

# Automated Search Tree Generation (2004; Gramm, Guo, Hüffner, Niedermeier)

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**INDEX TERMS:** NP-hard problems, graph modification, search tree algorithms, automated development and analysis of algorithms.

**SYNONYMS:** Automated proofs of upper bounds on the running time of splitting algorithms

## 1 PROBLEM DEFINITION

This problem is concerned with the automated development and analysis of search tree algorithms. Search tree algorithms are a popular way to find optimal solutions to NP-complete problems.<sup>1</sup> The idea is to recursively solve several smaller instances in such a way that at least one branch is a yes-instance iff the original instance is. Typically, this is done by trying all possibilities to contribute to a solution certificate for a small part of the input, yielding a small local modification of the instance in each branch.

For example, consider the NP-complete CLUSTER EDITING problem: can a graph be transformed by adding or deleting up to  $k$  edges into a *cluster graph*, that is, a disjoint union of cliques? To give a search tree algorithm for CLUSTER EDITING, one can use the fact that cluster graphs are exactly the graphs that do not contain a  $P_3$  (a path of 3 vertices) as induced subgraph. One can thus solve CLUSTER EDITING by finding a  $P_3$  and splitting into 3 branches: delete the first edge, delete the second edge, or add the missing edge. By the characterization, whenever no  $P_3$  is found, one already has a cluster graph. The original instance has a solution with  $k$  modifications iff at least one of the branches has a solution with  $k - 1$  modifications.

**Analysis** For NP-complete problems, the running time of a search tree algorithm depends up to a polynomial factor only on the size of the search tree, which depends on the number of branches and the reduction in size in each branch. If the algorithm solves a problem of size  $s$  and calls itself recursively for problems of sizes  $s - d_1, \dots, s - d_i$ , then  $(d_1, \dots, d_i)$  is called the *branching vector* of this recursion. It is known that the size of the search tree is then  $O(\alpha^s)$ , where the *branching number*  $\alpha$  is the only positive real root of the *characteristic polynomial*

$$z^d - z^{d-d_1} - \dots - z^{d-d_i}, \tag{1}$$

where  $d = \max\{d_1, \dots, d_i\}$ . For the simple CLUSTER EDITING search tree algorithm and the size measure  $k$ , the branching vector is  $(1, 1, 1)$  and the branching number is 3, meaning that the running time is up to a polynomial factor  $O(3^k)$ .

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<sup>1</sup>For ease of presentation, only decision problems are considered; adaption to optimization problems is straightforward.

**Case Distinction** Often, one can obtain better running times by distinguishing a number of cases of instances, and giving a specialized branching for each case. The overall running time is then determined by the branching number of the worst case. Several publications obtain such algorithms by hand (e. g., a search tree of size  $O(2.27^k)$  for CLUSTER EDITING [4]); the topic of this work is how to automate this. That is, the problem is the following:

**Problem 1** (Fast Search Tree Algorithm).

INPUT: An NP-hard problem  $\mathcal{P}$  and a size measure  $s(I)$  of an instance  $I$  of  $\mathcal{P}$  where instances  $I$  with  $s(I) = 0$  can be solved in polynomial time.

OUTPUT: A partition of the instance set of  $\mathcal{P}$  into cases, and for each case a branching such that the maximum branching number over all branchings is as small as possible.

Note that this problem definition is somewhat vague; in particular, to be useful, the case an instance belongs to must be recognizable quickly. It is also not clear whether an optimal search tree algorithm exists; conceivably, the branching number can be continuously reduced by increasingly complicated case distinctions.

## 2 KEY RESULTS

Gramm et al. [3] describe a method to obtain fast search tree algorithms for CLUSTER EDITING and related problems, where the size measure is the number of editing operations  $k$ . To get a case distinction, simply a number of subgraphs is enumerated such that each instance is known to contain at least one of these subgraphs. It is next described how to obtain a branching for a particular case.

A standard way of systematically obtaining specialized branchings for instance cases is to use a combination of a *basic branching* and *data reduction rules*. A basic branching is a typically very simple branching; data reduction rules replace in polynomial time an instance with a smaller, solution-equivalent instance. Applying this to CLUSTER EDITING first requires a small modification of the problem: one considers an *annotated* version, where an edge can be marked as *permanent* and a non-edge can be marked as *forbidden*. Any such annotated vertex pair cannot be edited anymore. For a pair of vertices, the basic branching then branches into two cases: permanent or forbidden (one of these options will require an editing operation). The reduction rules are: if two permanent edges are adjacent, the third edge of the triangle they induce must also be permanent; and if a permanent and a forbidden edge are adjacent, the third edge of the triangle they induce must be forbidden.

