Advanced Algorithms

I. Course Intro and Sorting Networks

Thomas Sauerwald



Easter 2017



Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

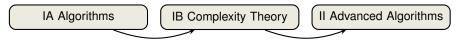
Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

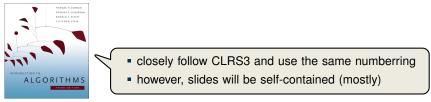
Counting Networks



(Tentative) List of Topics



- I. Sorting Networks (Sorting, Counting)
- II. Matrix Multiplication (and Parallel Algorithms)
- III. Linear Programming
- IV. Approximation Algorithms: Covering Problems
- V. Approximation Algorithms via Exact Algorithms
- VI. Approximation Algorithms: Travelling Salesman Problem
- VII. Approximation Algorithms: Randomisation and Rounding





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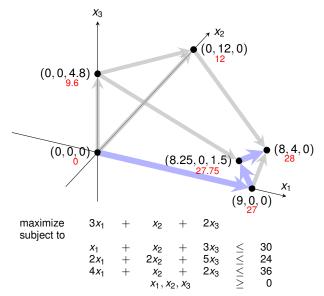
Introduction to Sorting Networks

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Linear Programming and Simplex





SOLUTION OF A LARGE-SCALE TRAVELING-SALESMAN PROBLEM*

G. DANTZIG, R. FULKERSON, AND S. JOHNSON

The Rand Corporation, Santa Monica, California (Received August 9, 1954)

It is shown that a certain tour of 49 cities, one in each of the 48 states and Washington, D. C., has the shortest road distance.

THE TRAVELING-SALESMAN PROBLEM might be described as follows: Find the shortest route (tour) for a salesman starting from a given city, visiting each of a specified group of cities, and then returning to the original point of departure. More generally, given an n by n symmetric matrix $D = (d_{IJ})$, where d_{IJ} represents the 'distance' from I to J, arrange the points in a cyclic order in such a way that the sum of the d_{II} between consecutive points is minimal. Since there are only a finite number of possibilities (at most $\frac{1}{2}(n-1)!$) to consider, the problem is to devise a method of picking out the optimal arrangement which is reasonably efficient for fairly large values of n. Although algorithms have been devised for problems of similar nature, e.g., the optimal assignment problem,^{3,7,8} little is known about the traveling-salesman problem. We do not claim that this note alters the situation very much; what we shall do is outline a way of approaching the problem that sometimes, at least, enables one to find an optimal path and prove it so. In particular, it will be shown that a certain arrangement of 49 cities, one in each of the 48 states and Washington, D. C., is best, the d_{II} used representing road distances as taken from an atlas.



1. Manchester, N. H. 2. Montpelier, Vt. 3. Detroit, Mich. 4. Cleveland, Ohio 5. Charleston, W. Va. 6. Louisville, Ky. 7. Indianapolis, Ind. 8. Chicago, Ill. 9. Milwaukee, Wis. 10. Minneapolis, Minn. 11. Pierre, S. D. 12. Bismarck, N. D. 13. Helena, Mont. 14. Seattle, Wash. 15. Portland, Ore. 16. Boise, Idaho 17. Salt Lake City, Utah

18. Carson City, Nev. 19. Los Angeles, Calif. 20. Phoenix, Ariz. Santa Fe, N. M. 22. Denver, Colo. 23. Chevenne, Wyo. 24. Omaha, Neb. 25. Des Moines, Iowa 26. Kansas Citv. Mo. 27. Topeka, Kans. 28. Oklahoma City, Okla. 29. Dallas, Tex. 30. Little Rock, Ark. 31. Memphis, Tenn. 32. Jackson, Miss. 33. New Orleans, La.

34. Birmingham, Ala. 35. Atlanta, Ga. 36. Jacksonville, Fla. 37. Columbia, S. C. 38. Raleigh, N. C. 39. Richmond, Va. 40. Washington, D. C. 41. Boston, Mass. 42. Portland, Me. A. Baltimore, Md. B. Wilmington, Del. C. Philadelphia, Penn. D. Newark, N. J. E. New York, N. Y. F. Hartford, Conn. G. Providence, R. I.



TABLE I 3 39 45 ROAD DISTANCES BETWEEN CITIES IN ADJUSTED UNITS 37 47 The figures in the table are mileages between the two specified numbered cities, less 11, 50 49 21 15 divided by 17, and rounded to the nearest integer. 61 62 21 58 60 16 17 18 59 60 15 20 26 17 10 62 66 20 25 31 22 15 81 81 40 44 50 41 35 24 20 11 103 107 62 67 72 63 12 108 117 66 71 77 68 61 51 46 13 14, 149 104 108 114 106 99 88 84 63 14 181 185 140 144 150 142 135 124 120 99 85 -76 15 187 191 146 150 156 142 137 130 125 105 90 81 41 10 16 161 170 120 124 130 115 110 104 105 90 142 146 101 104 111 97 91 85 86 ζ1 18 174 178 133 138 143 129 123 117 118 107 35 26 48 43 19 185 186 142 143 140 130 126 124 128 118 101 50 71 93 82 62 42 45 22 20 164 165 120 123 124 106 106 105 110 104 56 64 65 90 87 137 139 94 96 94 80 117 122 77 80 83 68 61 50 59 48 34 42 28 36 23 114 118 73 78 84 69 63 57 34 28 29 22 23 35 69 105 102 **x**6 88 84 89 48 53 64 96 107 40 37 77 80 36 40 46 34 27 19 21 14 29 40 77 114 111 84 30 28 29 32 47 78 116 112 84 39 12 11 87 89 44 46 45 77 115 110 83 63 97 59 85 119 115 88 66 98 34 45 9ĭ 105 106 62 63 64 47 49 54 48 46 56 61 57 59 62 42 28 33 21 20 59 71 96 130 126 98 75 98 85 111 112 69 71 66 62 39 42 29 ξī 38 43 49 60 71 103 141 136 109 90 115 99 24 28 20 20 QI -46 22 26 32 36 51 63 75 106 142 140 112 93 126 108 88 60 26 27 83 85 43 38 $\begin{array}{ccc}
 78 & 52 \\
 82 & 62
 \end{array}$ 33 50 34 39 44 49 56 42 49 56 60 76 87 120 155 150 123 100 123 109 86 62 52 49 86 97 126 160 155 128 104 128 113 90 67 76 40 29 25 23 35 78 89 121 159 155 127 108 136 124 101 75 79 81 54 50 42 46 67 35 23 39 44 43 39 23 14 14 21 25 32 41 46 64 83 90 130 164 160 133 114 146 134 111 85 84 86 - 69 53 49 32 24 24 30 -36 22 25 18 37 38 42 44 51 60 66 83 102 110 147 185 179 155 133 159 146 122 98 105 107 79 61 60 52 71 93 98 136 172 172 148 126 158 147 124 121 97 99 71 65 62 67 62 37 43 23 41 25 30 36 47 <u>4</u>6 20 34 38 48 53 73 96 99 137 176 178 151 131 163 159 135 108 102 103 73 64 69 75 24 29 45 46 36 46 51 84 78 58 56 62 41 38 21 93 97 134 171 176 151 129 161 163 139 118 102 101 26 18 40 45 65 87 91 117 166 171 144 125 157 156 139 113 95 97 67 60 62 67 79 82 62 53 59 66 45 38 45 27 15 -6 -33 30 21 18 58 63 83 105 109 147 186 188 164 144 176 182 161 134 119 116 86 78 84 88 101 108 88 80 86 92 71 64 71 54 41 32 25 II 61 61 66 84 111 113 150 186 192 166 147 180 188 167 140 124 119 90 87 90 94 107 114 77 86 98 80 74 77 60 - 28 \$ 12 55 41 53 64 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41



The (Unique) Optimal Tour (699 Units \approx 12,345 miles)

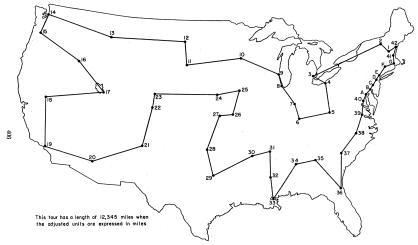


FIG. 16. The optimal tour of 49 cities.



Outline of this Course

Some Highlights

Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

Counting Networks



(Serial) Sorting Algorithms -

- we already know several (comparison-based) sorting algorithms: Insertion sort, Bubble sort, Merge sort, Quick sort, Heap sort
- execute one operation at a time
- can handle arbitrarily large inputs
- sequence of comparisons is not set in advance

Sorting Networks

- only perform comparisons
- can only handle inputs of a fixed size
- sequence of comparisons is set in advance
- Comparisons can be performed in parallel

Allows to sort *n* numbers in sublinear time!

Simple concept, but surprisingly deep and complex theory!



Comparison Networks

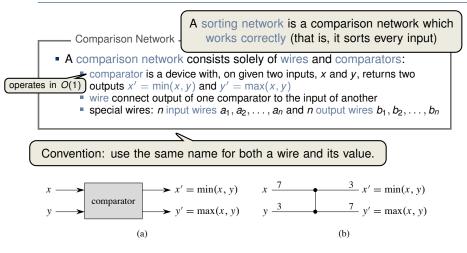
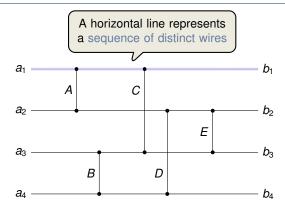
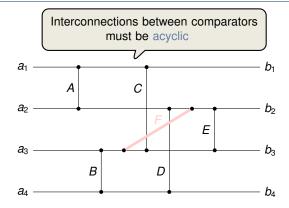


Figure 27.1 (a) A comparator with inputs x and y and outputs x' and y'. (b) The same comparator, drawn as a single vertical line. Inputs x = 7, y = 3 and outputs x' = 3, y' = 7 are shown.

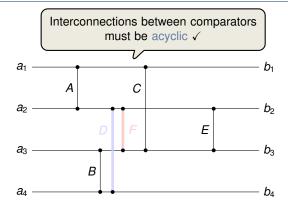




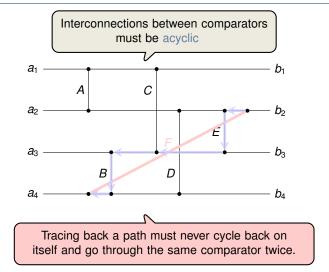




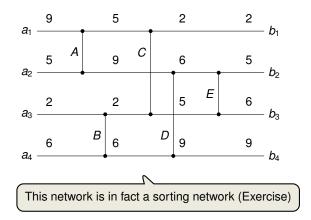




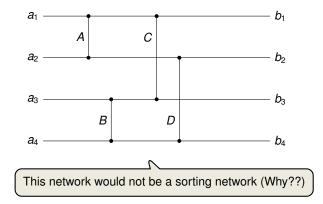




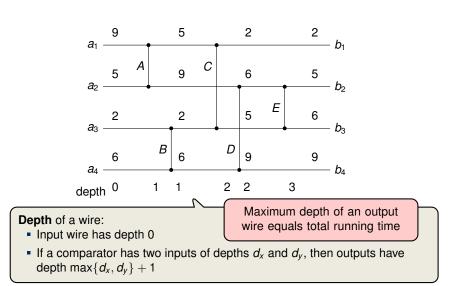












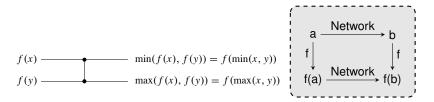


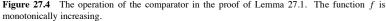
Zero-One Principle

Zero-One Principle: A sorting networks works correctly on arbitrary inputs if it works correctly on binary inputs.

Lemma 27.1

If a comparison network transforms the input $a = \langle a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \rangle$ into the output $b = \langle b_1, b_2, ..., b_n \rangle$, then for any monotonically increasing function *f*, the network transforms $f(a) = \langle f(a_1), f(a_2), ..., f(a_n) \rangle$ into $f(b) = \langle f(b_1), f(b_2), ..., f(b_n) \rangle$.





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Theorem 27.2 (Zero-One Principle)

If a comparison network with n inputs sorts all 2^n possible sequences of 0's and 1's correctly, then it sorts all sequences of arbitrary numbers correctly.



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Proof:

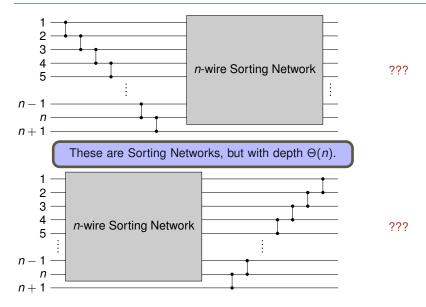
- For the sake of contradiction, suppose the network does not correctly sort.
- Let *a* = ⟨*a*₁, *a*₂, ..., *a*_n⟩ be the input with *a*_i < *a*_j, but the network places *a*_j before *a*_i in the output
- Define a monotonically increasing function *f* as:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq a_i, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > a_i. \end{cases}$$

- Since the network places *a_i* before *a_i*, by the previous lemma ⇒ *f*(*a_j*) is placed before *f*(*a_i*)
- But f(a_i) = 1 and f(a_i) = 0, which contradicts the assumption that the network sorts all sequences of 0's and 1's correctly



Some Basic (Recursive) Sorting Networks





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Bitonic Sequence

A sequence is bitonic if it monotonically increases and then monotonically decreases, or can be circularly shifted to become monotonically increasing and then monotonically decreasing.

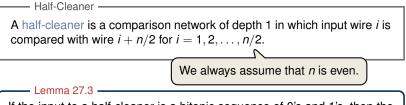
Sequences of one or two numbers are defined to be bitonic.

Examples:

- $\langle 1, 4, 6, 8, 3, 2 \rangle$ \checkmark
- $\langle 6, 9, 4, 2, 3, 5 \rangle$ \checkmark
- $\langle 9, 8, 3, 2, 4, 6 \rangle$ \checkmark
- 4,5,7,1,2,6
- binary sequences: $0^{i}1^{j}0^{k}$, or, $1^{i}0^{j}1^{k}$, for $i, j, k \ge 0$.

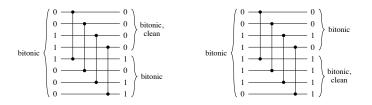


Towards Bitonic Sorting Networks



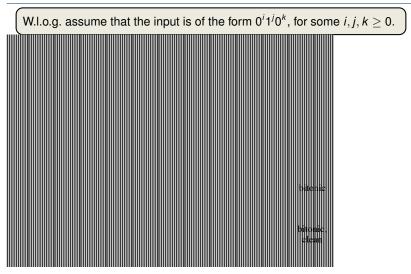
If the input to a half-cleaner is a bitonic sequence of 0's and 1's, then the output satisfies the following properties:

- both the top half and the bottom half are bitonic,
- every element in the top is not larger than any element in the bottom,
- at least one half is clean.



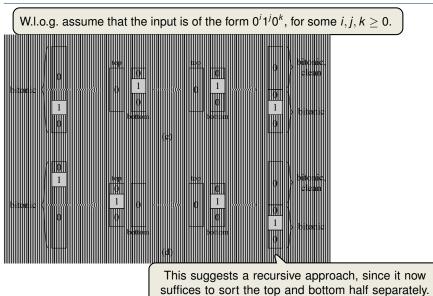


Proof of Lemma 27.3





Proof of Lemma 27.3



The Bitonic Sorter

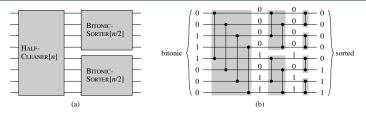


Figure 27.9 The comparison network BITONIC-SORTER[n], shown here for n = 8. (a) The recursive construction: HALF-CLEANER[n] followed by two copies of BITONIC-SORTER[n/2] that operate in parallel. (b) The network after unrolling the recursion. Each half-cleaner is shaded. Sample zero-one values are shown on the wires.

Recursive Formula for depth D(n):

$$D(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ D(n/2) + 1 & \text{if } n = 2^k. \end{cases}$$

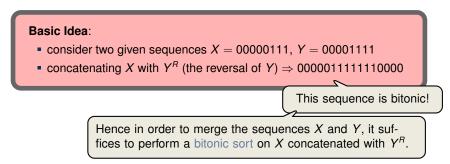
BITONIC-SORTER[*n*] has depth log *n* and sorts any zero-one bitonic sequence.



Henceforth we will always assume that n is a power of 2.

Merging Networks -

- can merge two sorted input sequences into one sorted output sequence
- will be based on a modification of BITONIC-SORTER[n]





Construction of a Merging Network (1/2)

- Given two sorted sequences $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{n/2} \rangle$ and $\langle a_{n/2+1}, a_{n/2+2}, \dots, a_n \rangle$
- We know it suffices to bitonically sort $\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_{n/2}, a_n, a_{n-1}, \ldots, a_{n/2+1} \rangle$
- Recall: first half-cleaner of BITONIC-SORTER[n] compares i and n/2 + i
- ⇒ First part of MERGER[*n*] compares inputs *i* and n i for i = 1, 2, ..., n/2
 - Remaining part is identical to BITONIC-SORTER[n]

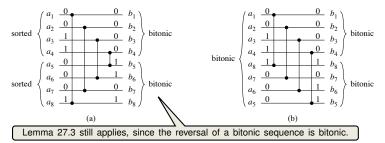


Figure 27.10 Comparing the first stage of MERGER[*n*] with HALF-CLEANER[*n*], for n = 8. (a) The first stage of MERGER[*n*] transforms the two monotonic input sequences $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_{n/2})$ and $(a_{n/2+1}, a_{n/2+2}, ..., a_n)$ into two bitonic sequences $(b_1, b_2, ..., b_{n/2})$ and $(b_{n/2+1}, b_{n/2+2}, ..., b_n)$. (b) The equivalent operation for HALF-CLEANER[*n*]. The bitonic input sequence $(a_1, a_2, ..., a_{n/2}, a_{n,2}, a_{n,2}, a_{n-1}, ..., a_{n/2+2}, a_{n/2+1})$ is transformed into the two bitonic sequences $(b_1, b_2, ..., b_{n/2})$ and $(b_n, b_{n-1}, ..., b_{n/2+1})$.



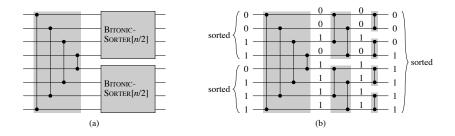
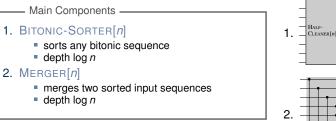
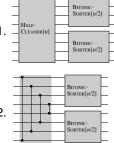


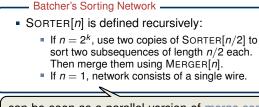
Figure 27.11 A network that merges two sorted input sequences into one sorted output sequence. The network MERGER[n] can be viewed as BITONIC-SORTER[n] with the first half-cleaner altered to compare inputs i and n-i+1 for i = 1, 2, ..., n/2. Here, n = 8. (a) The network decomposed into the first stage followed by two parallel copies of BITONIC-SORTER[n/2]. (b) The same network with the recursion unrolled. Sample zero-one values are shown on the wires, and the stages are shaded.

