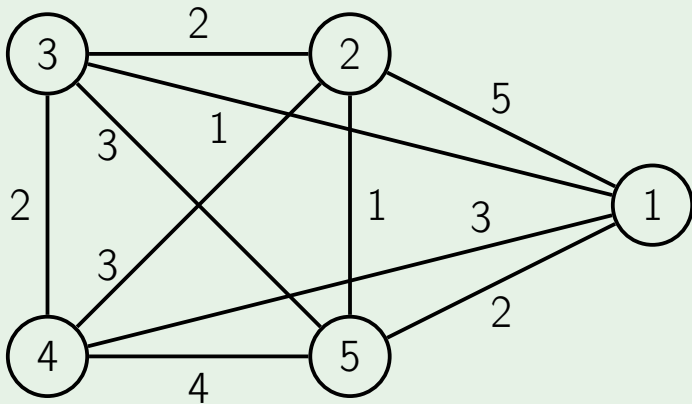
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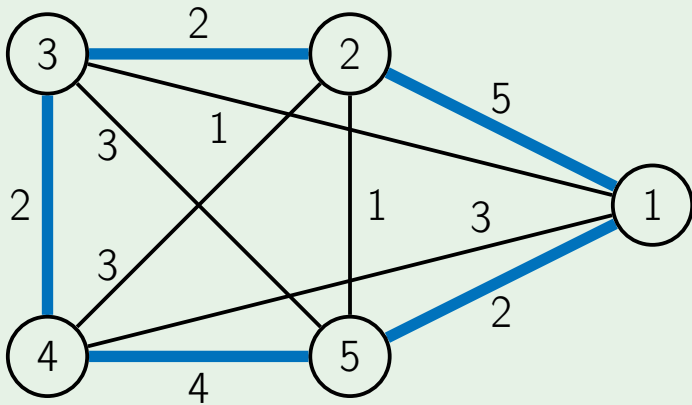
**Output:** A cycle that visits each vertex exactly once and has total weight at most  $b$ .

It will be convenient to assume that vertices are integers from 1 to  $n$  and that the salesman starts his trip in (and also returns back to) vertex 1.

# Example

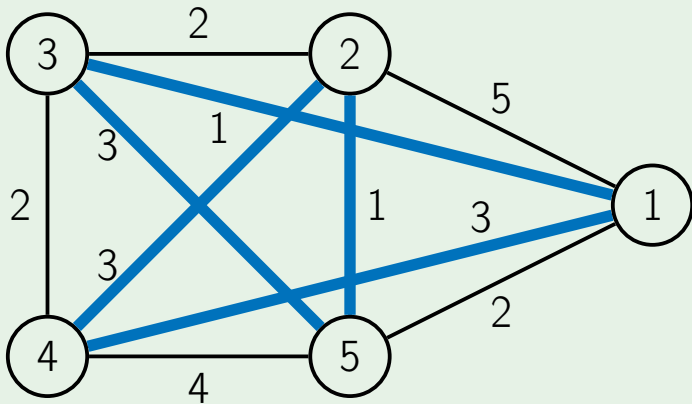


# Example



length: 15

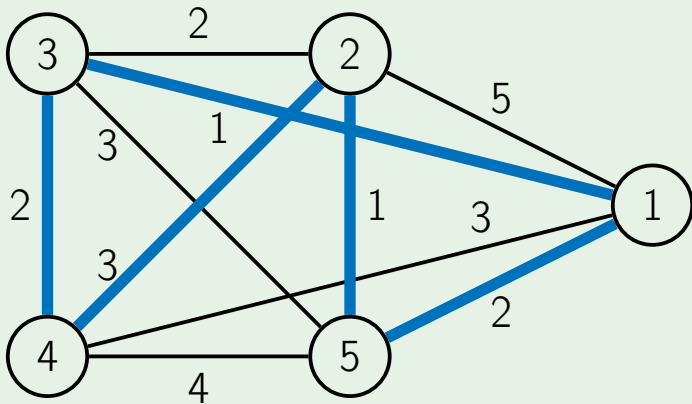
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length: 9

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## This part

- Use dynamic programming to solve TSP in  $O(n^2 \cdot 2^n)$
- The running time is exponential, but is much better than  $(n - 1)!$ .

