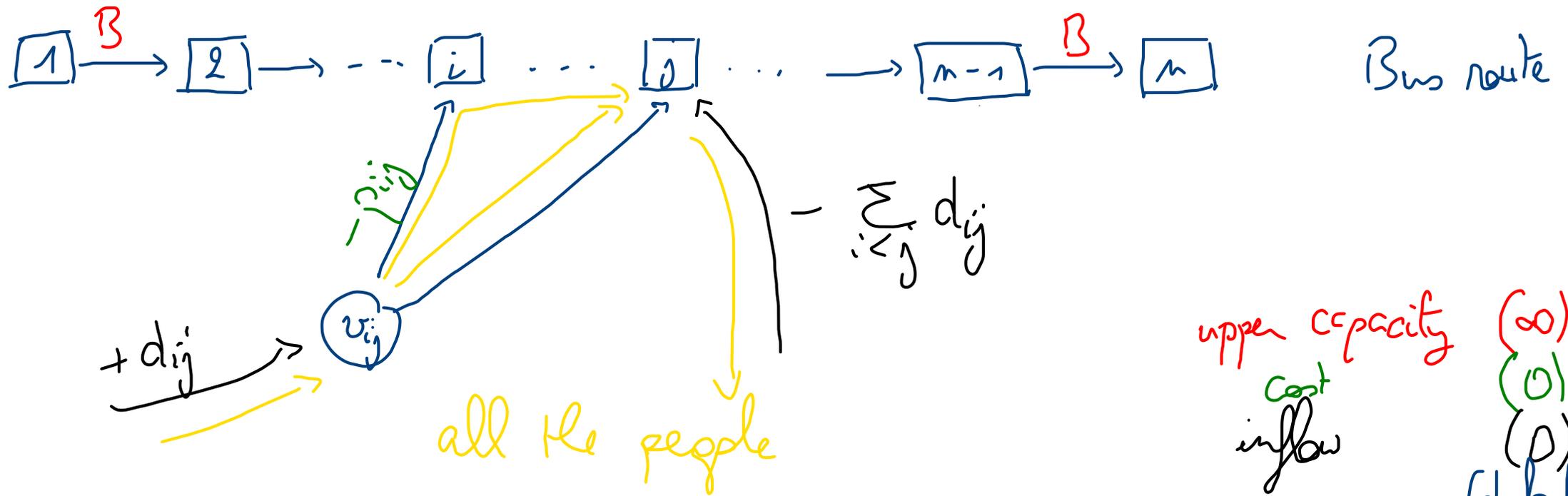


REOP 2021 - Session 4 (Spanning trees & complexity)