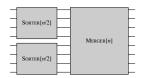


Construction of a Sorting Network





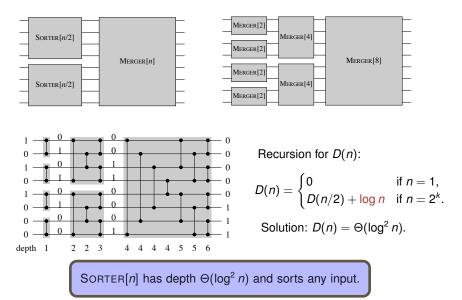




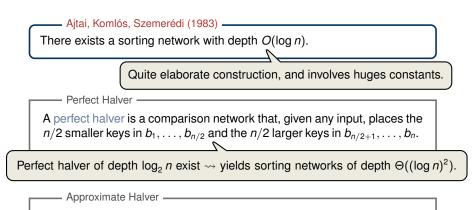
can be seen as a parallel version of merge sort



Unrolling the Recursion (Figure 27.12)





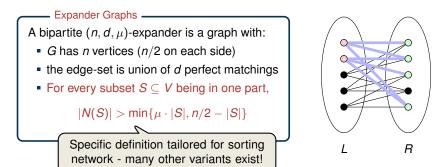


An (n, ϵ) -approximate halver, $\epsilon < 1$, is a comparison network that for every k = 1, 2, ..., n/2 places at most ϵk of its k smallest keys in $b_{n/2+1}, ..., b_n$ and at most ϵk of its k largest keys in $b_1, ..., b_{n/2}$.

We will prove that such networks can be constructed in constant depth!



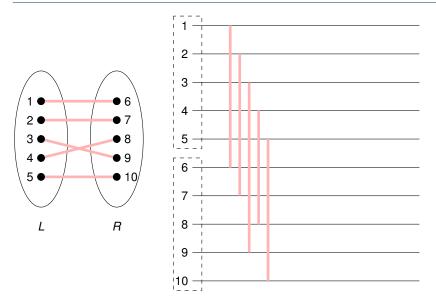
Expander Graphs



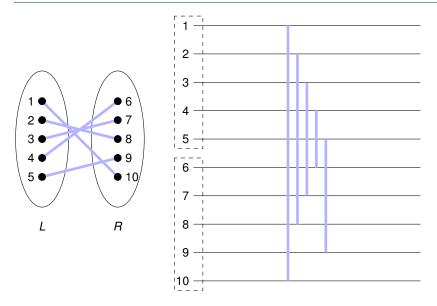
Expander Graphs:

- probabilistic construction "easy": take d (disjoint) random matchings
- **explicit construction** is a deep mathematical problem with ties to number theory, group theory, combinatorics etc.
- many applications in networking, complexity theory and coding theory

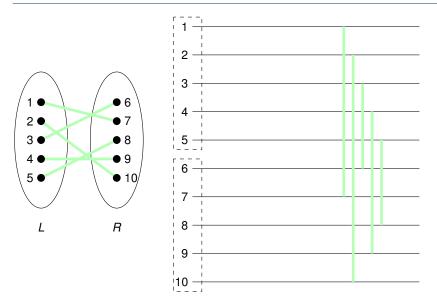




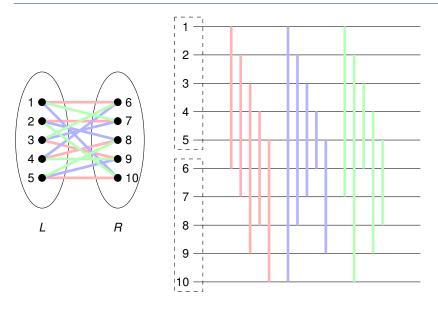














Existence of Approximate Halvers (not examinable)

Proof:

- X := keys with the k smallest inputs
- Y := wires in lower half with k smallest outputs
- For every $u \in N(Y)$: \exists comparat. $(u, v), v \in Y$
- Let u_t, v_t be their keys after the comparator Let u_d, v_d be their keys at the output
- Note that $v_d \in X$

• Further:
$$u_d \le u_t \le v_t \le v_d \Rightarrow u_d \in X$$

Since u was arbitrary:

$$|Y|+|N(Y)|\leq k.$$

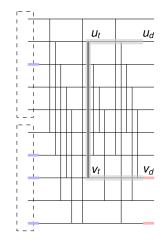
Since *G* is a bipartite (*n*, *d*, *µ*)-expander:

$$\begin{aligned} |Y| + |N(Y)| &> |Y| + \min\{\mu|Y|, n/2 - |Y|\} \\ &= \min\{(1 + \mu)|Y|, n/2\}. \end{aligned}$$

Combining the two bounds above yields:

$$(1+\mu)|Y| \leq k.$$

• Same argument \Rightarrow at most $\epsilon \cdot k$, $\epsilon := 1/(\mu + 1)$, of the *k* largest input keys are placed in $b_1, \ldots, b_{n/2}$.



- typical application of expander gaphs in parallel algorithms
- Much more work needed to construct the AKS sorting network



AKS network vs. Batcher's network



Donald E. Knuth (Stanford)

"Batcher's method is much better, unless n exceeds the total memory capacity of all computers on earth!"



Richard J. Lipton (Georgia Tech)

"The AKS sorting network is **galactic**: it needs that n be larger than 2⁷⁸ or so to finally be smaller than Batcher's network for n items."



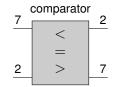
Siblings of Sorting Network

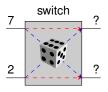
Sorting Networks _____

- sorts any input of size n
- special case of Comparison Networks

Switching (Shuffling) Networks ------

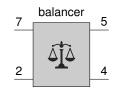
- creates a random permutation of n items
- special case of Permutation Networks





Counting Networks _____

- balances any stream of tokens over n wires
- special case of Balancing Networks





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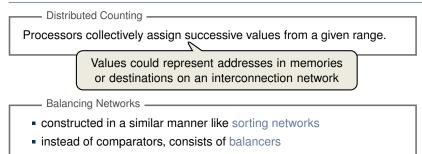
Introduction to Sorting Networks

Batcher's Sorting Network

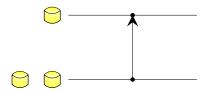
Counting Networks



Counting Network

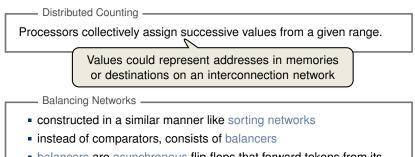


 balancers are asynchronous flip-flops that forward tokens from its inputs to one of its two outputs alternately (top, bottom, top,...)

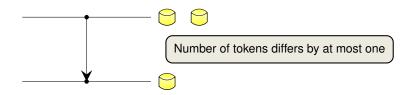




Counting Network



 balancers are asynchronous flip-flops that forward tokens from its inputs to one of its two outputs alternately (top, bottom, top,...)





Counting Network (Formal Definition) -

- 1. Let *x*₁, *x*₂,..., *x_n* be the number of tokens (ever received) on the designated input wires
- 2. Let *y*₁, *y*₂,..., *y_n* be the number of tokens (ever received) on the designated output wires
- 3. In a quiescent state: $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$
- 4. A counting network is a balancing network with the step-property:

$$0 \leq y_i - y_j \leq 1$$
 for any $i < j$.

Bitonic Counting Network: Take Batcher's Sorting Network and replace each comparator by a balancer.



Let x_1, \ldots, x_n and y_1, \ldots, y_n have the step property. Then:

1. We have
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i-1} = \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right]$$
, and $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i} = \left\lfloor \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \right\rfloor$

2. If
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$$
, then $x_i = y_i$ for $i = 1, ..., n$.

3. If
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i + 1$$
, then $\exists ! j = 1, 2, ..., n$ with $x_j = y_j + 1$ and $x_i = y_i$ for $j \neq i$.

Key Lemma

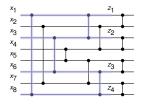
Consider a MERGER[*n*]. Then if the inputs $x_1, \ldots, x_{n/2}$ and $x_{n/2+1}, \ldots, x_n$ have the step property, then so does the output y_1, \ldots, y_n .

Proof (by induction on *n* being a power of 2)

Case n = 2 is clear, since MERGER[2] is a single balancer



Let
$$x_1, ..., x_n$$
 and $y_1, ..., y_n$ have the step property. Then:
1. We have $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i-1} = \lceil \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \rceil$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i} = \lfloor \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \rfloor$
2. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$, then $x_i = y_i$ for $i = 1, ..., n$.
3. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i + 1$, then $\exists ! j = 1, 2, ..., n$ with $x_j = y_j + 1$ and $x_i = y_i$ for $j \neq i$.



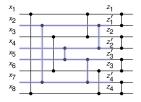
Proof (by induction on *n* being a power of 2)

- Case n = 2 is clear, since MERGER[2] is a single balancer
- n > 2: Let $z_1, \ldots, z_{n/2}$ and $z'_1, \ldots, z'_{n/2}$ be the outputs of the MERGER[n/2] subnetworks



Facto

Let
$$x_1, ..., x_n$$
 and $y_1, ..., y_n$ have the step property. Then:
1. We have $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i-1} = \lfloor \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \rfloor$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i} = \lfloor \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \rfloor$
2. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$, then $x_i = y_i$ for $i = 1, ..., n$.
3. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i + 1$, then $\exists ! j = 1, 2, ..., n$ with $x_j = y_j + 1$ and $x_i = y_i$ for $j \neq i$.



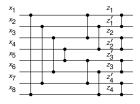
Proof (by induction on *n* being a power of 2)

- Case n = 2 is clear, since MERGER[2] is a single balancer
- n > 2: Let $z_1, \ldots, z_{n/2}$ and $z'_1, \ldots, z'_{n/2}$ be the outputs of the MERGER[n/2] subnetworks



Facto

Let
$$x_1, ..., x_n$$
 and $y_1, ..., y_n$ have the step property. Then:
1. We have $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i-1} = \left[\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right]$, and $\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} x_{2i} = \left\lfloor\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i\right\rfloor$
2. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i$, then $x_i = y_i$ for $i = 1, ..., n$.
3. If $\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i + 1$, then $\exists ! j = 1, 2, ..., n$ with $x_j = y_j + 1$ and $x_i = y_i$ for $j \neq i$.



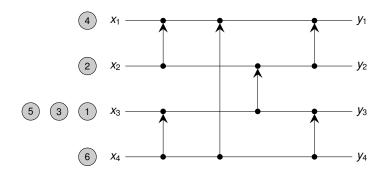
Proof (by induction on *n* being a power of 2)

- Case n = 2 is clear, since MERGER[2] is a single balancer
- n > 2: Let $z_1, \ldots, z_{n/2}$ and $z'_1, \ldots, z'_{n/2}$ be the outputs of the MERGER[n/2] subnetworks
- IH \Rightarrow $z_1, \ldots, z_{n/2}$ and $z'_1, \ldots, z'_{n/2}$ have the step property
- Let $Z := \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} z_i$ and $Z' := \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} z'_i$
- Claim: $|Z Z'| \leq 1$

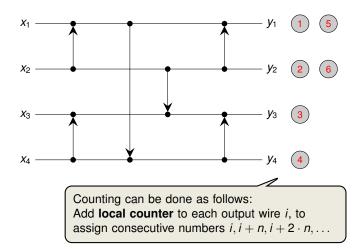
Eacto

- Case 1: If $Z = Z^{\prime}$, then F2 implies the output of MERGER[*n*] is $y_i = z_{1+\lfloor (i-1)/2 \rfloor} \checkmark$
- Case 2: If |Z Z'| = 1, F3 implies $z_i = z'_i$ for i = 1, ..., n/2 except a unique j with $z_j \neq z'_j$. Balancer between z_i and z'_i will ensure that the step property holds.



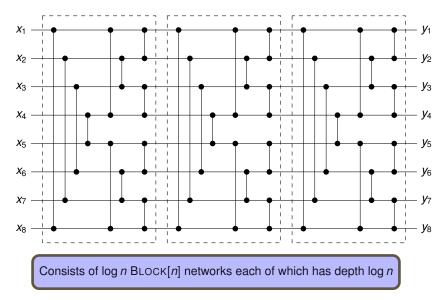




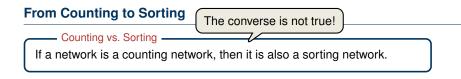




A Periodic Counting Network [Aspnes, Herlihy, Shavit, JACM 1994]

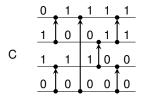


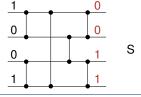




Proof.

- Let C be a counting network, and S be the corresponding sorting network
- Consider an input sequence $a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to S
- Define an input $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n \in \{0, 1\}^n$ to C by $x_i = 1$ iff $a_i = 0$.
- C is a counting network \Rightarrow all ones will be routed to the lower wires
- S corresponds to C ⇒ all zeros will be routed to the lower wires
- By the Zero-One Principle, *S* is a sorting network.







II. Matrix Multiplication

Thomas Sauerwald



Easter 2017

Introduction

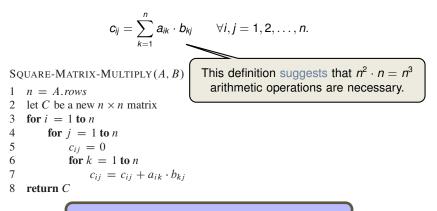
Serial Matrix Multiplication

Digression: Multithreading

Multithreaded Matrix Multiplication



Remember: If $A = (a_{ij})$ and $B = (b_{ij})$ are square $n \times n$ matrices, then the matrix product $C = A \cdot B$ is defined by



SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY(A, B) takes time $\Theta(n^3)$.



Introduction

Serial Matrix Multiplication

Digression: Multithreading

Multithreaded Matrix Multiplication



Assumption: *n* is always an exact power of 2.

Divide & Conquer:

Partition *A*, *B*, and *C* into four $n/2 \times n/2$ matrices:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence the equation $C = A \cdot B$ becomes:

$$\begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

This corresponds to the four equations:

$$C_{11} = A_{11} \cdot B_{11} + A_{12} \cdot B_{21}$$

$$C_{12} = A_{11} \cdot B_{12} + A_{12} \cdot B_{22}$$

$$C_{21} = A_{21} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{21}$$

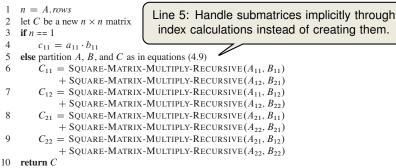
$$C_{22} = A_{21} \cdot B_{12} + A_{22} \cdot B_{22}$$

Each equation specifies
two multiplications of
 $n/2 \times n/2$ matrices and the
addition of their products.



Divide & Conquer: First Approach (Pseudocode)

SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE (A, B)



Let T(n) be the runtime of this procedure. Then:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n = 1, \\ \frac{\Theta(1)}{8} \cdot T(n/2) + \Theta(n^2) & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(8^{\log_2 n}) = \Theta(n^3) \checkmark$ No improvement over the naive algorithm!



Idea: Make the recursion tree less bushy by performing only **7** recursive multiplications of $n/2 \times n/2$ matrices.

Strassen's Algorithm (1969) -

- 1. Partition each of the matrices into four $n/2 \times n/2$ submatrices
- 2. Create 10 matrices $S_1, S_2, ..., S_{10}$. Each is $n/2 \times n/2$ and is the sum or difference of two matrices created in the previous step.
- 3. Recursively compute 7 matrix products P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_7 , each $n/2 \times n/2$
- 4. Compute $n/2 \times n/2$ submatrices of *C* by adding and subtracting various combinations of the P_i .

Time for steps 1,2,4: $\Theta(n^2)$, hence $T(n) = 7 \cdot T(n/2) + \Theta(n^2) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log 7})$.



Solving the Recursion

 $T(n) = \mathbf{7} \cdot T(n/2) + c \cdot n^2$



Details of Strassen's Algorithm

— The 10 Submatrices and 7 Products ———

$$\begin{split} P_1 &= A_{11} \cdot S_1 = A_{11} \cdot (B_{12} - B_{22}) \\ P_2 &= S_2 \cdot B_{22} = (A_{11} + A_{12}) \cdot B_{22} \\ P_3 &= S_3 \cdot B_{11} = (A_{21} + A_{22}) \cdot B_{11} \\ P_4 &= A_{22} \cdot S_4 = A_{22} \cdot (B_{21} - B_{11}) \\ P_5 &= S_5 \cdot S_6 = (A_{11} + A_{22}) \cdot (B_{11} + B_{22}) \\ P_6 &= S_7 \cdot S_8 = (A_{12} - A_{22}) \cdot (B_{21} + B_{22}) \\ P_7 &= S_9 \cdot S_{10} = (A_{11} - A_{21}) \cdot (B_{11} + B_{12}) \\ \end{split}$$

$$\begin{array}{c} \hline \text{Claim} \\ \begin{pmatrix} A_{11}B_{11} + A_{12}B_{21} & A_{11}B_{12} + A_{12}B_{21} \\ A_{21}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{21} & A_{21}B_{12} + A_{22}B_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} P_5 + P_4 - P_2 + P_6 & P_1 + P_2 \\ P_3 + P_4 & P_5 + P_1 - P_3 - P_7 \end{pmatrix}$$

Proof:

$$P_{5} + P_{4} - P_{2} + P_{6} = A_{11}B_{11} + A_{44}B_{22} + A_{22}B_{11} + A_{22}B_{22} + A_{22}B_{21} - A_{22}B_{11} - A_{42}B_{22} - A_{42}B_{21} - A_{42}B_{42} - A_{44}B_{44} - A_{44} -$$



Open Problem: Is there an algorithm with quadratic complexity?

Asymptotic Complexities:

- O(n³), naive approach
- O(n^{2.808}), Strassen (1969)
- O(n^{2.796}), Pan (1978)
- O(n^{2.522}), Schönhage (1981)
- O(n^{2.517}), Romani (1982)
- $O(n^{2.496})$, Coppersmith and Winograd (1982)
- O(n^{2.479}), Strassen (1986)
- $O(n^{2.376})$, Coppersmith and Winograd (1989)
- O(n^{2.374}), Stothers (2010)
- *O*(*n*^{2.3728642}), V. Williams (2011)
- O(n^{2.3728639}), Le Gall (2014)



Introduction

Serial Matrix Multiplication

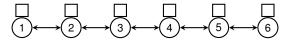
Digression: Multithreading

Multithreaded Matrix Multiplication

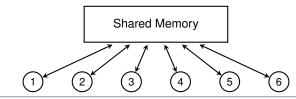


Memory Models

- Distributed Memory -
- Each processor has its private memory
- Access to memory of another processor via messages



- Shared Memory -
- Central location of memory
- Each processor has direct access





Dynamic Multithreading

- Programming shared-memory parallel computer difficult
- Use concurrency platform which coordinates all resources

Scheduling jobs, communication protocols, load balancing etc.

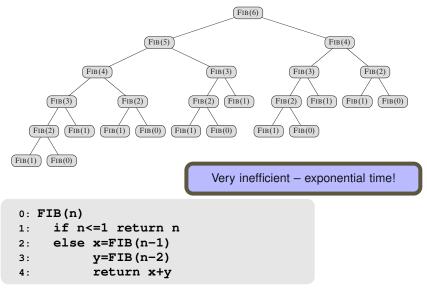
Functionalities:

- spawn
 - (optional) prefix to a procedure call statement
 - procedure is executed in a separate thread
- sync
 - wait until all spawned threads are done
- parallel
 - (optinal) prefix to the standard loop for
 - each iteration is called in its own thread

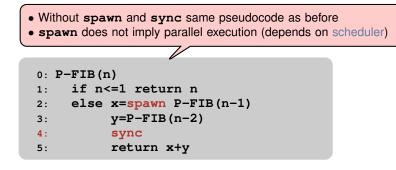
Only logical parallelism, but not actual! Need a scheduler to map threads to processors.



