SS 2014

Efficient Algorithms and Data Structures II

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http://www14.in.tum.de/lehre/2014SS/ea/

Summer Term 2014

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Part I

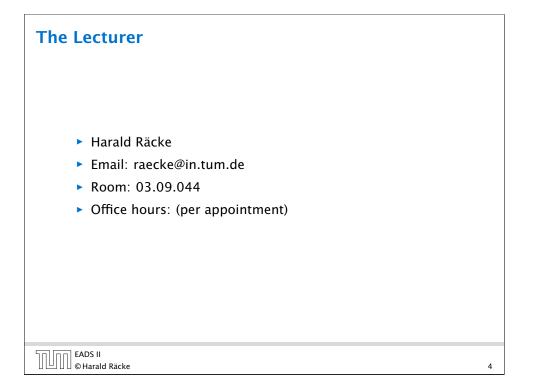
Organizational Matters

- Modul: IN2004
- Name: "Efficient Algorithms and Data Structures II" "Effiziente Algorithmen und Datenstrukturen II"
- ECTS: 8 Credit points
- Lectures:

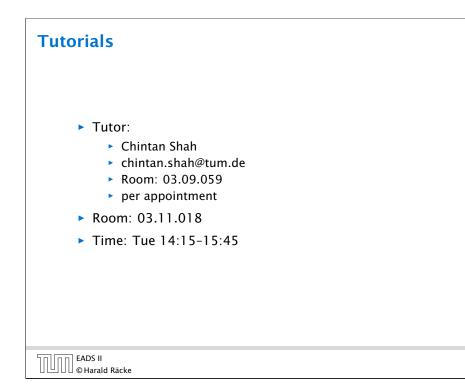
4 SWS Mon 12:15-14:45 (Room 00.13.009A) Fri 10:15-11:45 (Room 00.13.009A)

Webpage: http://www14.in.tum.de/lehre/2014SS/ea/

Part I Organizational Matters



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Assessment

- In order to pass the module you need to pass an exam.
- Exam:
 - 3 hours
 - Date will be announced shortly.
 - There are no resources allowed, apart from a hand-written piece of paper (A4).

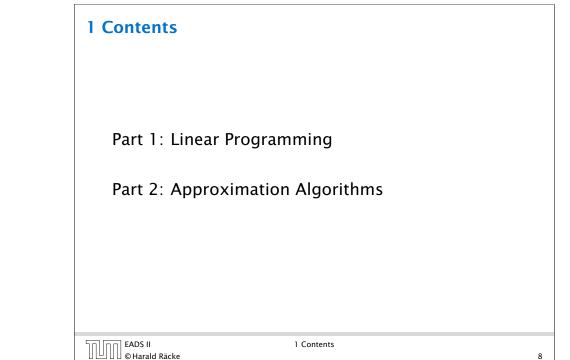
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Answers should be given in English, but German is also accepted.

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Assessment Assignment Sheets: • An assignment sheet is usually made available on Monday on the module webpage. Solutions have to be handed in in the following week before the lecture on Monday. • You can hand in your solutions by putting them in the right folder in front of room 03.09.052. Solutions have to be given in English. Solutions will be discussed in the subsequent tutorial on Tuesday. The first one will be out on Monday, 14 April. EADS II ||||||| © Harald Räcke

2 Literatur

V. Chvatal: <i>Linear Programming</i> , Freeman, 1983
R. Seidel: Skript Optimierung, 1996
D. Bertsimas and J.N. Tsitsiklis: Introduction to Linear Optimization, Athena Scientific, 1997
Vijay V. Vazirani: <i>Approximation Algorithms</i> , Springer 2001
 DS II 2 Literatur Harald Räcke

Part II Linear Programming David P. Williamson and David B. Shmoys: *The Design of Approximation Algorithms*, Cambridge University Press 2011
 G. Ausiello, P. Crescenzi, G. Gambosi, V. Kann, A. Marchetti-Spaccamela, and M. Protasi: *Complexity and Approximation*, Springer, 1999

Brewery Problem

$ar{U}$ Brewery brews ale and beer.

- Production limited by supply of corn, hops and barley malt
- Recipes for ale and beer require different amounts of resources

	Corn (kg)	Hops (kg)	Malt (kg)	Profit (€)
ale (barrel)	5	4	35	13
beer (barrel)	15	4	20	23
supply	480	160	1190	

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Brewery Problem

	Corn (kg)	Hops (kg)	Malt (kg)	Profit (€)
ale (barrel)	5	4	35	13
beer (barrel)	15	4	20	23
supply	480	160	1190	

How can brewer maximize profits?

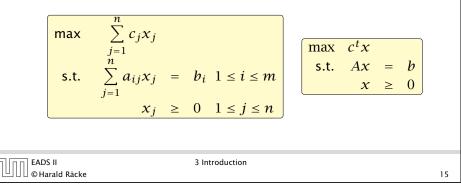
- ▶ only brew ale: 34 barrels of ale \Rightarrow 442 €
- ▶ only brew beer: 32 barrels of beer \Rightarrow 736€
- ▶ 7.5 barrels ale, 29.5 barrels beer \Rightarrow 776 €
- ▶ 12 barrels ale, 28 barrels beer $\Rightarrow 800 \in$

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Standard Form LPs

LP in standard form:

- input: numbers a_{ij} , c_j , b_i
- output: numbers x_i
- n =#decision variables, m = #constraints
- maximize linear objective function subject to linear inequalities



Brewery Problem

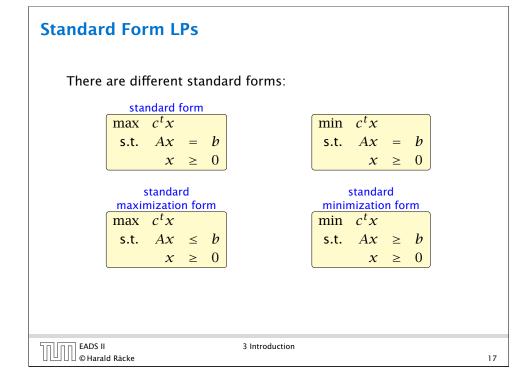
Linear Program

 \mathbb{N}

- Introduce variables a and b that define how much ale and beer to produce.
- Choose the variables in such a way that the objective function (profit) is maximized.
- Make sure that no constraints (due to limited supply) are violated.

