# Chapter 20

# **Polynomial Time Reductions**

CS 473: Fundamental Algorithms, Spring 2013 April 9, 2013

# 20.1 Introduction to Reductions

# 20.2 Overview

### 20.2.0.1 Reductions

A reduction from Problem X to Problem Y means (informally) that if we have an algorithm for Problem Y, we can use it to find an algorithm for Problem X.

i2-¿Using Reductions

- (A) We use reductions to find algorithms to solve problems.
- (B) We also use reductions to show that we **can't** find algorithms for some problems. (We say that these problems are **hard**.)

Also, the right reductions might win you a million dollars!

# 20.2.0.2 Example 1: Bipartite Matching and Flows

How do we solve the **Bipartite Matching** Problem? Given a bipartite graph  $G = (U \cup V, E)$  and number k, does G have a matching of size  $\geq k$ ?



i4-¿Solution Reduce it to Max-Flow. G has a matching of size  $\geq k$  iff there is a flow from s to t of value  $\geq k$ .

# 20.3 Definitions

# 20.3.0.3 Types of Problems

Decision, Search, and Optimization

- (A) **Decision problem**. Example: given n, is n prime?.
- (B) **Search problem**. Example: given n, find a factor of n if it exists.
- (C) **Optimization problem**. Example: find the **smallest** prime factor of *n*.

# 20.3.1 Optimization and Decision problems

#### 20.3.1.1 For max flow...

**Problem 20.3.1 (Max-Flow optimization version).** Given an instance G of network flow, find the maximum flow between s and t.

**Problem 20.3.2 (Max-Flow decision version).** Given an instance G of network flow and a parameter K, is there a flow in G, from s to t, of value at least K?

While using reductions and comparing problems, we typically work with the decision versions. Decision problems have **Yes/No** answers. This makes them easy to work with.

#### 20.3.1.2 Problems vs Instances

- (A) A **problem**  $\Pi$  consists of an *infinite* collection of inputs  $\{I_1, I_2, \ldots,\}$ . Each input is referred to as an **instance**.
- (B) The size of an instance I is the number of bits in its representation.
- (C) For an instance I, sol(I) is a set of **feasible solutions** to I.
- (D) For optimization problems each solution  $s \in sol(I)$  has an associated value.

#### 20.3.1.3 Examples

**Example 20.3.3.** An instance of **Bipartite Matching** is a bipartite graph, and an integer k. The solution to this instance is "YES" if the graph has a matching of size  $\geq k$ , and "NO" otherwise.

**Example 20.3.4.** An instance of Max-Flow is a graph G with edge-capacities, two vertices s, t, and an integer k. The solution to this instance is "YES" if there is a flow from s to t of value  $\geq k$ , else 'NO".

What is an algorithm for a decision Problem X? It takes as input an instance of X, and outputs either "YES" or "NO".

#### 20.3.1.4 Encoding an instance into a string

- (A) *I*; Instance of some problem.
- (B) I can be fully and precisely described (say in a text file).
- (C) Resulting text file is a binary string.
- (D)  $\implies$  Any input can be interpreted as a binary string S.
- (E) ... Running time of algorithm: Function of length of S (i.e., n).

#### 20.3.1.5 Decision Problems and Languages

(A) A finite alphabet  $\Sigma$ .  $\Sigma^*$  is set of all finite strings on  $\Sigma$ .

(B) A language L is simply a subset of  $\Sigma^*$ ; a set of strings.

For every language L there is an associated decision problem  $\Pi_L$  and conversely, for every decision problem  $\Pi$  there is an associated language  $L_{\Pi}$ .

- (A) Given L,  $\Pi_L$  is the following decision problem: Given  $x \in \Sigma^*$ , is  $x \in L$ ? Each string in  $\Sigma^*$  is an instance of  $\Pi_L$  and L is the set of instances for which the answer is YES.
- (B) Given  $\Pi$  the associated language is

 $L_{\Pi} = \left\{ I \mid I \text{ is an instance of } \Pi \text{ for which answer is YES} \right\}.$ 

Thus, decision problems and languages are used interchangeably.

