

CSE 332

Data Abstractions

P vs. NP:

Efficient Reductions
Between Problems



Let's consider the **longest path** problem on a graph.

Remember, we were able to do **shortest paths** using Dijkstra's.

Idea? Search all paths in the graph; $O(|V|^n)$

Take a few minutes to try to solve the **longest path** problem.

What is the length of the longest (unweighted) path in a graph G ?

Definition (Decision Problem)

A **decision problem** (or **language**) is a set of strings ($L \subseteq \Sigma^*$).

An algorithm (from Σ^* to **boolean**) solves a decision problem when it outputs true iff the input is in the set.

$$\text{Evens} = \{ "2", "0", "4", \dots \}$$

$$\text{Evens}(s) \{$$

$$i = \text{int}(s);$$

$$\text{return } i \% 2 == 0$$

$$\}$$

$$s \in \{ "000", "012" \}$$

Definition (Decision Problem)

A **decision problem** (or **language**) is a set of strings ($L \subseteq \Sigma^*$).

An algorithm (from Σ^* to `boolean`) solves a decision problem when it outputs `true` iff the input is in the set.

PRIMES

Input(s): Number x

Output: `true` iff x is prime

An Algorithm that solves PRIMES

```
1 isPrime(x) {  
2   for (i = 2; i < x; i++) {  
3     if (x % i == 0) {  
4       return false;  
5     }  
6   }  
7   return true;  
8 }
```

if (x is not a number) { return false! }

In this lecture, we'll be talking about **efficient reductions**. So, naturally, we have to answer two questions:

- What is an efficient algorithm?
- What is a reduction?

Efficient Algorithm

We say an algorithm is **efficient** if the worst-case analysis is a **polynomial**. Okay, but...

- $n^{10000000...}$ is polynomial
- $30000000000000000n^3$ is polynomial

Are those really efficient?

Well, no, but, in practice...

when a polynomial algorithm is found the constants are actually low

Polynomial runtime is a **very** low bar, if we can't even get that...

This lecture is about exposing **hidden** similarities between problems.

We will show that problems that are **cosmetically different** are **substantially the same!**

Our main tool to do this is called a **reduction**:

Reductions

We have two **decision problems**, **A** and **B**. To show that **A** is “at least as hard as” **B**, we

- Suppose we can solve **A**



This lecture is about exposing **hidden** similarities between problems.

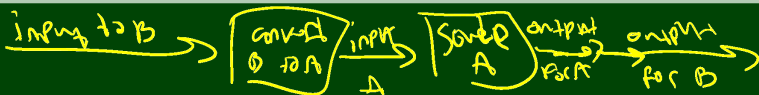
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Reductions

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- Create an algorithm, which calls **A** as a method, to solve **B**



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Reductions

We have two **decision problems**, **A** and **B**. To show that **A** is “at least as hard as” **B**, we

- Suppose we can solve **A**
- Create an algorithm, which calls **A** as a method, to solve **B**

To show they're the same, we have to do both directions.

Two New Computational Problems

LONG-PATH

Input(s): Unweighted Graph G ; Number k

Output: true iff G has a path with k edges

HAM-PATH

Input(s): Unweighted Graph G

Output: true iff G has a path using all vertices

Suppose we could solve **LONG-PATH**...

Suppose we could solve **HAM-PATH**...

"Algorithm"

input to HAM \rightarrow input to LONG-PATH
 $\text{HAM}(G)$ iff $\text{LONG}(G, |V|-1)$

Two New Computational Problems

LONG-PATH

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HAM-PATH

Input(s): Unweighted Graph G
Output: true iff G has a path using all vertices

Suppose we could solve **LONG-PATH**...

"Algorithm"

```
1 HAM-PATH( $G$ ) {  
2   return LONG-PATH( $G$ ,  $|V| - 1$ )  
3 }
```

Suppose we could solve **HAM-PATH**...

"Algorithm"

$\text{LONG-PATH}(G, k) \leq$
for each set of
 $\binom{n}{k, 1} = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}$
 $\leq n^k$

Two New Computational Problems

LONG-PATH

Input(s): Unweighted Graph G ; Number k
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HAM-PATH

Input(s): Unweighted Graph G
Output: true iff G has a path using all vertices

Suppose we could solve **LONG-PATH**...