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- A subproblem refers to a partial solution
- A reasonable partial solution in case of TSP is the initial part of a cycle
- To continue building a cycle, we need to know the last vertex as well as the set of already visited vertices

# Subproblems

- For a subset of vertices  $S \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$  containing the vertex 1 and a vertex  $i \in S$ , let  $C(S, i)$  be the length of the shortest path that starts at 1, ends at  $i$  and visits all vertices from  $S$  exactly once

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- $C(\{1\}, 1) = 0$  and  $C(S, 1) = +\infty$  when  $|S| > 1$

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- The subpath from 1 to  $j$  is the shortest one visiting all vertices from  $S - \{i\}$  exactly once
- Hence
$$C(S, i) = \min\{C(S - \{i\}, j) + d_{ji}\},$$
where the minimum is over all  $j \in S$  such that  $j \neq i$

# Order of Subproblems

- Need to process all subsets  $S \subseteq \{1, \dots, n\}$  in an order that guarantees that when computing the value of  $C(S, i)$ , the values of  $C(S - \{i\}, j)$  have already been computed

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- For example, we can process subsets in order of increasing size



TSP( $G$ )

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return  $\min_i \{C(\{1, \dots, n\}, i) + d_{i,1}\}$

# Implementation Remark

- How to iterate through all subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ ?

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- How to iterate through all subsets of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ ?
- There is a natural one-to-one correspondence between integers in the range from 0 and  $2^n - 1$  and subsets of  $\{0, \dots, n - 1\}$ :

$$k \leftrightarrow \{i: i\text{-th bit of } k \text{ is } 1\}$$

## Example

$k$	$\text{bin}(k)$	$\{i: i\text{-th bit of } k \text{ is } 1\}$
0	000	$\emptyset$
1	001	$\{0\}$
2	010	$\{1\}$
3	011	$\{0,1\}$
4	100	$\{2\}$
5	101	$\{0,2\}$
6	110	$\{1,2\}$
7	111	$\{0,1,2\}$

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- In C/C++, Java, Python:  
 $k \wedge (1 \ll j)$

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- The branch-and-bound technique can be viewed as a generalization of backtracking for optimization problems

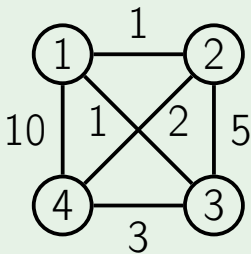
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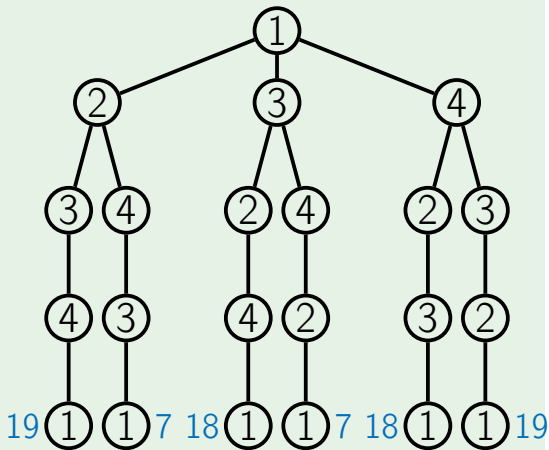
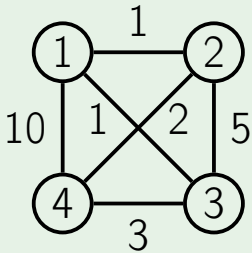
- The branch-and-bound technique can be viewed as a generalization of backtracking for **optimization** problems
- We grow a tree of partial solutions
- At each node of the recursion tree we check whether the current partial solution can be extended to a solution which is better than the best solution found so far
- If not, we don't continue this branch