Figure 1 shows an example branching derived in this way.

Using a refined method of searching the space of all possible cases to distinguish and all branchings for a case, Gramm et al. [3] derive a number of search tree algorithms for graph modification problems.

## 3 APPLICATIONS

Gramm et al. [3] apply automated generation of search tree algorithms to several graph modification problems (see also Table 1). Further, Hüffner [5] demonstrates an application to DOMINATING SET on graphs with maximum degree 4, where the size measure is the size of the dominating set.

Fedin and Kulikov [2] examine variants of SAT; however, their framework is limited in that it only proves upper bounds for a fixed algorithm instead of generating algorithms.

Skjernaa [6] also presents results on variants of SAT. His framework does not require user-provided data reduction rules, but determines reductions automatically.

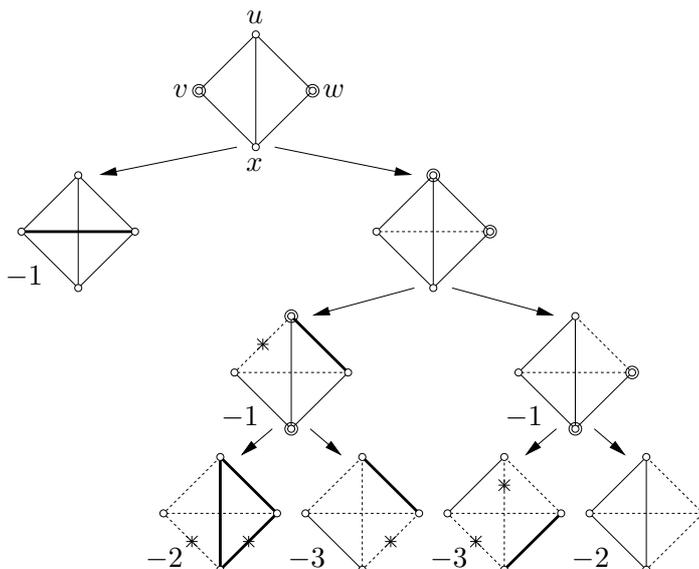


Figure 1: Branching for a CLUSTER EDITING case using only basic branching on vertex pairs (*double circles*), and applications of the reduction rules (*asterisks*). Permanent edges are marked *bold*, forbidden edges *dashed*. The *numbers* next to the subgraphs state the change of the problem size  $k$ . The branching vector is  $(1, 2, 3, 3, 2)$ , corresponding to a search tree size of  $O(2.27^k)$ .

Problem	Trivial	Known	New
CLUSTER EDITING	3	2.27	1.92 [3]
CLUSTER DELETION	2	1.77	1.53 [3]
CLUSTER VERTEX DELETION	3	2.27	2.26 [3]
BOUNDED DEGREE DOMINATING SET	4		3.71 [5]
X3SAT, size measure $m$	3	1.1939	1.1586 [6]
$(n, 3)$ -MAXSAT, size measure $m$	2	1.341	1.2366 [2]
$(n, 3)$ -MAXSAT, size measure $l$	2	1.1058	1.0983 [2]

Table 1: Summary of search tree sizes where automation gave improvements. “Known” is the size of the best previously published “hand-made” search tree. For the satisfiability problems,  $m$  is the number of clauses and  $l$  is the length of the formula.

## 4 OPEN PROBLEMS

The analysis of search tree algorithms can be much improved by describing the “size” of an instance by more than one variable, resulting in multivariate recurrences [1]. It is open to introduce this technique into an automation framework.

It has frequently been reported that better running time bounds through a large number of cases to distinguish do not necessarily lead to a speedup, but in fact can slow a program down. A careful investigation of the tradeoffs involved and a corresponding adaption of the automation frameworks is an open task.

## 5 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Gramm et al. [3] and Hüffner [5] report search tree sizes for several NP-complete problems. Further, Fedin and Kulikov [2] and Skjærnaa [6] report on variants of satisfiability. Table 1 summarizes the results.

## 6 CROSS REFERENCES

Vertex Cover Search Trees (2001; Chen, Kanj, Jia)

## 7 RECOMMENDED READING

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