Intractable Problems I

Summer 2017 • Lecture 08/08

A Few Notes

Homework 6

Due 8/13 at 11:59 p.m. on Gradescope.

Final Logistics

Final

Will occur on 8/18 at 8:30-11:30 a.m.

Alternate Final

Will occur on 8/17 at 3:30-6:30 p.m.

Exam special cases

Expect confirmation emails from me in the next day or two.

Practice exam

We'll release the practice exam tomorrow.

The Rest of the Quarter

Lectures 1-11 covered the bulk of the material, congrats!

This material will be emphasized on the final (~90% of points).

Lectures 12-14 will cover additional topics.

Intractable problems, approximation algorithms, amortized analysis

Outline for Today

Intractable Problems

Background

Traveling Salesman Problem

0/1 Knapsack, revisited

Background

Defining Efficiency

What is an efficient algorithm?

An algorithm is efficient iff it runs in polynomial time on a serial computer.

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Runtimes of "efficient" algorithms: O(n), O(n\log(n)), O(n^8\log^4(n)), O(n^{1,000,000}).
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Runtimes of "inefficient" algorithms: $O(2^n)$, O(n!), $O(1.0000001^n)$.

Some Caveats

Parallelism Some problems can be solved in polynomial time on machines with a polynomial number of processors.

Are all efficient algorithms parallelizable?

Randomization Some algorithms can be solved in expected polynomial time, or have poly-time Monte Carlo algorithms that work with high probability.

Are randomized efficient algorithms efficient solutions? P ⊆? RP⊆? NP.

Quantum computation Some algorithms can be solved in polynomial time on a quantum computer.

Are quantum efficient algorithms efficient solutions?

These are all open problems!

Tractability

A problem is called **tractable** iff there is an efficient (i.e. polynomial time) algorithm that solves it.

A problem is called **intractable** iff there is no efficient algorithm that solves it.

NP

A **decision problem** is a problem with a yes/no answer.

The class **NP** consists of all decision problems where "yes" answers can be verified efficiently.

Is the kth order statistic of A equal to x?

Is there a cut in G of size at least k?

All tractable decision problems are in **NP**, plus a lot of problems whose difficulty is unknown.

NP-Completeness

The **NP-complete** problems are (intuitively) the hardest problems in NP.

Either every **NP**-complete problem is tractable or no **NP**-complete problem is tractable.

This is an open problem: the P = NP question!

There are no known polynomial-time algorithms for any **NP**-complete problem.

NP-Hardness

A problem (which may or may not be a decision problem) is called **NP-hard** if (intuitively) it is at least as hard as every problem in **NP**.

As before: no polynomial-time algorithms are known for any **NP**-hard problem.

NP-Hardness

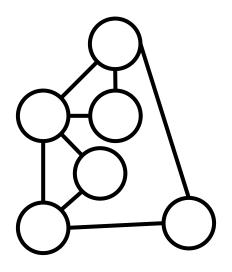
Assuming that P ≠ NP, all NP-hard problems are intractable.

This does not mean that brute-force algorithms are the only option.

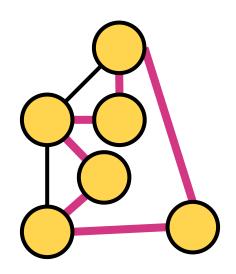
This does not mean that it is hard to get approximate answers.

Traveling Salesperson Problem

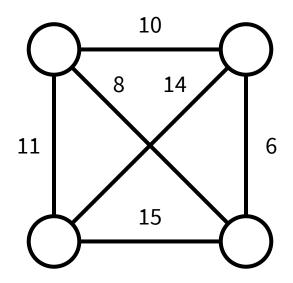
A **Hamiltonian cycle** in an undirected graph G is a simple cycle that visits every vertex in G.



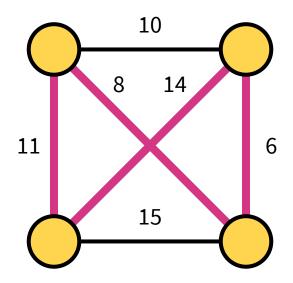
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Formally Given a complete, undirected G and a set of positive integer edge weights, the TSP is to find a Hamiltonian cycle in G with least total weight.

Note that since G is complete, there must be at least one Hamiltonian cycle. The challenge is finding the cycle with least cost.

This problem is known to be **NP**-hard.

Try all possible Hamiltonian cycles in the graph?

How many Hamiltonian cycles are there? (n-1)! / 2

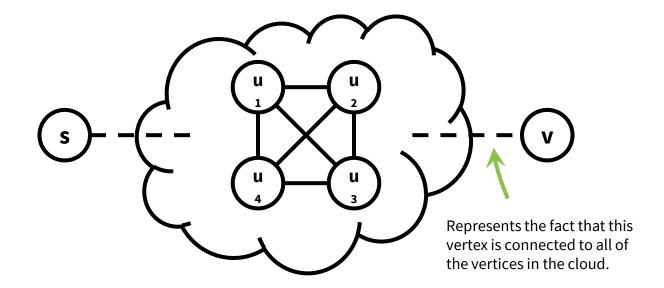
Since each cycle takes O(n)-time, the total time is O(n!).