	max	13a	+	23 <i>b</i>	
	s.t.	5 <i>a</i>	+	$15b \leq 480$	
		4 <i>a</i>	+	$4b \leq 160$	
		35a	+	$20b \leq 1190$	
				$a, b \geq 0$	
		3	Introd	luction	
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Standard For	m LP	S								
Original LP										
	n	nax	13a	+	23b					
		s.t.	5a	+	15b	≤ 4	80			
			4 <i>a</i>	+	4b	≤ 1	60			
			35a	+	20b					
					a,b	≥ ()			
Standard For Add a slack va max 13	ariable			con	strain	ıt.				
s.t.				- 5	~				= 480	
	4a +			5	+	Sh			= 160	
35	5a +	20	b				+	Sm	= 1190	
	а,		b,	S	с,	s_h	,	s_m	≥ 0	J
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Standard Form LPs

It is easy to transform variants of LPs into (any) standard form:

equality to less or equal:

$$a-3b+5c = 12 \implies a-3b+5c \le 12$$

 $-a+3b-5c \le -12$

• equality to greater or equal:

 $a - 3b + 5c = 12 \implies a - 3b + 5c \ge 12$ $-a + 3b - 5c \ge -12$

unrestricted to nonnegative:

$$x \text{ unrestricted} \implies x = x^+ - x^-, x^+ \ge 0, x^- \ge 0$$

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Standard Form LPs

It is easy to transform variants of LPs into (any) standard form:

less or equal to equality:

$$a - 3b + 5c \le 12 \implies a - 3b + 5c + s = 12$$

 $s \ge 0$

greater or equal to equality:

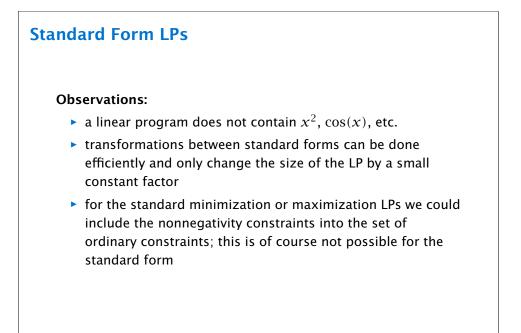
$$a - 3b + 5c \ge 12 \implies a - 3b + 5c - s = 12$$

 $s \ge 0$

min to max:

$$\min a - 3b + 5c \implies \max -a + 3b - 5c$$

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Fundamental Questions

Definition 1 (Linear Programming Problem (LP)) Let $A \in \mathbb{Q}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{Q}^m$, $c \in \mathbb{Q}^n$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$. Does there exist

 $x \in \mathbb{Q}^n$ s.t. $Ax = b, x \ge 0, c^t x \ge \alpha$?

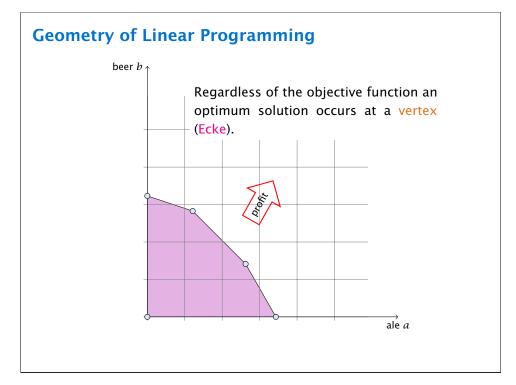
Questions:

- ► Is LP in NP?
- ► Is LP in co-NP?
- ► Is LP in P?

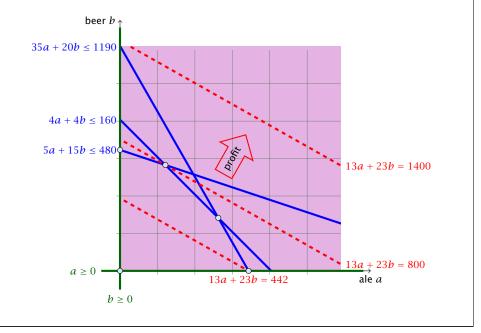
Input size:

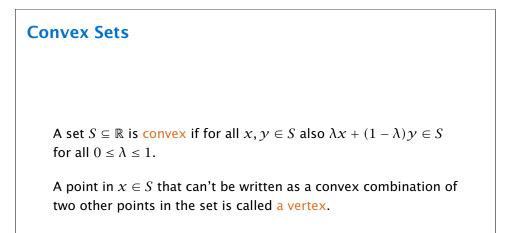
n number of variables, *m* constraints, *L* number of bits to encode the input

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Geometry of Linear Programming





Definitions

Let for a Linear Program in standard form
P = {x | Ax = b, x ≥ 0}.
P is called the feasible region (Lösungsraum) of the LP.
A point x ∈ P is called a feasible point (gültige Lösung).
If P ≠ Ø then the LP is called feasible (erfüllbar). Otherwise, it is called infeasible (unerfüllbar).
An LP is bounded (beschränkt) if it is feasible and
c^tx < ∞ for all x ∈ P (for maximization problems)
c^tx > -∞ for all x ∈ P (for minimization problems)

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Definitions

Definition 3

A polyhedron is a set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ that can be represented as the intersection of finitely many half-spaces $\{H(a_1, b_1), \ldots, H(a_m, b_m)\}$, where

 $H(a_i, b_i) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid a_i x \le b_i\} .$

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Definitions

Definition 2

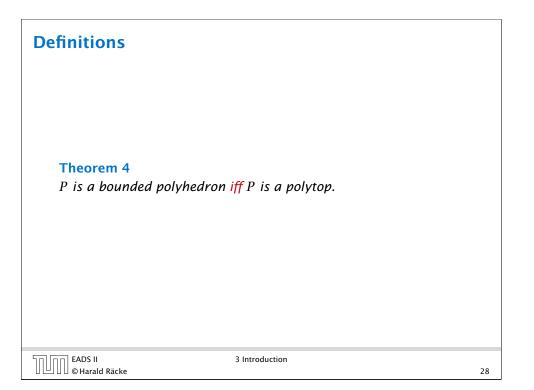
A polytop is a set $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ that is the convex hull of a finite set of points, i.e., P = conv(X) where

$$\operatorname{conv}(X) = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^{\ell} \lambda_i x_i \mid \ell \in \mathbb{N}, x_1, \dots, x_{\ell} \in X, \lambda_i \ge 0, \sum_i \lambda_i = 1 \right\}$$

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and |X| = c.