Computing Fibonacci Numbers Recursively (Fig. 27.1)



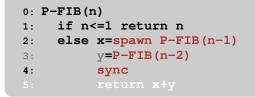






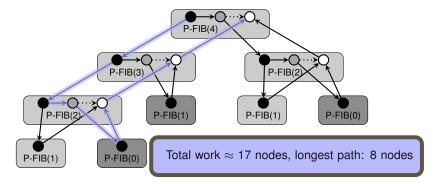


- V set of threads (instructions/strands without parallel control)
- E set of dependencies





Computing Fibonacci Numbers in Parallel (Fig. 27.2)



```
0: P-FIB(n)

1: if n<=1 return n

2: else x=spawn P-FIB(n-1)

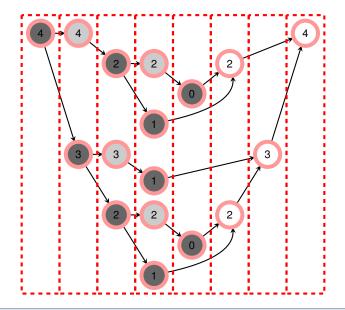
3: y=P-FIB(n-2)

4: sync

5: return x+y
```



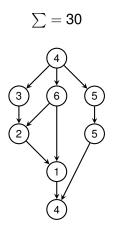
Computing Fibonacci Numbers in Parallel (DAG Perspective)





— Work –

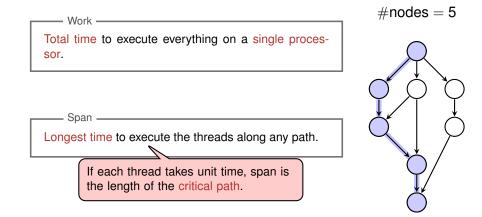
Total time to execute everything on a single processor.





Work $\sum = 18$ Total time to execute everything on a single processor. Span Longest time to execute the threads along any path.







Work Law and Span Law

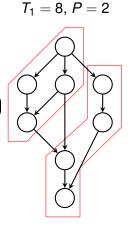
- $T_1 =$ work, $T_{\infty} =$ span
- P = number of (identical) processors
- *T_P* = running time on *P* processors

Running time actually also depends on scheduler etc.!

- Work Law

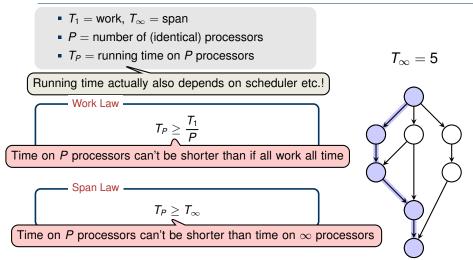
$$T_P \geq \frac{T_1}{P}$$

Time on P processors can't be shorter than if all work all time



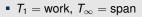


Work Law and Span Law





Work Law and Span Law



- P = number of (identical) processors
- *T_P* = running time on *P* processors

Running time actually also depends on scheduler etc.!

Work Law

Span Law -

$$T_P \geq \frac{T_1}{P}$$

Time on P processors can't be shorter than if all work all time

$$T_P \ge 7$$

Time on *P* processors can't be shorter than time on ∞ processors

- Speed-Up: $\frac{T_1}{T_P}$ \checkmark Maximum Speed-Up bounded by *P*!
- Parallelism: $\frac{T_1}{T_{\infty}}$

II. Matrix Multiplication

Maximum Speed-Up for ∞ processors!

Introduction

Serial Matrix Multiplication

Digression: Multithreading

Multithreaded Matrix Multiplication



Warmup: Matrix Vector Multiplication

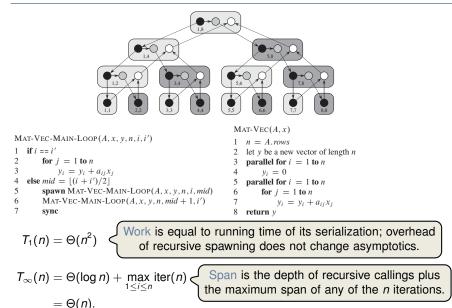
Remember: Multiplying an $n \times n$ matrix $A = (a_{ij})$ and *n*-vector $x = (x_j)$ yields an *n*-vector $y = (y_i)$ given by

$$y_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j$$
 for $i = 1, 2, ..., n$.

MAT-VEC(A, x)n = A.rows 1 2 let *y* be a new vector of length *n* 3 parallel for i = 1 to n4 $y_i = 0$ The **parallel for**-loops can be used since parallel for i = 1 to n5 different entries of y can be computed concurrently. for i = 1 to n6 7 $y_i = y_i + a_{ii} x_i$ 8 return v

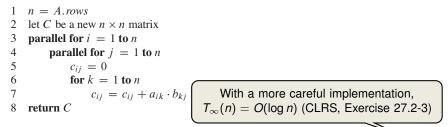


Implementing parallel for based on Divide-and-Conquer





P-SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY (A, B)

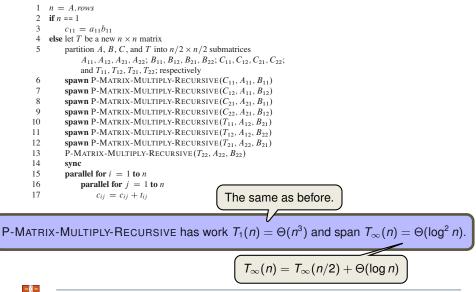


P-SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY(A, B) has work $T_1(n) = \Theta(n^3)$ and span $T_{\infty}(n) = \Theta(n)$.

The first two nested for-loops parallelise perfectly.



P-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE (C, A, B)



Strassen's Algorithm (parallelised)

1. Partition each of the matrices into four $n/2 \times n/2$ submatrices

This step takes $\Theta(1)$ work and span by index calculations.

2. Create 10 matrices S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_{10} . Each is $n/2 \times n/2$ and is the sum or difference of two matrices created in the previous step.

Can create all 10 matrices with $\Theta(n^2)$ work and $\Theta(\log n)$ span using doubly nested **parallel for** loops.

3. Recursively compute 7 matrix products P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_7 , each $n/2 \times n/2$

Recursively **spawn** the computation of the seven products.

Compute n/2 × n/2 submatrices of C by adding and subtracting various combinations of the P_i.

Using doubly nested **parallel for** this takes $\Theta(n^2)$ work and $\Theta(\log n)$ span.

$$egin{aligned} T_1(n) &= \Theta(n^{\log 7}) \ T_\infty(n) &= \Theta(\log^2 n) \end{aligned}$$



Speedups for Matrix Inversion by an equivalence with Matrix Multiplication.

Theorem 28.1 (Multiplication is no harder than Inversion)

If we can invert an $n \times n$ matrix in time I(n), where $I(n) = \Omega(n^2)$ and I(n) satisfies the regularity condition I(3n) = O(I(n)), then we can multiply two $n \times n$ matrices in time O(I(n)).

Proof:

• Define a $3n \times 3n$ matrix *D* by:

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} I_n & A & 0 \\ 0 & I_n & B \\ 0 & 0 & I_n \end{pmatrix} \implies D^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} I_n & -A & AB \\ 0 & I_n & -B \\ 0 & 0 & I_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

- Matrix *D* can be constructed in $\Theta(n^2) = O(I(n))$ time,
- and we can invert D in O(I(3n)) = O(I(n)) time.



We can compute AB in O(I(n)) time.

Theorem 28.1 (Multiplication is no harder than Inversion)

If we can invert an $n \times n$ matrix in time I(n), where $I(n) = \Omega(n^2)$ and I(n) satisfies the regularity condition I(3n) = O(I(n)), then we can multiply two $n \times n$ matrices in time O(I(n)).

Allows us to use Strassen's Algorithm to invert a matrix!

Theorem 28.2 (Inversion is no harder than Multiplication)

Suppose we can multiply two $n \times n$ real matrices in time M(n) and M(n) satisfies the two regularity conditions M(n + k) = O(M(n)) for any $0 \le k \le n$ and $M(n/2) \le c \cdot M(n)$ for some constant c < 1/2. Then we can compute the inverse of any real nonsingular $n \times n$ matrix in time O(M(n)).

Proof of this directon much harder (CLRS) – relies on properties of SPD matrices.



III. Linear Programming

Thomas Sauerwald



Easter 2017



Introduction

Standard and Slack Forms

Formulating Problems as Linear Programs

Simplex Algorithm

Finding an Initial Solution



Introduction

Linear Programming (informal definition) -

- maximize or minimize an objective, given limited resources and competing constraint
- constraints are specified as (in)equalities

Example: Political Advertising -

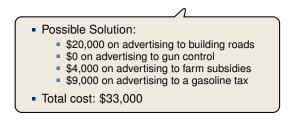
- Imagine you are a politician trying to win an election
- Your district has three different types of areas: Urban, suburban and rural, each with, respectively, 100,000, 200,000 and 50,000 registered voters
- Aim: at least half of the registered voters in each of the three regions should vote for you
- Possible Actions: Advertise on one of the primary issues which are (i) building more roads, (ii) gun control, (iii) farm subsidies and (iv) a gasoline tax dedicated to improve public transit.



Political Advertising Continued

policy	urban	suburban	rural
build roads	-2	5	3
gun control	8	2	-5
farm subsidies	0	0	10
gasoline tax	10	0	-2

The effects of policies on voters. Each entry describes the number of thousands of voters who could be won (lost) over by spending \$1,000 on advertising support of a policy on a particular issue.



What is the best possible strategy?



Towards a Linear Program

policy	urban	suburban	rural
build roads	-2	5	3
gun control	8	2	-5
farm subsidies	0	0	10
gasoline tax	10	0	-2

The effects of policies on voters. Each entry describes the number of thousands of voters who could be won (lost) over by spending \$1,000 on advertising support of a policy on a particular issue.

- x_1 = number of thousands of dollars spent on advertising on building roads
- x_2 = number of thousands of dollars spent on advertising on gun control
- x_3 = number of thousands of dollars spent on advertising on farm subsidies
- x_4 = number of thousands of dollars spent on advertising on gasoline tax

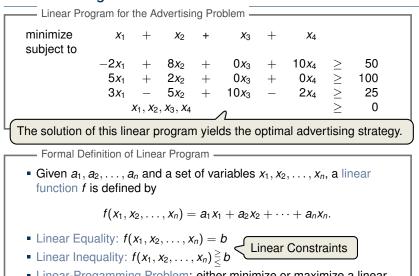
Constraints:

- $-2x_1 + 8x_2 + 0x_3 + 10x_4 \ge 50$
- $5x_1 + 2x_2 + 0x_3 + 0x_4 \ge 100$
- $3x_1 5x_2 + 10x_3 2x_4 \ge 25$



Objective: Minimize $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 + x_4$

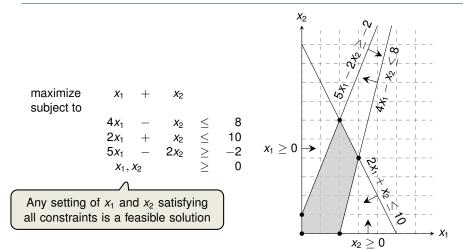
The Linear Program



• Linear-Progamming Problem: either minimize or maximize a linear function subject to a set of linear constraints

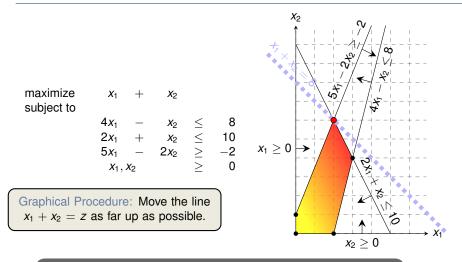


A Small(er) Example





A Small(er) Example



While the same approach also works for higher-dimensions, we need to take a more systematic and algebraic procedure.



Introduction

Standard and Slack Forms

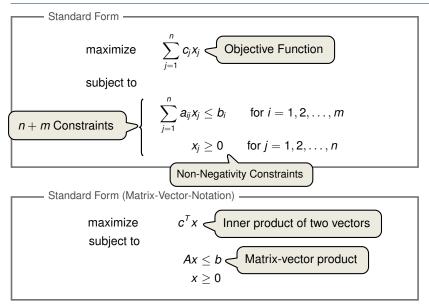
Formulating Problems as Linear Programs

Simplex Algorithm

Finding an Initial Solution



Standard and Slack Forms





- 1. The objective might be a minimization rather than maximization.
- 2. There might be variables without nonnegativity constraints.
- 3. There might be equality constraints.
- 4. There might be inequality constraints (with \geq instead of \leq).

Goal: Convert linear program into an equivalent program which is in standard form

Equivalence: a correspondence (not necessarily a bijection) between solutions so that their objective values are identical.

When switching from maximization to minimization, sign of objective value changes.

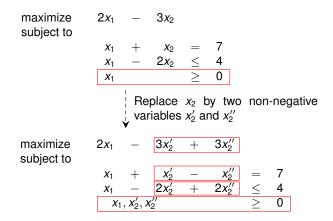


1. The objective might be a minimization rather than maximization.

minimize	$-2x_{1}$	+	3 <i>x</i> ₂		
subject to					
	<i>X</i> ₁	+	<i>X</i> ₂	=	7
	<i>X</i> ₁	_	$2x_2$	\leq	4
	<i>X</i> ₁		x ₂ 2x ₂	\geq	0
	Ň	Ne	gate ol	oject	ive function
maximize	2 <i>x</i> ₁	_	3 <i>x</i> ₂		
subject to					
	<i>X</i> ₁	+	x ₂ 2x ₂	=	7
	<i>X</i> ₁	-	2 <i>x</i> ₂	\leq	4
	<i>X</i> ₁			~	^



2. There might be variables without nonnegativity constraints.





3. There might be equality constraints.

maximize $2x_1$ $3x_2'$ $3x_{2}''$ +subject to X_1 4 $\leq \geq$ $2x_2'$ $2x_{2}''$ *X*1 + x_1, x_2', x_2'' Replace each equality by two inequalities. maximize $2x_1$ $3x_2'$ + $3x_{2}''$ subject to $- x_2'' - x_2'' + 2x_2''$ $\begin{array}{ccc} \leq & 7 \\ \geq & 7 \\ \leq & 4 \\ \geq & 0 \end{array}$ X_1 *X*1 $2x_2'$ *X*1 X_1, X_2', X_2''



4. There might be inequality constraints (with \geq instead of \leq).

maximize subject to	2 <i>x</i> ₁	_	3 <i>x</i> ₂ '	+	3 <i>x</i> ₂ "		
	<i>X</i> 1	+	X_2'	_	$x_{2}^{\prime \prime }$	<	7
	<i>X</i> 1	+	X_2'	_	x''	>	7
	<i>X</i> ₁	_	$2x_{2}'$	+	$2x_{2}''$	\leq	4
	<i>X</i> ₁	, x 2, x	<"		-	\geq	0
		N ↓	egate i	respe	ective ir	nequa	alities.
maximize subject to	2 <i>x</i> ₁	-	3 <i>x</i> ₂ ′	+	3 <i>x</i> ₂ ''		
	<i>X</i> ₁	+	x_2'	_	x2''	\leq	7
	$-x_1$	_	x_2^{\prime}	+	$x_{2}^{''}$	\leq	-7
	<i>x</i> ₁	_	$2x_{2}^{'}$	+	$2x_{2}^{''}$	\leq	4
	<i>X</i> ₁	, x ₂ ', x	$\zeta_{2}^{\prime\prime}$		-	\geq	0

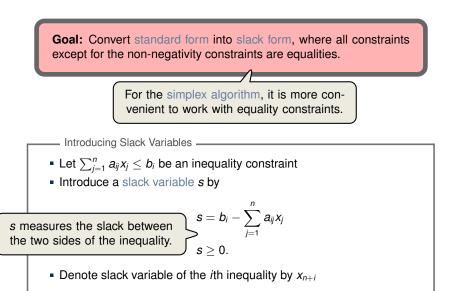


Rename	variable	e nan	nes (fo	r con	sisten	cy).)
	-		V		-		
maximize	$2x_1$	_	3 <i>x</i> ₂	+	3 <i>x</i> ₃		
subject to							
	\leq	7					
	$-x_{1}$	—	<i>X</i> 2	+	<i>X</i> 3	\leq	-7
	<i>x</i> ₁	—	$2x_2$	+	$2x_3$	\leq	4
	<i>x</i> ₁	$, x_2, x_2$	X 3			\geq	0

It is always possible to convert a linear program into standard form.



Converting Standard Form into Slack Form (1/3)





Converting Standard Form into Slack Form (2/3)

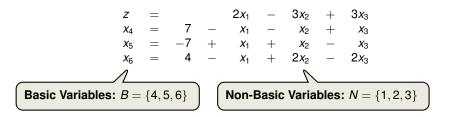
maximize subject to	2 <i>x</i> ₁	-	3 <i>x</i> ₂	+	3 <i>x</i> ₃				
	<i>X</i> ₁	+	<i>X</i> ₂	_	<i>X</i> 3	\leq	7	7	
	$-x_1$	_	<i>x</i> ₂	+	<i>X</i> 3	< < < <	-7	7	
	<i>x</i> ₁	_	2 <i>x</i> ₂	+	2 <i>x</i> ₃	\leq	2	ļ	
	X	x_1, x_2, x_3	x 3			\geq	()	
			- I	ntroc	luce s	lack	varial	oles	
			↓						
maximize				2	2 <i>x</i> 1	_	3 <i>x</i> 2	+	3 <i>x</i> 3
subject to									
-	<i>X</i> 4	=	7	_	<i>X</i> 1	_	X 2	+	<i>X</i> 3
	X 5		-7	+	<i>X</i> ₁	+	<i>X</i> 2	_	<i>X</i> 3
	<i>x</i> ₆	=	4	_	<i>x</i> ₁	+	2 <i>x</i> ₂	_	$2x_{3}$
	<i>X</i> 1	, <i>x</i> ₂ , <i>x</i>	x_3, x_4, x_5	x 5, x 6		\geq	0		



maximize subject to					2 <i>x</i> ₁	_	3 <i>x</i> ₂	+	3 <i>x</i> ₃	
-	<i>X</i> 4	=	7	_	<i>X</i> ₁	_	<i>X</i> ₂	+	<i>X</i> 3	
	X 5	=	-7	+	<i>X</i> 1	+	<i>X</i> ₂	_	<i>X</i> 3	
	<i>x</i> ₆	=	4	_	<i>X</i> ₁	+	$2x_2$	_	$2x_{3}$	
		<i>x</i> ₁ , <i>x</i> ₂	, x ₃ , x ₄	4, X 5,	<i>x</i> ₆	\geq	0			
									ective f onstrai	unction nts.
	Ζ	=			2 <i>x</i> ₁	_	3 <i>x</i> 2	+	3 <i>x</i> 3	
	<i>X</i> ₄	=	7	—	<i>X</i> ₁	—	<i>X</i> ₂	+	<i>X</i> 3	
	X 5	=	-7	+	<i>X</i> ₁	+	<i>X</i> ₂	—	<i>X</i> 3	
	<i>X</i> 6	=	4	_	<i>X</i> ₁	+	2 <i>x</i> ₂	_	2 <i>x</i> ₃	
This)					



Basic and Non-Basic Variables



Slack Form (Formal Definition) -

Slack form is given by a tuple (N, B, A, b, c, v) so that

$$egin{aligned} & z = v + \sum_{j \in N} c_j x_j \ & x_i = b_i - \sum_{j \in N} a_{ij} x_j & ext{ for } i \in B, \end{aligned}$$

and all variables are non-negative.

Variables/Coefficients on the right hand side are indexed by *B* and *N*.