Let OPT(v, S) be the minimum cost of an s - v path that visits exactly the vertices in S. We assume $v \in S$. Let w(u, v) be the weight of the edge (u, v).

Claim OPT(v, S) satisfies the recurrence:

$$OPT(v,S) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } v = s \text{ and } S = \{s\} \\ \infty & \text{if } s \notin S \\ \min_{u \in S - \{v\}} & \{OPT(u,S - \{v\}) + \\ w(u,v)\} \end{cases}$$
 otherwise

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 otherwise



To solve OPT(v, S), a problem of size |S|, we need to solve subproblems of size |S| - 1.

Idea Evaluate the recurrence on sets of size 1, 2, 3 ..., n.

There are 2ⁿ possible subsets of a set S, of which 2ⁿ⁻¹ contain s.

```
algorithm tsp(G):  n = |G.V|   DP = [] \# n \times 2^{n-1} \text{ table}   s = \text{random vertex from } G.V   DP[s][\{s\}] = 0   \text{for } k = 2 \text{ to } n:   \text{for all sets } S \subseteq V \text{ where } |S| = k \text{ and } s \in S:   \text{for all } v \in S - \{s\}:   DP[v][S] = \min_{u \in S - \{v\}} \{DP[u][S - \{v\}] + w(u,v)\}   \text{return } \min_{v \neq s} \{DP[v][V] + w(v,s)\}
```

Runtime: $O(2^n n^2)$

```
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n = |G.V|

DP = [] \# n \times 2^{n-1} table

s = random vertex from G.V

DP[s][\{s\}] = 0

for k = 2 to n:

for all sets S \subseteq V where |S| = k and s \in S:

for all v \in S - \{s\}:

DP[v][S] = min_{u \in S - \{v\}} \{DP[u][S - \{v\}] + w(u,v)\}

return min_{v \neq s} \{DP[v][V] + w(v,s)\}
```

Runtime: $O(2^n n^2)$



We'll talk about this in a bit.

Each subset of V containing s can be mapped to a unique integer in $0, 1, 2, ..., 2^{n-1} - 1$.

Think of the number as a bitvector where the present elements are 1s and the absent elements are 0s.

Takes O(n)-time to compute the above number and index into the table, the cost per subproblem.

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O(2ⁿn²) total time.

O(2ⁿn) total subproblems (cells in the table).

Solving each subproblem requires us to look at O(n) different subproblems, and O(1)-time for each one.

Map all subsets of V to bitvectors in O(n)-time.

What's the difference between n! and 2ⁿn²?

Compare 20! and 2²⁰20²:

 $20! \approx 2.4 \times 10^{18}$

 $2^{20}20^2 \approx 4.2 \times 10^8$

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Compare 30! and 2³⁰30²:

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Compare 40! and 2⁴⁰40²:

$$40! \approx 8.2 \times 10^{47}$$

$$2^{40}40^2 = 1.8 \times 10^{15}$$

Why this matters?

Improving upon brute-force (e.g. n!) increases the size of problems that can be solved with exact answers.

Though there might not exist a poly-time solution, an exponential solution often offers a considerable improvement.

0/1 Knapsack, revisited

Knapsack

value

20



14

0/1 Knapsack

Suppose I only have one copy of each item.

What's the most valuable way to fill the knapsack?



8

capacity: 10

13

35





Total weight: 9

Total value: 35

Task Find the items to put in a 0/1 knapsack.

0/1 Knapsack

What I didn't say is this problem is known to be **NP**-hard.

O(n2ⁿ) Brute-force solution: try all possible subsets of the items and find the feasible set with the largest total value.

```
O(nW log(n)) Greedy solution: sort items by their "unit value" v_k / w_k.
```

O(nW) Dynamic programming solution

0/1 Knapsack

Did we just prove P = NP?

A poly-time algorithm is one that runs in time polynomial in the total number of bits required to write out the input to the problem.

Therefore, O(nW) is exponential in the number of bits required to write out the input (e.g. adding one more bit to the end of the representation of W doubles Its size and doubles the runtime).

The DP runtime of O(nW) is better than our brute-force runtime of $O(n2^n)$, provided that $W = O(2^n)$.



That's a little-o, not a big-O.

For any fixed W, this algorithm runs in linear time!

Parameterized Complexity

Parameterized complexity is a branch of complexity theory that studies the hardness of problems with respect to different "parameters" of the input.

In the case of 0/1 Knapsack, O(nW) has two parameters: the number of items (n) and capacity (W).

Often, **NP**-hard problems aren't entirely infeasible as long as some parameter of the problem is fixed.

Fixed Parameter Tractability

Suppose that the input to a problem P can be characterized by two parameters, n and k.

P is called fixed-parameter tractable iff there is some algorithm that solves P in time O(f(k)p(n)).

f(k) is an arbitrary function and p(n) is a polynomial in n..

Intuitively, for any fixed k, the algorithm runs in a polynomial in n since that polynomial p(n) does not depend on choice of k.

Next Time

Approximation Algorithms, my fave!