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Definition 5

Let $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$. The hyperplane

 $H(a,b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid ax = b\}$

is a supporting hyperplane of *P* if $max{ax | x \in P} = b$.

Definition 6

Let $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. *F* is a face of *P* if F = P or $F = P \cap H$ for some supporting hyperplane *H*.

Definition 7

Let $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$.

- v is a vertex of P if $\{v\}$ is a face of P.
- *e* is an edge of *P* if *e* is a face and dim(e) = 1.
- *F* is a facet of *P* if *F* is a face and $\dim(e) = \dim(P) 1$.

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Convex Sets

Theorem 8

If there exists an optimal solution to an LP then there exists an optimum solution that is a vertex.

Proof

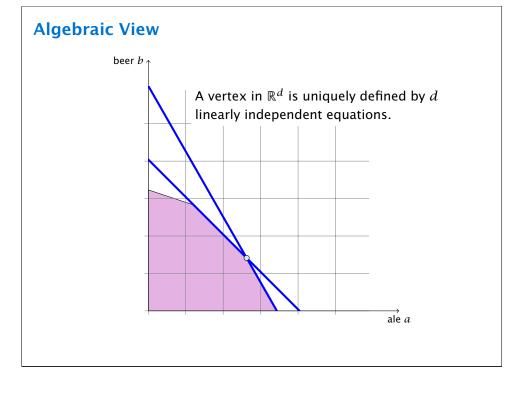
- suppose x is optimal solution that is not a vertex
- there exists direction $d \neq 0$ such that $x \pm d \in P$
- Ad = 0 because $A(x \pm d) = b$
- Wlog. assume $c^t d \ge 0$ (by taking either d or -d)
- Consider $x + \lambda d$, $\lambda > 0$

Observation The feasible region of an Ll	P is a Polyhedron.
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Convex Sets Case 1. $[\exists j \text{ s.t. } d_j < 0]$ • increase λ to λ' until first component of $x + \lambda d$ hits 0 • $x + \lambda' d$ is feasible. Since $A(x + \lambda' d) = b$ and $x + \lambda' d \ge 0$ • $x + \lambda' d$ has one more zero-component $(d_k = 0 \text{ for } x_k = 0 \text{ as } x \pm d \in P)$ • $c^t x' = c^t (x + \lambda' d) = c^t x + \lambda' c^t d \ge c^t x$ **Case 2.** $[d_j \ge 0 \text{ for all } j \text{ and } c^t d > 0]$ • $x + \lambda d$ is feasible for all $\lambda \ge 0$ since $A(x + \lambda d) = b$ and $x + \lambda d \ge x \ge 0$ • $as \lambda \to \infty$, $c^t (x + \lambda d) \to \infty$ as $c^t d > 0$



Notation

Suppose $B \subseteq \{1 \dots n\}$ is a set of column-indices. Define A_B as the subset of columns of A indexed by B.

Theorem 9

Let $P = \{x \mid Ax = b, x \ge 0\}$. For $x \in P$, define $B = \{j \mid x_j > 0\}$. Then x is a vertex iff A_B has linearly independent columns.

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Theorem 9

Let $P = \{x \mid Ax = b, x \ge 0\}$. For $x \in P$, define $B = \{j \mid x_j > 0\}$. Then x is a vertex iff A_B has linearly independent columns.

Proof (⇐)

- assume x is not a vertex
- there exists direction d s.t. $x \pm d \in P$
- Ad = 0 because $A(x \pm d) = b$
- define $B' = \{j \mid d_j \neq 0\}$
- $A_{B'}$ has linearly dependent columns as Ad = 0
- $d_i = 0$ for all j with $x_i = 0$ as $x \pm d \ge 0$
- Hence, $B' \subseteq B$, $A_{B'}$ is sub-matrix of A_B

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Theorem 9

Let $P = \{x \mid Ax = b, x \ge 0\}$. For $x \in P$, define $B = \{j \mid x_j > 0\}$. Then x is a vertex iff A_B has linearly independent columns.

Proof (⇒)

- ► assume *A_B* has linearly dependent columns
- there exists $d \neq 0$ such that $A_B d = 0$
- extend *d* to \mathbb{R}^n by adding 0-components
- now, Ad = 0 and $d_j = 0$ whenever $x_j = 0$
- for sufficiently small λ we have $x \pm \lambda d \in P$
- hence, x is not a vertex

Observation

For an LP we can assume wlog. that the matrix A has full row-rank. This means rank(A) = m.

- assume that rank(A) < m
- assume wlog. that the first row A₁ lies in the span of the other rows A₂,..., A_m; this means

$$A_1 = \sum_{i=2}^m \lambda_i \cdot A_i$$
, for suitable λ_i

- **C1** if now $b_1 = \sum_{i=2}^m \lambda_i \cdot b_i$ then for all x with $A_i x = b_i$ we also have $A_1 x = b_1$; hence the first constraint is superfluous
- C2 if $b_1 \neq \sum_{i=2}^m \lambda_i \cdot b_i$ then the LP is infeasible, since for all x that fulfill constraints A_2, \ldots, A_m we have

$$A_1 x = \sum_{i=2}^m \lambda_i \cdot A_i x = \sum_{i=2}^m \lambda_i \cdot b_i \neq b_1$$

Theorem 10

Given $P = \{x \mid Ax = b, x \ge 0\}$. x is a vertex iff there exists $B \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$ with |B| = m and

- \blacktriangleright A_B is non-singular
- $\bullet \ x_B = A_B^{-1}b \ge 0$
- $x_N = 0$

where $N = \{1, \ldots, n\} \setminus B$.

