# Coping with NP-completeness: Exact Algorithms 

## Alexander S. Kulikov

Steklov Institute of Mathematics at St. Petersburg Russian Academy of Sciences

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.

A brute force search algorithm checking satisfiability of a 3-CNF formula $F$ with $n$ variables, goes through all assignments and has running time $O\left(|F| \cdot 2^{n}\right)$.

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## Goal

Avoid going through all $2^{n}$ assignments

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## Main Idea of Backtracking

- Construct a solution piece by piece


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


## Example

$$
\left(x_{1} \vee x_{2} \vee x_{3} \vee x_{4}\right)\left(\bar{x}_{1}\right)\left(x_{1} \vee x_{2} \vee \bar{x}_{3}\right)\left(x_{1} \vee \bar{x}_{2}\right)\left(x_{2} \vee \bar{x}_{4}\right)
$$

## Example



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return '"unsat"'

- Thus, instead of considering all $2^{n}$ branches of the recursion tree, we track carefully each branch
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- When we realize that a branch is dead (cannot be extended to a solution), we immediately cut it
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- Another commonly used technique is local search - will consider it in the next part


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■ Let $F$ be a 3-CNF formula over variables $x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}$

- 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: $\operatorname{dist}(\alpha, \beta)=\left|\left\{i: \alpha_{i} \neq \beta_{i}\right\}\right|$.

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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 $\alpha$.

## Example

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$\{1011,0011,1111,1001,1010\}$
- $\mathcal{H}(1011,2)=$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \{1011,0011,1111,1001,1010 \\
& 0111,0001,0010,1101,1110,1000\}
\end{aligned}
$$

## 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 $O\left(|F| \cdot 3^{r}\right)$.

- If $\alpha$ satisfies $F$, return $\alpha$


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- Crucial observation: at least one of them is closer to $\beta$ than $\alpha$
- Hence there are at most $3^{r}$ recursive calls





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CheckBall $\left(F, \alpha^{j}, r-1\right)$ CheckBall $\left(F, \alpha^{k}, r-1\right)$

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if a satisfying assignment is found: return it
else:
return 'not found''

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- If it has more 1's than 0's then it has distance at most $n / 2$ from all-1's assignment
- Otherwise it has distance at most $n / 2$ from all-0's assignment
- Thus, it suffices to make two calls: CheckBall ( $F, 11 \ldots 1, n / 2$ ) and CheckBall (F, 00...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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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



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## This part

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


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## Dynamic Programming

■ We are going to use dynamic programming: instead of solving one problem we will solve a collection of (overlapping) subproblems

- 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 $S \subseteq\{1, \ldots, n\}$ 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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## Recurrence Relation

- Consider the second-to-last vertex $j$ on the required shortest path from 1 to $i$ visiting all vertices from $S$
- The subpath from 1 to $j$ is the shortest one visiting all vertices from $S-\{i\}$ exactly once
- Hence
$C(S, i)=\min \left\{C(S-\{i\}, j)+d_{j i}\right\}$, where the minimum is over all $j \in S$ such that $j \neq i$


## Order of Subproblems

- Need to process all subsets
$S \subseteq\{1, \ldots, n\}$ 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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$C(S, i) \leftarrow \min \left\{C(S, i), C(S-\{i\}, j)+d_{j i}\right\}$
return $\min _{i}\left\{C(\{1, \ldots, n\}, i)+d_{i, 1}\right\}$

## Implementation Remark

■ How to iterate through all subsets of $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ ?

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

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

## Example

$k \operatorname{bin}(k)\{i: i$-th bit of $k$ 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



## Example: pruned search



## Example: pruned search



## Example: pruned search



## Example: pruned search



## 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

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


## Example: lower bounds (still simple)

The length of an optimal TSP cycle is at least

- $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{v \in V}($ 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

