

FEDOR V. FOMIN

Parameterized Algorithms I



St. Petersburg, 2011

Classical complexity

A brief review:

- ▶ We usually aim for **polynomial-time** algorithms: the running time is $O(n^c)$, where n is the input size.
- ▶ Classical polynomial-time algorithms: shortest path, matching, minimum spanning tree, 2SAT, convex hull, planar drawing, linear programming, etc.
- ▶ It is unlikely that polynomial-time algorithms exist for **NP-hard** problems.

Classical complexity

- ▶ Unfortunately, many problems of interest are NP-hard: Hamiltonian cycle, 3-coloring, 3SAT, etc.
- ▶ We expect that these problems can be solved only in exponential time (i.e., c^n).

Can we say anything nontrivial about NP-hard problems?

Parameterized complexity

Main idea: Instead of expressing the running time as a function $T(n)$ of n , we express it as a function $T(n, k)$ of the input size n and some parameter k of the input.

In other words: we do not want to be efficient on all inputs of size n , only for those where k is small.

Parameterized complexity

What can be the parameter k ?

- ▶ The size k of the solution we are looking for.
- ▶ The maximum degree of the input graph.
- ▶ The diameter of the input graph.
- ▶ The length of clauses in the input Boolean formula.
- ▶ ...

Parameterized complexity

Problem:

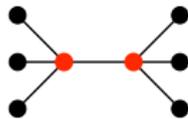
Input:

Question:

MIN VERTEX COVER

Graph G , integer k

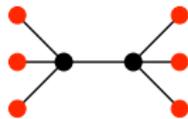
Is it possible to cover the edges with k vertices?



MAX INDEPENDENT SET

Graph G , integer k

Is it possible to find k independent vertices?



Parameterized complexity

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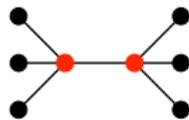
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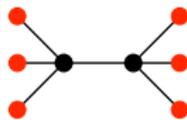
Complexity:

NP-complete

MAX INDEPENDENT SET

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NP-complete

Parameterized complexity

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MIN VERTEX COVER

MAX INDEPENDENT SET

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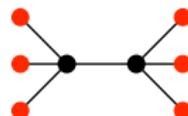
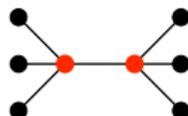
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Is it possible to cover the edges with k vertices?

Is it possible to find k independent vertices?



Complexity:

NP-complete

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Complete

$O(n^k)$ possibilities

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enumeration:

$O(2^k n^2)$ algorithm exists

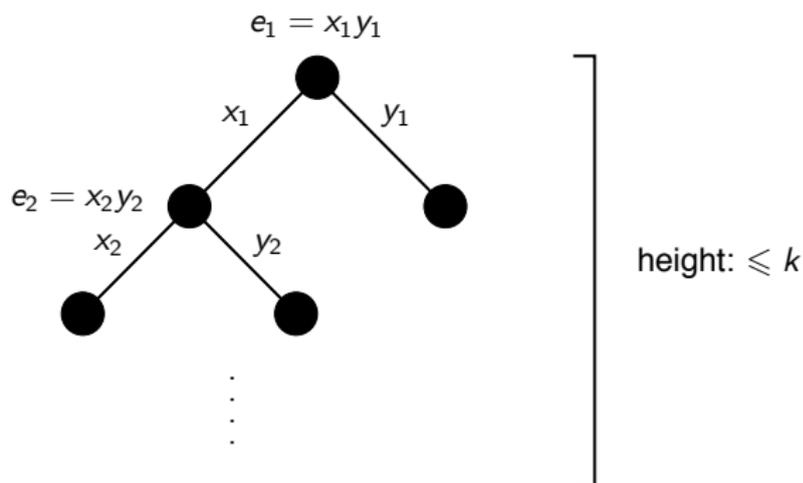


No $n^{o(k)}$ algorithm known



Bounded search tree method

Algorithm for MINIMUM VERTEX COVER:



Height of the search tree is $\leq k \Rightarrow$ number of leaves is $\leq 2^k \Rightarrow$
complete search requires $2^k \cdot \text{poly}$ steps.

Exercise

Problem: MINIMUM DOMINATING SET

Input: Graph G , integer k

Question: Is it possible to cover
all vertices with k vertices?

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Fixed-parameter tractability

Definition: A *parameterization* of a decision problem is a function that assigns an integer parameter k to each input instance x .

The parameter can be

- ▶ explicit in the input (for example, if the parameter is the integer k appearing in the input (G, k) of VERTEX COVER),
or
- ▶ implicit in the input (for example, if the parameter is the diameter d of the input graph G).

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Main definition:

A parameterized problem is **fixed-parameter tractable (FPT)** if there is an $f(k)n^c$ time algorithm for some constant c .

Fixed-parameter tractability

Example: MINIMUM VERTEX COVER parameterized by the required size k is FPT: we have seen that it can be solved in time $O(2^k + n^2)$.

Better algorithms are known: e.g, $O(1.2832^k k + k|V|)$.

Main goal of parameterized complexity: to find FPT problems.

FPT problems

Examples of NP-hard problems that are FPT:

- ▶ Finding a vertex cover of size k .
- ▶ Finding a path of length k .
- ▶ Finding k disjoint triangles.
- ▶ Drawing the graph in the plane with k edge crossings.
- ▶ Finding disjoint paths that connect k pairs of points.
- ▶ ...

FPT algorithmic techniques

- ▶ Significant advances in the past 20 years or so (especially in recent years).
- ▶ Powerful toolbox for designing FPT algorithms:

Bounded Search Tree

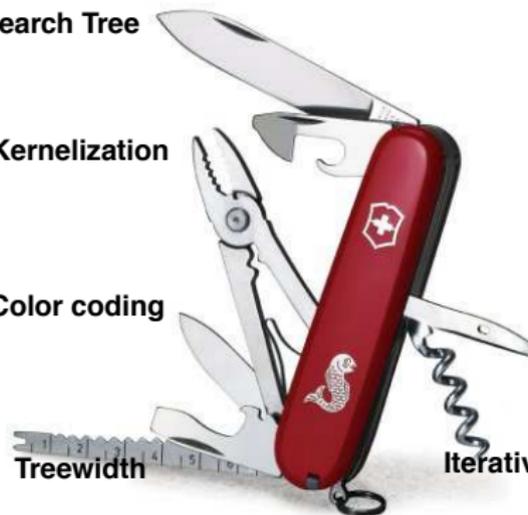
Kernelization

Color coding

Treewidth

Graph Minors Theorem

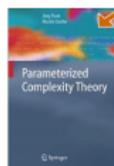
Iterative compression



Books



Downey-Fellows: Parameterized Complexity, Springer, 1999



Flum-Grohe: Parameterized Complexity Theory, Springer, 2006



Niedermeier: Invitation to Fixed-Parameter Algorithms, Oxford University Press, 2006.



Goals of the course

- ▶ Demonstrate techniques that were successfully used in the analysis of parameterized problems.
 - ▶ Determine quickly if a problem is FPT.
 - ▶ Design fast algorithms (improve the function $f(k)$).

Notes

This course and slides are based on
Dániel Marx's lectures on parameterized
complexity

<http://www.cs.bme.hu/~dmarx/>



What is missing but worth to discuss

▶ **Complexity:**

- ▶ W-hierarchy, reductions,
- ▶ Exponential Time Hypothesis and lower bounds for FPT algorithms
- ▶ ETH and parameterized complexity
- ▶ Polynomial Time Hierarchy and lower bounds on the sizes of kernels

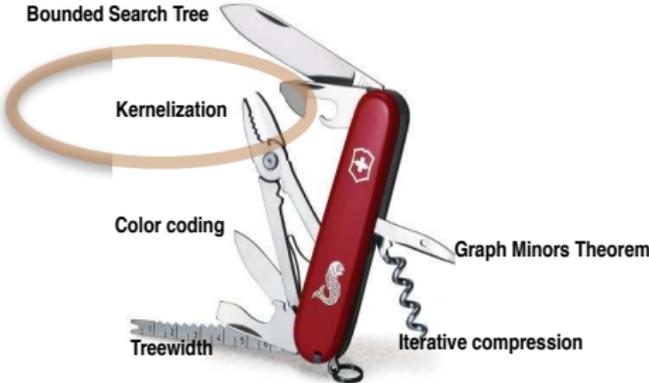
▶ **Algorithms:**

- ▶ Integer programming
- ▶ Meta theorems: First Order Logic, Finite Integer Index
- ▶ Multi-cut algorithms and Directed FVS

Notes

- ▶ **Warning:** The results presented for particular problems are not necessarily the best known results or the most useful approaches for these problems.
- ▶ Conventions:
 - ▶ Unless noted otherwise, k is the parameter.
 - ▶ O^* notation: $O^*(f(k))$ means $O(f(k) \cdot n^c)$ for some constant c .
 - ▶ Citations are mostly omitted (only for classical results).
 - ▶ We gloss over the difference between decision and search problems.