Slack Form (Example)

$$z = 28 - \frac{x_3}{6} - \frac{x_5}{6} - \frac{2x_6}{3}$$

$$x_1 = 8 + \frac{x_3}{6} + \frac{x_5}{6} - \frac{x_6}{3}$$

$$x_2 = 4 - \frac{8x_3}{3} - \frac{2x_5}{3} + \frac{x_6}{3}$$

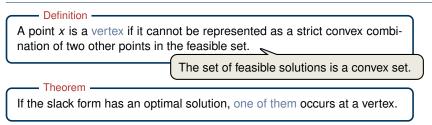
$$x_4 = 18 - \frac{x_3}{2} + \frac{x_5}{2}$$
Slack Form Notation
$$B = \{1, 2, 4\}, N = \{3, 5, 6\}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{13} & a_{15} & a_{16} \\ a_{23} & a_{25} & a_{26} \\ a_{43} & a_{45} & a_{46} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/6 & -1/6 & 1/3 \\ 8/3 & 2/3 & -1/3 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$b = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \\ 18 \end{pmatrix}, c = \begin{pmatrix} c_3 \\ c_5 \\ c_6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1/6 \\ -1/6 \\ -2/3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$v = 28$$

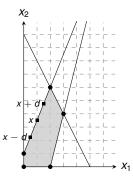
The Structure of Optimal Solutions



Proof:

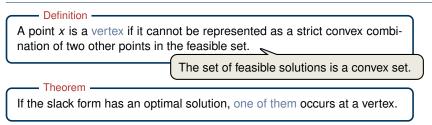
- Let *x* be an optimal solution which is not a vertex $\Rightarrow \exists$ vector *d* so that x d and x + d are feasible
- Since A(x + d) = b and $Ax = b \Rightarrow Ad = 0$
- W.I.o.g. assume $c^T d \ge 0$ (otherwise replace d by -d)
- Consider $x + \lambda d$ as a function of $\lambda \ge 0$
- Case 1: There exists j with $d_j < 0$
 - Increase λ from 0 to λ' until a new entry of x + λd becomes zero
 - $x + \lambda' d$ feasible, since $A(x + \lambda' d) = Ax = b$ and $x + \lambda' d \ge 0$

$$c^{T}(x + \lambda^{T}d) = c^{T}x + c^{T}\lambda'd \ge c^{T}x$$



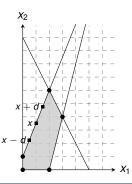


The Structure of Optimal Solutions



Proof:

- Let *x* be an optimal solution which is not a vertex $\Rightarrow \exists$ vector *d* so that x d and x + d are feasible
- Since A(x + d) = b and $Ax = b \Rightarrow Ad = 0$
- W.I.o.g. assume $c^T d \ge 0$ (otherwise replace d by -d)
- Consider $x + \lambda d$ as a function of $\lambda \ge 0$
- Case 2: For all $j, d_j \ge 0$
 - $x + \lambda d$ is feasible for all $\lambda \ge 0$: $A(x + \lambda d) = b$ and $x + \lambda d \ge x \ge 0$
 - If $\lambda \to \infty$, then $c^T(x + \lambda d) \to \infty$
 - \Rightarrow This contradicts the assumption that there exists an optimal solution.





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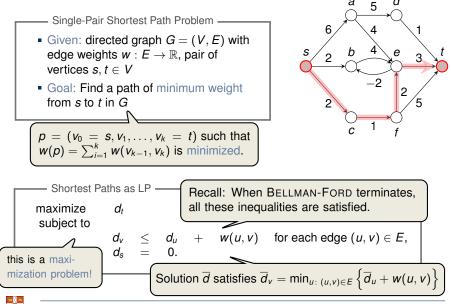
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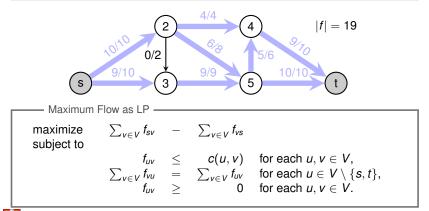
Shortest Paths



Maximum Flow

- Maximum Flow Problem -

- Given: directed graph G = (V, E) with edge capacities $c : E \to \mathbb{R}^+$, pair of vertices $s, t \in V$
- Goal: Find a maximum flow $f: V \times V \to \mathbb{R}$ from *s* to *t* which satisfies the capacity constraints and flow conservation



Minimum-Cost Flow

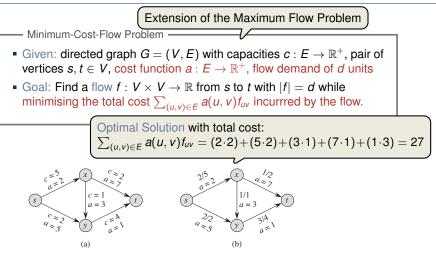


Figure 29.3 (a) An example of a minimum-cost-flow problem. We denote the capacities by c and the costs by a. Vertex s is the source and vertex t is the sink, and we wish to send 4 units of flow from s to t. (b) A solution to the minimum-cost flow problem in which 4 units of flow are sent from s to t. For each edge, the flow and capacity are written as flow/capacity.



Minimum Cost Flow as LPminimize
subject to $\sum_{(u,v)\in E} a(u,v)f_{uv}$ $f_{uv} \leq c(u,v)$ for each $u,v \in V$,
 $\sum_{v \in V} f_{vu} - \sum_{v \in V} f_{uv} = 0$ for each $u \in V \setminus \{s,t\}$,
 $\sum_{v \in V} f_{sv} - \sum_{v \in V} f_{vs} = d$,
 $f_{uv} \geq 0$ for each $u,v \in V$.

Real power of Linear Programming comes from the ability to solve **new problems**!



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Simplex Algorithm _____

- classical method for solving linear programs (Dantzig, 1947)
- usually fast in practice although worst-case runtime not polynomial
- · iterative procedure somewhat similar to Gaussian elimination

Basic Idea:

- Each iteration corresponds to a "basic solution" of the slack form
- All non-basic variables are 0, and the basic variables are determined from the equality constraints
- Each iteration converts one slack form into an equivalent one while the objective value will not decrease In that sense, it is a greedy algorithm.
- Conversion ("pivoting") is achieved by switching the roles of one basic and one non-basic variable

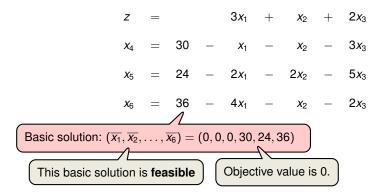


 $+ x_2 + 2x_3$

 $3x_1$

maximize subject to







Increasing the value of x_1 would increase the objective value. Ζ $3x_1$ $+ X_{2}$ $2x_3$ + $30 - x_1$ XΛ X_2 $3x_3$ $-2x_1 - 2x_2$ $5x_3$ 24 X5 36 $- 4x_1 -$ *X*₂ $2x_3$ *X*6 = The third constraint is the tightest and limits how much we can increase x_1 . Switch roles of x_1 and x_6 : Solving for x₁ yields: $x_1 = 9 - \frac{x_2}{4} - \frac{x_3}{2} - \frac{x_6}{4}$. • Substitute this into x_1 in the other three equations



Inc	Increasing the value of x_3 would increase the objective value of x_3 would be a set of x_3 would be a											
Z	=	27	+	<u>x₂</u> 4	+	$\frac{X_3}{2}$	_	$\frac{3x_{6}}{4}$				
<i>X</i> ₁	=	9	_	$\frac{x_2}{4}$	_	$\frac{x_{3}}{2}$	_	$\frac{x_6}{4}$				
X4	=	21	_	$\frac{3x_2}{4}$	_	<u>5x3</u> 2	+	$\frac{x_6}{4}$				
X5	=	6	_	<u>3x₂</u> 2	_	4 <i>x</i> ₃	+	<u>x₆</u> 2				
Basic solution: $(\overline{x_1}, \overline{x_2}, \dots, \overline{x_6}) = (9, 0, 0, 21, 6, 0)$ with objective value 27												



$$z = 27 + \frac{x_2}{4} + \frac{x_3}{2} - \frac{3x_6}{4}$$

$$x_1 = 9 - \frac{x_2}{4} - \frac{5x_3}{2} - \frac{x_6}{4}$$

$$x_4 = 21 - \frac{3x_2}{4} - \frac{5x_3}{2} + \frac{x_6}{4}$$

$$x_5 = 6 - \frac{3x_2}{2} - 4x_3 + \frac{x_6}{2}$$
third constraint is the tightest and limits how much we can increase x_3 .
$$\textbf{Switch roles of } x_3 \textbf{ and } x_5 \textbf{:}$$

$$\textbf{solving for } x_3 \textbf{ yields:}$$

$$x_3 = \frac{3}{2} - \frac{3x_2}{8} - \frac{x_5}{4} - \frac{x_6}{8}.$$

$$\textbf{substitute this into } x_3 \textbf{ in the other three equations}$$



The

Increasing the value of x_2 would increase the objective value.

$$z = \frac{111}{4} + \frac{x_2}{16} - \frac{x_5}{8} - \frac{11x_6}{16}$$

$$x_1 = \frac{33}{4} - \frac{x_2}{16} + \frac{x_5}{8} - \frac{5x_6}{16}$$

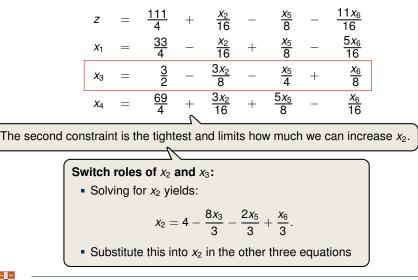
$$x_3 = \frac{3}{2} - \frac{3x_2}{8} - \frac{x_5}{4} + \frac{x_6}{8}$$

$$x_4 = \frac{69}{4} + \frac{3x_2}{16} + \frac{5x_5}{8} - \frac{x_6}{16}$$
solution: $(\overline{x_1}, \overline{x_2}, \dots, \overline{x_6}) = (\frac{33}{4}, 0, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{69}{4}, 0, 0)$ with objective value $\frac{111}{4} = 27$



Basic

.75





All coefficients are negative, and hence this basic solution is optimal!

$$z = 28 - \frac{x_3}{6} - \frac{x_5}{6} - \frac{2x_6}{3}$$

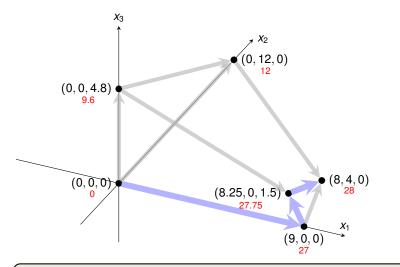
$$x_1 = 8 + \frac{x_3}{6} + \frac{x_5}{6} - \frac{x_6}{3}$$

$$x_2 = 4 - \frac{8x_3}{3} - \frac{2x_5}{3} + \frac{x_6}{3}$$

$$x_4 = 18 - \frac{x_3}{2} + \frac{x_5}{2}$$
Basic solution: $(\overline{x_1}, \overline{x_2}, \dots, \overline{x_6}) = (8, 4, 0, 18, 0, 0)$ with objective value 28



Extended Example: Visualization of SIMPLEX



Exercise: How many basic solutions (including non-feasible ones) are there?

Extended Example: Alternative Runs (1/2)

Ζ	=			3 <i>x</i> 1	+	<i>x</i> ₂	+	2 <i>x</i> ₃						
<i>x</i> ₄	=	30	_	<i>x</i> ₁	-	<i>x</i> ₂	-	3 <i>x</i> ₃						
<i>x</i> ₅	=	24	_	2 <i>x</i> ₁	-	2 <i>x</i> ₂	-	5 <i>x</i> ₃						
<i>x</i> ₆	=	36	_	4 <i>x</i> ₁	-	<i>x</i> ₂	-	2 <i>x</i> ₃						
		Switch roles of x_2 and x_5												
Ζ	=	12	+	2 <i>x</i> ₁	-	$\frac{x_3}{2}$	_	$\frac{x_{5}}{2}$						
<i>x</i> ₂	=	12	-	<i>x</i> ₁	-	$\frac{5x_{3}}{2}$	-	$\frac{x_5}{2}$						
<i>x</i> ₄	=	18	-	<i>x</i> ₂	-	$\frac{x_3}{2}$	+	$\frac{x_5}{2}$						
<i>x</i> ₆	=	24	-	3 <i>x</i> 1	+	$\frac{x_3}{2}$	+	$\frac{x_5}{2}$						
			Switch roles of x_1 and x_6											
				•				0.4						
Ζ	=	28	-	$\frac{x_3}{6}$	-	$\frac{x_5}{6}$	-	$\frac{2x_{6}}{3}$						
<i>x</i> ₁	=	8	+	$\frac{x_3}{6}$	+	$\frac{x_5}{6}$	-	$\frac{x_{6}}{3}$						
<i>x</i> ₂	=	4	-	$\frac{8x_3}{3}$	-	$\frac{2x_5}{3}$	+	$\frac{x_6}{3}$						
<i>x</i> ₄	=	18	_	$\frac{x_3}{2}$	+	$\frac{x_{5}}{2}$								



Extended Example: Alternative Runs (2/2)

				Ζ	=			3 <i>x</i> ₁	+	X	2 +	2 <i>x</i>	3				
				<i>x</i> ₄	=	30	_	<i>x</i> ₁	—	<i>X</i> 2	2 -	3 <i>x</i>	3				
				<i>x</i> ₅	=	24	-	2 <i>x</i> ₁	_	$2x_2$	2 -	5 <i>x</i>	3				
				<i>x</i> ₆	=	36	-	4 <i>x</i> ₁	_	<i>X</i> 2	2 -	2 <i>x</i>	3				
Switch roles of x_3 and x_5																	
				Ζ	=	<u>48</u> 5	+	<u>11</u> 2 5	κ <u>1</u>	+	$\frac{x_2}{5}$	-	$\frac{2x}{5}$	5			
				<i>x</i> ₄	=	<u>78</u> 5	+		κ ₁ 5	+	$\frac{x_2}{5}$	+	$\frac{3x}{5}$	5			
				<i>x</i> 3	=	<u>24</u> 5	-	2) 5		-	$\frac{2x_2}{5}$	-	x	5			
				<i>x</i> ₆	=	<u>132</u> 5	-	<u>16</u> 5	κ ₁	-	$\frac{x_2}{5}$	+	$\frac{2x}{5}$	3			
Switch roles of x_1 and x_6 Switch roles of x_2 and x_3																	
=	<u>111</u> 4	+	$\frac{x_2}{16}$	_	<u>x</u> 5 8	-	$\frac{11x_6}{16}$		z	=	28		x ₃ 6	-	$\frac{x_{5}}{6}$	_	$\frac{2x_6}{3}$
=	<u>33</u> 4	-	$\frac{x_2}{16}$	+	$\frac{x_5}{8}$	-	5 <i>x</i> ₆ 16		<i>x</i> ₁	=	8	+	$\frac{x_3}{6}$	+	$\frac{x_5}{6}$	-	$\frac{x_6}{3}$
=	<u>3</u> 2	-	$\frac{3x_2}{8}$	-	$\frac{x_5}{4}$	+	$\frac{x_6}{8}$		<i>x</i> ₂	=	4	- 8	<u>x₃</u> 3	-	$\frac{2x_{5}}{3}$	+	$\frac{x_6}{3}$
=	<u>69</u> 4	+	$\frac{3x_2}{16}$	+	$\frac{5x_5}{8}$	-	x ₆ 16		<i>x</i> ₄	=	18	_	$\frac{x_3}{2}$	+	$\frac{x_5}{2}$		

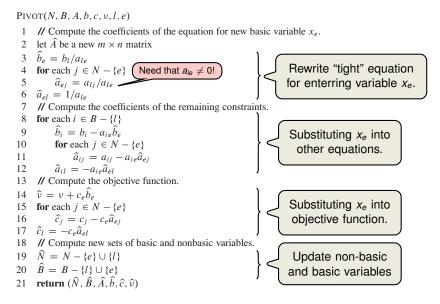
Ζ

X1

*x*3

XΔ

The Pivot Step Formally





Effect of the Pivot Step

- Lemma 29.1

Consider a call to PIVOT(N, B, A, b, c, v, l, e) in which $a_{le} \neq 0$. Let the values returned from the call be $(\widehat{N}, \widehat{B}, \widehat{A}, \widehat{b}, \widehat{c}, \widehat{v})$, and let \overline{x} denote the basic solution after the call. Then

1.
$$\overline{x}_i = 0$$
 for each $j \in \widehat{N}$.

2.
$$\overline{x}_e = b_l/a_{le}$$
.

3. $\overline{x}_i = b_i - a_{ie}\widehat{b}_e$ for each $i \in \widehat{B} \setminus \{e\}$.

Proof:

- 1. holds since the basic solution always sets all non-basic variables to zero.
- 2. When we set each non-basic variable to 0 in a constraint

$$x_i = \widehat{b}_i - \sum_{j \in \widehat{N}} \widehat{a}_{ij} x_j,$$

we have $\overline{x}_i = \widehat{b}_i$ for each $i \in \widehat{B}$. Hence $\overline{x}_e = \widehat{b}_e = b_l / a_{le}$.

3. After the substituting in the other constraints, we have

$$\overline{x}_i = \widehat{b}_i = b_i - a_{ie}\widehat{b}_e.$$



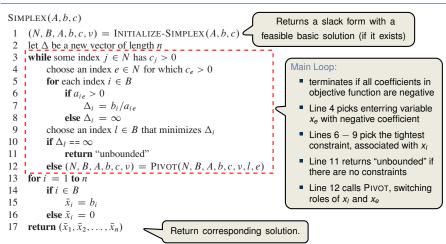
Questions:

- How do we determine whether a linear program is feasible?
- What do we do if the linear program is feasible, but the initial basic solution is not feasible?
- How do we determine whether a linear program is unbounded?
- How do we choose the entering and leaving variables?

Example before was a particularly nice one!



The formal procedure SIMPLEX





The formal procedure SIMPLEX

```
SIMPLEX(A, b, c)
     (N, B, A, b, c, v) = INITIALIZE-SIMPLEX(A, b, c)
 2
    let \Delta be a new vector of length n
 3
     while some index j \in N has c_i > 0
          choose an index e \in N for which c_e > 0
 4
 5
          for each index i \in B
               if a_{ie} > 0
 6
 7
                    \Delta_i = b_i / a_{ie}
 8
               else \Delta_i = \infty
 9
          choose an index l \in B that minimizes \Delta_i
          if \Delta_l == \infty
10
               return "unbounded"
```

Proof is based on the following three-part loop invariant:

- 1. the slack form is always equivalent to the one returned by INITIALIZE-SIMPLEX,
- 2. for each $i \in B$, we have $b_i \ge 0$,

Lemma 29.2 -----

3. the basic solution associated with the (current) slack form is feasible.

Suppose the call to INITIALIZE-SIMPLEX in line 1 returns a slack form for which the basic solution is feasible. Then if SIMPLEX returns a solution, it is a feasible solution. If SIMPLEX returns "unbounded", the linear program is unbounded.



Termination

Degeneracy: One iteration of SIMPLEX leaves the objective value unchanged.



are

Termination and Running Time

It is theoretically possible, but very rare in practice.

Cycling: SIMPLEX may fail to terminate.

Anti-Cycling Strategies

- 1. Bland's rule: Choose entering variable with smallest index
- 2. Random rule: Choose entering variable uniformly at random
- 3. Perturbation: Perturb the input slightly so that it is impossible to have two solutions with the same objective value

Replace each b_i by $\hat{b}_i = b_i + \epsilon_i$, where $\epsilon_i \gg \epsilon_{i+1}$ are all small.