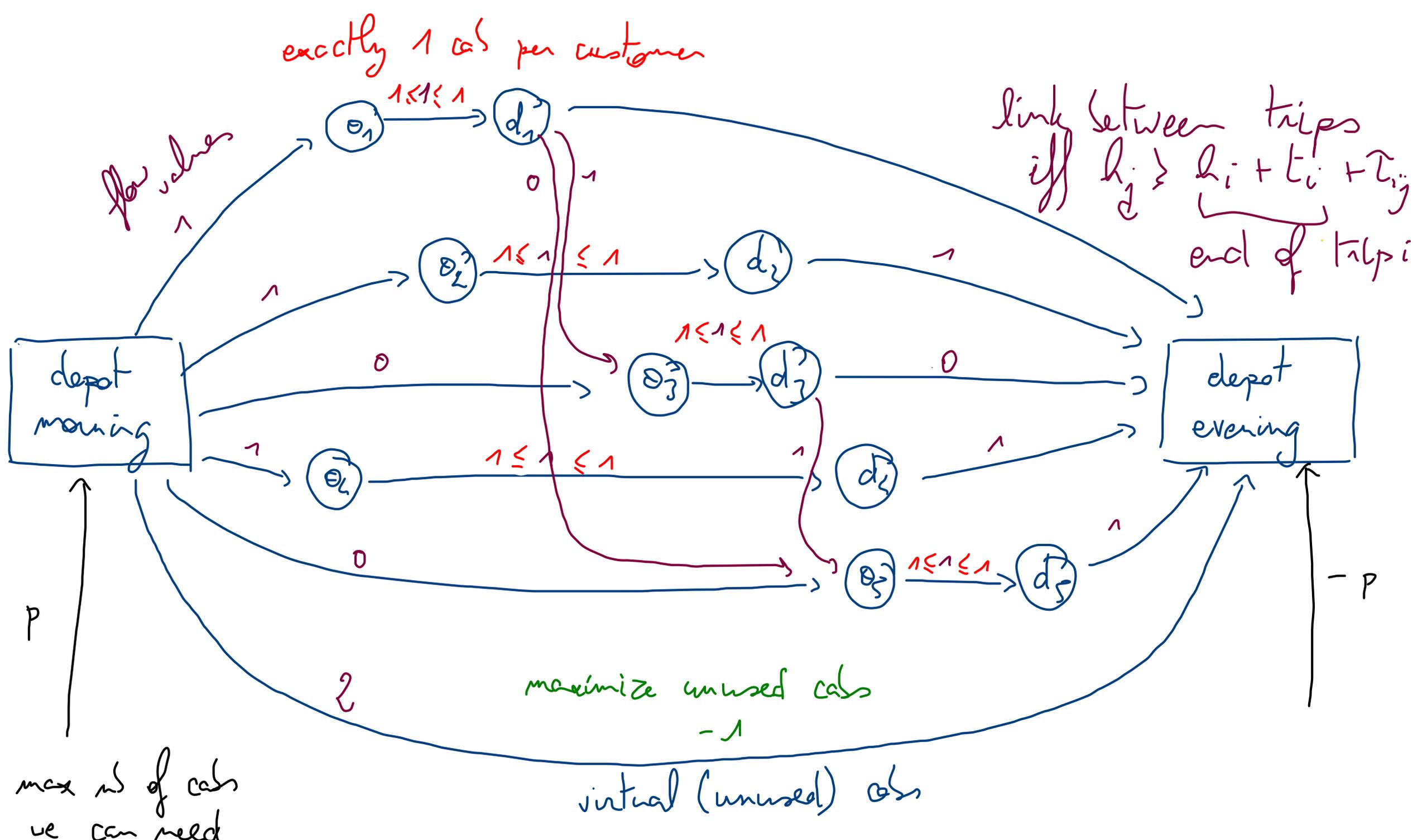
I/ Homework

A) Ex 6.10 (Bus)

Bus with B seats visiting cities 1 through n
 $\forall i < j$, d_{ij} passengers want to go $i \rightarrow j$ with price p_{ij}
 Minimum cost flow problem (max revenue) $\sum_{v \in V} b_v = 0$ balance