Proof

Take $B = \{j \mid x_j > 0\}$ and augment with linearly independent columns until |B| = m; always possible since rank(A) = m.

From now on we will always assume that the constraint matrix of a standard form LP has full row rank.

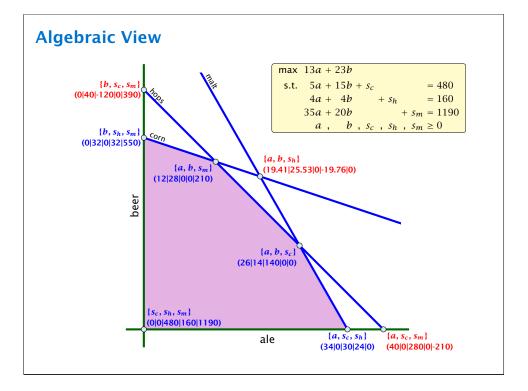
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Basic Feasible Solutions $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is called basic solution (Basislösung) if Ax = b and rank $(A_{J}) = |J|$ where $J = \{j \mid x_{j} \neq 0\}$; x is a basic feasible solution (gültige Basislösung) if in addition $x \ge 0$. A basis (Basis) is an index set $B \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$ with rank $(A_{B}) = m$ and |B| = m. $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ with $A_{B}x = b$ and $x_{j} = 0$ for all $j \notin B$ is the basic solution associated to basis B (die zu *B* assoziierte Basislösung)

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Observation

We can compute an optimal solution to a linear program in time $\mathcal{O}\left(\binom{n}{m} \cdot \operatorname{poly}(n,m)\right)$.

- there are only $\binom{n}{m}$ different bases.
- compute the profit of each of them and take the maximum

Fundamental Questions

Linear Programming Problem (LP)

Let $A \in \mathbb{Q}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{Q}^m$, $c \in \mathbb{Q}^n$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$. Does there exist $x \in \mathbb{Q}^n$ s.t. Ax = b, $x \ge 0$, $c^t x \ge \alpha$?

Questions:

- Is LP in NP? yes!
- Is LP in co-NP?
- ► Is LP in P?

Proof:

• Given a basis *B* we can compute the associated basis solution by calculating $A_B^{-1}b$ in polynomial time; then we can also compute the profit.

3 Introduction

4 Simplex Algorithm

Enumerating all basic feasible solutions (BFS), in order to find the optimum is slow.

Simplex Algorithm [George Dantzig 1947] Move from BFS to adjacent BFS, without decreasing objective function.

Two BFSs are called adjacent if the bases just differ in one variable.

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4 Simplex Algorithm

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	max $13a + 23b$		
	s.t. $5a + 15b + 3b$	s _c	= 480
	4a + 4b	$+ s_h$	= 160
	35a + 20b	$+ s_m$	= 1190
	a, b, s	s_c , s_h , s_m	≥ 0
max Z			basis = { s_c , s_h , s_m }
13a + 2	23 <i>b</i> –	Z = 0	A = B = 0
5a + 1	$15b + s_c$	= 480	Z = 0
4a +	$4b + s_h$	= 160	$s_c = 480$
35a + 2	$20b + s_m$	= 1190	$s_h = 160$
а,	b , s_c , s_h , s_m	≥ 0	$s_m = 1190$
	4 Simpley	Algorithm	

max Z		basis = { s_c, s_h, s_m }
13 <i>a</i> + 23 b	-Z = 0	a = b = 0
$5a + 15b + s_c$	= 480	Z = 0
$4a + 4b + s_h$	= 160	$s_c = 480$
$35a + 20b + s_n$	= 1190	$s_h = 160$
a, b, s_c, s_h, s_n	$_{n} \geq 0$	$s_m = 1190$

- Choose variable with coefficient ≥ 0 as entering variable.
- If we keep a = 0 and increase b from 0 to θ > 0 s.t. all constraints (Ax = b, x ≥ 0) are still fulfilled the objective value Z will strictly increase.
- For maintaining Ax = b we need e.g. to set $s_c = 480 15\theta$.
- Choosing \(\theta\) = min\\\{480/15, 160/4, 1190/20\\\} ensures that in the new solution one current basic variable becomes 0, and no variable goes negative.
- The basic variable in the row that gives min{480/15, 160/4, 1190/20} becomes the leaving variable.

Pivoting Step

max Z	basis = { s_c, s_h, s_m }
$13a + 23b \qquad -Z = 0$	a = b = 0
$5a + 15b + s_c = 480$	Z = 0
$4a + 4b + s_h = 160$	$s_c = 480$
$35a + 20b + s_m = 1190$	$s_h = 160$
a , b , s_c , s_h , $s_m \ge 0$	$s_m = 1190$

- choose variable to bring into the basis
- chosen variable should have positive coefficient in objective function
- apply min-ratio test to find out by how much the variable can be increased
- pivot on row found by min-ratio test
- the existing basis variable in this row leaves the basis

max Z	1	bas
$13a + 23b \qquad -Z = 0$		a =
$5a + 15b + s_c = 480$		Z =
$4a + 4b + s_h = 160$		$S_c =$
$35a + 20b + s_m = 1190$		$s_h =$
a , b , s_c , s_h , $s_m \ge 0$		$S_m =$

$basis = \{s_c, s_h, s_m\}$
a = b = 0
Z = 0
$s_c = 480$
$s_h = 160$
$s_m = 1190$

Substitute
$$b = \frac{1}{15}(480 - 5a - s_c)$$
.