Kernelization



Lorentz center

Workshop on Kernelization

Workshop: 8 - 12 November 2010, Laiden, The Netherlands

Scientific Organizers:

- Hans L. Bodlaender, Utrecht
- Fedor V. Fomin, Bergen
- Saket Saurabh, Chennai

Invited Speakers:

- Holger Dell, Berlin
- Michael R. Fellows, Newcastle
- Jiong Guo, Saarbrücken
- Gregory Galvin, London
- Stefan Kratoch, Utrecht
- Daniel Lokshman, San Diego
- Daniel Marx, Berlin
- Demetris M. Thilikis, Athens

Lorentz center

www.lorentzcenter.nl

KERNELIZATION

Introduction and definition

Part I: Crown Decomposition

Part II: Sunflower Lemma

Kernelization

Definition: *Kernelization* is a polynomial-time transformation that maps an instance (I, k) to an instance (I', k') such that

- ▶ (I, k) is a yes-instance if and only if (I', k') is a yes-instance,
- ▶ $k' \leq k$, and
- ▶ $|I'| \leq f(k)$ for some function $f(k)$.

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Simple fact: If a problem has a kernelization algorithm, then it is FPT.

Proof: Solve the instance (I', k') by brute force.

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Simple fact: If a problem has a kernelization algorithm, then it is FPT.

Proof: Solve the instance (I', k') by brute force.

Converse: Every FPT problem has a kernelization algorithm.

Proof: Suppose there is an $f(k)n^c$ algorithm for the problem.

- ▶ If $f(k) \leq n$, then solve the instance in time $f(k)n^c \leq n^{c+1}$, and output a trivial yes- or no-instance.
- ▶ If $n < f(k)$, then we are done: a kernel of size $f(k)$ is obtained.

Kernelization for VERTEX COVER

General strategy: We devise a list of reduction rules, and show that if none of the rules can be applied and the size of the instance is still larger than $f(k)$, then the answer is trivial.

Reduction rules for VERTEX COVER instance (G, k) :

Rule 1: If v is an isolated vertex $\Rightarrow (G \setminus v, k)$

Rule 2: If $d(v) > k \Rightarrow (G \setminus v, k - 1)$

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Rule 2: If $d(v) > k \Rightarrow (G \setminus v, k - 1)$

If neither Rule 1 nor Rule 2 can be applied:

- ▶ If $|V(G)| > k(k + 1) \Rightarrow$ There is no solution (every vertex should be the neighbor of at least one vertex of the cover).
- ▶ Otherwise, $|V(G)| \leq k(k + 1)$ and we have a $k(k + 1)$ vertex kernel.

Kernelization for VERTEX COVER

Let us add a third rule:

Rule 1: If v is an isolated vertex $\Rightarrow (G \setminus v, k)$

Rule 2: If $d(v) > k \Rightarrow (G \setminus v, k - 1)$

Rule 3: If $d(v) = 1$, then we can assume that its neighbor u is in the

solution $\Rightarrow (G \setminus (u \cup v), k - 1)$.

If none of the rules can be applied, then every vertex has degree at least 2.

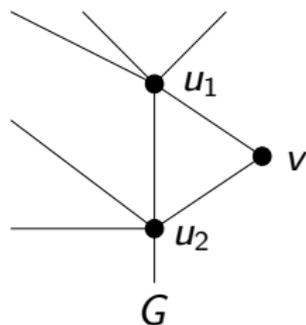
$$\Rightarrow |V(G)| \leq |E(G)|$$

- ▶ If $|E(G)| > k^2 \Rightarrow$ There is no solution (each vertex of the solution can cover at most k edges).
- ▶ Otherwise, $|V(G)| \leq |E(G)| \leq k^2$ and we have a k^2 vertex kernel.

Kernelization for VERTEX COVER

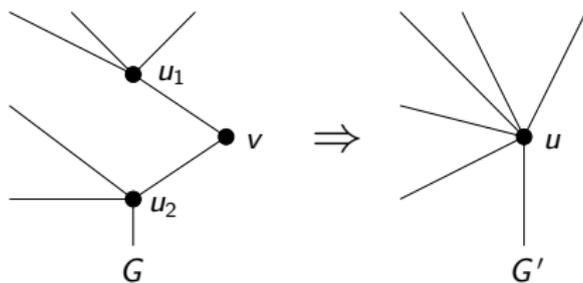
Let us add a fourth rule:

Rule 4a: If v has degree 2, and its neighbors u_1 and u_2 are adjacent, then we can assume that u_1, u_2 are in the solution $\Rightarrow (G \setminus \{u_1, u_2, v\}, k - 2)$.



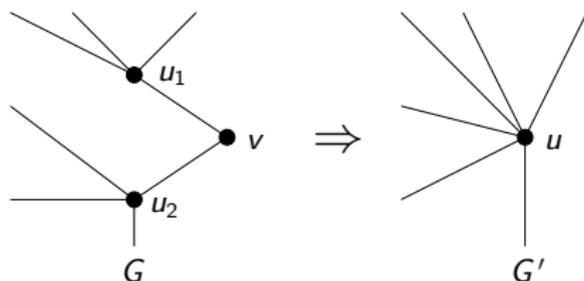
Kernelization for VERTEX COVER

Rule 4b: If v has degree 2, then G' is obtained by identifying the two neighbors of v and deleting $v \Rightarrow (G', k - 1)$.



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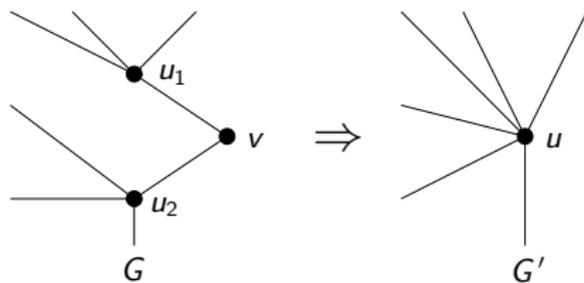


Correctness:

- ▶ Let S' be a vertex cover of size $k - 1$ for G' .
- ▶ If $u \in S' \Rightarrow (S' \setminus u) \cup \{u_1, u_2\}$ is a vertex cover of size k for G .
- ▶ If $u \notin S' \Rightarrow S' \cup v$ is a vertex cover of size k for G .

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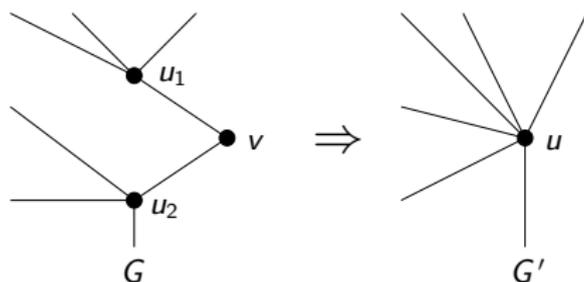


Correctness:

- ▶ Let S be a vertex cover of size k for G .
- ▶ If $u_1, u_2 \in S \Rightarrow (S \setminus \{u_1, u_2, v\}) \cup u$ is a vertex cover of size $k - 1$ for G' .
- ▶ If exactly one of u_1 and u_2 is in S , then $v \in S \Rightarrow (S \setminus \{u_1, u_2, v\}) \cup u$ is a vertex cover of size $k - 1$ for G' .
- ▶ If $u_1, u_2 \notin S$, then $v \in S \Rightarrow (S \setminus v)$ is a vertex cover of size $k - 1$ for G' .