Lemma 29.7

Assuming INITIALIZE-SIMPLEX returns a slack form for which the basic solution is feasible, SIMPLEX either reports that the program is unbounded or returns a feasible solution in at most $\binom{n+m}{m}$ iterations.

Every set *B* of basic variables uniquely determines a slack form, and there are at most $\binom{n+m}{m}$ unique slack forms.



Introduction

Standard and Slack Forms

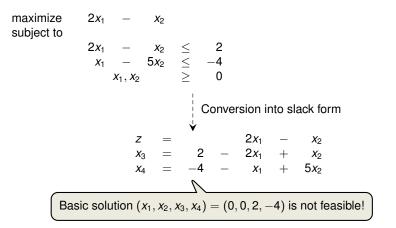
Formulating Problems as Linear Programs

Simplex Algorithm

Finding an Initial Solution

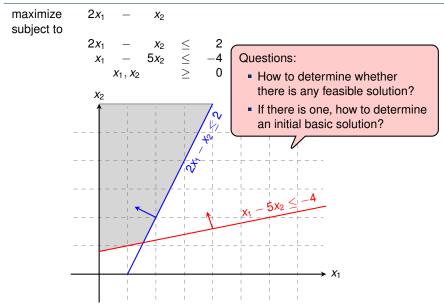


Finding an Initial Solution





Geometric Illustration



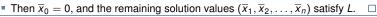


Formulating an Auxiliary Linear Program

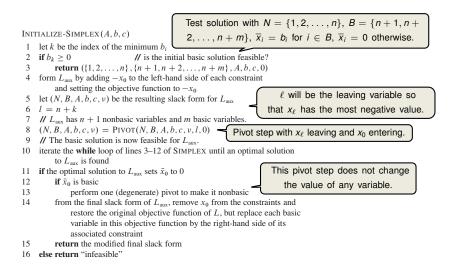
 $\sum_{i=1}^{n} c_i x_i$ maximize subject to $\begin{array}{rcl} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j} & \leq & b_{i} & \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \\ x_{i} & > & 0 & \text{ for } j = 1, 2, \dots, n \end{array}$ Formulating an Auxiliary Linear Program maximize $-x_0$ subject to $\begin{array}{rcl} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j} - x_{0} & \leq & b_{i} & \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, m, \\ x_{i} & > & 0 & \text{ for } j = 0, 1, \dots, n \end{array}$ Lemma 29.11 Let L_{aux} be the auxiliary LP of a linear program L in standard form. Then L is feasible if and only if the optimal objective value of L_{aux} is 0.

Proof.

- " \Rightarrow ": Suppose *L* has a feasible solution $\overline{x} = (\overline{x}_1, \overline{x}_2, \dots, \overline{x}_n)$
 - $\overline{x}_0 = 0$ combined with \overline{x} is a feasible solution to L_{aux} with objective value 0. Since $\overline{x}_0 \ge 0$ and the objective is to maximize $-x_0$, this is optimal for L_{aux}
- " \leftarrow ": Suppose that the optimal objective value of L_{aux} is 0

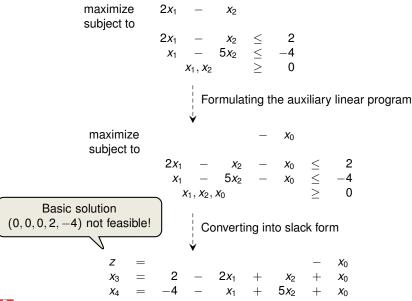


INITIALIZE-SIMPLEX



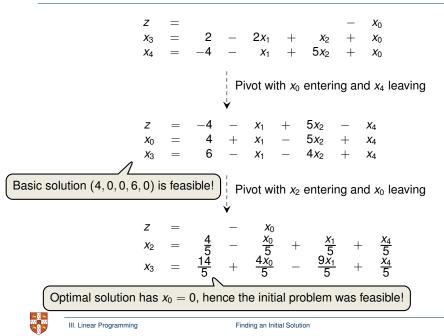


Example of INITIALIZE-SIMPLEX (1/3)





Example of INITIALIZE-SIMPLEX (2/3)



Example of INITIALIZE-SIMPLEX (3/3)

$$z = -x_{0}$$

$$x_{2} = \frac{4}{5} - \frac{x_{0}}{5} + \frac{x_{1}}{5} + \frac{x_{4}}{5}$$

$$x_{3} = \frac{14}{5} + \frac{4x_{0}}{5} - \frac{9x_{1}}{5} + \frac{x_{4}}{5}$$

$$Set x_{0} = 0 \text{ and express objective function}$$

$$y \text{ by non-basic variables}$$

$$z = -\frac{4}{5} + \frac{9x_{1}}{5} - \frac{x_{4}}{5}$$

$$x_{2} = \frac{4}{5} + \frac{x_{1}}{5} + \frac{x_{4}}{5}$$

$$x_{3} = \frac{14}{5} - \frac{9x_{1}}{5} + \frac{x_{4}}{5}$$
Basic solution $(0, \frac{4}{5}, \frac{14}{5}, 0)$, which is feasible!

Lemma 29.12

If a linear program L has no feasible solution, then INITIALIZE-SIMPLEX returns "infeasible". Otherwise, it returns a valid slack form for which the basic solution is feasible.



 Theorem 29.13 (Fundamental Theorem of Linear Programming)

 Any linear program *L*, given in standard form, either

 1. has an optimal solution with a finite objective value,

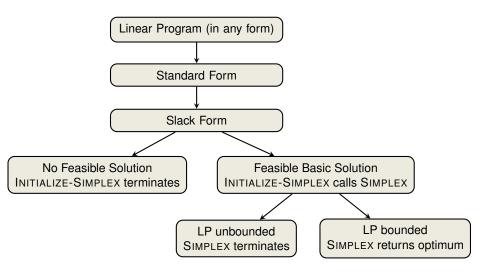
 2. is infeasible, or

 3. is unbounded.

If L is infeasible, SIMPLEX returns "infeasible". If L is unbounded, SIMPLEX returns "unbounded". Otherwise, SIMPLEX returns an optimal solution with a finite objective value.

Proof requires the concept of duality, which is not covered in this course (for details see CLRS3, Chapter 29.4)





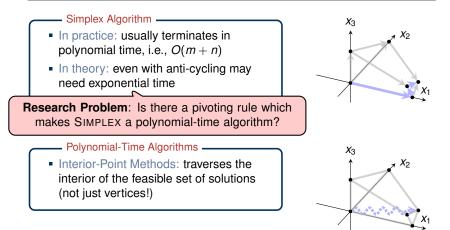


Linear Programming and Simplex: Summary and Outlook

Linear Programming -

extremely versatile tool for modelling problems of all kinds

basis of Integer Programming, to be discussed in later lectures





IV. Approximation Algorithms: Covering Problems

Thomas Sauerwald

Easter 2017



Introduction

Vertex Cover

The Set-Covering Problem



Many fundamental problems are **NP-complete**, yet they are too important to be abandoned.

Examples: HAMILTON, 3-SAT, VERTEX-COVER, KNAPSACK,...

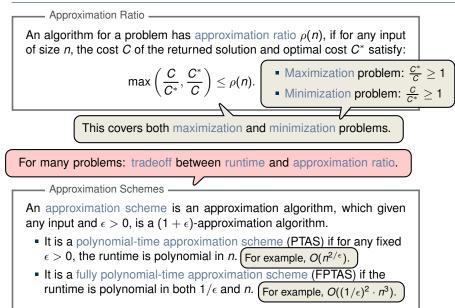
Strategies to cope with NP-complete problems -

- 1. If inputs (or solutions) are small, an algorithm with exponential running time may be satisfactory.
- 2. Isolate important special cases which can be solved in polynomial-time.
- 3. Develop algorithms which find near-optimal solutions in polynomial-time.

We will call these approximation algorithms.



Performance Ratios for Approximation Algorithms





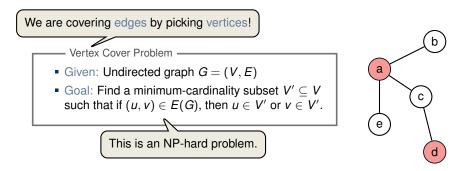
Introduction

Vertex Cover

The Set-Covering Problem



The Vertex-Cover Problem



Applications:

- Every edge forms a task, and every vertex represents a person/machine which can execute that task
- Perform all tasks with the minimal amount of resources
- Extensions: weighted vertices or hypergraphs (~→ Set-Covering Problem)

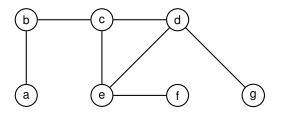


An Approximation Algorithm based on Greedy

APPROX-VERTEX-COVER (G)

- 1 $C = \emptyset$
- $2 \quad E' = G.E$
- 3 while $E' \neq \emptyset$
- 4 let (u, v) be an arbitrary edge of E'
- 5 $C = C \cup \{u, v\}$
- 6 remove from E' every edge incident on either u or v

7 return C



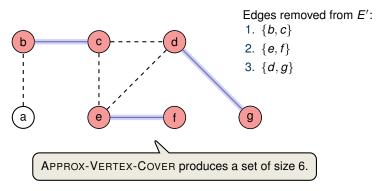


An Approximation Algorithm based on Greedy

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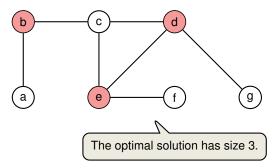


An Approximation Algorithm based on Greedy

APPROX-VERTEX-COVER (G)

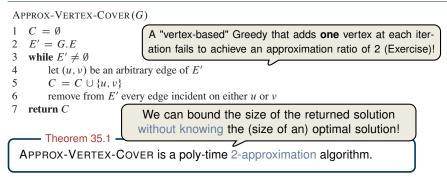
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- 4 let (u, v) be an arbitrary edge of E'
- 5 $C = C \cup \{u, v\}$
- 6 remove from E' every edge incident on either u or v

7 return C





Analysis of Greedy for Vertex Cover



Proof:

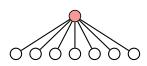
- Running time is O(V + E) (using adjacency lists to represent E')
- Let $A \subseteq E$ denote the set of edges picked in line 4
- Every edge in A contributes 2 vertices to |C|: $|C| = 2|A| \le 2|C^*|$.



Solving Special Cases

Strategies to cope with NP-complete problems -

- 1. If inputs are small, an algorithm with exponential running time may be satisfactory.
- Isolate important special cases which can be solved in polynomial-time.
- 3. Develop algorithms which find near-optimal solutions in polynomial-time.

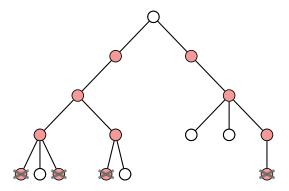








Vertex Cover on Trees



There exists an optimal vertex cover which does not include any leaves.

Exchange-Argument: Replace any leaf in the cover by its parent.



There exists an optimal vertex cover which does not include any leaves.

VERTEX-COVER-TREES(G)

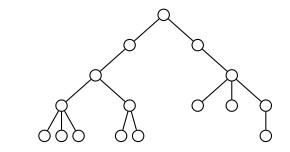
- 1: $C = \emptyset$
- 2: while \exists leaves in G
- 3: Add all parents to C
- 4: Remove all leaves and their parents from G
- 5: return C

Clear: Running time is O(V), and the returned solution is a vertex cover.

Solution is also optimal. (Use inductively the existence of an optimal vertex cover without leaves)



Execution on a Small Example

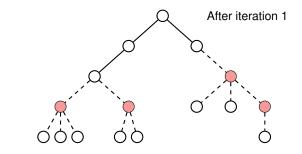


VERTEX-COVER-TREES(G)

- 1: $C = \emptyset$
- 2: while \exists leaves in G
- 3: Add all parents to C
- 4: Remove all leaves and their parents from G
- 5: return *C*



Execution on a Small Example

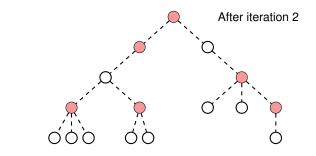


VERTEX-COVER-TREES(G)

- 1: $C = \emptyset$
- 2: while \exists leaves in G
- 3: Add all parents to C
- 4: Remove all leaves and their parents from G
- 5: return *C*



Execution on a Small Example



VERTEX-COVER-TREES(G)

1:
$$C = \emptyset$$

2: while \exists leaves in G

- 3: Add all parents to C
- 4: Remove all leaves and their parents from G
- 5: return *C*

Problem can be also solved on bipartite graphs, using Max-Flows and Min-Cuts.

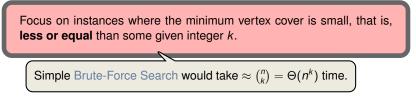


Exact Algorithms

Such algorithms are called exact algorithms.

Strategies to cope with NP-complete problems -

- 1. If inputs (or solutions) are small, an algorithm with exponential running time may be satisfactory
- 2. Isolate important special cases which can be solved in polynomial-time.
- 3. Develop algorithms which find near-optimal solutions in polynomial-time.



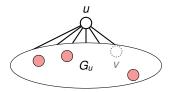


Substructure Lemma — Consider a graph G = (V, E), edge $\{u, v\} \in E(G)$ and integer $k \ge 1$. Let G_u be the graph obtained by deleting u and its incident edges (G_v is defined similarly). Then G has a vertex cover of size k if and only if G_u or G_v (or both) have a vertex cover of size k - 1.

Proof:

Reminiscent of Dynamic Programming.

- $\leftarrow \text{ Assume } G_u \text{ has a vertex cover } C_u \text{ of size } k 1.$ Adding *u* yields a vertex cover of *G* which is of size *k*
- ⇒ Assume *G* has a vertex cover *C* of size *k*, which contains, say *u*. Removing *u* from *C* yields a vertex cover of G_u which is of size k - 1. □





A More Efficient Search Algorithm

VERTEX-COVER-SEARCH(G, k)

- 1: If $E = \emptyset$ return \emptyset
- 2: If k = 0 and $E \neq \emptyset$ return \bot
- 3: Pick an arbitrary edge $(u, v) \in E$
- 4: $S_1 = VERTEX-COVER-SEARCH(G_u, k 1)$
- 5: $S_2 = VERTEX-COVER-SEARCH(G_v, k-1)$
- 6: if $S_1 \neq \bot$ return $S_1 \cup \{u\}$
- 7: if $S_2 \neq \bot$ return $S_2 \cup \{v\}$
- 8: return \perp

Correctness follows by the Substructure Lemma and induction.

Running time:

- Depth k, branching factor $2 \Rightarrow$ total number of calls is $O(2^k)$
- O(E) work per recursive call
- Total runtime: $O(2^k \cdot E)$.

exponential in k, but much better than $\Theta(n^k)$ (i.e., still polynomial for $k = O(\log n)$)

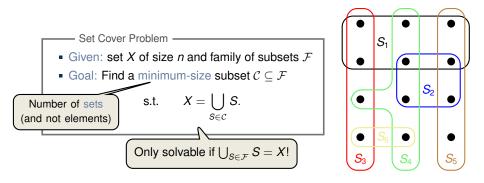


Introduction

Vertex Cover

The Set-Covering Problem





Remarks:

- generalisation of the vertex-cover problem and hence also NP-hard.
- models resource allocation problems



Greedy

Strategy: Pick the set *S* that covers the largest number of uncovered elements.

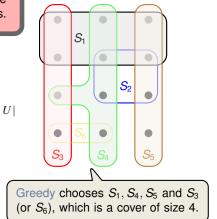
GREEDY-SET-COVER (X, \mathcal{F})

- 1 U = X
- $2 \quad \mathcal{C} = \emptyset$
- 3 while $U \neq \emptyset$
- 4 select an $S \in \mathcal{F}$ that maximizes $|S \cap U|$

5
$$U = U - S$$

$$6 \qquad \mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C} \cup \{S\}$$

7 return \mathcal{C}





Greedy

Strategy: Pick the set *S* that covers the largest number of uncovered elements.

GREEDY-SET-COVER (X, \mathcal{F}) 1 U = X2 $\mathcal{C} = \emptyset$

3 while $U \neq \emptyset$

4 select an $S \in \mathcal{F}$ that maximizes $|S \cap U|$

$$U = U - S$$

$$e = e \cup \{S$$

7 return C

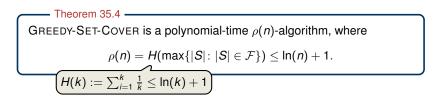
Can be easily implemented to run in time polynomial in |X| and $|\mathcal{F}|$

 S_1 S_2 S_3 Optimal cover is $C = \{S_3, S_4, S_5\}$

How good is the approximation ratio?



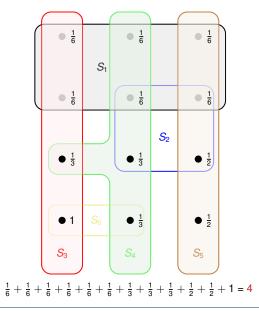
Approximation Ratio of Greedy



Idea: Distribute cost of 1 for each added set over newly covered elements.

Definition of cost If an element *x* is covered for the first time by set S_i in iteration *i*, then $c_x := \frac{1}{|S_i \setminus (S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \dots \cup S_{i-1})|}.$ Notice that in the mathematical analysis, S_i is the set chosen in iteration *i* - not to be confused with the sets S_1, S_2, \dots, S_6 in the example.

Illustration of Costs for Greedy picking S_1, S_4, S_5 and S_3





Proof of Theorem 35.4 (1/2)

Definition of cost If *x* is covered for the first time by a set
$$S_i$$
, then $c_x := \frac{1}{|S_i \setminus (S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \cdots \cup S_{i-1})|}$.

Proof.

Each step of the algorithm assigns one unit of cost, so

$$|\mathcal{C}| = \sum_{x \in X} c_x \tag{1}$$

• Each element $x \in X$ is in at least one set in the optimal cover C^* , so

$$\sum_{S\in\mathcal{C}^*}\sum_{x\in S}c_x\geq \sum_{x\in X}c_x \tag{2}$$

Combining 1 and 2 gives

$$|\mathcal{C}| \leq \sum_{S \in \mathcal{C}^*} \sum_{x \in S} c_x \leq \sum_{S \in \mathcal{C}^*} H(|S|) \leq |\mathcal{C}^*| \cdot H(\max\{|S|: S \in \mathcal{F}\})$$

(ev Inequality: $\sum_{x \in S} c_x \leq H(|S|)$.



Proof of Theorem 35.4 (2/2)

Proof of the Key Inequality $\sum_{x \in S} c_x \le H(|S|)$

Remaining uncovered elements in S

Sets chosen by the algorithm

- For any $S \in \mathcal{F}$ and $i = 1, 2, ..., |\mathcal{C}| = k$ let $u_i := |S \setminus (S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \cdots \cup S_i)|$
- ⇒ $u_0 = \ge u_1 \ge \cdots \ge u_{|C|} = 0$ and $u_{i-1} u_i$ counts the items in *S* covered first time by S_i . ⇒

$$\sum_{x\in S} c_x = \sum_{i=1}^k (u_{i-1} - u_i) \cdot \frac{1}{|S_i \setminus (S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \cdots \cup S_{i-1})|}$$

Further, by definition of the GREEDY-SET-COVER:

 $|S_i \setminus (S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \cdots \cup S_{i-1})| \geq |S \setminus (S_1 \cup S_2 \cup \cdots \cup S_{i-1})| = u_{i-1}.$

Combining the last inequalities gives:

$$\sum_{x \in S} c_x \le \sum_{i=1}^k (u_{i-1} - u_i) \cdot \frac{1}{u_{i-1}} = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=u_i+1}^{u_{i-1}} \frac{1}{u_{i-1}}$$
$$\le \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=u_i+1}^{u_{i-1}} \frac{1}{j}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^k (H(u_{i-1}) - H(u_i)) = H(u_0) - H(u_k) = H(|S|). \quad \Box$$



IV. Covering Problems

The Set-Covering Problem

Set-Covering Problem (Summary)

The same approach also gives an approximation ratio of $O(\ln(n))$ if there exists a cost function $c : S \to \mathbb{Z}^+$

Theorem 35.4

GREEDY-SET-COVER is a polynomial-time $\rho(n)$ -algorithm, where

$$\rho(n) = H(\max\{|S| \colon |S| \in \mathcal{F}\}) \le \ln(n) + 1.$$

Can be applied to the Vertex Cover Problem for Graphs with maximum degree 3 to obtain approximation ratio of $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} < 2$.

