## CSE 548: (*Design and*) Analysis of Algorithms Coping with NP-Completeness

R. Sekar

## Intelligent Exhaustive Search

Intro Backtracking Branch and Bound Approximation

- Exhaustive search will work for almost any problem Hamiltonian Tour: Consider an edge e.
  - Either e = (u, v) is part of the tour, in which case you can complete
    the tour by finding a path from u to v in G e.
  - Or, e is not part of the tour, in which case you can find the tour by searching G - e.

Either case leads to a recurrence T(m) = 2T(m-1), i.e.,  $T(m) = O(2^m)$ . (Here m is the number of edge in G.)

SAT: Try all 2<sup>n</sup> possible truth assignments to the n variables in your formula.

 The key point is to be intelligent in the way this search is conducted, so that the algorithm is faster than 2<sup>n</sup> in practice.

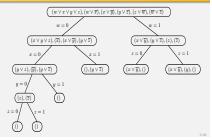
## Coping with NP-Completeness

- Sometimes you are faced with hard problems problems for which no efficient solutions exist.
- Step 1: Try to show that the problem is NP-complete
- This way, you can avoid wasting a lot of time on a fruitless search for an efficient algorithm
- Step 2a: Sometimes, you may be able to say "let us solve a different problem"
  - you may be able leverage some special structure of your problem domain that enables a more efficient solution.
- Step 2b: Other times, you are stuck with a difficult problem and you need to make the best of it.
  - · We discuss different coping strategies in such cases.

## Backtracking

- Depth-first approach to perform exhaustive search
  - In the above example, first try to find a solution that includes e
  - Looking down further, the algorithm will make additional choices of edges to include: e1, e2, ..., ek
  - Only when all paths that include e fail to be Hamiltonian, we consider the alternative (i.e., Hamiltonian path that doesn't include e)
- Key goal is to recognize and prune failing paths as quickly as possible.

## Backtracking Approach for SAT



## Backtracking Approach for SAT: Improvements

- We can improve the worst-case bound by choosing a variable that occurs most times
  - If it occurs k times, then you have the recurrence

$$T(n) = 2T(n-k)$$

whose solution is  $O(2^{n/k})$ .

- Of course, you won't be able to repeatedly find a variable that occurs k
  times, so this solution is meaningless in practice it just goes to show
  the exponential pruning effect of a frequently occurring variable
- Another strategy: pick a clause with fewest number of variables, and pick those variables in sequence.
- Exercise: Show that the backtracking algorithm solves 2SAT in polynomial time

## Backtracking Approach for SAT: Complexity

- There are two cases, based on the variable w chosen for branching:
  - Case 1: Both w and  $\overline{w}$  occur in the formula In this case, both branches are present. Moreover, both w and  $\overline{w}$  are eliminated from the formula at this point, so we have the recurrence:

$$T(n) = 2T(n-2) + O(n)$$

Case 2: Only one of them is present. In this case, only one of the branches needs exploring, so we have the recurrence

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + O(n)$$

Clearly, case 1 will dominate, so let us ignore case 2. Case 1 yields
a solution of O(2<sup>n/2</sup>) or O(1.414<sup>n</sup>), which is much better than 2<sup>n</sup>.

#### Branch and Bound

- · Generalization of backtracking to support optimization problems
- Requires a lower bound on the cost of solutions that may result from a partial solution
  - If the cost is higher than that of a previously encountered solution, then this subproblem need not be explored further.
- Sometimes, we may rely on estimates of cost rather than strict lower bounds.

#### Branch and Bound for TSP

- Begin with a vertex a the goal is to compute a TSP that begins and ends at a.
- We begin the search by considering an edge from a to its neighbor x, another edge from x to a neighbor of x, and so on.
- Partial solutions represent a path from a to some vertex b, passing through a set S ⊂ V of vertices.
- Completing a partial solution requires the computation of a low cost path from b to a using only vertices in V – S

## Illustration of Branch-and Bound for TSP



## Lower bound on costs of partial TSP solutions

- To complete the path from b to a, we must incur at least the following costs
  - Cost of going from b to a vertex in V-S, i.e, the minimum weight edge from b to a vertex in V-S
  - Cost of going from a V S vertex to a, i.e, the minimum weight edge from a to a vertex in V - S
  - Minimal cost path in V − S that visits all v ∈ V − S
  - Note: Lower bound is the cost of MST for V − S
- By adding the above three cost components, we arrive at a lower bound on solutions derivable from a partial solution.

## Approximation Algorithms

- Relax optimality requirement: permit approximate solutions
- · Solutions that are within a certain distance from optimum
- Not heuristics: Approximate algorithms guarantee that solutions are within a certain distance from optimal
  - Differs from heuristics that can sometimes return very bad solutions.
- How to define "distance from optimal?"
   Additive: Optimal solution S<sub>Ω</sub> and the Solution S<sub>Λ</sub> returned by
  - approximation algorithm differ only by a constant.