#### 20.3.1.6 Example

(A) The decision problem **Primality**, and the language

$$L = \left\{ \#p \mid p \text{ is a prime number} \right\}.$$

Here #p is the string in base 10 representing p.

(B) **Bipartite** (is given graph is bipartite. The language is

$$L = \left\{ \mathcal{S}(\mathsf{G}) \mid \mathsf{G} \text{ is a bipartite graph} \right\}.$$

Here  $\mathcal{S}(\mathsf{G})$  is the string encoding the graph  $\mathsf{G}$ .

#### 20.3.1.7 Reductions, revised.

For decision problems X, Y, a *reduction from* X to Y is:

- (A) An algorithm ...
- (B) Input:  $I_X$ , an instance of X.
- (C) Output:  $I_Y$  an instance of Y.
- (D) Such that:

 $I_Y$  is YES instance of  $Y \iff I_X$  is YES instance of X

(Actually, this is only one type of reduction, but this is the one we'll use most often.)

#### 20.3.1.8 Using reductions to solve problems

- (A)  $\mathcal{R}$ : Reduction  $X \to Y$
- (B)  $\mathcal{A}_Y$ : algorithm for Y:
- (C)  $\implies$  New algorithm for X:



In particular, if  $\mathcal{R}$  and  $\mathcal{A}_Y$  are polynomial-time algorithms,  $\mathcal{A}_X$  is also polynomial-time.

## 20.3.1.9 Comparing Problems

- (A) Reductions allow us to formalize the notion of "Problem X is no harder to solve than Problem Y".
- (B) If Problem X reduces to Problem Y (we write  $X \leq Y$ ), then X cannot be harder to solve than Y.

- (C) Bipartite Matching  $\leq$  Max-Flow. Therefore, Bipartite Matching cannot be harder than Max-Flow.
- (D) Equivalently,Max-Flow is at least as hard as Bipartite Matching.
- (E) More generally, if  $X \leq Y$ , we can say that X is no harder than Y, or Y is at least as hard as X.

# 20.4 Examples of Reductions

# 20.5 Independent Set and Clique

# 20.5.0.10 Independent Sets and Cliques

Given a graph G, a set of vertices V' is:

- (A) An *independent set*: if no two vertices of V' are connected by an edge of G.
- (B) *clique*: every pair of vertices in V' is connected by an edge of G.



### 20.5.0.11 The Independent Set and Clique Problems

### Problem: Independent Set

**Instance:** A graph G and an integer k. Question: Does G has an independent set of size  $\geq k$ ?

### Problem: Clique

**Instance:** A graph G and an integer k. Question: Does G has a clique of size  $\geq k$ ?

### 20.5.0.12 Recall

For decision problems X, Y, a reduction from X to Y is:

- (A) An algorithm ...
- (B) that takes  $I_X$ , an instance of X as input ...
- (C) and returns  $I_Y$ , an instance of Y as output ...
- (D) such that the solution (YES/NO) to  $I_Y$  is the same as the solution to  $I_X$ .

#### 20.5.0.13 Reducing Independent Set to Clique

An instance of **Independent Set** is a graph G and an integer k.

Convert G to  $\overline{G}$ , in which (u, v) is an edge iff (u, v) is **not** an edge of G. ( $\overline{G}$  is the *complement* of G.)

We use  $\overline{G}$  and k as the instance of **Clique**.



20.5.0.14 Independent Set and Clique

- (A) Independent Set  $\leq$  Clique. What does this mean?
- (B) If have an algorithm for **Clique**, then we have an algorithm for **Independent Set**.
- (C) Clique is at least as hard as Independent Set.
- (D) Also... **Independent Set** is at least as hard as **Clique**.