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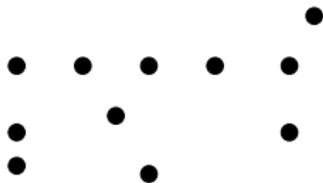


Kernel size:

- ▶ If $|E(G)| > k^2 \Rightarrow$ There is no solution (each vertex of the solution can cover at most k edges).
- ▶ Otherwise, $|V(G)| \leq 2|E(G)|/3 \leq \frac{2}{3}k^2$ and we have a $\frac{2}{3}k^2$ vertex kernel.

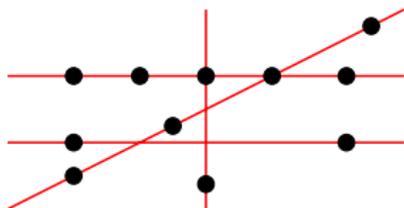
COVERING POINTS WITH LINES

Task: Given a set P of n points in the plane and an integer k , find k lines that cover all the points.



COVERING POINTS WITH LINES

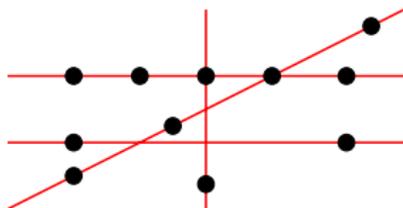
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Note: We can assume that every line of the solution covers at least 2 points, thus there are at most n^2 candidate lines.

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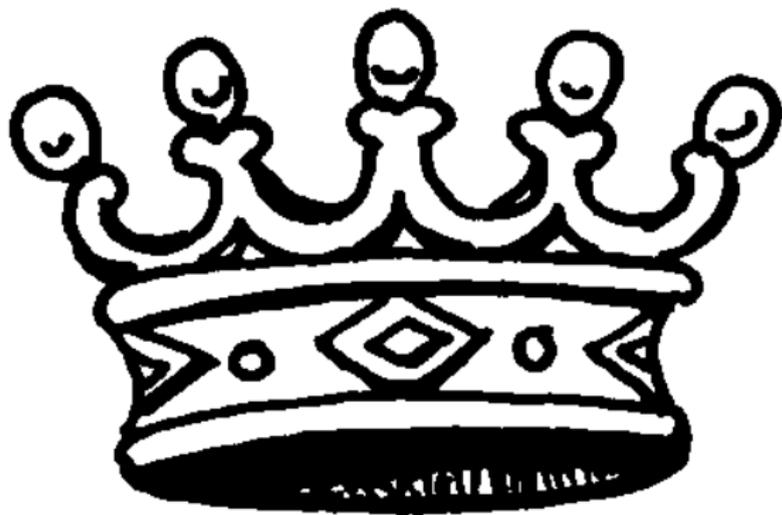
If a candidate line covers a set S of more than k points \Rightarrow $(P \setminus S, k - 1)$.

If this rule cannot be applied and there are still more than k^2 points, then there is no solution \Rightarrow Kernel with at most k^2 points.

Kernelization

- ▶ Kernelization can be thought of as a polynomial-time preprocessing before attacking the problem with whatever method we have. “It does no harm” to try kernelization.
- ▶ Some kernelizations use lots of simple reduction rules and require a complicated analysis to bound the kernel size. . .
- ▶ . . . while other kernelizations are based on surprising nice tricks (Next: Crown Reduction and the Sunflower Lemma).
- ▶ Possibility to prove lower bounds.

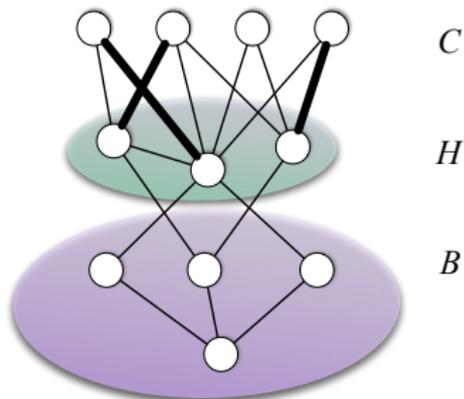
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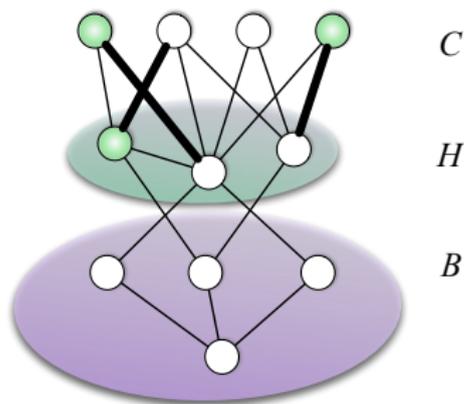
- ▶ C is an independent set,
- ▶ there is no edge between C and B ,
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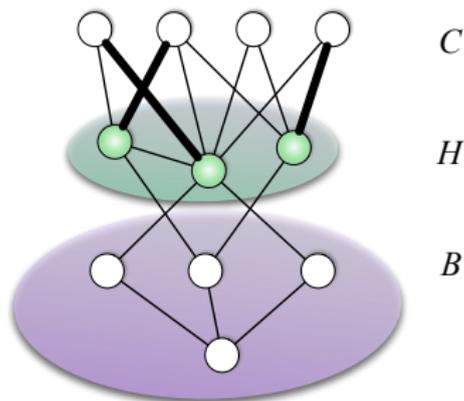
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$\Rightarrow (G \setminus (H \cup C), k - |H|)$.

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Key lemma:

Lemma: Given a graph G without isolated vertices and an integer k , in polynomial time we can either

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This gives a $3k$ vertex kernel for VERTEX COVER.

Proof

Lemma: Given a graph G without isolated vertices and an integer k , in polynomial time we can either

- ▶ find a matching of size $k + 1$,
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For the proof, we need the classical König's Theorem.

$\tau(G)$: size of the minimum vertex cover

$\nu(G)$: size of the maximum matching (independent set of edges)

Theorem: [König, 1931] If G is **bipartite**, then

$$\tau(G) = \nu(G)$$

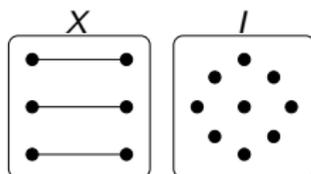
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Proof:

Find (greedily) a maximal matching; if its size is at least $k + 1$, then we are done. The rest of the graph is an independent set I .



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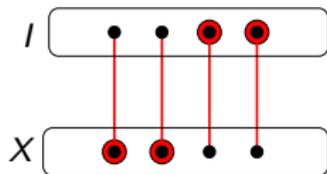
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Find a maximum matching/minimum vertex cover in the bipartite graph between X and I .



Proof

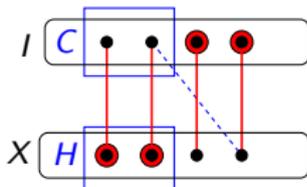
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Case 1: The minimum vertex cover contains at least one vertex of X

⇒ There is a crown decomposition.



Proof

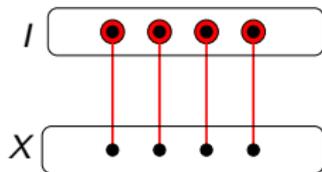
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Proof:

Case 1: The minimum vertex cover contains at least one vertex of X
 \Rightarrow There is a crown decomposition.

Case 2: The minimum vertex cover contains only vertices of $I \Rightarrow$ It contains every vertex of I
 \Rightarrow There are at most $2k + k$ vertices.



DUAL OF VERTEX COLORING

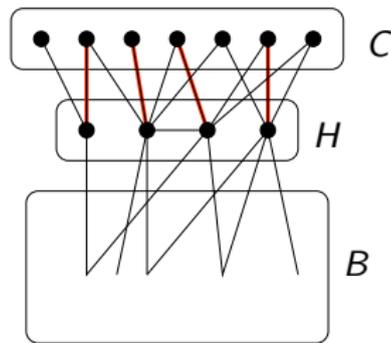
Parameteric dual of k -COLORING. Also known as SAVING k COLORS.

Task: Given a graph G and an integer k , find a vertex coloring with $|V(G)| - k$ colors.

Crown rule for Dual of Vertex Coloring:

Suppose there is a crown decomposition for the **complement graph** \overline{G} .