     Quality of approximation is extremely good, but unfortunately, most problems don't admit such approximations

Factor:  $S_O$  and  $S_A$  are related by a factor.

Most known approximation algorithms fall into this category.

## **Approximation Factors**

Constant:  $S_A \leq kS_O$  for some fixed constant k.

• Examples: Vertex cover, Facility location, ...

Logarithmic:  $S_A \leq O(\log^k n) \cdot S_O$ 

• Examples: Set cover, dominating set, ...

Polynomial:  $S_A \leq O(n^k) \cdot S_O$ .

• Examples: Max Clique, Independent set, graph coloring, ...

PTAS:  $S_A \leq (1 + \epsilon) \cdot S_O$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

("Polynomial-time approximation scheme")

FPTAS: PTAS with runtime  $O(\epsilon^{-k})$  for some k. ("Fully PTAS")

· Examples: Knapsack, Bin-packing, Euclidean TSP, ...

## First-fit Algorithm

A simple, greedy algorithm

FirstFit(x[1..n])

for i = 1 to n do

Put x[i] into the first open bin large enough to hold it

#### Theorem

All open bins, except possibly one, are more than half-full

**Proof:** Suppose that there are two bins b and b' that are less than half-full. Then, items in b' would have fitted into b, and so the FF algorithm would never have opened the bin b'—a contradiction

#### Theorem

First-fit is optimal within a factor of 2: specifically,  $S_A < 2S_O + 1$ .

## Bin Packing

#### Problem

Pack objects of different weight into bins that have a fixed capacity in such a way that minimizes bins used.

- · Obvious similarity to Knapsack
- Bin-packing is NP-hard
- Very good (and often very simple) approximation algorithms exist

## Best-Fit Algorithm

- Another simple, greedy algorithm
- Instead of using the first bin that will can hold x[i], use the open bin whose remaining capacity is closest to x[i]
  - Prefers to keep bins close to full.
- Factor-2 optimality can established easily.

## Other algorithms for Bin-packing

- First-fit decreasing strategy first sorts the items so that
   x[i] ≥ x[i+1] and then runs first-fit.
- Best-fit decreasing strategy first sorts the items so that  $x[i] \ge x[i+1]$  and then runs best-fit.
- $\bullet$  Both FFD and BFD achieve approximation factors of 11/9 $S_{O}+6/9.$
- Due to the additive term, bin-packing cannot have a PTAS unless P=NP.
  - $\bullet$  But  $S_A=(1+\epsilon)S_O+1$  is easy to achieve for any  $\epsilon>0$

#### Set Cover

#### Problem

Given a collection  $S_1, \ldots, S_m$  of subsets of B, find a minimum collection  $S_{i_1}, \ldots, S_{i_k}$  such that  $\bigcup_{j=1}^k S_{i_j} = B$ 

## Greedy Set Cover Algorithm

GSC(S, B) $cover = \emptyset$ :  $covered = \emptyset$ 

while  $covered \neq B do$ 

Let *new* be the set in S-cover containing

the maximum number of elements of B - coveredadd new to cover;  $covered = covered \cup new$ 

return cover

## Analysis of Greedy Set Cover

Greedy set cover is approximate with a factor of  $\ln n$ , where n = |B|

# Theorem Greedy s Proof:

- Let k be the size of optimal cover, and n<sub>t</sub> be the number of elements left uncovered after t steps of GSC
   These n<sub>t</sub> elements are covered by k sets in optimal cover ⇒ each of
- these k sets must cover at least  $n_t/k$  uncovered elements. • Thus, GSC will find at least one set that covers  $n_t/k$  elements.
- Thus, GSC will find at least one set that covers n<sub>t</sub>/k elements
   This yields the recurrence for bounding uncovered elements:
- $U(t+1) = n_t n_t/k = n_t(1-1/k) = U(t)(1-1/k)$
- The solution to recurrence is  $n(1-1/k)^t < ne^{-t/k}$
- $\bullet$  Thus, after  $t=k\ln n$  steps, less than 1 (i.e., no) elements uncovered
- Thus, GSC computes a cover at most ln n times the optimal cover.

## Vertex Cover

- Note that a vertex cover is a set cover for (S, E), where
   S = {{(v, u)|v ∈ V and (v, u) ∈ E}|v ∈ V}.
- S = {{(v, u)|v ∈ V and (v, u) ∈ E}|v ∈ V},
   S contains a set for each vertex; this set lists all edges incident on v
- Thus GSC is an approximate algorithm for vertex cover.
- $\bullet$  But  $\ln n$  is not a factor to be thrilled about can we do better?
  - Actually, we can do much better! That too with a very simple algorithm.

## Vertex Cover

#### Consider any edge (u, v).

Either u or v must belong to any vertex cover.

 If we accept S<sub>A</sub> = 2S<sub>O</sub>, then we can avoid the guesswork by simply picking both vertices!