“Algorithm”

```
1 HAM-PATH( $G$ ) {  
2   return LONG-PATH( $G$ ,  $|V| - 1$ )  
3 }
```

Suppose we could solve **HAM-PATH**...

“Algorithm”

```
1 LONG-PATH( $G$ ,  $k$ ) {  
2   for ( $G' = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k)$  in  $G$ ) {  
3     if (HAM-PATH( $G'$ )) {  
4       return true;  
5     }  
6   }  
7   return false;  
8 }
```

Definition (k -coloring)

A k -**coloring** of a graph G is an assignment of k colors to vertices such that no two adjacent vertices have the same color.

2-COLOR

Input(s): Graph G

Output: true iff G has a valid 2-coloring

Can we solve this?

Algorithm For 2-COLOR

Try all 2^n possible colorings of the input graph!

Can we solve this efficiently?

Efficient Algorithm For 2-COLOR

Do a dfs on the graph! Every time we hit a vertex, assign it the opposite color from the vertex we just visited. If there's a color conflict, output false. If we finish with no color conflict, output true.

Definition (k -coloring)

A k -**coloring** of a graph G is an assignment of k colors to vertices such that no two adjacent vertices have the same color.

3-COLOR

Input(s): Graph G

Output: true iff G has a valid 3-coloring

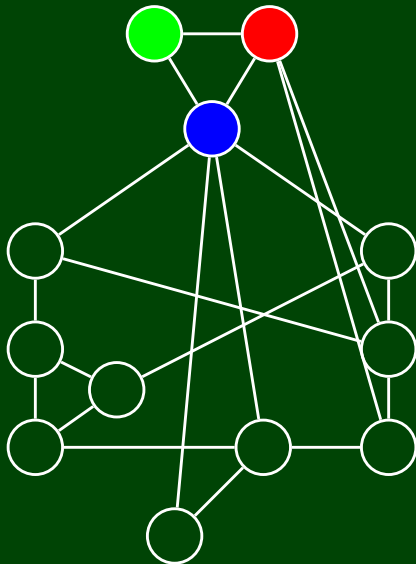
Inefficient Algorithm For 3-COLOR

Try all 3^n possible colorings of the input graph!

Efficient Algorithm For 3-COLOR

UNKNOWN

Find a valid 3-coloring of this graph. To orient ourselves, I've started it:



CIRCUITSAT

Input(s): n -Input/1-Output Circuit C

Output: true iff C has a satisfying assignment

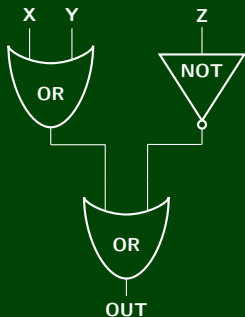
Inefficient Algorithm For CIRCUITSAT

Try all 2^n possible assignments of variables

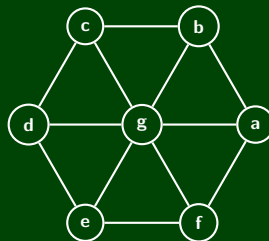
Efficient Algorithm For CIRCUITSAT

UNKNOWN

CIRCUITSAT

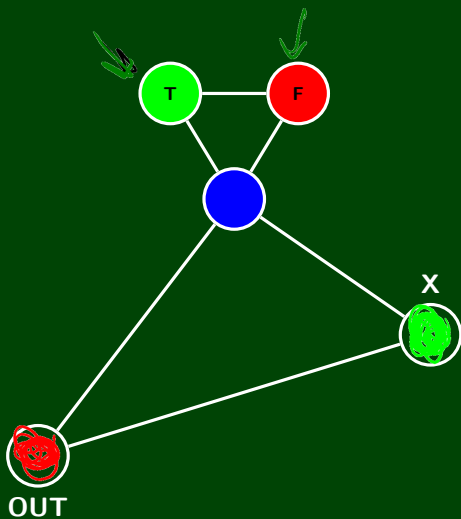


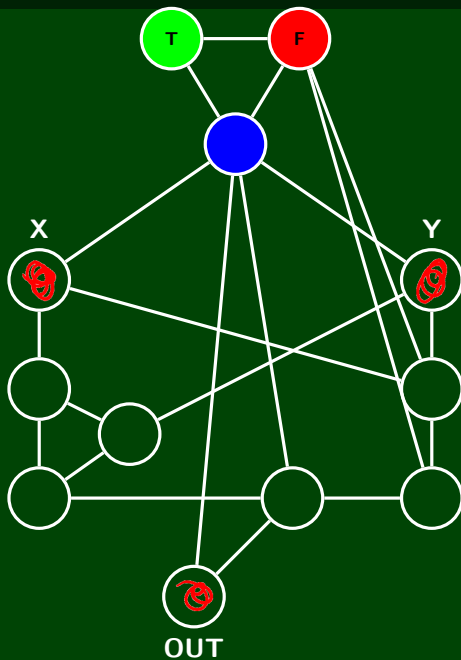
3-COLOR

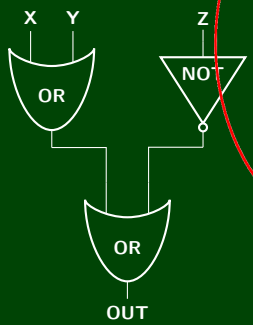


We don't know how to solve either of these problems. . .

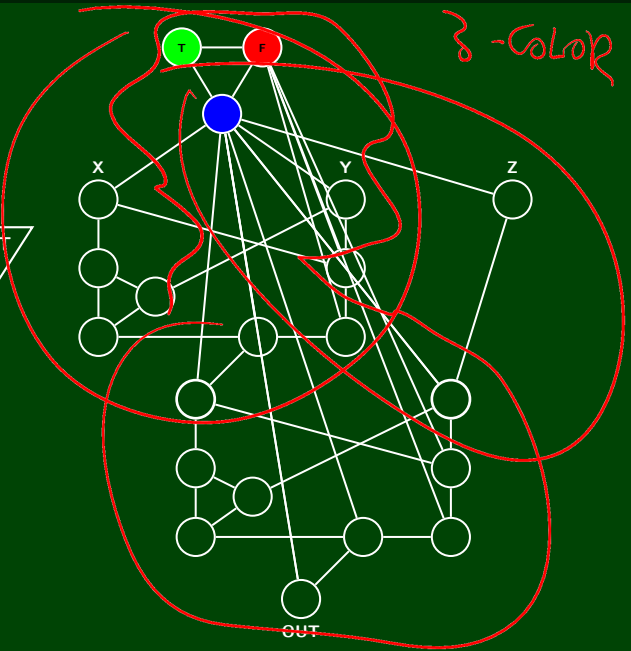
Could they be the same problem in disguise?

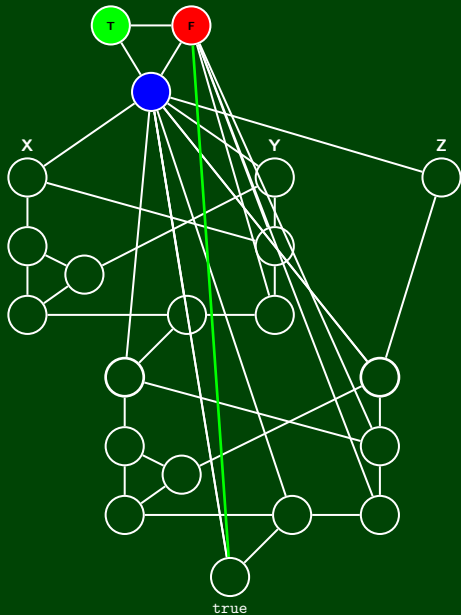
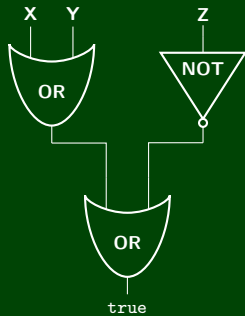






SAT





We found a way to “emulate” circuit satisfiability using three coloring!

If we can find a solution to **3-COLOR**, we can solve **CIRCUITSAT** quickly.

These problems are substantially the same