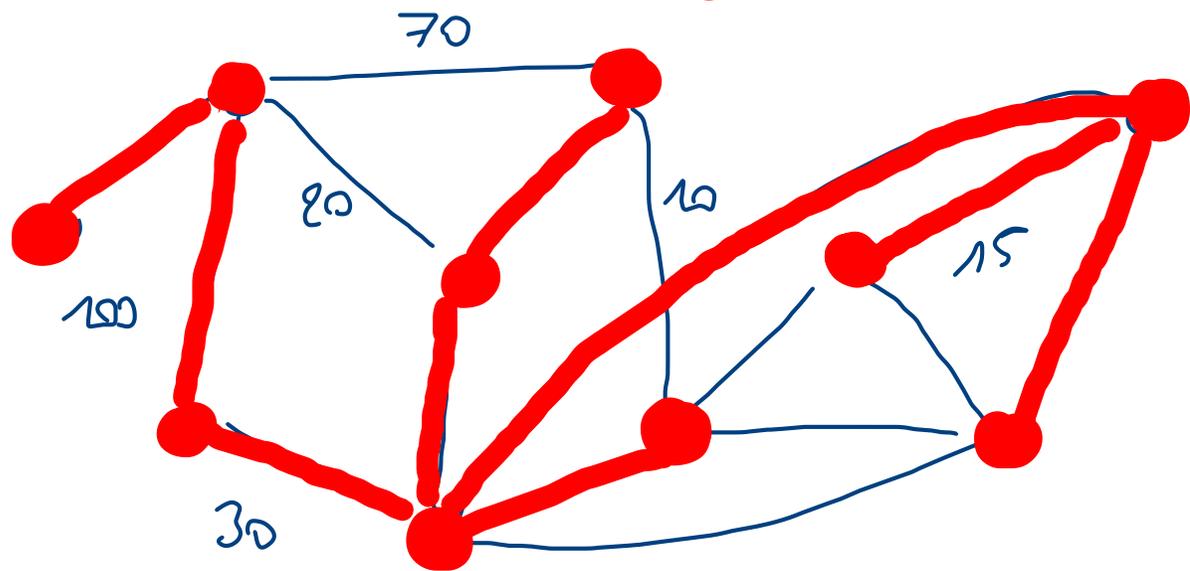


One edge (v_{ij}, i) for people who take the bus
 (v_{ij}, j) for disappointed people who take something else than bus



Reconstructing the assignment relies on the fact that a (integer) flow can always be decomposed as a (integer) positive sum of flows along paths + flows along cycles

II / Minimum spanning trees (MST) A) Definition



- min cost electrical network
 - must touch every vertex
 - must be connected
 - if we remove one edge, it shouldn't work anymore
- Minimum Spanning Tree

A spanning subgraph of $G = (V, E)$ is a subgraph $H = (V', E')$ such that:

- $V' = V$
 - E' is incident to all vertices in V
- We will often confuse a subgraph H with its edge set E' in this lecture because we only consider those for which $V' = V$

If a spanning subgraph is a tree (connected, no cycles), we talk about a spanning tree

MST problem

- Input: an undirected connected graph G with edge weights $c(e)$
- Output: a spanning tree $T = (V, T)$ with min weight $\sum_{e \in T} c(e)$

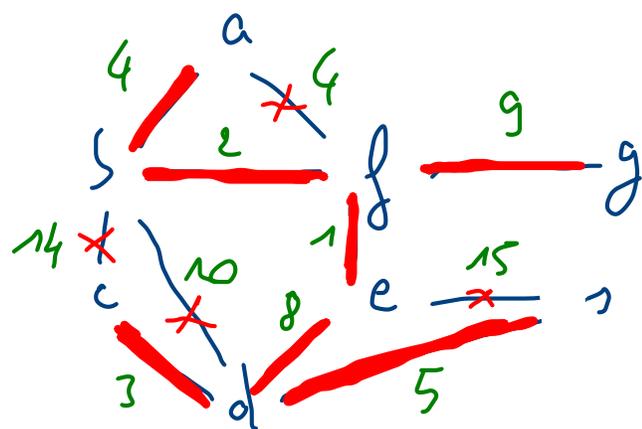
Naive alg: enumerate & compare trees \rightarrow there are too many

B) Kruskal's algorithm

1. Sort edge set E by increasing weight: $E = \{e_1, \dots, e_m\}$
with $c(e_i) < c(e_j)$ if $i < j$
2. Start with $F_0 = \emptyset$
3. For every $i \in \{1, \dots, m\}$:
 - if $F_{i-1} \cup \{e_i\}$ has no cycles, add e_i : $F_i = F_{i-1} \cup \{e_i\}$
 - otherwise, $F_i = F_{i-1}$
4. Return $\mathcal{C} = (V, F_m)$

Greedy algorithm: make the best possible decision at each step
regardless of the future ... but it works!

Ex 4.2:



$$1 + 8 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 8 + 9 = 38$$

Why does the algorithm work? Because, at each iteration, there is a minimum spanning tree T_i containing the forest F_i we are building
 → See my notes to do the proof as an exercise