# 20.6 NFAs/DFAs and Universality

#### 20.6.0.15 DFAs and NFAs

DFAs (Remember 373?) are automata that accept regular languages. NFAs are the same, except that they are non-deterministic, while DFAs are deterministic.

Every NFA can be converted to a DFA that accepts the same language using the **subset** construction.

(How long does this take?)

The smallest **DFA** equivalent to an **NFA** with n states may have  $\approx 2^n$  states.

### 20.6.0.16 DFA Universality

A DFA M is **universal** if it accepts every string. That is,  $L(M) = \Sigma^*$ , the set of all strings.

Problem 20.6.1 (DFA universality).

Input: A DFA M. Goal: Is M universal?

How do we solve **DFA Universality**?

We check if M has any reachable non-final state.

Alternatively, minimize M to obtain M' and see if M' has a single state which is an accepting state.

#### 20.6.0.17 NFA Universality

An NFA N is said to be **universal** if it accepts every string. That is,  $L(N) = \Sigma^*$ , the set of all strings.

Problem 20.6.2 (NFA universality). Input: A NFA M. Goal: Is M universal?

How do we solve **NFA Universality**?

Reduce it to **DFA Universality**?

Given an NFA N, convert it to an equivalent DFA M, and use the **DFA Universality** Algorithm.

The reduction takes **exponential time**!

#### 20.6.0.18 Polynomial-time reductions

We say that an algorithm is *efficient* if it runs in polynomial-time.

To find efficient algorithms for problems, we are only interested in **polynomial-time** reductions. Reductions that take longer are not useful.

If we have a polynomial-time reduction from problem X to problem Y (we write  $X \leq_P Y$ ), and a poly-time algorithm  $\mathcal{A}_Y$  for Y, we have a polynomial-time/efficient algorithm for X.



#### 20.6.0.19 Polynomial-time Reduction

A polynomial time reduction from a *decision* problem X to a *decision* problem Y is an *algorithm*  $\mathcal{A}$  that has the following properties:

(A) given an instance  $I_X$  of X,  $\mathcal{A}$  produces an instance  $I_Y$  of Y

- (B)  $\mathcal{A}$  runs in time polynomial in  $|I_X|$ .
- (C) Answer to  $I_X$  YES *iff* answer to  $I_Y$  is YES.

**Proposition 20.6.3.** If  $X \leq_P Y$  then a polynomial time algorithm for Y implies a polynomial time algorithm for X.

Such a reduction is called a *Karp reduction*. Most reductions we will need are Karp reductions.

#### 20.6.0.20 Polynomial-time reductions and hardness

For decision problems X and Y, if  $X \leq_P Y$ , and Y has an efficient algorithm, X has an efficient algorithm.

If you believe that **Independent Set** does not have an efficient algorithm, why should you believe the same of **Clique**?

Because we showed **Independent Set**  $\leq_P$  Clique. If Clique had an efficient algorithm, so would **Independent Set**!

If  $X \leq_P Y$  and X does not have an efficient algorithm, Y cannot have an efficient algorithm!

#### 20.6.0.21 Polynomial-time reductions and instance sizes

**Proposition 20.6.4.** Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a polynomial-time reduction from X to Y. Then for any instance  $I_X$  of X, the size of the instance  $I_Y$  of Y produced from  $I_X$  by  $\mathcal{R}$  is polynomial in the size of  $I_X$ .

*Proof*:  $\mathcal{R}$  is a polynomial-time algorithm and hence on input  $I_X$  of size  $|I_X|$  it runs in time  $p(|I_X|)$  for some polynomial p().

 $I_Y$  is the output of  $\mathcal{R}$  on input  $I_X$ .

 $\mathcal{R}$  can write at most  $p(|I_X|)$  bits and hence  $|I_Y| \leq p(|I_X|)$ .

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**Note:** Converse is not true. A reduction need not be polynomial-time even if output of reduction is of size polynomial in its input.