max Z			
$\frac{16}{3}a$	$-\frac{23}{15}s_c$	-Z = -736	basis = $\{b, s_h, s_m\}$
5	15	20	$a = s_c = 0$
5	$+ b + \frac{1}{15}s_c$	= 32	Z = 736
$\frac{8}{3}a$	$-\frac{4}{15}s_{c}+s_{h}$	= 32	b = 32
$\frac{85}{3}a$	$-\frac{4}{3}s_c + s_n$	n = 550	$s_h = 32$
3 4	350 154	- 550	$s_m = 550$
a	, b, s _c , s _h , s _n	$n \geq 0$	

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 \text{max } Z \\
 \frac{16}{3}a & -\frac{23}{15}s_c & -Z = -736 \\
 \frac{1}{3}a + b + \frac{1}{15}s_c & = 32 \\
 \frac{8}{3}a & -\frac{4}{15}s_c + s_h & = 32 \\
 \frac{85}{3}a & -\frac{4}{3}s_c & +s_m & = 550 \\
 a & b & s_c & s_h & s_m & \ge 0
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 \text{basis} = \{b, s_h, s_m\} \\
 a = s_c = 0 \\
 Z = 736 \\
 b = 32 \\
 s_h = 32 \\
 s_m = 550 \\
\end{array}$$
Choose variable *a* to bring into basis.
Computing min{3 · 32, 3 · 32/8, 3 · 550/85} means pivot on line 2.
Substitute $a = \frac{3}{8}(32 + \frac{4}{15}s_c - s_h).$

$- s_c - 2s_h - Z = -800$	$basis = \{a, b, s_m\}$
1 1 1 20	$s_c = s_h = 0$
$b + \frac{1}{10}s_c - \frac{1}{8}s_h = 28$	Z = 800
$a - \frac{1}{10}s_c + \frac{3}{8}s_h = 12$	b = 28
	a = 12
$\frac{3}{2}s_c - \frac{85}{8}s_h + s_m = 210$	
- 0	$s_m = 210$
$a, b, s_c, s_h, s_m \geq 0$	
$a, b, s_c, s_h, s_m \geq 0$	

Matrix View

Let our linear program be

$$\begin{array}{rcl} c_B^t x_B &+& c_N^t x_N &=& Z\\ A_B x_B &+& A_N x_N &=& b\\ x_B &, & x_N &\geq & 0 \end{array}$$

The simplex tableaux for basis *B* is

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (c_N^t - c_B^t A_B^{-1} A_N) x_N &=& Z - c_B^t A_B^{-1} b \\ I x_B &+& A_B^{-1} A_N x_N &=& A_B^{-1} b \\ x_B &, & & x_N &\geq & 0 \end{array}$$

The BFS is given by $x_N = 0$, $x_B = A_B^{-1}b$.

If $(c_N^t - c_B^t A_B^{-1} A_N) \le 0$ we know that we have an optimum solution.

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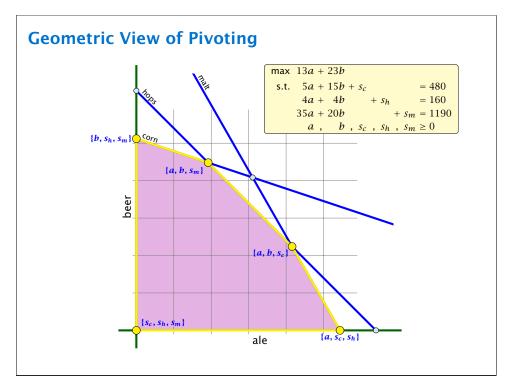
4 Simplex Algorithm

Pivoting stops when all coefficients in the objective function are non-positive.

Solution is optimal:

- any feasible solution satisfies all equations in the tableaux
- in particular: $Z = 800 s_c 2s_h, s_c \ge 0, s_h \ge 0$
- hence optimum solution value is at most 800
- the current solution has value 800

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Algebraic Definition of Pivoting

- Given basis *B* with BFS x^* .
- Choose index $j \notin B$ in order to increase x_i^* from 0 to $\theta > 0$.
 - Other non-basis variables should stay at 0.
 - Basis variables change to maintain feasibility.
- Go from x^* to $x^* + \theta \cdot d$.

Requirements for *d*:

- $d_j = 1$ (normalization)
- ► $d_{\ell} = 0, \ \ell \notin B, \ \ell \neq j$
- $A(x^* + \theta d) = b$ must hold. Hence Ad = 0.
- Altogether: $A_B d_B + A_{*j} = Ad = 0$, which gives $d_B = -A_B^{-1}A_{*j}$.

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Algebraic Definition of Pivoting

Definition 12 (Reduced Cost)

For a basis B the value

$$\tilde{c}_j = c_j - c_B^t A_B^{-1} A_{*j}$$

is called the reduced cost for variable x_j .

Note that this is defined for every j. If $j \in B$ then the above term is 0.

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Algebraic Definition of Pivoting

Definition 11 (*j*-th basis direction)

Let *B* be a basis, and let $j \notin B$. The vector *d* with $d_j = 1$ and $d_{\ell} = 0, \ell \notin B, \ell \neq j$ and $d_B = -A_B^{-1}A_{*j}$ is called the *j*-th basis direction for *B*.

Going from x^* to $x^* + heta \cdot d$ the objective function changes by

$$\theta \cdot c^t d = \theta (c_j - c_B^t A_B^{-1} A_{*j})$$

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Algebraic Definition of Pivoting

Let our linear program be

 $\begin{array}{rclcrcrc} c_B^t x_B &+& c_N^t x_N &=& Z\\ A_B x_B &+& A_N x_N &=& b\\ x_B &,& x_N &\geq& 0 \end{array}$

The simplex tableaux for basis *B* is

$$(c_{N}^{t} - c_{B}^{t}A_{B}^{-1}A_{N})x_{N} = Z - c_{B}^{t}A_{B}^{-1}b$$

$$Ix_{B} + A_{B}^{-1}A_{N}x_{N} = A_{B}^{-1}b$$

$$x_{B} , \qquad x_{N} \ge 0$$

The BFS is given by $x_N = 0$, $x_B = A_B^{-1}b$.

If $(c_N^t - c_B^t A_B^{-1} A_N) \le 0$ we know that we have an optimum solution.