Is the bound on the approximation ratio in Theorem 35.4 tight?

Is there a better algorithm?

- Lower Bound

Unless P=NP, there is no $c \cdot \ln(n)$ polynomial-time approximation algorithm for some constant 0 < c < 1.

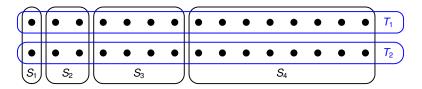


Example where the solution of Greedy is bad

Instance

- Given any integer k ≥ 3
- There are $n = 2^{k+1} 2$ elements overall (so $k \approx \log_2 n$)
- Sets S_1, S_2, \ldots, S_k are pairwise disjoint and each set contains $2, 4, \ldots, 2^k$ elements
- Sets T₁, T₂ are disjoint and each set contains half of the elements of each set S₁, S₂,..., S_k

$$k = 4, n = 30$$
:



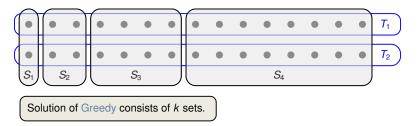


Example where the solution of Greedy is bad

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$$k = 4, n = 30$$
:



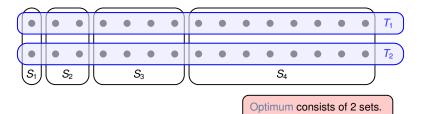


Example where the solution of Greedy is bad

Instance

- Given any integer k ≥ 3
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- Sets T₁, T₂ are disjoint and each set contains half of the elements of each set S₁, S₂,..., S_k

$$k = 4, n = 30$$
:





V. Approximation Algorithms via Exact Algorithms

Thomas Sauerwald

Easter 2017

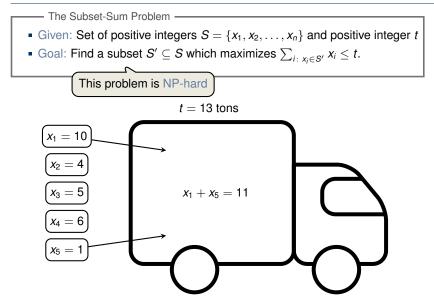


The Subset-Sum Problem

Parallel Machine Scheduling

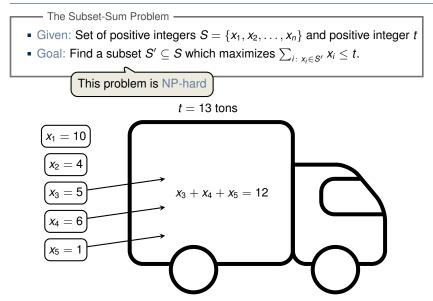


The Subset-Sum Problem



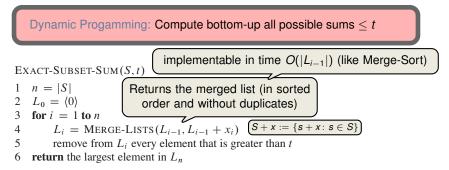


The Subset-Sum Problem





An Exact (Exponential-Time) Algorithm



Example:

• $S = \{1, 4, 5\}, t = 10$ • $I_0 = \langle 0 \rangle$

•
$$L_1 = \langle 0, 1 \rangle$$

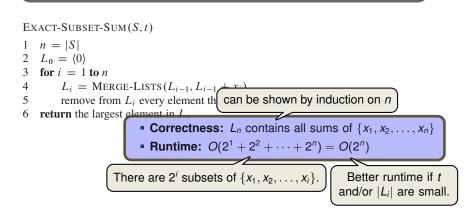
•
$$L_2 = \langle 0, 1, 4, 5 \rangle$$

• $L_3 = \langle 0, 1, 4, \frac{5}{2}, 6, 9, 10 \rangle$



An Exact (Exponential-Time) Algorithm

Dynamic Programming: Compute bottom-up all possible sums $\leq t$





Towards a FPTAS

Idea: Don't need to maintain two values in L which are close to each other.

Trimming a List -

- Given a trimming parameter 0 < δ < 1
- Trimming *L* yields minimal sublist *L'* so that for every $y \in L$: $\exists z \in L'$:

 $\text{TRIM}(L, \delta)$

$$\frac{y}{1+\delta} \le z \le y.$$

$$L = \langle 10, 11, 12, 15, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 29 \rangle$$

$$\delta = 0.1$$

$$L' = \langle 10, 12, 15, 20, 23, 29 \rangle$$

1 let *m* be the length of *L*
2
$$L' = \langle y_1 \rangle$$

3 $last = y_1$
4 **for** $i = 2$ **to** *m*
5 **if** $y_i > last \cdot (1 + \delta)$ // $y_i \ge last$ because *L* is sorted
6 append y_i onto the end of *L'*
7 $last = y_i$
8 **return** *L'*
TRIM works in time $\Theta(m)$, if *L* is given in sorted order.



Illustration of the Trim Operation

 $\operatorname{Trim}(L, \delta)$

```
1 let m be the length of L

2 L' = \langle y_1 \rangle

3 last = y_1

4 for i = 2 to m

5 if y_i > last \cdot (1 + \delta) // y_i \ge last because L is sorted

6 append y_i onto the end of L'

7 last = y_i

8 return L'
```

 $\delta = 0.1$ After the initialization (lines 1-3) $L = \langle 10, 11, 12, 15, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 29 \rangle$ $\uparrow i$ $L' = \langle 10 \rangle$



Illustration of the Trim Operation

 $\operatorname{Trim}(L, \delta)$

1 let *m* be the length of *L* $L' = \langle y_1 \rangle$ $last = y_1$ **for** i = 2 **to** *m* **if** $y_i > last \cdot (1 + \delta)$ // $y_i \ge last$ because *L* is sorted 6 append y_i onto the end of *L'* $last = y_i$ **return** *L'*

 $\delta = 0.1$ The returned list *L'* $L = \langle 10, 11, 12, 15, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 29 \rangle$ $\downarrow last$ $L' = \langle 10, 12, 15, 20, 23, 29 \rangle$

APPROX-SUBSET-SUM (S, t, ϵ) n = |S|1 $L_0 = \langle 0 \rangle$ for i = 1 to n3 4 $L_i = \text{MERGE-LISTS}(L_{i-1}, L_{i-1} + x_i)$ 4 5 $L_i = \text{TRIM}(L_i, \epsilon/2n)$ 5 remove from L_i every element that is greater than t 6 let z^* be the largest value in L_n 7 return z* 8 Repeated application of TRIM to make sure L_i 's remain short.

EXACT-SUBSET-SUM(S, t)

 $1 \quad n = |S|$

$$L_0 = \langle 0 \rangle$$

- 3 **for** i = 1 **to** n
 - $L_i = \text{MERGE-LISTS}(L_{i-1}, L_{i-1} + x_i)$
 - remove from L_i every element that is greater than t
- 6 return the largest element in L_n

- We must bound the inaccuracy introduced by repeated trimming
- We must show that the algorithm is polynomial time

Solution is a careful choice of $\delta!$



Running through an Example

APPROX-SUBSET-SUM (S, t, ϵ) n = |S|2 $L_0 = (0)$ 3 for i = 1 to n 4 $L_i = \text{MERGE-LISTS}(L_{i-1}, L_{i-1} + x_i)$ 5 $L_i = \text{TRIM}(L_i, \epsilon/2n)$ remove from L_i every element that is greater than t 6 7 let z^* be the largest value in L_n 8 return z* • Input: $S = \langle 104, 102, 201, 101 \rangle$, t = 308, $\epsilon = 0.4$ \Rightarrow Trimming parameter: $\delta = \epsilon/(2 \cdot n) = \epsilon/8 = 0.05$ • line 2: $L_0 = \langle 0 \rangle$ • line 4: $L_1 = \langle 0, 104 \rangle$ • line 5: $L_1 = \langle 0, 104 \rangle$ • line 6: $L_1 = \langle 0, 104 \rangle$ Ine 4: $L_2 = \langle 0, 102, 104, 206 \rangle$ • line 5: $L_2 = \langle 0, 102, 206 \rangle$ • line 6: $L_2 = \langle 0, 102, 206 \rangle$ Ine 4: $L_3 = \langle 0, 102, 201, 206, 303, 407 \rangle$ Ine 5: $L_3 = \langle 0, 102, 201, 303, 407 \rangle$ Ine 6: $L_3 = \langle 0, 102, 201, 303 \rangle$ Ine 4: $L_4 = \langle 0, 101, 102, 201, 203, 302, 303, 404 \rangle$ • line 5: $L_4 = \langle 0, 101, 201, 302, 404 \rangle$ Returned solution $z^* = 302$, which is 2% Ine 6: $L_4 = \langle 0, 101, 201, 302 \rangle$ within the optimum 307 = 104 + 102 + 101



Analysis of APPROX-SUBSET-SUM

Theorem 35.8 -

APPROX-SUBSET-SUM is a FPTAS for the subset-sum problem.

Proof (Approximation Ratio):

- Returned solution z^* is a valid solution \checkmark
- Let y* denote an optimal solution
- For every possible sum $y \le t$ of x_1, \ldots, x_i , there exists an element $z \in L'_i$ s.t.:

$$\frac{y}{(1+\epsilon/(2n))^{i}} \leq z \leq y \qquad \stackrel{y=y^{*}, i=n}{\rightarrow} \qquad \frac{y^{*}}{(1+\epsilon/(2n))^{n}} \leq z \leq y^{*}$$
Can be shown by induction on *i*
and now using the fact that $\left(1 + \frac{\epsilon/2}{n}\right)^{n} \xrightarrow{n \to \infty} e^{\epsilon/2}$ yields
$$\frac{y^{*}}{z} \leq e^{\epsilon/2} \qquad \text{Taylor approximation of } e^{\epsilon/2} \leq 1 + \epsilon/2 + (\epsilon/2)^{2} \leq 1 + \epsilon$$



Analysis of APPROX-SUBSET-SUM

- Theorem 35.8 -

APPROX-SUBSET-SUM is a FPTAS for the subset-sum problem.

Proof (Running Time):

- Strategy: Derive a bound on |L_i| (running time is linear in |L_i|)
- After trimming, two successive elements z and z' satisfy $z'/z \ge 1 + \epsilon/(2n)$
- ⇒ Possible Values after trimming are 0, 1, and up to $\lfloor \log_{1+\epsilon/(2n)} t \rfloor$ additional values. Hence,

$$\log_{1+\epsilon/(2n)} t + 2 = \frac{\ln t}{\ln(1+\epsilon/(2n))} + 2$$
$$\leq \frac{2n(1+\epsilon/(2n))\ln t}{\epsilon} + 2$$
For $x > -1$, $\ln(1+x) \ge \frac{x}{1+x}$ $< \frac{3n\ln t}{\epsilon} + 2$.

• This bound on $|L_i|$ is polynomial in the size of the input and in $1/\epsilon$.

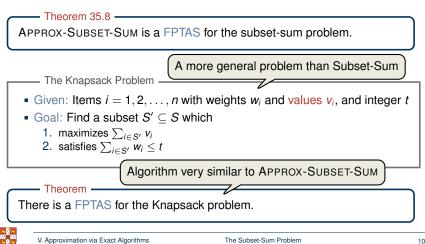
Need log(t) bits to represent t and n bits to represent S



Concluding Remarks

The Subset-Sum Problem

- Given: Set of positive integers $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ and positive integer t
- Goal: Find a subset $S' \subseteq S$ which maximizes $\sum_{i: x_i \in S'} x_i \leq t$.



The Subset-Sum Problem

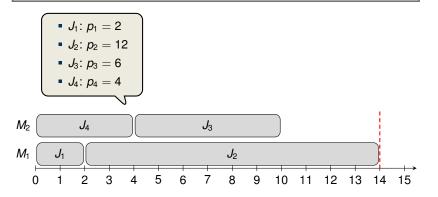
Parallel Machine Scheduling



Parallel Machine Scheduling

Machine Scheduling Problem

- Given: *n* jobs J_1, J_2, \ldots, J_n with processing times p_1, p_2, \ldots, p_n , and *m* identical machines M_1, M_2, \ldots, M_m
- Goal: Schedule the jobs on the machines minimizing the makespan $C_{\max} = \max_{1 \le j \le n} C_j$, where C_k is the completion time of job J_k .

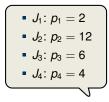




Parallel Machine Scheduling

Machine Scheduling Problem

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- Goal: Schedule the jobs on the machines minimizing the makespan $C_{\max} = \max_{1 \le j \le n} C_j$, where C_k is the completion time of job J_k .



For the analysis, it will be convenient to denote by C_i the completion time of a machine *i*.



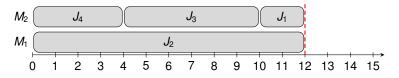


NP-Completeness of Parallel Machine Scheduling

Lemma

Parallel Machine Scheduling is NP-complete even if there are only two machines.

Proof Idea: Polynomial time reduction from NUMBER-PARTITIONING.



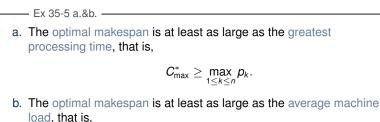
Equivalent to the following Online Algorithm [CLRS]: Whenever a machine is idle, schedule any job that has not yet been scheduled.

LIST SCHEDULING $(J_1, J_2, \ldots, J_n, m)$

- 1: while there exists an unassigned job
- 2: Schedule job on the machine with the least load

How good is this most basic Greedy Approach?





$$C^*_{\max} \geq \frac{1}{m}\sum_{k=1}^n p_k.$$

Proof:

- b. The total processing times of all *n* jobs equals $\sum_{k=1}^{n} p_k$
- \Rightarrow One machine must have a load of at least $\frac{1}{m} \cdot \sum_{k=1}^{n} p_k$



List Scheduling Analysis (Final Step)

- Ex 35-5 d. (Graham 1966) -

For the schedule returned by the greedy algorithm it holds that

$$C_{\max} \leq rac{1}{m}\sum_{k=1}^n p_k + \max_{1\leq k\leq n} p_k.$$

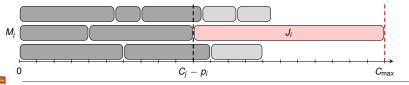
Hence list scheduling is a poly-time 2-approximation algorithm.

Proof:

- Let J_i be the last job scheduled on machine M_j with $C_{max} = C_j$
- When J_i was scheduled to machine M_j , $C_j p_i \le C_k$ for all $1 \le k \le m$
- Averaging over k yields:

$$C_j - p_i \leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^m C_k = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^n p_k \quad \Rightarrow \qquad C_j \leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^n p_k + \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} p_k \leq 2 \cdot C_{\max}^*$$

Parallel Machine Scheduling



Using Ex 35-5 a &b

Improving Greedy

The problem of the List-Scheduling Approach were the large jobs

Analysis can be shown to be almost tight. Is there a better algorithm?

LEAST PROCESSING TIME $(J_1, J_2, \ldots, J_n, m)$

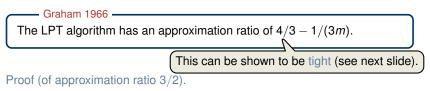
- 1: Sort jobs decreasingly in their processing times
- 2: **for** *i* = 1 to *m*
- 3: $C_i = 0$
- 4: $S_i = \emptyset$
- 5: **end for**
- 6: **for** j = 1 to n7: $i = \operatorname{argmin}_{1 < k < m} C_k$
- 8: $S_i = \breve{S}_i \cup \{j\}, \ \breve{C}_i = C_i + p_j$
- 9: **end for**
- 10: **return** *S*₁,..., *S*_{*m*}

Runtime:

- O(n log n) for sorting
- O(n log m) for extracting (and re-inserting) the minimum (use priority queue).



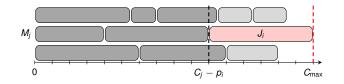
Analysis of Improved Greedy



- Observation 1: If there are at most *m* jobs, then the solution is optimal.
- Observation 2: If there are more than *m* jobs, then $C^*_{max} \ge 2 \cdot p_{m+1}$.
- As in the analysis for list scheduling, we have

$$\mathcal{C}_{\mathsf{max}} = \mathcal{C}_j = (\mathcal{C}_j - \mathcal{p}_i) + \mathcal{p}_i \leq \mathcal{C}^*_{\mathsf{max}} + rac{1}{2}\mathcal{C}^*_{\mathsf{max}} = rac{3}{2}\mathcal{C}_{\mathsf{max}}.$$

This is for the case $i \ge m + 1$ (otherwise, an even stronger inequality holds)





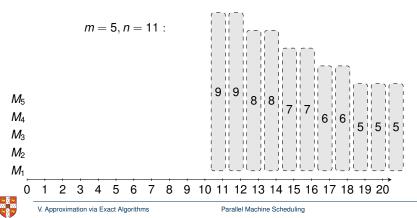
Tightness of the Bound for LPT

Graham 1966

The LPT algorithm has an approximation ratio of 4/3 - 1/(3m).

Proof of an instance which shows tightness:

- *m* machines
- n = 2m + 1 jobs of length 2m 1, 2m 2, ..., m and one job of length m



Tightness of the Bound for LPT

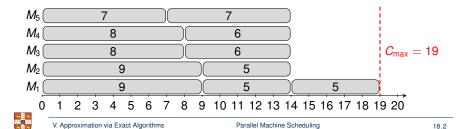
- Graham 1966 -

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Proof of an instance which shows tightness:

- *m* machines
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$$m = 5, n = 11$$
: LPT gives $C_{\text{max}} = 19$

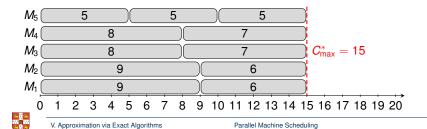


Tightness of the Bound for LPT



- m machines
- n = 2m + 1 jobs of length 2m 1, 2m 2, ..., m and one job of length m

$$n = 5, n = 11$$
:
LPT gives $C_{max} = 19$
Optimum is $C_{max}^* = 15$



A PTAS for Parallel Machine Scheduling

Basic Idea: For $(1 + \epsilon)$ -approximation, don't have to work with exact p_k 's.

SUBROUTINE($J_1, J_2, ..., J_n, m, T$) 1: Either: **Return** a solution with $C_{max} \le (1 + \epsilon) \cdot max\{T, C_{max}^*\}$ 2: Or: **Return** there is no solution with makespan < TKey Lemma We will prove this on the next slides. SUBROUTINE can be implemented in time $n^{O(1/\epsilon^2)}$.