#### 20.6.0.22 Polynomial-time Reduction

A polynomial time reduction from a *decision* problem X to a *decision* problem Y is an *algorithm*  $\mathcal{A}$  that has the following properties:

- (A) Given an instance  $I_X$  of X,  $\mathcal{A}$  produces an instance  $I_Y$  of Y.
- (B)  $\mathcal{A}$  runs in time polynomial in  $|I_X|$ . This implies that  $|I_Y|$  (size of  $I_Y$ ) is polynomial in  $|I_X|$ .
- (C) Answer to  $I_X$  YES *iff* answer to  $I_Y$  is YES.

**Proposition 20.6.5.** If  $X \leq_P Y$  then a polynomial time algorithm for Y implies a polynomial time algorithm for X.

Such a reduction is called a Karp reduction. Most reductions we will need are Karp reductions

#### 20.6.0.23 Transitivity of Reductions

**Proposition 20.6.6.**  $X \leq_P Y$  and  $Y \leq_P Z$  implies that  $X \leq_P Z$ .

Note:  $X \leq_P Y$  does not imply that  $Y \leq_P X$  and hence it is very important to know the FROM and TO in a reduction.

To prove  $X \leq_P Y$  you need to show a reduction FROM X TO Y

In other words show that an algorithm for Y implies an algorithm for X.

# 20.7 Independent Set and Vertex Cover

# 20.7.0.24 Vertex Cover

Given a graph G = (V, E), a set of vertices S is:

(A) A *vertex cover* if every  $e \in E$  has at least one endpoint in S.



# 20.7.0.25 The Vertex Cover Problem

# Problem 20.7.1 (Vertex Cover). Input: A graph G and integer k.

**Goal:** Is there a vertex cover of size  $\leq k$  in G?

Can we relate **Independent Set** and **Vertex Cover**?

# 20.7.1 Relationship between...

#### 20.7.1.1 Vertex Cover and Independent Set

**Proposition 20.7.2.** Let G = (V, E) be a graph. S is an independent set if and only if  $V \setminus S$  is a vertex cover.

### *Proof*:

 $(\Rightarrow)$  Let S be an independent set

- (A) Consider any edge  $uv \in E$ .
- (B) Since S is an independent set, either  $u \notin S$  or  $v \notin S$ .
- (C) Thus, either  $u \in V \setminus S$  or  $v \in V \setminus S$ .
- (D)  $V \setminus S$  is a vertex cover.

 $(\Leftarrow)$  Let  $V \setminus S$  be some vertex cover:

- (A) Consider  $u, v \in S$
- (B) uv is not an edge of G, as otherwise  $V \setminus S$  does not cover uv.
- (C)  $\implies$  S is thus an independent set.

#### **20.7.1.2** Independent Set $\leq_P$ Vertex Cover

- (A) G: graph with n vertices, and an integer k be an instance of the **Independent Set** problem.
- (B) G has an independent set of size  $\geq k$  iff G has a vertex cover of size  $\leq n k$
- (C) (G, k) is an instance of **Independent Set**, and (G, n k) is an instance of **Vertex Cover** with the same answer.
- (D) Therefore, Independent Set  $\leq_P$  Vertex Cover. Also Vertex Cover  $\leq_P$  Independent Set.

# 20.8 Vertex Cover and Set Cover

#### 20.8.0.3 A problem of Languages

Suppose you work for the United Nations. Let U be the set of all **languages** spoken by people across the world. The United Nations also has a set of **translators**, all of whom speak English, and some other languages from U.

Due to budget cuts, you can only afford to keep k translators on your payroll. Can you do this, while still ensuring that there is someone who speaks every language in U?

More General problem: Find/Hire a small group of people who can accomplish a large number of tasks.