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4 Simplex Algorithm

Ouestions:

- What happens if the min ratio test fails to give us a value θ by which we can safely increase the entering variable?
- How do we find the initial basic feasible solution?
- ▶ Is there always a basis *B* such that

$$(c_N^t - c_B^t A_B^{-1} A_N) \le 0$$

Then we can terminate because we know that the solution is optimal.

If yes how do we make sure that we reach such a basis?

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Termination

The objective function does not decrease during one iteration of the simplex-algorithm.

Does it always increase?

the entering variable to θ the leaving variable becomes 0 and all other variables stay non-negative.

For this one computes b_i/A_{ie} for all constraints *i* and calculates the minimum positive value.

The min ratio test computes a value $\theta \ge 0$ such that after setting

What does it mean that the ratio b_i/A_{ie} (and hence A_{ie}) is negative for a constraint?

This means that the corresponding basic variable will increase if we increase b. Hence, there is no danger of this basic variable becoming negative

What happens if **all** b_i/A_{ie} are negative? Then we do not have a leaving variable. Then the LP is unbounded!

Termination

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Min Ratio Test

The objective function may not increase!

Because a variable x_{ℓ} with $\ell \in B$ is already 0.

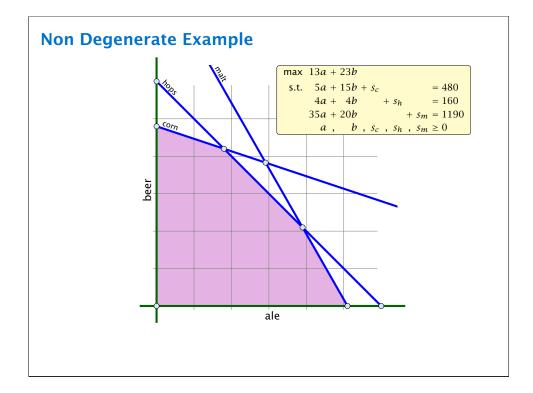
The set of inequalities is degenerate (also the basis is degenerate).

Definition 13 (Degeneracy)

A BFS x^* is called degenerate if the set $J = \{j \mid x_i^* > 0\}$ fulfills |J| < m.

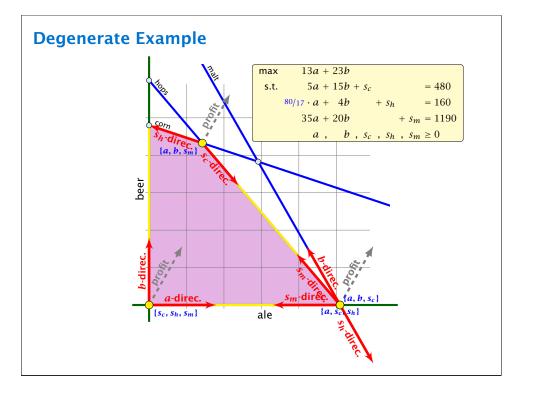
It is possible that the algorithm cycles, i.e., it cycles through a sequence of different bases without ever terminating. Happens, very rarely in practise.

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Summary: How to choose pivot-elements

- We can choose a column *e* as an entering variable if *c*_e > 0 (*c*_e is reduced cost for *x*_e).
- The standard choice is the column that maximizes \tilde{c}_e .
- If A_{ie} ≤ 0 for all i ∈ {1,...,m} then the maximum is not bounded.
- ► Otw. choose a leaving variable *l* such that *b*_l/*A*_{le} is minimal among all variables *i* with *A*_{ie} > 0.
- If several variables have minimum $b_{\ell}/A_{\ell e}$ you reach a degenerate basis.
- Depending on the choice of *l* it may happen that the algorithm runs into a cycle where it does not escape from a degenerate vertex.



Termination

What do we have so far?

Suppose we are given an initial feasible solution to an LP. If the LP is non-degenerate then Simplex will terminate.

Note that we either terminate because the min-ratio test fails and we can conclude that the LP is <u>unbounded</u>, or we terminate because the vector of reduced cost is non-positive. In the latter case we have an <u>optimum solution</u>.

How do we come up with an initial solution?

- $Ax \le b, x \ge 0$, and $b \ge 0$.
- The standard slack from for this problem is Ax + Is = b, x ≥ 0, s ≥ 0, where s denotes the vector of slack variables.
- Then s = b, x = 0 is a basic feasible solution (how?).
- We directly can start the simplex algorithm.

How do we find an initial basic feasible solution for an arbitrary problem?

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Optimality

Lemma 14

Let B be a basis and x^* a BFS corresponding to basis B. $\tilde{c} \le 0$ implies that x^* is an optimum solution to the LP.

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4 Simplex Algorithm

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Two phase algorithm

Suppose we want to maximize $c^t x$ s.t. $Ax = b, x \ge 0$.

- 1. Multiply all rows with $b_i < 0$ by -1.
- **2.** maximize $-\sum_i v_i$ s.t. Ax + Iv = b, $x \ge 0$, $v \ge 0$ using Simplex. x = 0, v = b is initial feasible.
- **3.** If $\sum_i v_i > 0$ then the original problem is infeasible.
- **4.** Otw. you have $x \ge 0$ with Ax = b.
- 5. From this you can get basic feasible solution.
- **6.** Now you can start the Simplex for the original problem.

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4 Simplex Algorithm

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Duality

How do we get an upper bound to a maximization LP?

Note that a lower bound is easy to derive. Every choice of $a, b \ge 0$ gives us a lower bound (e.g. a = 12, b = 28 gives us a lower bound of 800).

If you take a conic combination of the rows (multiply the *i*-th row with $y_i \ge 0$) such that $\sum_i y_i a_{ij} \ge c_j$ then $\sum_i y_i b_i$ will be an upper bound.

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Duality

Definition 15 Let $z = \max\{c^t x \mid Ax \le b, x \ge 0\}$ be a linear program *P* (called the primal linear program).

The linear program *D* defined by

 $w = \min\{b^t y \mid A^t y \ge c, y \ge 0\}$

is called the dual problem.