- ▶ C is a clique in G : each vertex needs a distinct color.
- ▶ Because of the matching, it is possible to color H using only these $|C|$ colors.
- ▶ These colors cannot be used for B .
- ▶ $(G \setminus (H \cup C), k - |H|)$



DUAL OF VERTEX COLORING

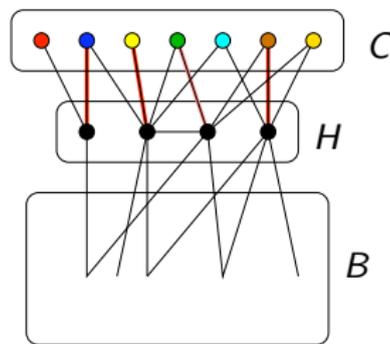
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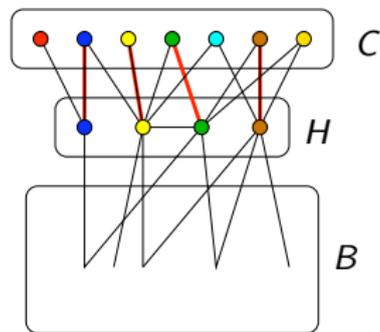
Parameteric dual of k -COLORING. Also known as SAVING k COLORS.

Task: Given a graph G and an integer k , find a vertex coloring with $|V(G)| - k$ colors.

Crown rule for Dual of Vertex Coloring:

Suppose there is a crown decomposition for the **complement graph** \overline{G} .

- ▶ C is a clique in G : each vertex needs a distinct color.
- ▶ Because of the matching, it is possible to color H using only these $|C|$ colors.
- ▶ These colors cannot be used for B .
- ▶ $(G \setminus (H \cup C), k - |H|)$



Crown Reduction for DUAL OF VERTEX COLORING

Use the key lemma for the complement \overline{G} of G :

Lemma: Given a graph G without isolated vertices and an integer k , in polynomial time we can either

- ▶ find a matching of size $k + 1$, \Rightarrow **YES: we can save k colors!**
- ▶ find a crown decomposition, \Rightarrow **Reduce!**
- ▶ or conclude that the graph has at most $3k$ vertices.
 \Rightarrow **$3k$ vertex kernel!**

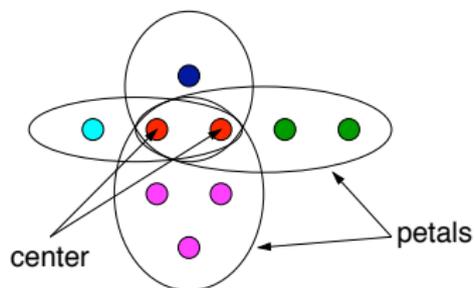
This gives a $3k$ vertex kernel for DUAL OF VERTEX COLORING.

Sunflower Lemma



Sunflower lemma

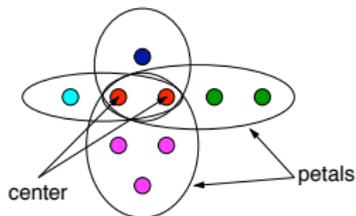
Definition: Sets S_1, S_2, \dots, S_k form a **sunflower** if the sets $S_i \setminus (S_1 \cap S_2 \cap \dots \cap S_k)$ are disjoint.



Lemma: [Erdős and Rado, 1960] If the size of a set system is greater than $(p-1)^d \cdot d!$ and it contains only sets of size at most d , then the system contains a sunflower with p petals. Furthermore, in this case such a sunflower can be found in polynomial time.

Sunflowers and d -HITTING SET

d -HITTING SET: Given a collection \mathcal{S} of sets of size at most d and an integer k , find a set S of k elements that intersects every set of \mathcal{S} .



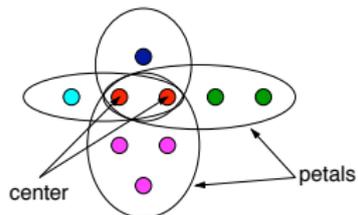
Reduction Rule: If $k + 1$ sets form a sunflower, then remove these sets from \mathcal{S} and add the center C to \mathcal{S} (S does not hit one of the petals, thus it has to hit the center).

Note: if the center is empty (the sets are disjoint), then there is no solution.

If the rule cannot be applied, then there are at most $O(k^d)$ sets.

Sunflowers and d -HITTING SET

d -HITTING SET: Given a collection \mathcal{S} of sets of size at most d and an integer k , find a set S of k elements that intersects every set of \mathcal{S} .



Reduction Rule (variant): Suppose more than $k + 1$ sets form a sunflower.

- ▶ If the sets are disjoint \Rightarrow No solution.
- ▶ Otherwise, keep only $k + 1$ of the sets.

If the rule cannot be applied, then there are at most $O(k^d)$ sets.

Branching and bounded search trees



SEARCH TREE

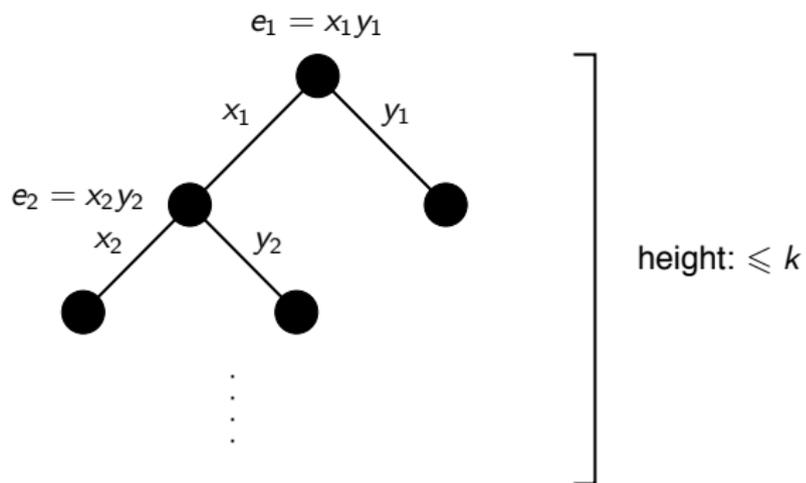
Part I: Branching Vectors

Part II: Forbidden Subgraphs

Part III: Hereditary Properties

Bounded search tree method

Recall how we solved MINIMUM VERTEX COVER:



Bounded search tree method

We solve the problem by one or more **branching rules**.

Each rule makes a “guess” in such a way that at least one guess will lead to a correct solution.

If we have branching rules such that

- ▶ each rule branches into at most $b(k)$ directions, and
- ▶ applying a rule decreases the parameter,

then the problem can be solved in time $O^*(b(k)^k)$.

In many cases, this crude upper bound can be improved by better analysis.

VERTEX COVER

Improved algorithm for VERTEX COVER.

- ▶ If every vertex has degree ≤ 2 , then the problem can be solved in polynomial time.
- ▶ **Branching rule:** If there is a vertex v with at least 3 neighbors, then
 - ▶ either v is in the solution,
 - ▶ or every neighbor of v is in the solution.

Crude upper bound: $O^*(2^k)$, since the branching rule decreases the parameter.

VERTEX COVER

Improved algorithm for VERTEX COVER.

- ▶ If every vertex has degree ≤ 2 , then the problem can be solved in polynomial time.
- ▶ **Branching rule:** If there is a vertex v with at least 3 neighbors, then
 - ▶ either v is in the solution, $\Rightarrow k$ decreases by 1
 - ▶ or every neighbor of v is in the solution. $\Rightarrow k$ decreases by at least 3

Crude upper bound: $O^*(2^k)$, since the branching rule decreases the parameter.

But it is somewhat better than that, since in the second branch, the parameter decreases by at least 3.

Better analysis

Let $t(k)$ be the maximum number of leaves of the search tree if the parameter is at most k (let $t(k) = 1$ for $k \leq 0$).

$$t(k) \leq t(k-1) + t(k-3)$$

There is a standard technique for bounding such functions asymptotically.

We prove by induction that $t(k) \leq c^k$ for some $c > 1$ as small as possible.