#### 20.8.0.4 The Set Cover Problem

#### Problem 20.8.1 (Set Cover).

**Input:** Given a set U of n elements, a collection  $S_1, S_2, \ldots S_m$  of subsets of U, and an integer k.

**Goal:** Is there a collection of at most k of these sets  $S_i$  whose union is equal to U?

**Example 20.8.2.**  $j^{2}-jLet U = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7\}, k = 2$  with

$$\begin{array}{ll} S_1 = \{3,7\} & \textbf{j}3 - > S_2 = \{3,4,5\} \\ S_3 = \{1\} & S_4 = \{2,4\} \\ S_5 = \{5\} & \textbf{j}3 - > S_6 = \{1,2,6,7\} \end{array}$$

 $\{S_2, S_6\}$  is a set cover

#### **20.8.0.5** Vertex Cover $\leq_P$ Set Cover

Given graph G = (V, E) and integer k as instance of **Vertex Cover**, construct an instance of **Set Cover** as follows:

- (A) Number k for the **Set Cover** instance is the same as the number k given for the **Vertex Cover** instance.
- (B) U = E.
- (C) We will have one set corresponding to each vertex;  $S_v = \{e \mid e \text{ is incident on } v\}$ .

Observe that G has vertex cover of size k if and only if  $U, \{S_v\}_{v \in V}$  has a set cover of size k. (Exercise: Prove this.)

#### **20.8.0.6** Vertex Cover $\leq_P$ Set Cover: Example



Let $U = \{a, b, c, d, e, f, g\}, k = 2$ with	
$S_{1} = \{c, g\}$ $i^{3-} > S_{3} = \{c, d, e\}$ $S_{5} = \{a\}$	$S_{2} = \{b, d\}$ $S_{4} = \{e, f\}$ $\mathbf{i}_{3} - > S_{6} = \{a, b, f, g\}$
$\{S_3, S_6\}$ is a set cover	

 $\{3, 6\}$  is a vertex cover

#### 20.8.0.7 Proving Reductions

To prove that  $X \leq_P Y$  you need to give an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  that:

- (A) Transforms an instance  $I_X$  of X into an instance  $I_Y$  of Y.
- (B) Satisfies the property that answer to  $I_X$  is YES iff  $I_Y$  is YES.
  - (A) typical easy direction to prove: answer to  $I_Y$  is YES if answer to  $I_X$  is YES
  - (B) **typical difficult direction to prove**: answer to  $I_X$  is YES if answer to  $I_Y$  is YES (equivalently answer to  $I_X$  is NO if answer to  $I_Y$  is NO).
- (C) Runs in *polynomial* time.

#### 20.8.0.8 Example of incorrect reduction proof

Try proving Matching  $\leq_P$  Bipartite Matching via following reduction:

- (A) Given graph G = (V, E) obtain a bipartite graph G' = (V', E') as follows.
  - (A) Let  $V_1 = \{u_1 \mid u \in V\}$  and  $V_2 = \{u_2 \mid u \in V\}$ . We set  $V' = V_1 \cup V_2$  (that is, we make two copies of V)
  - (B)  $E' = \left\{ u_1 v_2 \mid u \neq v \text{ and } uv \in E \right\}$
- (B) Given G and integer k the reduction outputs G' and k.

#### 20.8.0.9 Example 20.8.0.10 "Proof"

**Claim 20.8.3.** Reduction is a poly-time algorithm. If G has a matching of size k then G' has a matching of size k.

Proof: Exercise.

Claim 20.8.4. If G' has a matching of size k then G has a matching of size k.

**Incorrect!** Why? Vertex  $u \in V$  has two copies  $u_1$  and  $u_2$  in G'. A matching in G' may use both copies!

# 20.8.0.11 Summary

We looked at **polynomial-time reductions**.

i<sup>2</sup>-*i*, Using polynomial-time reductions

- (A) If  $X \leq_P Y$ , and we have an efficient algorithm for Y, we have an efficient algorithm for X.
- (B) If  $X \leq_P Y$ , and there is no efficient algorithm for X, there is no efficient algorithm for Y.

We looked at some examples of reductions between **Independent Set**, **Clique**, **Vertex Cover**, and **Set Cover**.