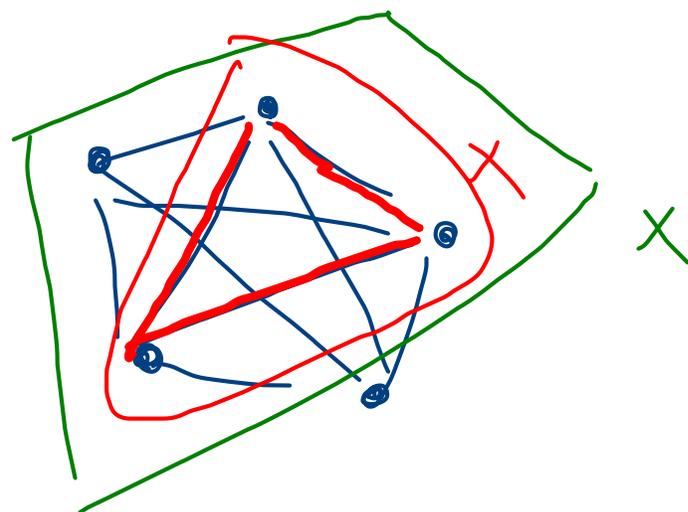
C) Spanning tree polytope

The MST problem can be formulated as an Integer Linear Program:
 Decision variable $x_e = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if we select edge } e \text{ for the tree} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

$$\min \sum_{e \in E} c(e) x_e \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \begin{cases} x_e \in \{0, 1\} \\ \sum_{e \in E} x_e = |V| - 1 \\ \sum_{e \in E[X]} x_e \leq |X| - 1 \end{cases} \quad (\text{MST-ILP})$$

exponential n! of constraints

$$\forall X \subset V, X \neq \emptyset, X \neq V$$



↳ edges within the set of vertices X

MST-ILP is hard to solve because

- 1) Integer variables \rightarrow Theorem 4.4 says we can replace $x_e \in \{0,1\}$ with $x_e \geq 0$ & still be sure that the optimal solutions returned by the simplex are integer-valued
- 2) $2^m - 2$ subsets X to consider in the constraints
 \rightarrow Exercise 4.4 **HOMEWORK**

Remark: For the standard MST problem, no need to use linear programming (\rightarrow Kruskal). Useful for more general versions (additional constraints)

III / Complexity theory

See session 1 for intuitive definitions of "problem" & "algorithm"

There are problems which computers cannot solve: undecidable
example: the halting problem (Turing) - decide if a program will terminate on a given input
In this class we focus on decidable problems & whether we can solve them efficiently

A) Formal definitions

Anything we can give to a computer can be described as a word x from a language X . A decision problem is a couple (X, Y) where

- X is a language called the input
- $x \in X$ is called an instance (a word; binary data for ex.)
- $Y \subset X$ contains all instances for which the answer is YES

A solution algorithm is a function $f: X \rightarrow \{YES, NO\}$
s.t. $\forall x \in Y, f(x) = YES$
 $\forall x \in X \setminus Y, f(x) = NO$

Ex: Hamiltonian path problem: $X =$ set of graphs (with a given encoding)
 $x =$ a particular graph
 $Y =$ set of graphs that have a ham. path

The alg. f runs in polynomial time if there is a polynomial P
such that $\forall x, \text{runtime}(f, x) \leq P(\text{size}(x))$

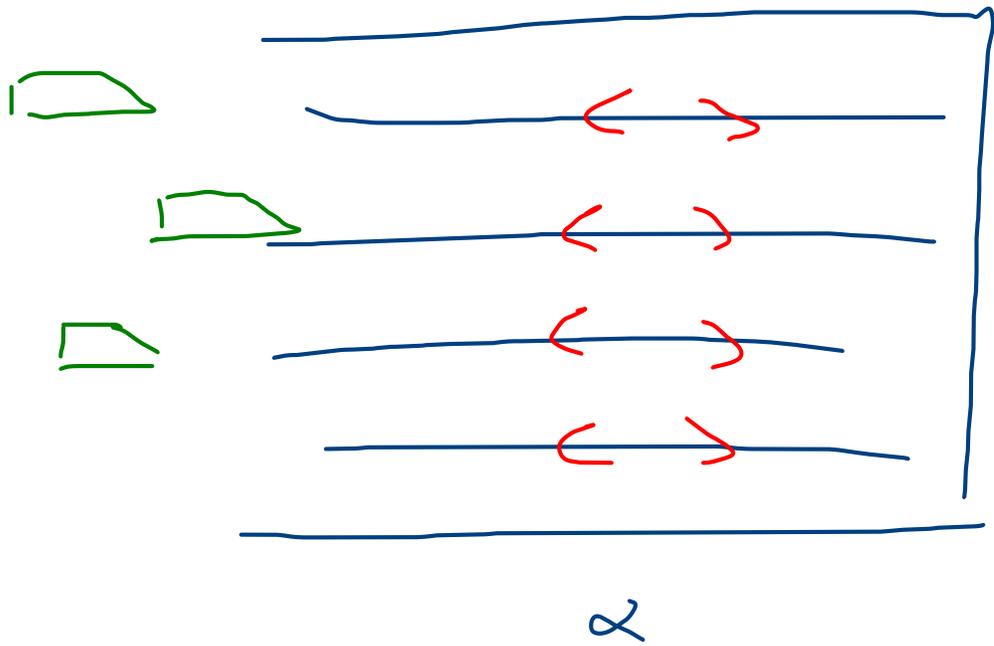
Ex: Integer factorization / primality testing \rightarrow using binary encoding