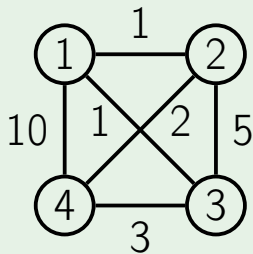
## Example: brute force search



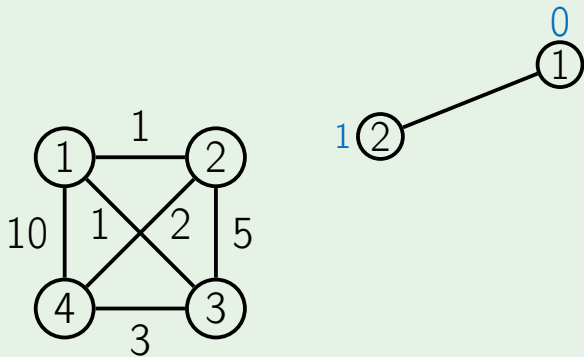
## Example: brute force search



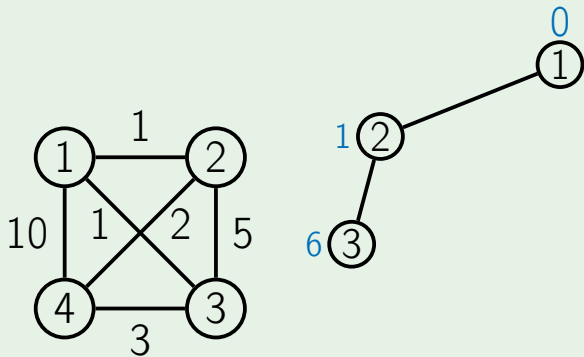
## Example: pruned search



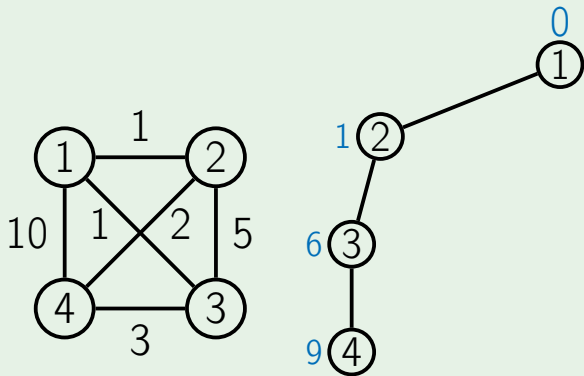
## Example: pruned search



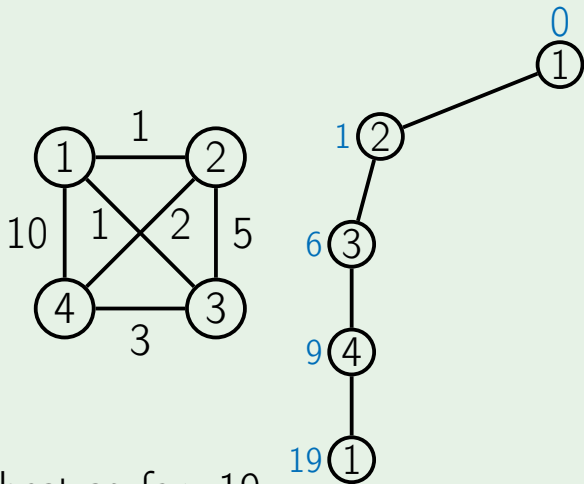
## Example: pruned search



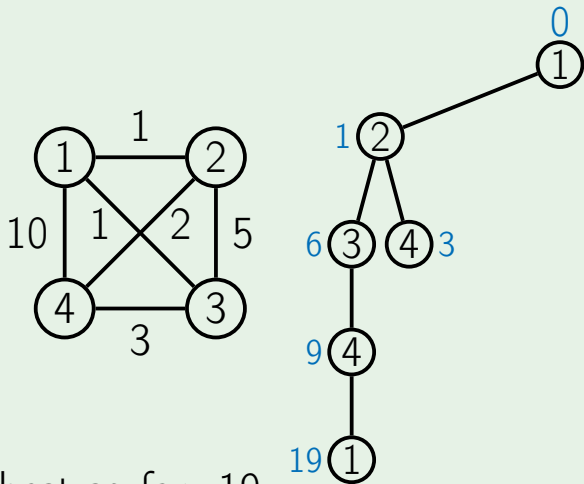
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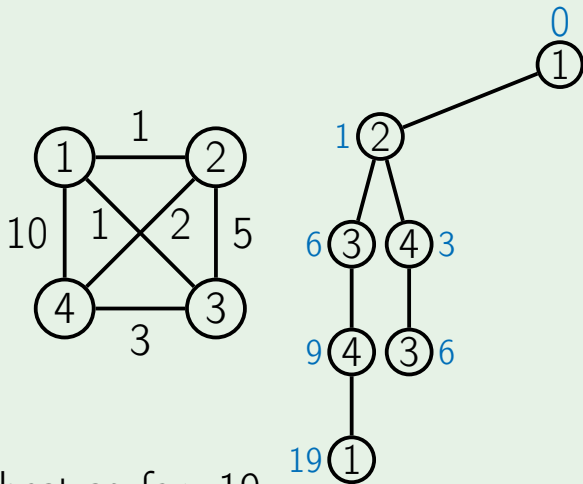