— Theorem (Hochbaum, Shmoys'87) –

There exists a PTAS for Parallel Machine Scheduling which runs in time $O(n^{O(1/\epsilon^2)} \cdot \log P)$, where $P := \sum_{k=1}^{n} p_k$.

polynomial in the size of the input

Proof (using Key Lemma):

 $\mathsf{PTAS}(J_1, J_2, \ldots, J_n, m)$

- Since $0 \le C^*_{max} \le P$ and C^*_{max} is integral, binary search terminates after $O(\log P)$ steps.
- 1: Do binary search to find smallest T s.t. $C_{\max} \leq (1 + \epsilon) \cdot \max\{T, C_{\max}^*\}$.
- 2: **Return** solution computed by SUBROUTINE $(J_1, J_2, ..., J_n, m, T)$



Implementation of Subroutine

SUBROUTINE $(J_1, J_2, \ldots, J_n, m, T)$

- 1: Either: **Return** a solution with $C_{\max} \leq (1 + \epsilon) \cdot \max\{T, C_{\max}^*\}$
- 2: Or: **Return** there is no solution with makespan < T

Observation -

Divide jobs into two groups: $J_{small} = \{J_i : p_i \le \epsilon \cdot T\}$ and $J_{large} = J \setminus J_{small}$. Given a solution for J_{large} only with makespan $(1 + \epsilon) \cdot T$, then greedily placing J_{small} yields a solution with makespan $(1 + \epsilon) \cdot \max\{T, C_{max}^*\}$.

Proof:

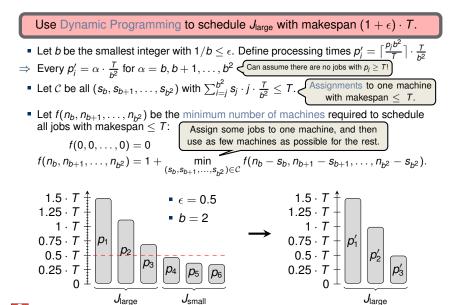
- Let M_j be the machine with largest load
- If there are no jobs from J_{small} , then makespan is at most $(1 + \epsilon) \cdot T$.
- Otherwise, let $i \in J_{small}$ be the last job added to M_j .

$$C_{j} - p_{i} \leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} p_{k} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad C_{j} \leq p_{i} + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} p_{k}$$

$$\underbrace{ \leq \epsilon \cdot T + C_{\max}^{*}}_{ \leq (1 + \epsilon) \cdot \max\{T, C_{\max}^{*}\}} \quad \Box$$



Proof of Key Lemma





Parallel Machine Scheduling

Proof of Key Lemma

Use Dynamic Programming to schedule J_{large} with makespan $(1 + \epsilon) \cdot T$.

• Let *b* be the smallest integer with $1/b \le \epsilon$. Define processing times $p'_i = \left\lceil \frac{p_i b^2}{T} \right\rceil \cdot \frac{T}{h^2}$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 Every $p'_i = \alpha \cdot \frac{T}{b^2}$ for $\alpha = b, b + 1, \dots, b^2$

- Let C be all $(s_b, s_{b+1}, \dots, s_{b^2})$ with $\sum_{i=j}^{b^2} s_j \cdot j \cdot \frac{T}{b^2} \leq T$.
- Let $f(n_b, n_{b+1}, ..., n_{b^2})$ be the minimum number of machines required to schedule all jobs with makespan $\leq T$:

$$f(0,0,\ldots,0) = 0$$

$$f(n_b, n_{b+1},\ldots,n_{b^2}) = 1 + \min_{(s_b,s_{b+1},\ldots,s_{b^2}) \in \mathcal{C}} f(n_b - s_b, n_{b+1} - s_{b+1},\ldots,n_{b^2} - s_{b^2}).$$

- Number of table entries is at most n^{b^2} , hence filling all entries takes $n^{O(b^2)}$
- If $f(n_b, n_{b+1}, ..., n_{b^2}) \le m$ (for the jobs with p'), then return yes, otherwise no.
- As every machine is assigned at most b jobs $(p'_i \ge \frac{T}{b})$ and the makespan is $\le T$,

$$egin{aligned} & \mathcal{C}_{ ext{max}} \leq \mathcal{T} + b \cdot \max_{i \in \mathcal{J}_{ ext{large}}} \left(p_i - p_i'
ight) \ & \leq \mathcal{T} + b \cdot rac{\mathcal{T}}{b^2} \leq (1 + \epsilon) \cdot \mathcal{T}. \end{aligned}$$

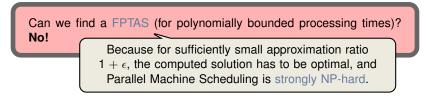


Graham 1966 -

List scheduling has an approximation ratio of 2.

Graham 1966 — Graham 1966 — The LPT algorithm has an approximation ratio of 4/3 - 1/(3m).

Theorem (Hochbaum, Shmoys'87) There exists a PTAS for Parallel Machine Scheduling which runs in time $O(n^{O(1/\epsilon^2)} \cdot \log P)$, where $P := \sum_{k=1}^{n} p_k$.





VI. Approximation Algorithms: Travelling Salesman Problem

Thomas Sauerwald

Easter 2017



Introduction

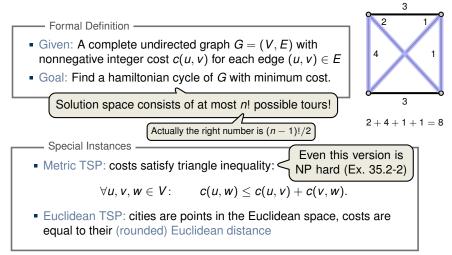
General TSP

Metric TSP



The Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP)

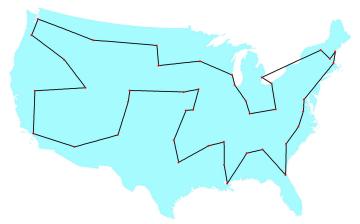
Given a set of cities along with the cost of travel between them, find the cheapest route visiting all cities and returning to your starting point.





History of the TSP problem (1954)

Dantzig, Fulkerson and Johnson found an optimal tour through 42 cities.

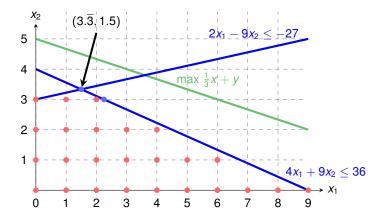


http://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/tsp/history/img/dantzig_big.html



The Dantzig-Fulkerson-Johnson Method

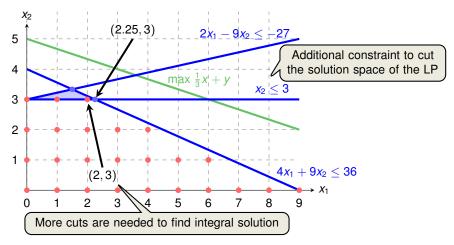
- 1. Create a linear program (variable x(u, v) = 1 iff tour goes between u and v)
- 2. Solve the linear program. If the solution is integral and forms a tour, stop. Otherwise find a new constraint to add (cutting plane)





The Dantzig-Fulkerson-Johnson Method

- 1. Create a linear program (variable x(u, v) = 1 iff tour goes between u and v)
- 2. Solve the linear program. If the solution is integral and forms a tour, stop. Otherwise find a new constraint to add (cutting plane)





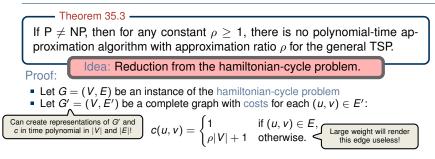
Introduction

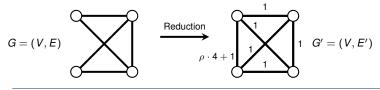
General TSP

Metric TSP



Hardness of Approximation



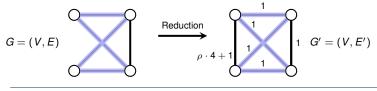




Hardness of Approximation

Theorem 35.3 If $P \neq NP$, then for any constant $\rho \ge 1$, there is no polynomial-time approximation algorithm with approximation ratio ρ for the general TSP. Idea: Reduction from the hamiltonian-cycle problem. Proof: • Let G = (V, E) be an instance of the hamiltonian-cycle problem • Let G' = (V, E') be a complete graph with costs for each $(u, v) \in E'$: $c(u, v) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (u, v) \in E, \\ \rho |V| + 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

• If G has a hamiltonian cycle H, then (G', c) contains a tour of cost |V|





Hardness of Approximation

Theorem 35.3

Proof:

If P \neq NP, then for any constant $\rho \ge 1$, there is no polynomial-time approximation algorithm with approximation ratio ρ for the general TSP.

Idea: Reduction from the hamiltonian-cycle problem.

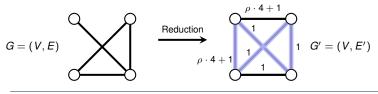
- Let G = (V, E) be an instance of the hamiltonian-cycle problem
- Let G' = (V, E') be a complete graph with costs for each $(u, v) \in E'$:

$$c(u, v) = egin{cases} 1 & ext{if } (u, v) \in E \
ho |V| + 1 & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

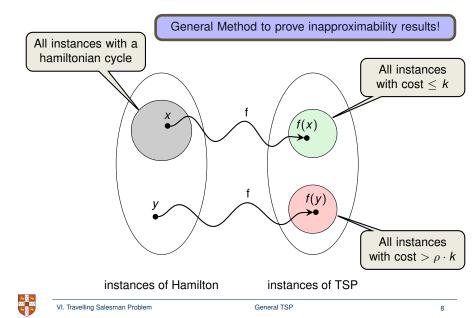
- If G has a hamiltonian cycle H, then (G', c) contains a tour of cost |V|
- If G does not have a hamiltonian cycle, then any tour T must use some edge $\notin E$,

$$\Rightarrow \qquad c(T) \ge (\rho |V| + 1) + (|V| - 1) = (\rho + 1) |V|.$$

- Gap of *ρ* + 1 between tours which are using only edges in *G* and those which don't
- ρ -Approximation of TSP in G' computes hamiltonian cycle in G (if one exists)







Introduction

General TSP

Metric TSP



Idea: First compute an MST, and then create a tour based on the tree.

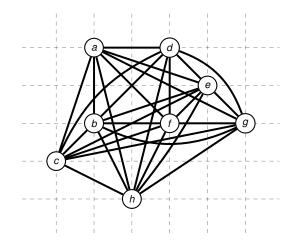
APPROX-TSP-TOUR(G, c)

- 1 select a vertex $r \in G.V$ to be a "root" vertex
- 2 compute a minimum spanning tree T for G from root r using MST-PRIM(G, c, r)
- 3 let H be a list of vertices, ordered according to when they are first visited in a preorder tree walk of T
- 4 return the hamiltonian cycle H

Runtime is dominated by MST-PRIM, which is $\Theta(V^2)$.

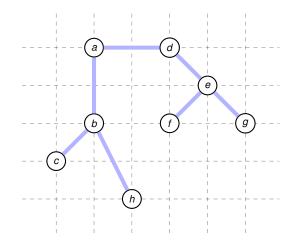
Remember: In the Metric-TSP problem, *G* is a complete graph.





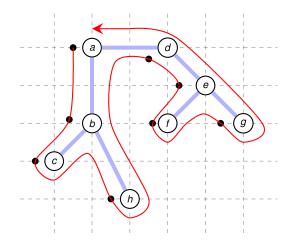
1. Compute MST





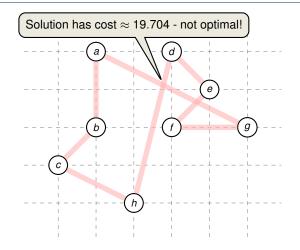
- 1. Compute MST √
- 2. Perform preorder walk on MST





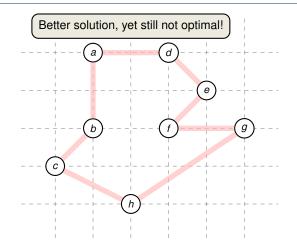
- 1. Compute MST √
- 2. Perform preorder walk on MST \checkmark
- 3. Return list of vertices according to the preorder tree walk





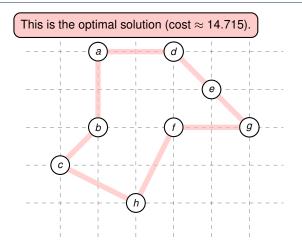
- 1. Compute MST \checkmark
- 2. Perform preorder walk on MST \checkmark
- 3. Return list of vertices according to the preorder tree walk \checkmark





- 1. Compute MST \checkmark
- 2. Perform preorder walk on MST \checkmark
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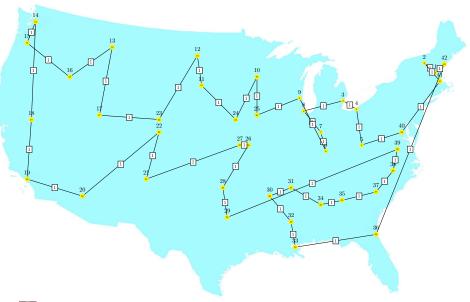




- 1. Compute MST \checkmark
- 2. Perform preorder walk on MST \checkmark
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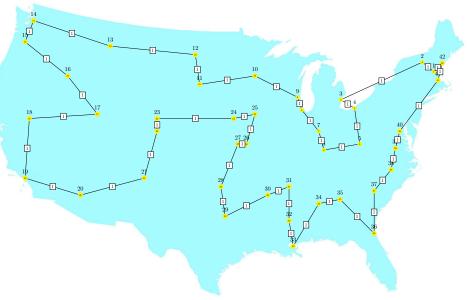


Approximate Solution: Objective 921





Optimal Solution: Objective 699





Proof of the Approximation Ratio

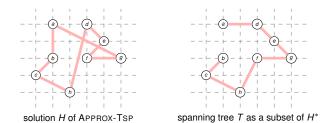
Theorem 35.2 -

APPROX-TSP-TOUR is a polynomial-time 2-approximation for the traveling-salesman problem with the triangle inequality.

Proof:

- Consider the optimal tour *H*^{*} and remove an arbitrary edge
- \Rightarrow yields a spanning tree T and $c(T) \leq c(H^*)$

exploiting that all edge costs are non-negative!





Proof of the Approximation Ratio

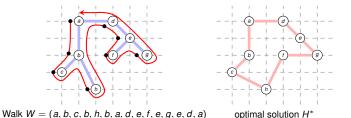
Theorem 35.2 -

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Proof:

- Consider the optimal tour H* and remove an arbitrary edge
- \Rightarrow yields a spanning tree T and $c(T) \leq c(H^*)$
 - Let W be the full walk of the minimum spanning tree T_{min} (including repeated visits)
- \Rightarrow Full walk traverses every edge exactly twice, so

 $c(W) = 2c(T_{\min}) \leq 2c(T) \leq 2c(H^*)$





Proof of the Approximation Ratio

Theorem 35.2 -

APPROX-TSP-TOUR is a polynomial-time 2-approximation for the traveling-salesman problem with the triangle inequality.

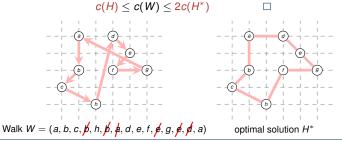
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 - Let W be the full walk of the minimum spanning tree T_{min} (including repeated visits)
- \Rightarrow Full walk traverses every edge exactly twice, so

$$c(W) = 2c(T_{\min}) \leq 2c(T) \leq 2c(H^*)$$

exploiting triangle inequality!

Deleting duplicate vertices from W yields a tour H with smaller cost:





Christofides Algorithm

- Theorem 35.2 -

APPROX-TSP-TOUR is a polynomial-time 2-approximation for the traveling-salesman problem with the triangle inequality.

Can we get a better approximation ratio?

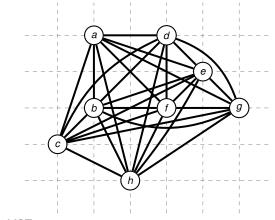
CHRISTOFIDES(G, c)

- 1: select a vertex $\hat{r} \in \hat{G}.V$ to be a "root" vertex
- 2: compute a minimum spanning tree T for G from root r
- 3: using MST-PRIM(G, c, r)
- 4: compute a perfect matching M with minimum weight in the complete graph
- 5: over the odd-degree vertices in T
- 6: let H be a list of vertices, ordered according to when they are first visited
- 7: in a Eulearian circuit of $T \cup M$
- 8: return H

- Theorem (Christofides'76) -

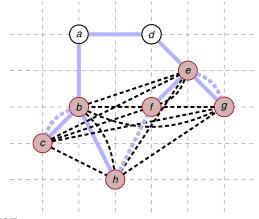
There is a polynomial-time $\frac{3}{2}$ -approximation algorithm for the travelling salesman problem with the triangle inequality.





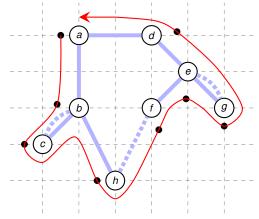
1. Compute MST





- 1. Compute MST \checkmark
- 2. Add a minimum-weight perfect matching *M* of the odd vertices in $T \checkmark$

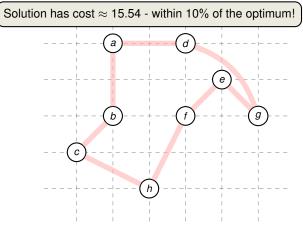




- 1. Compute MST √
- 2. Add a minimum-weight perfect matching *M* of the odd vertices in $T \checkmark$
- 3. Find an Eulerian Circuit \checkmark

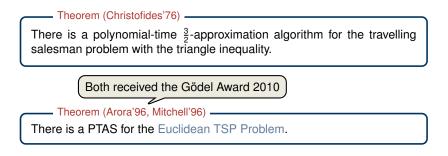
All vertices in $T \cup M$ have even degree!





- 1. Compute MST √
- 2. Add a minimum-weight perfect matching *M* of the odd vertices in $T \checkmark$
- 3. Find an Eulerian Circuit \checkmark
- 4. Transform the Circuit into a Hamiltonian Cycle \checkmark





"Christos Papadimitriou told me that the traveling salesman problem is not a problem. It's an addiction."

Jon Bentley 1991





VII. Approximation Algorithms: Randomisation and Rounding

Thomas Sauerwald

Easter 2017



Randomised Approximation

MAX-3-CNF

Weighted Vertex Cover

Weighted Set Cover



Performance Ratios for Randomised Approximation Algorithms



A randomised algorithm for a problem has approximation ratio $\rho(n)$, if for any input of size *n*, the expected cost *C* of the returned solution and optimal cost *C*^{*} satisfy:

$$\max\left(\frac{C}{C^*},\frac{C^*}{C}\right) \leq \rho(n).$$

Call such an algorithm randomised $\rho(n)$ -approximation algorithm.

extends in the natural way to randomised algorithms

Approximation Schemes

An approximation scheme is an approximation algorithm, which given any input and $\epsilon > 0$, is a $(1 + \epsilon)$ -approximation algorithm.

- It is a polynomial-time approximation scheme (PTAS) if for any fixed $\epsilon > 0$, the runtime is polynomial in *n*. For example, $O(n^{2/\epsilon})$.
- It is a fully polynomial-time approximation scheme (FPTAS) if the runtime is polynomial in both $1/\epsilon$ and *n*. (For example, $O((1/\epsilon)^2 \cdot n^3)$.)



Randomised Approximation

MAX-3-CNF

Weighted Vertex Cover

Weighted Set Cover



MAX-3-CNF Satisfiability

Assume that no literal (including its negation)
appears more than once in the same clause.MAX-3-CNF SatisfiabilityGiven: 3-CNF formula, e.g.: $(x_1 \lor x_3 \lor \overline{x_4}) \land (x_2 \lor \overline{x_3} \lor \overline{x_5}) \land \cdots$ Goal: Find an assignment of the variables that satisfies as many
clauses as possible.Relaxation of the satisfiability problem. Want to com-
pute how "close" the formula to being satisfiable is.