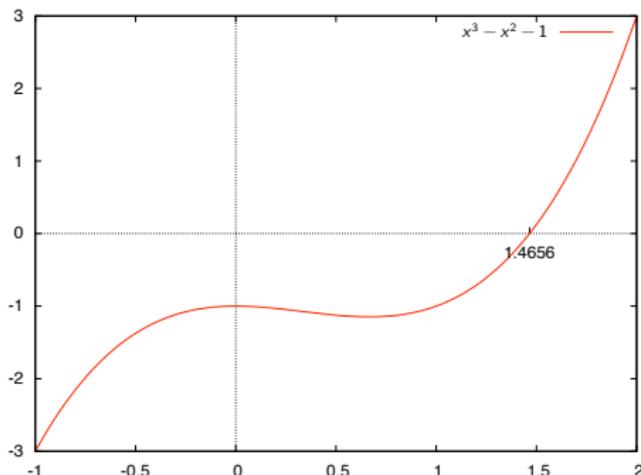
What values of c are good? We need:

$$\begin{aligned}c^k &\geq c^{k-1} + c^{k-3} \\c^3 - c^2 - 1 &\geq 0\end{aligned}$$

We need to find the roots of the **characteristic equation**
 $c^3 - c^2 - 1 = 0$.

Note: it is always true that such an equation has a unique positive root.

Better analysis



$c = 1.4656$ is a good value $\Rightarrow t(k) \leq 1.4656^k$

\Rightarrow We have a $O^*(1.4656^k)$ algorithm for VERTEX COVER.

Better analysis

We showed that if $t(k) \leq t(k-1) + t(k-3)$, then $t(k) \leq 1.4656^k$ holds.

Is this bound tight? There are two questions:

- ▶ Can the function $t(k)$ be that large?
Yes (ignoring rounding problems).
- ▶ Can the search tree of the VERTEX COVER algorithm be that large?
Difficult question, hard to answer in general.

Branching vectors

The **branching vector** of our $O^*(1.4656^k)$ VERTEX COVER algorithm was $(1, 3)$.

Example: Let us bound the search tree for the branching vector $(2, 5, 6, 6, 7, 7)$.

(2 out of the 6 branches decrease the parameter by 7, etc.).

The value $c > 1$ has to satisfy:

$$\begin{aligned}c^k &\geq c^{k-2} + c^{k-5} + 2c^{k-6} + 2c^{k-7} \\c^7 - c^5 - c^2 - 2c - 2 &\geq 0\end{aligned}$$

Unique positive root of the characteristic equation: $1.4483 \Rightarrow t(k) \leq 1.4483^k$.

It is hard to compare branching vectors intuitively.

Branching vectors

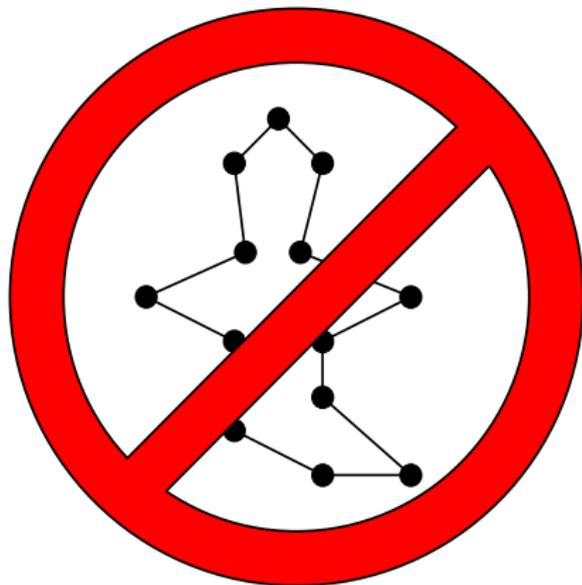
Example: The roots for branching vector (i, j) ($1 \leq i, j \leq 6$).

$$t(k) \leq t(k-i) + t(k-j) \Rightarrow c^k \geq c^{k-i} + c^{k-j}$$
$$c^j - c^{j-i} - 1 \geq 0$$

We compute the unique positive root.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2.0000	1.6181	1.4656	1.3803	1.3248	1.2852
2	1.6181	1.4143	1.3248	1.2721	1.2366	1.2107
3	1.4656	1.3248	1.2560	1.2208	1.1939	1.1740
4	1.3803	1.2721	1.2208	1.1893	1.1674	1.1510
5	1.3248	1.2366	1.1939	1.1674	1.1487	1.1348
6	1.2852	1.2107	1.1740	1.1510	1.1348	1.1225

Forbidden subgraphs



Forbidden subgraphs

General problem class: Given a graph G and an integer k , transform G with at most k modifications (add/remove vertices/edges) into a graph having property \mathcal{P} .

Example:

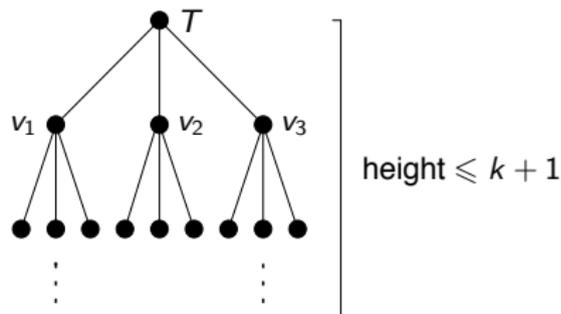
TRIANGLE DELETION: make the graph triangle-free by deleting at most k vertices.

Branching algorithm:

- ▶ If the graph is triangle-free, then we are done.
- ▶ **Branching rule:** If there is a triangle $v_1v_2v_3$, then at least one of v_1, v_2, v_3 has to be deleted \Rightarrow We branch into 3 directions.

TRIANGLE DELETION

Search tree:



The search tree has at most 3^k leaves and the work to be done is polynomial at each step $\Rightarrow O^*(3^k)$ time algorithm.

Note: If the answer is "NO", then the search tree has **exactly** 3^k leaves.

Hereditary properties

Definition: A graph property \mathcal{P} is **hereditary** if for every $G \in \mathcal{P}$ and induced subgraph G' of G , we have $G' \in \mathcal{P}$ as well.

Examples: triangle-free, bipartite, interval graph, planar

Observation: Every hereditary property \mathcal{P} can be characterized by a (finite or infinite) set \mathcal{F} of forbidden induced subgraphs:

$$G \in \mathcal{P} \iff \forall H \in \mathcal{F}, H \not\subseteq_{\text{ind}} G$$

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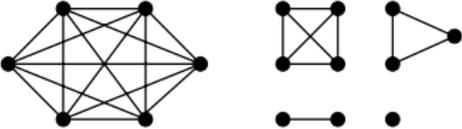
Theorem: If \mathcal{P} is hereditary and can be characterized by a **finite** set \mathcal{F} of forbidden induced subgraphs, then the graph modification problems corresponding to \mathcal{P} are FPT.

Proof:

- ▶ Suppose that every graph in \mathcal{F} has at most r vertices. Using brute force, we can find in time $O(n^r)$ a forbidden subgraph (if exists).
- ▶ If a forbidden subgraph exists, then we have to delete one of the at most r vertices or add/delete one of the at most $\binom{r}{2}$ edges
⇒ Branching factor is a constant c depending on \mathcal{F} .
- ▶ The search tree has at most c^k leaves and the work to be done at each node is $O(n^r)$.

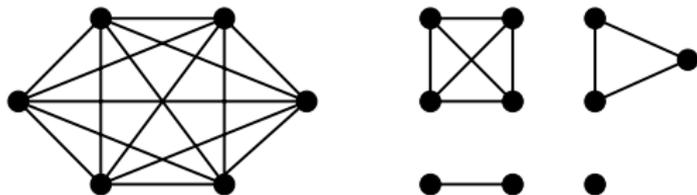
CLUSTER EDITING

Task: Given a graph G and an integer k , add/remove at most k edges such that every component is a clique in the resulting graph.



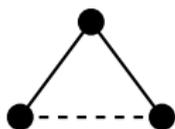
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Property \mathcal{P} : every component is a clique.

Forbidden induced subgraph:



$O^*(3^k)$ time algorithm.

CHORDAL COMPLETION

Definition: A graph is **chordal** if it does not contain an induced cycle of length greater than 3.

CHORDAL COMPLETION: Given a graph G and an integer k , add at most k edges to G to make it a chordal graph.

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 \Rightarrow Not a finite set!