To see whether n is prime, try to divide it by all integers from 2 to \sqrt{n} . In binary, $\text{size}(n) = \log_2(n)$. There are $\sqrt{n} = \sqrt{2^{\log_2 n}} = 2^{\log_2 n / 2}$ iterations in this algorithm (n is the size) \rightarrow exponential complexity

B) Complexity classes

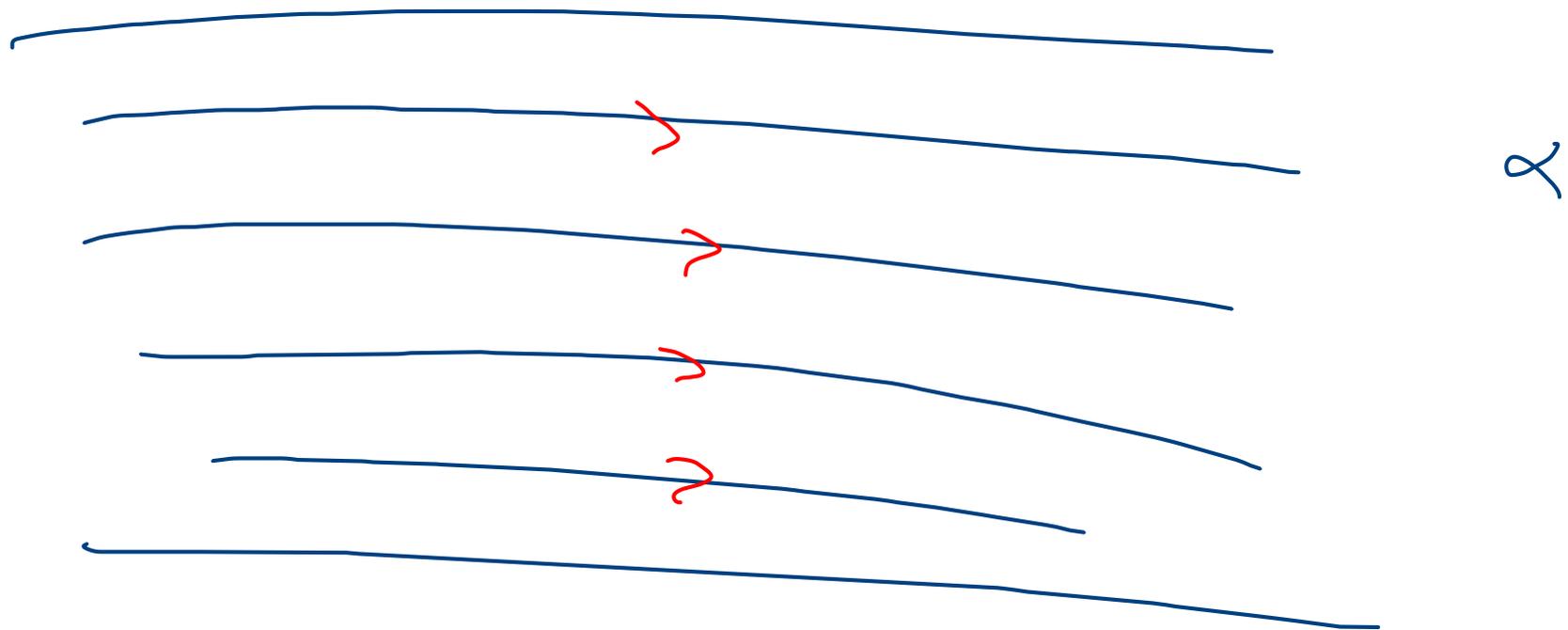
Important to separate "easy" & "hard" problems
 know which methods we can apply
 \rightarrow exact algorithms
 \rightarrow approximations / heuristics