Example:

$$(x_1 \lor x_3 \lor \overline{x_4}) \land (x_1 \lor \overline{x_3} \lor \overline{x_5}) \land (x_2 \lor \overline{x_4} \lor x_5) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor x_2 \lor \overline{x_3})$$

 $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0, x_3 = 1, x_4 = 0$ and $x_5 = 1$ satisfies 3 (out of 4 clauses)

Idea: What about assigning each variable independently at random?

Analysis

Theorem 35.6

Given an instance of MAX-3-CNF with *n* variables $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ and *m* clauses, the randomised algorithm that sets each variable independently at random is a randomised 8/7-approximation algorithm.

Proof:

■ For every clause *i* = 1, 2, ..., *m*, define a random variable:

 $Y_i = \mathbf{1}$ {clause *i* is satisfied}

Since each literal (including its negation) appears at most once in clause *i*,

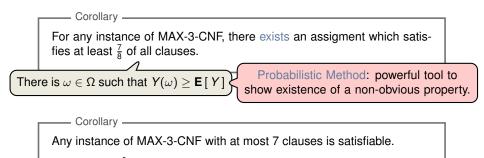
• Let $Y := \sum_{i=1}^{m} Y_i$ be the number of satisfied clauses. Then,

$$\mathbf{E}[Y] = \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} Y_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbf{E}[Y_i] = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{7}{8} = \frac{7}{8} \cdot m. \quad \Box$$
(Linearity of Expectations) (maximum number of satisfiable clauses is m



Theorem 35.6

Given an instance of MAX-3-CNF with *n* variables $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ and *m* clauses, the randomised algorithm that sets each variable independently at random is a polynomial-time randomised 8/7-approximation algorithm.



Follows from the previous Corollary.



Expected Approximation Ratio

- Theorem 35.6

Given an instance of MAX-3-CNF with *n* variables $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ and *m* clauses, the randomised algorithm that sets each variable independently at random is a polynomial-time randomised 8/7-approximation algorithm.

One could prove that the probability to satisfy $(7/8) \cdot m$ clauses is at least 1/(8m)

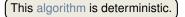
$$\mathbf{E}[Y] = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \mathbf{E}[Y \mid x_1 = 1] + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \mathbf{E}[Y \mid x_1 = 0].$$
Y is defined as in the previous proof. One of the two conditional expectations is at least $\mathbf{E}[Y]!$

GREEDY-3-CNF(ϕ , n, m)

- 1: **for** *j* = 1, 2, . . . , *n*
- 2: Compute **E** [$Y | x_1 = v_1 \dots, x_{j-1} = v_{j-1}, x_j = 1$]
- 3: Compute **E**[$Y | x_1 = v_1, ..., x_{j-1} = v_{j-1}, x_j = 0$]
- 4: Let $x_j = v_j$ so that the conditional expectation is maximized
- 5: **return** the assignment v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n



Analysis of GREEDY-3-CNF(ϕ , n, m)



Theorem

GREEDY-3-CNF(ϕ , n, m) is a polynomial-time 8/7-approximation.

Proof:

- Step 1: polynomial-time algorithm
 - In iteration j = 1, 2, ..., n, $Y = Y(\phi)$ averages over 2^{n-j+1} assignments
 - A smarter way is to use linearity of (conditional) expectations:

$$\mathbf{E} \begin{bmatrix} Y \mid x_1 = v_1, \dots, x_{j-1} = v_{j-1}, x_j = 1 \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathbf{E} \begin{bmatrix} Y_i \mid x_1 = v_1, \dots, x_{j-1} = v_{j-1}, x_j = 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Step 2: satisfies at least 7/8 · *m* clauses

Due to the greedy choice in each iteration j = 1, 2, ..., n,

$$\mathbf{E} [Y | x_1 = v_1, \dots, x_{j-1} = v_{j-1}, x_j = v_j] \ge \mathbf{E} [Y | x_1 = v_1, \dots, x_{j-1} = v_{j-1}]$$

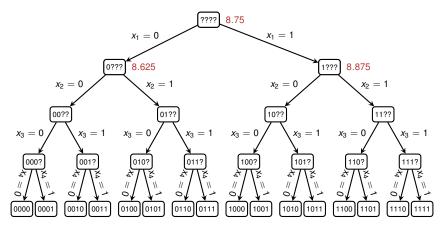
$$\ge \mathbf{E} [Y | x_1 = v_1, \dots, x_{j-2} = v_{j-2}]$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\geq \mathbf{E}[Y] = \frac{7}{8} \cdot m.$$

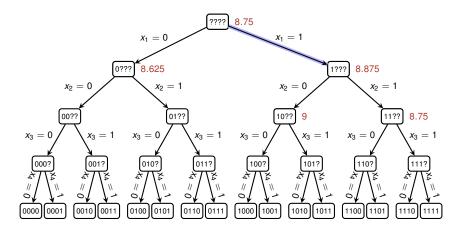


 $\begin{array}{c} (x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3) \land (x_1 \lor \overline{x_2} \lor \overline{x_4}) \land (x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \overline{x_4}) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor \overline{x_3} \lor x_4) \land (x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \overline{x_4}) \land \\ (\overline{x_1} \lor \overline{x_2} \lor \overline{x_3}) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor x_2 \lor x_3) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor \overline{x_2} \lor x_3) \land (x_1 \lor x_3 \lor x_4) \land (x_2 \lor \overline{x_3} \lor \overline{x_4}) \end{array}$



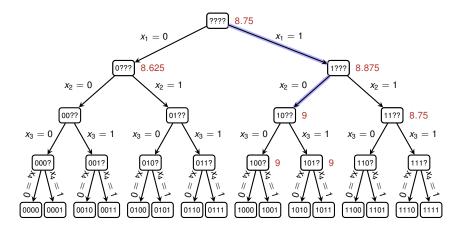


 $1 \land 1 \land 1 \land (\overline{x_3} \lor x_4) \land 1 \land (\overline{x_2} \lor \overline{x_3}) \land (x_2 \lor x_3) \land (\overline{x_2} \lor x_3) \land 1 \land (x_2 \lor \overline{x_3} \lor \overline{x_4})$



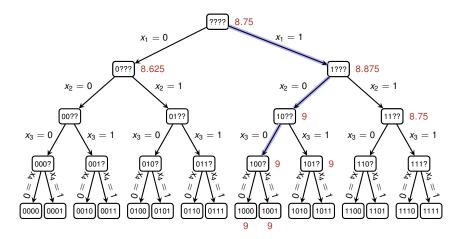


 $1 \land 1 \land 1 \land (\overline{x_3} \lor x_4) \land 1 \land 1 \land (x_3) \land 1 \land 1 \land (\overline{x_3} \lor \overline{x_4})$



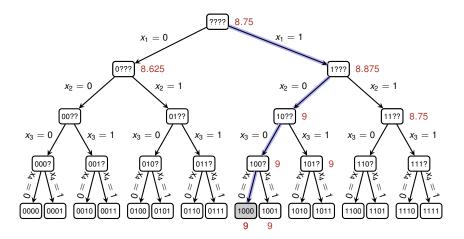


$1 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 \wedge 0 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 \wedge 1$



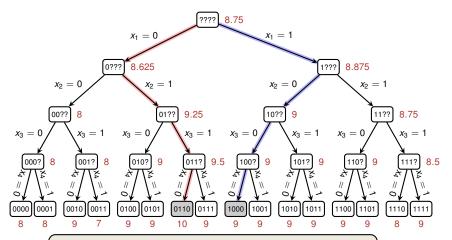


$1 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 \wedge 0 \wedge 1 \wedge 1 \wedge 1$





 $\begin{array}{c} (x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3) \land (x_1 \lor \overline{x_2} \lor \overline{x_4}) \land (x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \overline{x_4}) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor \overline{x_3} \lor x_4) \land (x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \overline{x_4}) \land \\ (\overline{x_1} \lor \overline{x_2} \lor \overline{x_3}) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor x_2 \lor x_3) \land (\overline{x_1} \lor \overline{x_2} \lor x_3) \land (x_1 \lor x_3 \lor x_4) \land (x_2 \lor \overline{x_3} \lor \overline{x_4}) \end{array}$



Returned solution satisfies 9 out of 10 clauses, but the formula is satisfiable.

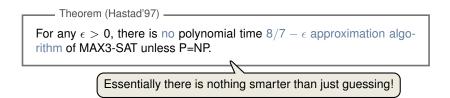


Theorem 35.6

Given an instance of MAX-3-CNF with *n* variables $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$ and *m* clauses, the randomised algorithm that sets each variable independently at random is a randomised 8/7-approximation algorithm.

Theorem -

GREEDY-3-CNF(ϕ , *n*, *m*) is a polynomial-time 8/7-approximation.





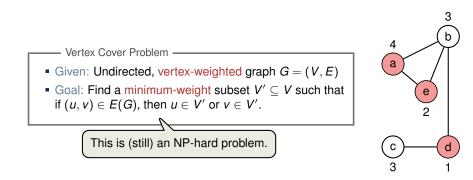
Randomised Approximation

MAX-3-CNF

Weighted Vertex Cover

Weighted Set Cover





Applications:

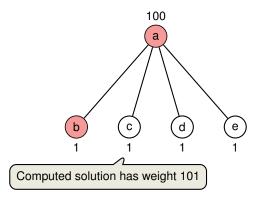
- Every edge forms a task, and every vertex represents a person/machine which can execute that task
- Weight of a vertex could be salary of a person
- Perform all tasks with the minimal amount of resources



The Greedy Approach from (Unweighted) Vertex Cover

APPROX-VERTEX-COVER (G)

- 1 $C = \emptyset$
- $2 \quad E' = G.E$
- 3 while $E' \neq \emptyset$
- 4 let (u, v) be an arbitrary edge of E'
- 5 $C = C \cup \{u, v\}$
- 6 remove from E' every edge incident on either u or v
- 7 return C

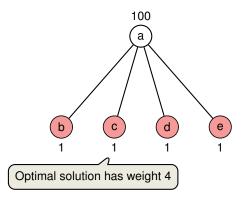




The Greedy Approach from (Unweighted) Vertex Cover

APPROX-VERTEX-COVER (G)

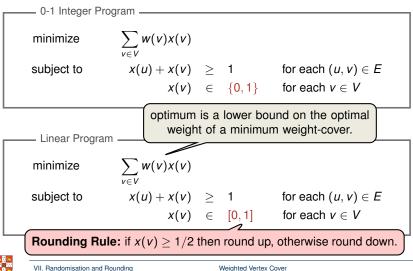
- 1 $C = \emptyset$
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- 3 while $E' \neq \emptyset$
- 4 let (u, v) be an arbitrary edge of E'
- 5 $C = C \cup \{u, v\}$
- 6 remove from E' every edge incident on either u or v
- 7 return C





Invoking an (Integer) Linear Program

Idea: Round the solution of an associated linear program.



APPROX-MIN-WEIGHT-VC(G, w)

 $C = \emptyset$ 2 compute \bar{x} , an optimal solution to the linear program **for** each $\nu \in V$ **if** $\bar{x}(\nu) \ge 1/2$ $C = C \cup \{\nu\}$

6 return C

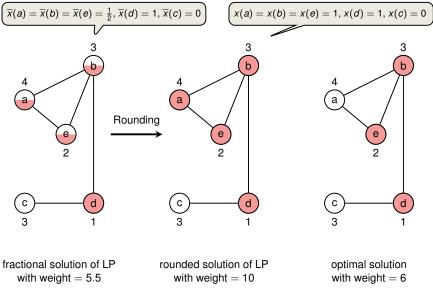
Theorem 35.7

APPROX-MIN-WEIGHT-VC is a polynomial-time 2-approximation algorithm for the minimum-weight vertex-cover problem.

is polynomial-time because we can solve the linear program in polynomial time



Example of APPROX-MIN-WEIGHT-VC





Approximation Ratio

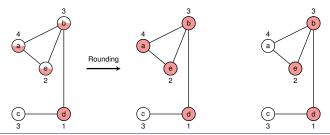
Proof (Approximation Ratio is 2):

- Let C* be an optimal solution to the minimum-weight vertex cover problem
- Let *z** be the value of an optimal solution to the linear program, so

$$z^* \leq w(C^*)$$

- Step 1: The computed set C covers all vertices:
 - Consider any edge $(u, v) \in E$ which imposes the constraint $x(u) + x(v) \ge 1$
 - \Rightarrow at least one of $\overline{x}(u)$ and $\overline{x}(v)$ is at least $1/2 \Rightarrow C$ covers edge (u, v)
- Step 2: The computed set C satisfies w(C) ≤ 2z*:

$$w(C^*) \ge z^* = \sum_{v \in V} w(v)\overline{x}(v) \ge \sum_{v \in V: \ \overline{x}(v) \ge 1/2} w(v) \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}w(C).$$





Weighted Vertex Cover

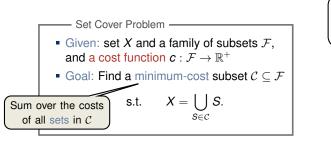
Randomised Approximation

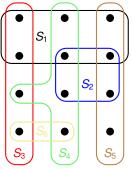
MAX-3-CNF

Weighted Vertex Cover

Weighted Set Cover



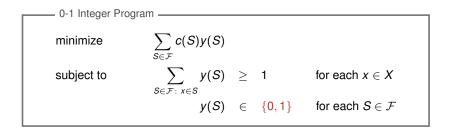


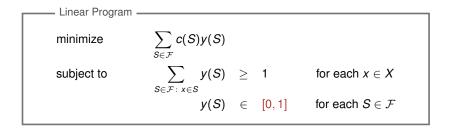


Remarks:

- generalisation of the weighted vertex-cover problem
- models resource allocation problems

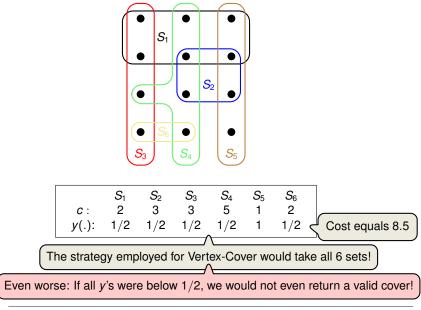








Back to the Example



Randomised Rounding

Idea: Interpret the y-values as probabilities for picking the respective set.

Randomised Rounding -

- Let $C \subseteq F$ be a random set with each set *S* being included independently with probability y(S).
- More precisely, if y denotes the optimal solution of the LP, then we compute an integral solution y by:

$$ar{y}(S) = egin{cases} 1 & ext{with probability } y(S) \ 0 & ext{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 for all $S \in \mathcal{F}.$

• Therefore,
$$\mathbf{E}[\bar{y}(S)] = y(S)$$
.



Randomised Rounding

Idea: Interpret the y-values as probabilities for picking the respective set.

Lemma -

The expected cost satisfies

$$\mathsf{E}[\mathit{c}(\mathcal{C})] = \sum_{S \in \mathcal{F}} \mathit{c}(S) \cdot \mathit{y}(S)$$

■ The probability that an element *x* ∈ *X* is covered satisfies

$$\Pr\left[x\in\bigcup_{S\in\mathcal{C}}S\right]\geq 1-\frac{1}{e}.$$



Proof of Lemma

– Lemma ·

Let $C \subseteq F$ be a random subset with each set *S* being included independently with probability y(S).

- The expected cost satisfies $\mathbf{E}[c(\mathcal{C})] = \sum_{S \in \mathcal{F}} c(S) \cdot y(S)$.
- The probability that x is covered satisfies $\Pr[x \in \bigcup_{S \in C} S] \ge 1 \frac{1}{e}$.

Proof:

Step 1: The expected cost of the random set C

$$\mathbf{E}[c(\mathcal{C})] = \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{S\in\mathcal{C}}c(S)\right] = \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{S\in\mathcal{F}}\mathbf{1}_{S\in\mathcal{C}}\cdot c(S)\right]$$
$$= \sum_{S\in\mathcal{F}}\mathbf{Pr}[S\in\mathcal{C}]\cdot c(S) = \sum_{S\in\mathcal{F}}y(S)\cdot c(S).$$

Step 2: The probability for an element to be (not) covered

$$\Pr[x \notin \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{C}} S] = \prod_{S \in \mathcal{F} : x \in S} \Pr[S \notin \mathcal{C}] = \prod_{S \in \mathcal{F} : x \in S} (1 - y(S))$$

$$\leq \prod_{S \in \mathcal{F} : x \in S} e^{-y(S)} (y \text{ solves the LP!})$$

$$= e^{-\sum_{S \in \mathcal{F} : x \in S} y(S)} \leq e^{-1} \square$$



The Final Step

– Lemma

Let $C \subseteq F$ be a random subset with each set *S* being included independently with probability y(S).

- The expected cost satisfies $\mathbf{E}[c(\mathcal{C})] = \sum_{S \in \mathcal{F}} c(S) \cdot y(S)$.
- The probability that x is covered satisfies $\Pr[x \in \bigcup_{S \in C} S] \ge 1 \frac{1}{e}$.

Problem: Need to make sure that every element is covered!

Idea: Amplify this probability by taking the union of $\Omega(\log n)$ random sets C.

WEIGHTED SET COVER-LP(X, \mathcal{F}, c)

- 1: compute y, an optimal solution to the linear program
- 2: $\mathcal{C} = \emptyset$
- 3: repeat 2 ln n times
- 4: for each $S \in \mathcal{F}$
- 5: let $C = C \cup \{S\}$ with probability y(S)
- 6: return \mathcal{C}

clearly runs in polynomial-time!



Theorem

- With probability at least $1 \frac{1}{n}$, the returned set C is a valid cover of X.
- The expected approximation ratio is 2 ln(n).

Proof:

- Step 1: The probability that ${\mathcal C}$ is a cover
 - By previous Lemma, an element $x \in X$ is covered in one of the $2 \ln n$ iterations with probability at least $1 \frac{1}{e}$, so that

$$\Pr\left[x \notin \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{C}} S\right] \le \left(\frac{1}{e}\right)^{2 \ln n} = \frac{1}{n^2}$$

This implies for the event that all elements are covered:

$$\Pr[X = \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{C}} S] = 1 - \Pr\left[\bigcup_{x \in X} \{x \notin \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{C}} S\}\right]$$
$$\bigcup B] \leq \Pr[A] + \Pr[B] \ge 1 - \sum_{x \in X} \Pr[x \notin \bigcup_{S \in \mathcal{C}} S] \ge 1 - n \cdot \frac{1}{n^2} = 1 - \frac{1}{n}$$

- Step 2: The expected approximation ratio
 - By previous lemma, the expected cost of one iteration is $\sum_{S \in \mathcal{F}} c(S) \cdot y(S)$.
 - Linearity $\Rightarrow \mathbf{E}[c(\mathcal{C})] \leq 2\ln(n) \cdot \sum_{S \in \mathcal{F}} c(S) \cdot y(S) \leq 2\ln(n) \cdot c(\mathcal{C}^*)$



Pr[A

Analysis of WEIGHTED SET COVER-LP

Theorem

- With probability at least $1 \frac{1}{n}$, the returned set C is a valid cover of X.
- The expected approximation ratio is 2 ln(n).

By Markov's inequality, $\Pr[c(\mathcal{C}) \le 4 \ln(n) \cdot c(\mathcal{C}^*)] \ge 1/2.$

Hence with probability at least $1 - \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{2} > \frac{1}{3}$, solution is within a factor of $4 \ln(n)$ of the optimum.

probability could be further increased by repeating

Typical Approach for Designing Approximation Algorithms based on LPs



Spectrum of Approximations