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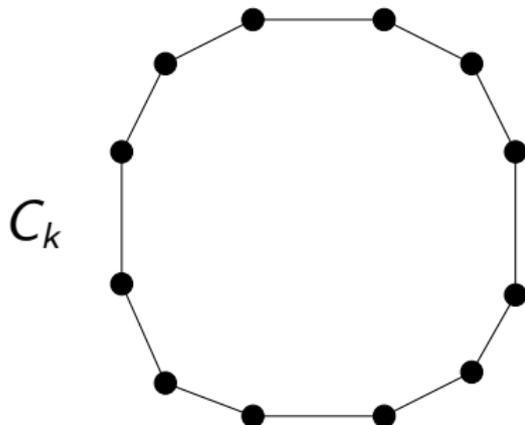
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Lemma: At least $k - 3$ edges are needed to make a k -cycle chordal.

Proof: By induction. $k = 3$ is trivial.



CHORDAL COMPLETION

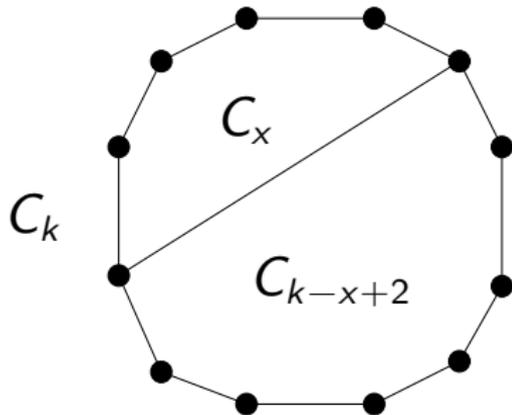
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C_x : $x - 3$ edges

C_{k-x+2} : $k - x - 1$ edges

C_k : $(x - 3) + (k - x - 1) + 1 = k - 3$ edges

CHORDAL COMPLETION

Algorithm:

- ▶ Find an induced cycle C of length at least 4 (can be done in polynomial time).
- ▶ If no such cycle exists \Rightarrow Done!
- ▶ If C has more than $k + 3$ vertices \Rightarrow No solution!
- ▶ Otherwise, one of the

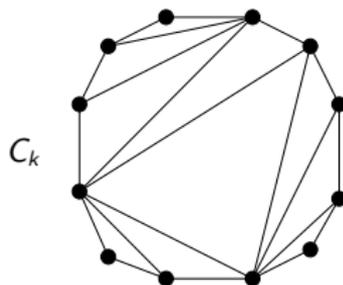
$$\binom{|C|}{2} - |C| \leq (k + 3)(k + 2)/2 - k = O(k^2)$$

missing edges has to be added \Rightarrow Branch!

Size of the search tree is $k^{O(k)}$.

CHORDAL COMPLETION – more efficiently

Definition: Triangulation of a cycle.



Lemma: Every chordal supergraph of a cycle C contains a triangulation of the cycle C .

Lemma: The number of ways a cycle of length k can be triangulated is exactly the $(k - 2)$ -nd Catalan number

$$C_{k-2} = \frac{1}{k-1} \binom{2(k-2)}{k-2} \leq 4^{k-3}.$$

CHORDAL COMPLETION – more efficiently

Algorithm:

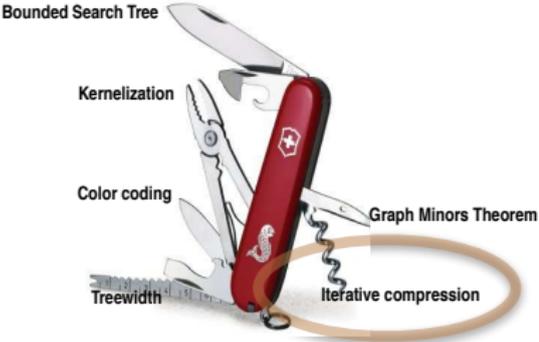
- ▶ Find an induced cycle C of length at least 4 (can be done in polynomial time).
- ▶ If no such cycle exists \Rightarrow Done!
- ▶ If C has more than $k + 3$ vertices \Rightarrow No solution!
- ▶ Otherwise, one of the $\leq 4^{|C|-3}$ triangulations has to be in the solution \Rightarrow Branch!

Claim: Search tree has at most $T_k = 4^k$ leaves.

Proof: By induction. Number of leaves is at most

$$T_k \leq 4^{|C|-3} \cdot T_{k-(|C|-3)} \leq 4^{|C|-3} \cdot 4^{k-(|C|-3)} = 4^k.$$

Iterative compression



Iterative compression

- ▶ A surprising small, but very powerful trick.
- ▶ Most useful for deletion problems: delete k things to achieve some property.
- ▶ Demonstration: ODD CYCLE TRANSVERSAL aka BIPARTITE DELETION aka GRAPH BIPARTIZATION: Given a graph G and an integer k , delete k vertices to make the graph bipartite.
- ▶ Forbidden induced subgraphs: odd cycles. There is no bound on the size of odd cycles.

BIPARTITE DELETION

Solution based on iterative compression:

► **Step 1:**

Solve the **annotated problem** for bipartite graphs:

*Given a **bipartite** graph G , two sets $B, W \subseteq V(G)$, and an integer k , find a set S of at most k vertices such that $G \setminus S$ has a 2-coloring where $B \setminus S$ is black and $W \setminus S$ is white.*

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► **Step 2:**

Solve the **compression problem** for general graphs:

*Given a graph G , an integer k , and **a set S' of $k + 1$ vertices such that $G \setminus S'$ is bipartite**, find a set S of k vertices such that $G \setminus S$ is bipartite.*

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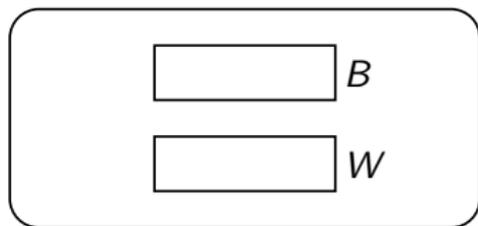
*Given a graph G , an integer k , and **a set S' of $k + 1$ vertices such that $G \setminus S'$ is bipartite**, find a set S of k vertices such that $G \setminus S$ is bipartite.*

► **Step 3:**

Apply the magic of iterative compression...

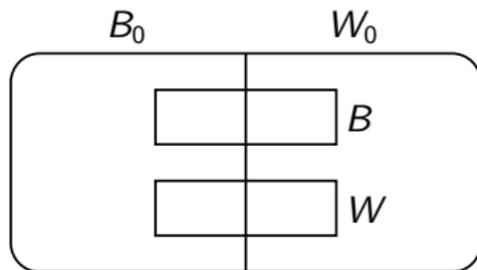
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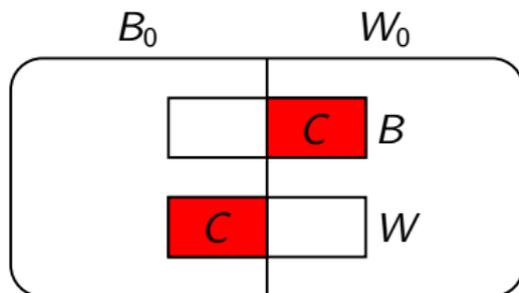
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Find an arbitrary 2-coloring (B_0, W_0) of G .

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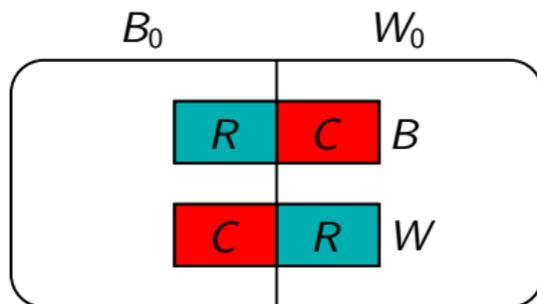
Find an arbitrary 2-coloring (B_0, W_0) of G .

$C := (B_0 \cap W) \cup (W_0 \cap B)$ should change color, while

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Given a **bipartite** graph G , two sets $B, W \subseteq V(G)$, and an integer k , find a set S of at most k vertices such that $G \setminus S$ has a 2-coloring where $B \setminus S$ is black and $W \setminus S$ is white.