Easy	Hard
Shortest simple path, $w > 0$	Shortest simple path, $w < 0$
Eulerian cycle	Hamiltonian cycle
Minimum spanning tree	Minimum Steiner tree (spans a subset) SCV
Train shunting (3 var)	Train shunting (1 var)



α night: arrivals
 then departures

α day: both arrivals
 & departures
 mixed



The class P contains all decision problems that have a polynomial solution algorithm

The class NP contains all decision problems for which there is a polynomial algorithm that verifies a solution, given a so-called certificate. We don't need to be able to find a certificate in polynomial time, only to check it with respect to the instance & the constraints.

→ Nondeterministic Polynomial

$P \subseteq NP$? True because, given an empty certificate, we can verify the solution (answer YES or NO) by generating it ourselves in polynomial time

Remarks:

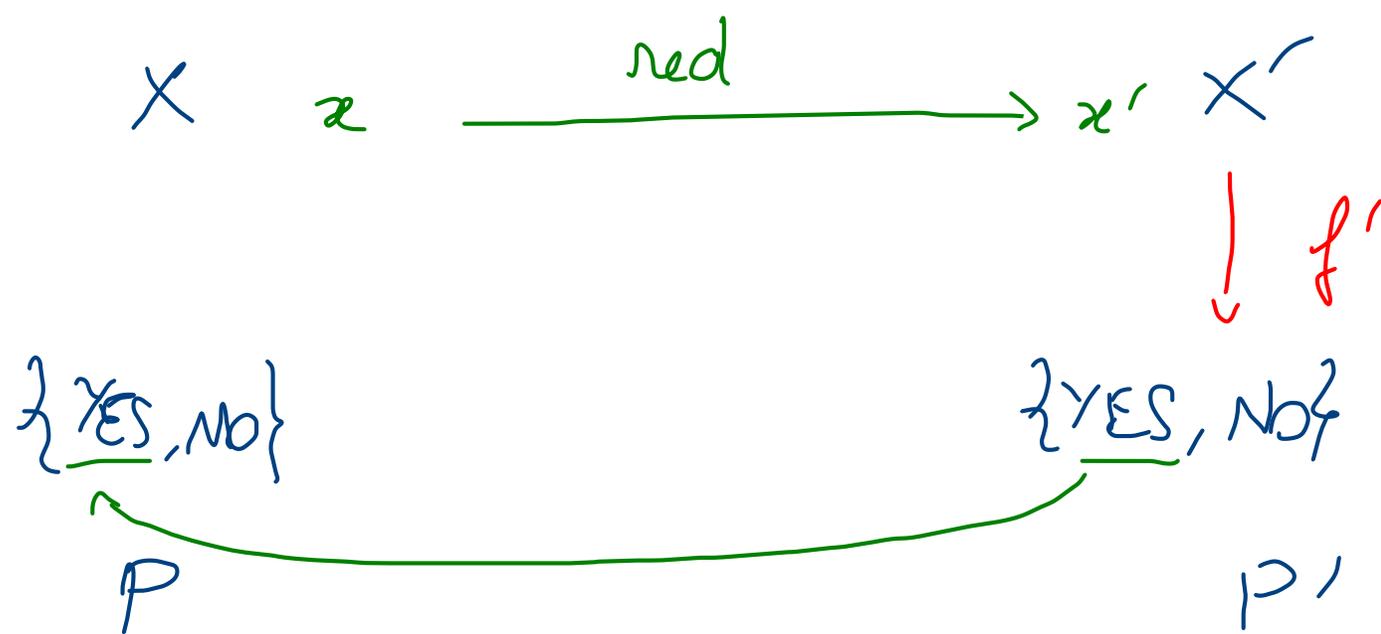
- Polynomial time: independent of the machine
- Why no mention of memory?
In Turing machines, memory is linked to time