## Example: pruned search

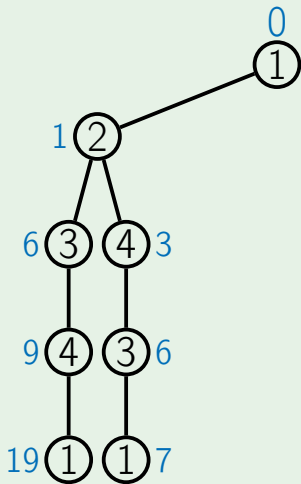
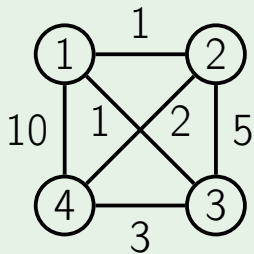




## Example: pruned search

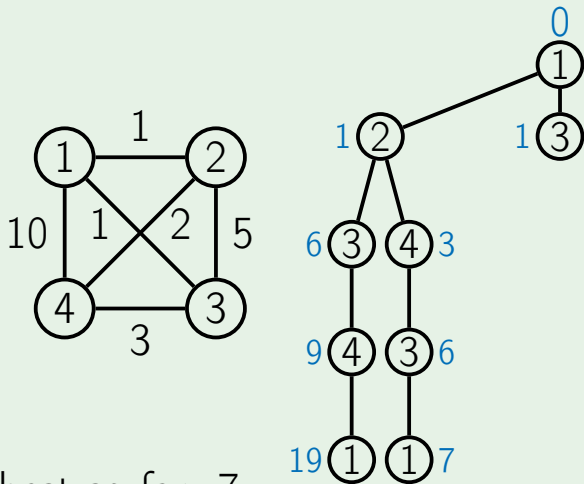


## Example: pruned search



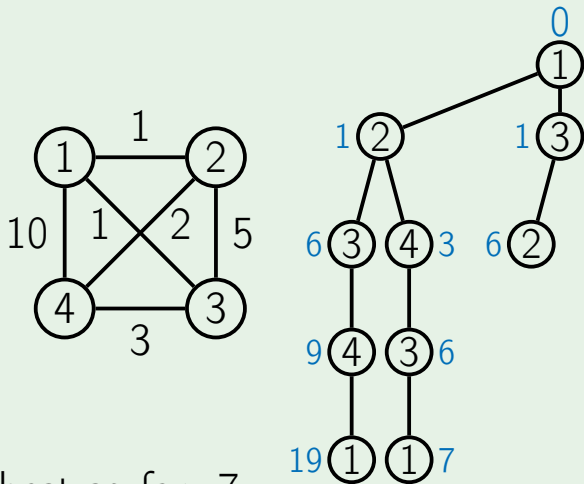
best so far: 7

## Example: pruned search

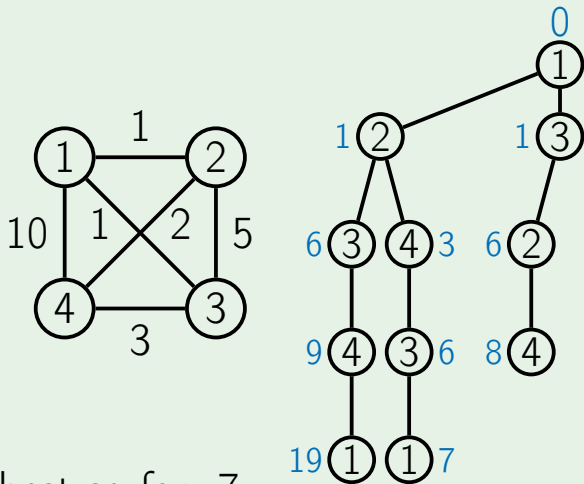


best so far: 7

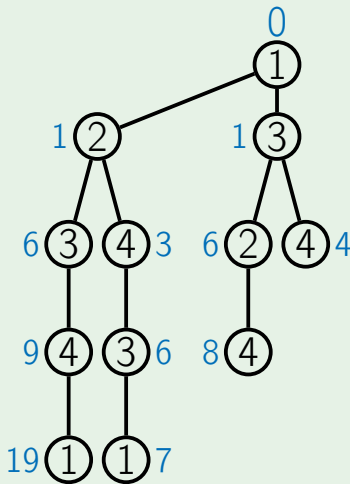
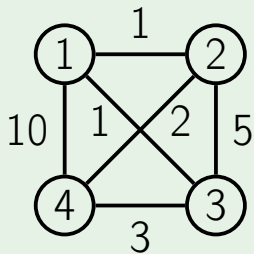
## Example: pruned search



## Example: pruned search

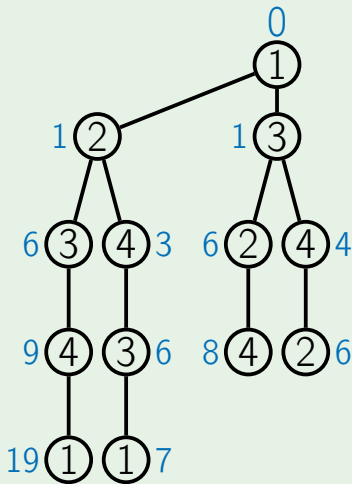
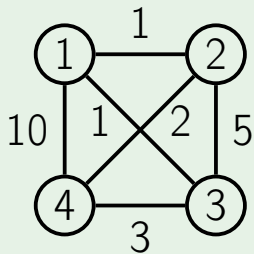


## Example: pruned search



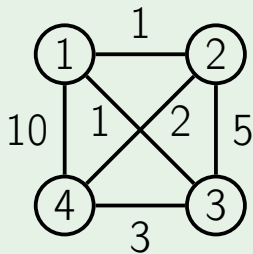
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## Example: pruned search

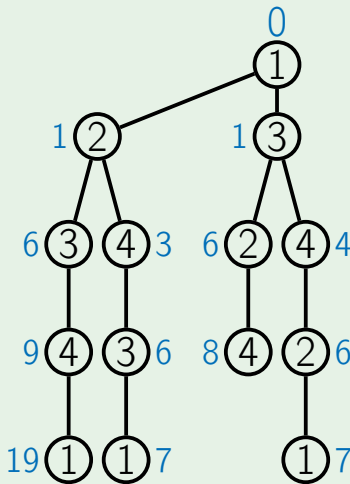


best so far: 7

## Example: pruned search

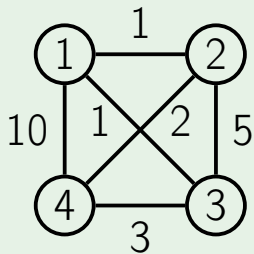


best so far: 7

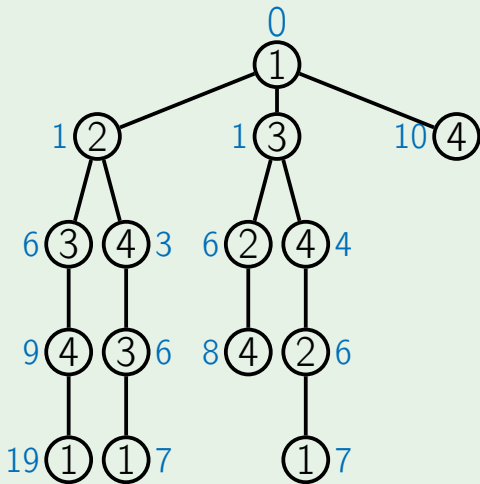




## Example: pruned search



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- We used the simplest possible lower bound: any extension of a path has length at least the length of the path

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- Modern TSP-solvers use smarter lower bounds to solve instances with thousands of vertices

## Example: lower bounds (still simple)

The length of an optimal TSP cycle is at least

- $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{v \in V} (\text{two min length edges adjacent to } v)$

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The length of an optimal TSP cycle is at least

- $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{v \in V} (\text{two min length edges adjacent to } v)$
- the length of a minimum spanning tree

## Next time

Approximation algorithms: polynomial algorithms that find a solution that is not much worse than an optimal solution