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Lemma: $G \setminus S$ has the required 2-coloring if and only if S separates C and R , i.e., no component of $G \setminus S$ contains vertices from both $C \setminus S$ and $R \setminus S$.

Step 1: The annotated problem

Lemma: $G \setminus S$ has the required 2-coloring if and only if S separates C and R , i.e., no component of $G \setminus S$ contains vertices from both $C \setminus S$ and $R \setminus S$.

Proof:

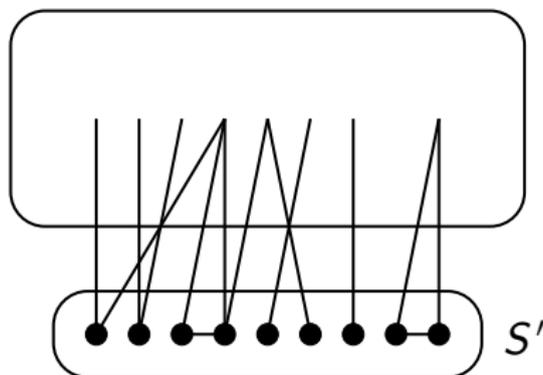
\Rightarrow In a 2-coloring of $G \setminus S$, each vertex either remained the same color or changed color. Adjacent vertices do the same, thus every component either changed or remained.

\Leftarrow Flip the coloring of those components of $G \setminus S$ that contain vertices from $C \setminus S$. No vertex of R is flipped.

Algorithm: Using max-flow min-cut techniques, we can check if there is a set S that separates C and R . It can be done in time $O(k|E(G)|)$ using k iterations of the Ford-Fulkerson algorithm.

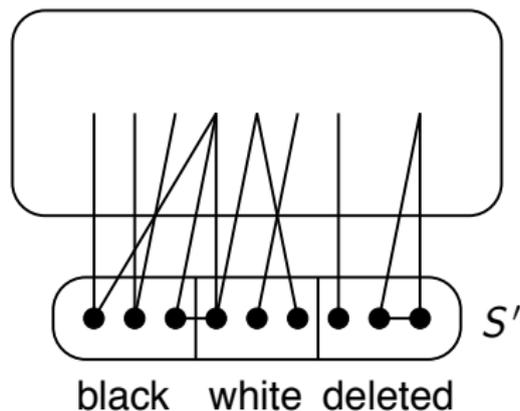
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Given a graph G , an integer k , and a set S' of $k + 1$ vertices such that $G \setminus S'$ is bipartite, find a set S of k vertices such that $G \setminus S$ is bipartite.



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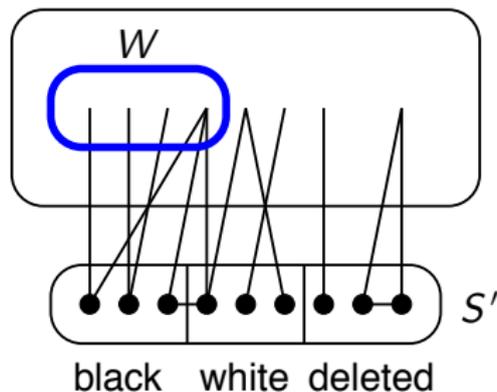


Branch into 3^{k+1} cases: each vertex of S' is either black, white, or deleted.

Trivial check: no edge between two black or two white vertices.

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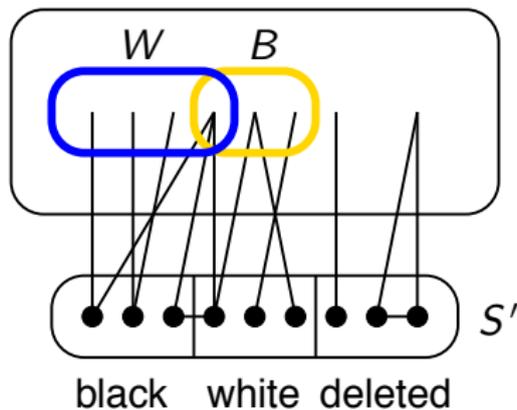
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Neighbors of the black vertices in S' should be white and the neighbors of the white vertices in S' should be black.

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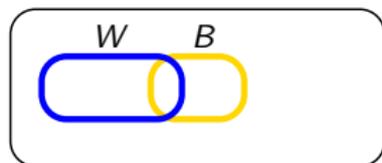
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The vertices of S' can be disregarded. Thus we need to solve the annotated problem on the bipartite graph $G \setminus S'$.

Running time: $O(3^k \cdot k|E(G)|)$ time.

Step 3: Iterative compression

How do we get a solution of size $k + 1$?

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We get it for free!

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We get it for free!

Let $V(G) = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ and let G_i be the graph induced by $\{v_1, \dots, v_i\}$.

For every i , we find a set S_i of size k such that $G_i \setminus S_i$ is bipartite.

- ▶ For G_k , the set $S_k = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ is a trivial solution.
- ▶ If S_{i-1} is known, then $S_{i-1} \cup \{v_i\}$ is a set of size $k + 1$ whose deletion makes G_i bipartite \Rightarrow We can use the compression algorithm to find a suitable S_i in time $O(3^k \cdot k|E(G_i)|)$.

Step 3: Iterative Compression

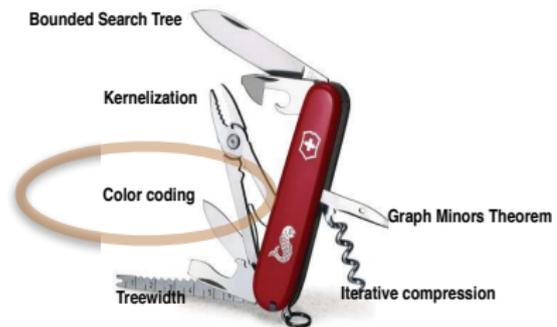
Bipartite-Deletion(G, k)

1. $S_k = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$
2. for $i := k + 1$ to n
3. Invariant: $G_{i-1} \setminus S_{i-1}$ is bipartite.
4. Call Compression($G_i, S_{i-1} \cup \{v_i\}$)
5. If the answer is "NO" \Rightarrow return "NO"
6. If the answer is a set $X \Rightarrow S_i := X$
7. Return the set S_n

Running time: the compression algorithm is called n times and everything else can be done in linear time

$\Rightarrow O(3^k \cdot k|V(G)| \cdot |E(G)|)$ time algorithm.

Color coding



Color coding

- ▶ Works best when we need to ensure that a small number of “things” are disjoint.
- ▶ We demonstrate it on the problem of finding an s - t path of length **exactly** k .
- ▶ Randomized algorithm, but can be derandomized using a standard technique.
- ▶ Very robust technique, we can use it as an “opening step” when investigating a new problem.

k -PATH

Task: Given a graph G , an integer k , two vertices s, t , find a **simple** s - t path with exactly k internal vertices.

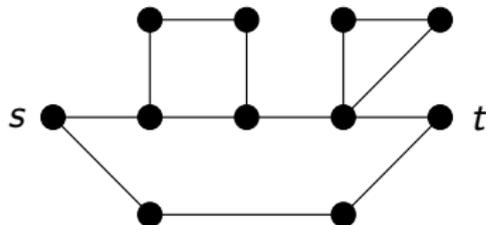
Note: Finding such a **walk** can be done easily in polynomial time.

Note: The problem is clearly NP-hard, as it contains the s - t HAMILTONIAN PATH problem.

The k -PATH algorithm can be used to check if there is a cycle of length exactly k in the graph.

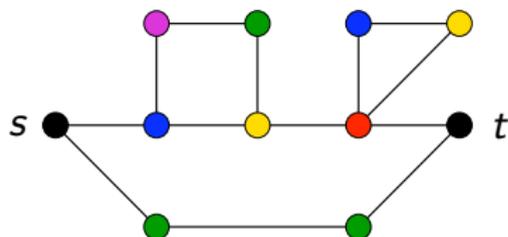
k -PATH

- ▶ Assign colors from $[k]$ to vertices $V(G) \setminus \{s, t\}$ uniformly and independently at random.