C) Reductions

A reduction of problem $P = (X, Y)$ to $P' = (X', Y')$ is a function $\text{red} : X \rightarrow X'$

such that $x \in Y \iff \text{red}(x) = x' \in Y'$

It is called polynomial reduction if red is a polynomial function

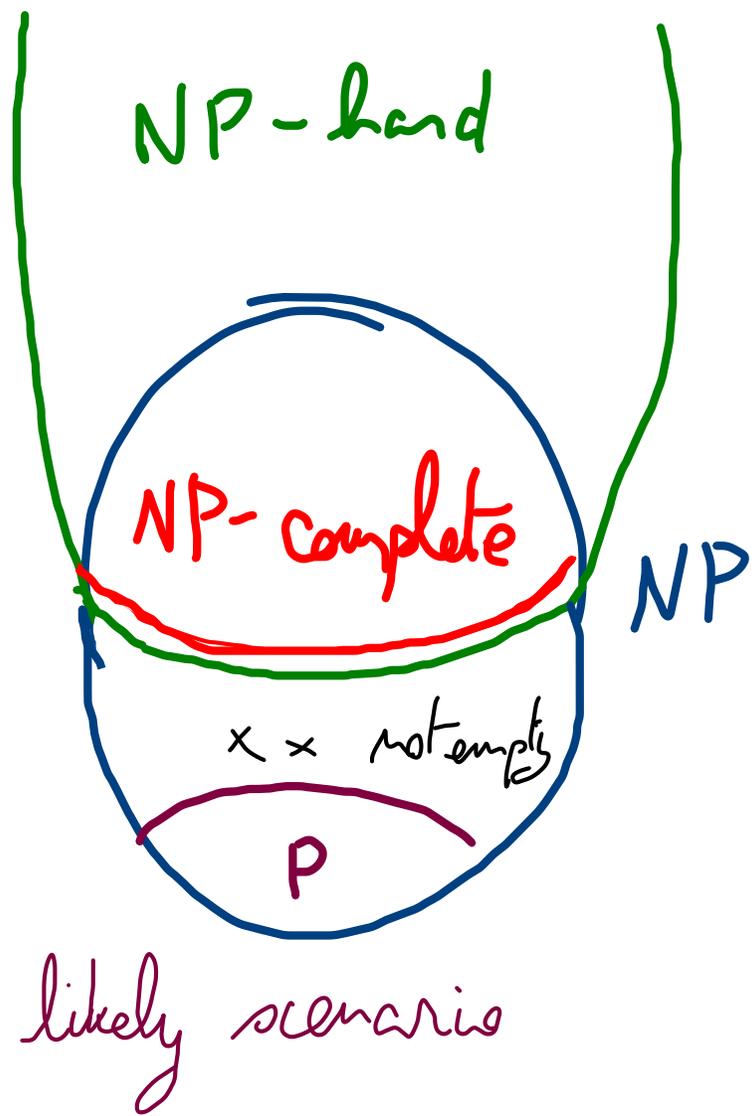


If \exists a poly. reduction from X to X' , it means X' is at least as hard as X

A decision ps P is NP-hard if every problem $Q \in \text{NP}$ reduces to P

————— NP-complete if

- 1) it is NP-hard
- 2) it belongs to NP



We don't know whether $P \stackrel{?}{=} NP$

It is likely that $P \neq NP$

Common task in OR:

prove that a problem is NP-hard

(NP-hard also applies to optimization problems, not just decision problems)

a/ Find a known NP-complete pb
NP-hard

b/ Reduce it polynomially to the one you study

To prove an optimization pb is NP-hard, you can study its decision version

TSP: find the shortest traveling salesman tour
TSP-decision: is there a tour of length $\leq L$? \rightarrow harder

IV Homework

Ex 4.4.

Exercise: Prove that the shortest simple path ps with $w < 0$ is NP-hard, using the fact that Hamiltonian path is NP-hard

Exercise: Prove that CLIQUE is NP-complete using the fact that 3-SAT is NP-complete

→ see description of 3-SAT in my lecture notes
(end of week)

→ first proven NP-complete ps

→ use the trick in the Woodpecker slide
(Cook them)