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5 Duality

Weak Duality

Let $z = \max\{c^t x \mid Ax \le b, x \ge 0\}$ and $w = \min\{b^t y \mid A^t y \ge c, y \ge 0\}$ be a primal dual pair.

x is primal feasible iff $x \in \{x \mid Ax \le b, x \ge 0\}$

y is dual feasible, iff $y \in \{y \mid A^t y \ge c, y \ge 0\}$.

Theorem 17 (Weak Duality)

Let \hat{x} be primal feasible and let \hat{y} be dual feasible. Then

$$c^t \hat{x} \leq z \leq w \leq b^t \hat{y}$$
 .

Duality

Lemma 16

The dual of the dual problem is the primal problem.

Proof:

- $w = \min\{b^t y \mid A^t y \ge c, y \ge 0\}$
- $w = -\max\{-b^t y \mid -A^t y \leq -c, y \geq 0\}$

The dual problem is

- $z = -\min\{-c^t x \mid -Ax \ge -b, x \ge 0\}$
- $z = \max\{c^t x \mid Ax \le b, x \ge 0\}$

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Weak Duality	
$A^t \hat{y} \ge c \Rightarrow \hat{x}^t A^t \hat{y} \ge \hat{x}^t c \ (\hat{x} \ge 0)$	
$A\hat{x} \le b \Rightarrow y^{t}A\hat{x} \le \hat{y}^{t}b \ (\hat{y} \ge 0)$	
This gives $c^t \hat{x} \leq \hat{y}^t A \hat{x} \leq b^t \hat{y}$.	
Since, there exists primal feasible \hat{x} with $c^t \hat{x}$ feasible \hat{y} with $b^t y = w$ we get $z \le w$.	= <i>z</i> , and dual
If P is unbounded then D is infeasible.	
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The following linear programs form a primal dual pair:

 $z = \max\{c^{t}x \mid Ax = b, x \ge 0\}$ $w = \min\{b^{t}y \mid A^{t}y \ge c\}$

This means for computing the dual of a standard form LP, we do not have non-negativity constraints for the dual variables.

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Proof of Optimality Criterion for Simplex

Suppose that we have a basic feasible solution with reduced cost

 $\tilde{c} = c^t - c_B^t A_B^{-1} A \le 0$

This is equivalent to $A^t (A_B^{-1})^t c_B \ge c$

$$y^* = (A_B^{-1})^t c_B$$
 is solution to the dual $\min\{b^t y | A^t y \ge c\}$.

$$b^{t} y^{*} = (Ax^{*})^{t} y^{*} = (A_{B}x_{B}^{*})^{t} y^{*}$$

= $(A_{B}x_{B}^{*})^{t} (A_{B}^{-1})^{t} c_{B} = (x_{B}^{*})^{t} A_{B}^{t} (A_{B}^{-1})^{t} c_{B}$
= $c^{t}x^{*}$

Hence, the solution is optimal.

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Proof

Primal:

$$\max\{c^{t}x \mid Ax = b, x \ge 0\}$$

= $\max\{c^{t}x \mid Ax \le b, -Ax \le -b, x \ge 0\}$
= $\max\{c^{t}x \mid \begin{bmatrix} A \\ -A \end{bmatrix} x \le \begin{bmatrix} b \\ -b \end{bmatrix}, x \ge 0\}$

Dual:

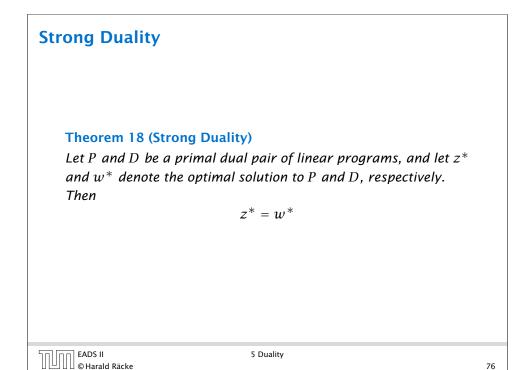
$$\min\{\begin{bmatrix} b^t & -b^t \end{bmatrix} y \mid \begin{bmatrix} A^t & -A^t \end{bmatrix} y \ge c, y \ge 0\}$$

=
$$\min\left\{\begin{bmatrix} b^t & -b^t \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} y^+ \\ y^- \end{bmatrix} \mid \begin{bmatrix} A^t & -A^t \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} y^+ \\ y^- \end{bmatrix} \ge c, y^- \ge 0, y^+ \ge 0\right\}$$

=
$$\min\left\{b^t \cdot (y^+ - y^-) \mid A^t \cdot (y^+ - y^-) \ge c, y^- \ge 0, y^+ \ge 0\right\}$$

=
$$\min\left\{b^t y' \mid A^t y' \ge c\right\}$$

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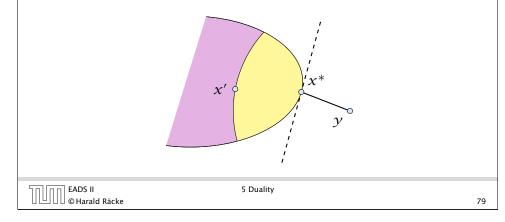
Lemma 19 (Weierstrass)

Let X be a compact set and let f(x) be a continuous function on X. Then $\min\{f(x) : x \in X\}$ exists.

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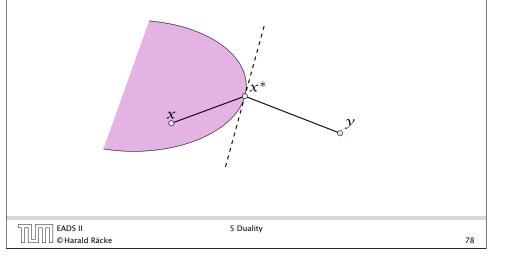
Proof of the Projection Lemma

- Define f(x) = ||y x||.
- We want to apply Weierstrass but *X* may not be bounded.
- $X \neq \emptyset$. Hence, there exists $x' \in X$.
- Define $X' = \{x \in X \mid ||y x|| \le ||y x'||\}$. This set is closed and bounded.
- Applying Weierstrass gives the existence.