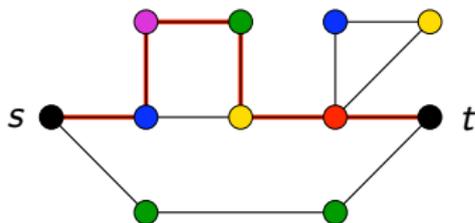
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k -PATH

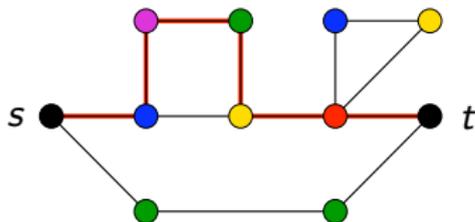
- ▶ Assign colors from $[k]$ to vertices $V(G) \setminus \{s, t\}$ uniformly and independently at random.



- ▶ Check if there is a **colorful** s - t path: a path where each color appears exactly once on the internal vertices; output "YES" or "NO".

k -PATH

- ▶ Assign colors from $[k]$ to vertices $V(G) \setminus \{s, t\}$ uniformly and independently at random.



- ▶ Check if there is a **colorful** s - t path: a path where each color appears exactly once on the internal vertices; output “YES” or “NO”.
 - ▶ If there is no s - t k -path: no such colorful path exists \Rightarrow “NO”.
 - ▶ If there is an s - t k -path: the probability that such a path is colorful is

$$\frac{k!}{k^k} > \frac{\left(\frac{k}{e}\right)^k}{k^k} = e^{-k},$$

thus the algorithm outputs “YES” with at least that probability.

Error probability

- ▶ **Useful fact:** If the probability of success is at least p , then the probability that the algorithm **does not** say “YES” after $1/p$ repetitions is at most

$$(1 - p)^{1/p} < (e^{-p})^{1/p} = 1/e \approx 0.38$$

- ▶ Thus if $p > e^{-k}$, then error probability is at most $1/e$ after e^k repetitions.
- ▶ Repeating the whole algorithm a constant number of times can make the error probability an arbitrary small constant.
- ▶ For example, by trying $100 \cdot e^k$ random colorings, the probability of a wrong answer is at most $1/e^{100}$.

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It remains to see how a colorful s - t path can be found.

Method 1: Trying all permutations.

Method 2: Dynamic programming.

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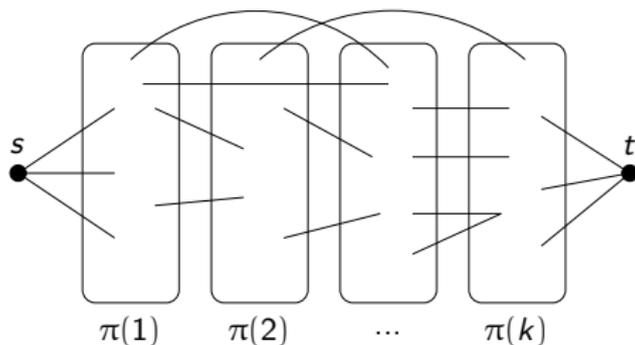
The colors encountered on a colorful s - t path form a permutation π of $\{1, 2, \dots, k\}$:



We try all possible $k!$ permutations. For a fixed π , it is easy to check if there is a path with this order of colors.

Method 1: Trying all permutations

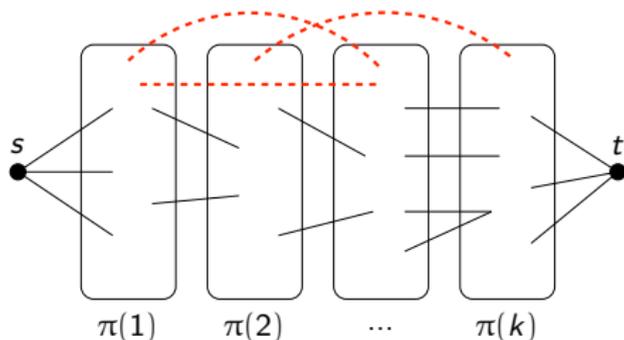
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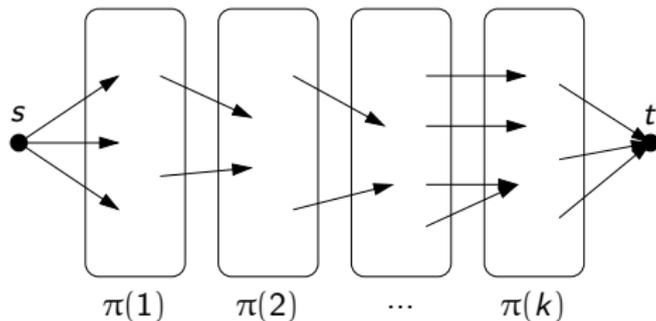
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- ▶ The remaining edges are directed.

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- ▶ Edges connecting nonadjacent color classes are removed.
- ▶ The remaining edges are directed.
- ▶ All we need to check is if there is a directed $s-t$ path.
- ▶ Running time is $O(k! \cdot |E(G)|)$.

Method 2: Dynamic Programming

We introduce $2^k \cdot |V(G)|$ Boolean variables:

$x(v, C) = \text{TRUE}$ for some $v \in V(G)$ and $C \subseteq [k]$



There is an s - v path where each color in C appears exactly once and no other color appears.

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If we know every $x(v, C)$ with $|C| = i$, then we can determine every $x(v, C)$ with $|C| = i + 1 \Rightarrow$ All the values can be determined in time $O(2^k \cdot |E(G)|)$.

There is a colorful s - t path $\iff x(v, [k]) = \text{TRUE}$ for some neighbor of t .

Derandomization

Using Method 2, we obtain a $O^*((2e)^k)$ time algorithm with constant error probability. How to make it deterministic?

Definition: A family \mathcal{H} of functions $[n] \rightarrow [k]$ is a **k -perfect** family of hash functions if for every $S \subseteq [n]$ with $|S| = k$, there is a $h \in \mathcal{H}$ such that $h(x) \neq h(y)$ for any $x, y \in S$, $x \neq y$.

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Instead of trying $O(e^k)$ random colorings, we go through a k -perfect family \mathcal{H} of functions $V(G) \rightarrow [k]$. If there is a solution \Rightarrow The internal vertices S are colorful for at least one $h \in \mathcal{H} \Rightarrow$ Algorithm outputs "YES".

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Theorem: There is a k -perfect family of functions $[n] \rightarrow [k]$ having size $2^{O(k)} \log n$ (and can be constructed in time polynomial in the size of the family).

\Rightarrow There is a **deterministic** $2^{O(k)} \cdot n^{O(1)}$ time algorithm for the k -PATH problem.

k -DISJOINT TRIANGLES

Task: Given a graph G and an integer k , find k vertex disjoint triangles.

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Step 1: Choose a random coloring $V(G) \rightarrow [3k]$.

Step 2: Check if there is a colorful solution, where the $3k$ vertices of the k triangles use distinct colors.

- ▶ **Method 1:** Try every permutation π of $[3k]$ and check if there are triangles with colors $(\pi(1), \pi(2), \pi(3))$, $(\pi(4), \pi(5), \pi(6))$, \dots
- ▶ **Method 2:** Dynamic programming. For $C \subseteq [3k]$ and $|C| = 3i$, let $x(C) = \text{TRUE}$ if and only if there are $|C|/3$ disjoint triangles using exactly the colors in C .

$$x(C) = \bigvee_{\{c_1, c_2, c_3\} \subseteq C} (x(C \setminus \{c_1, c_2, c_3\}) \wedge \exists \Delta \text{ with colors } c_1, c_2, c_3)$$

k -DISJOINT TRIANGLES

Step 3: Colorful solution exists with probability at least e^{-3k} , which is a lower bound on the probability of a correct answer.

Running time: constant error probability after e^{3k} repetitions \Rightarrow running time is $O^*((2e)^{3k})$ (using Method 2).

Derandomization: $3k$ -perfect family of functions instead of random coloring. Running time is $2^{O(k)} \cdot n^{O(1)}$.

Color coding

We have seen that color coding can be used to find paths, cycles of length k , or a set of k disjoint triangles.

What other structures can be found efficiently with this technique?

The key is treewidth:

Theorem: Given two graph H, G , it can be decided if H is a subgraph of G in time $2^{O(|V(H)|)} \cdot |V(G)|^{O(w)}$, where w is the treewidth of G .

Thus if H belongs to a class of graphs with bounded treewidth, then the subgraph problem is FPT.