#### Approximate Vertex Cover Algorithm

AVC(G = (V, E)) $C = \emptyset$ 

while G is not empty pick any  $(u, v) \in E$ 

 $C = C \cup \{u, v\}$  $G = G - \{u, v\}$ 

return C

## Analysis of k-Cluster

This follows from:

Let x be the farthest point from  $\mu_1, \ldots, \mu_k$ , and let r the distance to its closest center. Then, we can say:

• Cluster diameter of  $C_1, \ldots, C_k$  is at most 2r

• The distance between any 2 points in  $\{x, \mu_1, \dots, \mu_k\}$  is at least r.

• how  $\mu_i$ 's was chosen to be the farthest point from  $\mu_i$  for i < i,

• now  $\mu_i$ s was chosen to be the fartnest point from  $\mu_j$  for j < l,

this distance to μ<sub>i</sub> must decrease with i, and
 when i = k + 1 this distance is r

Thus, any k-Cluster must have a diameter of at least r

With k circles, at least two of k+1 points must be within one of them.
 This circle's diameter must hence be r or greater

Thus, AC is approximate within a factor of 2.

#### k-Cluster

#### Problem

Given  $X = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  and distances between  $x_i$ , partition X into k clusters in a way that minimizes maximum cluster diameter.

#### Approximate k-Cluster Algorithm (AC)

Pick any point  $\mu_1 \in X$  as the first cluster center

for i = 2 to k do

Choose  $\mu_i$  to be the farthest point from  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_{i-1}$ Create k clusters  $C_i = \{x \in X | \mu_i \text{ is the closest center to } x\}$ 

## Euclidean TSP

Our starting point is once again the MST

Note that no TSP solution can be smaller than MST
 Deleting an edge from TSP solution yields a spanning tree

Simple algorithm:

· Start with the MST

## Approximating Euclidean TSP: An Illustration



- Start with the MST
- Make a tour that uses each MST edge twice (forward and backward)
  - This tour is like TSP in ending at the starting node, and differs from TSP by visiting some vertices and edges twice

## Knapsack

```
Knap(0(w, v, n, W)

V = \sum_{j=0}^{n} V[j]

K[0, v] = 0, \forall 0 \le v \le V

for j = 1 to n do

for v = 1 to V do

if v[j] > v then K[j, v] = K[j-1, v]

else K[j, v] = min(K[j-1, v], K[j-1, v-v[j], ] + w[j])

return maximum v such that K[n, v] \le W
```

- · Computes minimum weight of knapsack for a given value.
- Iterates over all possible items and all possible values: O(nV)
   we derive a polynomial time approximate algorithm from this

## Approximating Euclidean TSP: An Illustration (2)



- · Avoid revisits by short-circuiting to next unvisited vertex
- By triangle inequality, short-circuit distance can only be less than the distance following MST edges.
  - Thus, tour length less than 2xMST, i.e., approximate within a factor 2.

## FPTAS for 0-1 Knapsack

#### $Knap01FPTAS(w, v, n, W, \epsilon)$

$$v_i' = \left\lfloor \frac{v_i}{\max_{1 \le j \le n} v_j} \cdot \frac{n}{\epsilon} \right\rfloor, \text{ for } 1 \le i \le n$$
 $Knap01(w, \checkmark, n, W)$ 

- · Rescaling consists of two steps:
  - Express value of each item relative to the most valuable item
  - If we worked with real values, this step won't change the optimal solution
  - Multiply relative values by a factor  $n/\epsilon$  to get an integer
- Floor operation introduces an error  $\leq 1$  in  $v'_i$  (e.g., |3.99| = 3)
- Error in Knap01 output = error in  $\sum v_i'$ , which is at most  $n \cdot 1$
- We scale each  $v_i'$  by  $n/\epsilon$ , so relative error is  $n/(n/\epsilon) = \epsilon$ • Thus we have achieved the desired approximation.

## FPTAS for 0-1 Knapsack: Runtime

#### $Knap01FPTAS(w, v, n, W, \epsilon)$

$$v_i' = \left\lfloor \frac{v_i}{\max_{1 \le j \le n} v_j} \cdot \frac{n}{\epsilon} \right\rfloor, \text{ for } 1 \le i \le n$$
 $Knap01(w, v', n, W)$ 

- Note that we are using Knap01 with rescaled values, so the complexity is O(nV').
- Note:  $V' = \sum_{i=1}^{n} v'_{i} \le n \cdot \max_{1 \le j \le n} v'_{i}$
- It is easy to see from definition of  $v_i'$  that  $\max_{i \le j \le n} v_j' = n/\epsilon$ . Substituting this into the above equation yields a complexity of:  $O(nV') \le O(n(n \cdot \max_{i \le j \le n} v_i')) = O(n(n \cdot (n/\epsilon))) = O(n^2/\epsilon)$
- $\bullet$  By varying  $\epsilon,$  we can trade off accuracy against runtime.