Lemma 20 (Projection Lemma)

Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ be a non-empty convex set, and let $y \notin X$. Then there exist $x^* \in X$ with minimum distance from y. Moreover for all $x \in X$ we have $(y - x^*)^t (x - x^*) \le 0$.



Proof of the Projection Lemma (continued)

$$x^*$$
 is minimum. Hence $||y - x^*||^2 \le ||y - x||^2$ for all $x \in X$.

By convexity: $x \in X$ then $x^* + \epsilon(x - x^*) \in X$ for all $0 \le \epsilon \le 1$.

$$\begin{split} \|y - x^*\|^2 &\leq \|y - x^* - \epsilon(x - x^*)\|^2 \\ &= \|y - x^*\|^2 + \epsilon^2 \|x - x^*\|^2 - 2\epsilon(y - x^*)^t (x - x^*) \end{split}$$

Hence, $(y - x^*)^t (x - x^*) \le \frac{1}{2} \epsilon ||x - x^*||^2$.

Letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ gives the result.

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Theorem 21 (Separating Hyperplane)

Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ be a non-empty closed convex set, and let $y \notin X$. Then there exists a separating hyperplane $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : a^t x = \alpha\}$ where $a \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ that separates y from X. $(a^t y < \alpha;$ $a^t x \ge \alpha$ for all $x \in X$)

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Lemma 22 (Farkas Lemma)

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then exactly one of the following statements holds.

- 1. $\exists x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with Ax = b, $x \ge 0$
- **2.** $\exists y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ with $A^t y \ge 0$, $b^t y < 0$

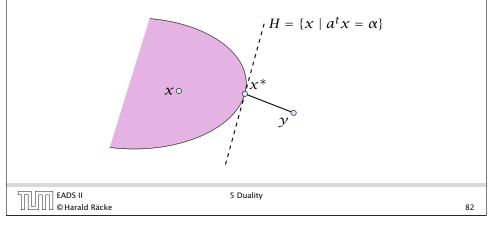
Assume \hat{x} satisfies 1. and \hat{y} satisfies 2. Then

$$0 > y^t b = y^t A x \ge 0$$

Hence, at most one of the statements can hold.

Proof of the Hyperplane Lemma

- Let $x^* \in X$ be closest point to y in X.
- ▶ By previous lemma $(y x^*)^t (x x^*) \le 0$ for all $x \in X$.
- Choose $a = (x^* y)$ and $\alpha = a^t x^*$.
- For $x \in X$: $a^t(x x^*) \ge 0$, and, hence, $a^t x \ge \alpha$.
- Also, $a^t y = a^t (x^* a) = \alpha ||a||^2 < \alpha$



Proof of Farkas Lemma

Now, assume that 1. does not hold.

Consider $S = \{Ax : x \ge 0\}$ so that *S* closed, convex, $b \notin S$.

We want to show that there is y with $A^t y \ge 0$, $b^t y < 0$.

Let y be a hyperplane that separates b from S. Hence, $y^t b < \alpha$ and $y^t s \ge \alpha$ for all $s \in S$.

 $0 \in S \Rightarrow \alpha \le 0 \Rightarrow \gamma^t b < 0$

 $y^t A x \ge \alpha$ for all $x \ge 0$. Hence, $y^t A \ge 0$ as we can choose x arbitrarily large.

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Lemma 23 (Farkas Lemma; different version)

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$. Then exactly one of the following statements holds.

- 1. $\exists x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $Ax \leq b, x \geq 0$
- **2.** $\exists \gamma \in \mathbb{R}^m$ with $A^t \gamma \ge 0$, $b^t \gamma < 0$, $\gamma \ge 0$

Rewrite the conditions:

1.
$$\exists x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$$
 with $\begin{bmatrix} A \ I \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x \\ s \end{bmatrix} = b, x \ge 0, s \ge 0$
2. $\exists y \in \mathbb{R}^{m}$ with $\begin{bmatrix} A^{t} \\ I \end{bmatrix} y \ge 0, b^{t} y < 0$

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5 Duality

Proof of Strong Duality $z \leq w$: follows from weak duality $z \geq w$: We show $z < \alpha$ implies $w < \alpha$. $\exists x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ $\exists \gamma \in \mathbb{R}^m; \nu \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $Ax \leq b$ s.t. $A^t \gamma - c \nu \ge 0$ $-c^t x \leq -\alpha$ $b^t \gamma - \alpha \nu < 0$ $x \geq 0$ $y, v \geq 0$ From the definition of α we know that the first system is infeasible; hence the second must be feasible.

Proof of Strong Duality

 $P: z = \max\{c^t x \mid Ax \le b, x \ge 0\}$

D: $w = \min\{b^t \gamma \mid A^t \gamma \ge c, \gamma \ge 0\}$

Theorem 24 (Strong Duality)

Let P and D be a primal dual pair of linear programs, and let zand w denote the optimal solution to P and D, respectively (i.e., *P* and *D* are non-empty). Then

z = w.

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is feasible. By Farkas lemma this gives that LP P is infeasible. Contradiction to the assumption of the lemma.

 $\gamma \geq 0$

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Proof of Strong Duality

Hence, there exists a solution y, v with v > 0.

We can rescale this solution (scaling both y and v) s.t. v = 1.

Then y is t	feasible fo	r the c	dual but	$b^t \gamma <$	α.	This	means	that
$w < \alpha$.								

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Complementary Slackness

Lemma 26

Assume a linear program $P = \max\{c^t x \mid Ax \le b; x \ge 0\}$ has solution x^* and its dual $D = \min\{b^t y \mid A^t y \ge c; y \ge 0\}$ has solution y^* .

- **1.** If $x_i^* > 0$ then the *j*-th constraint in *D* is tight.
- **2.** If the *j*-th constraint in D is not tight than $x_i^* = 0$.
- **3.** If $y_i^* > 0$ then the *i*-th constraint in *P* is tight.
- **4.** If the *i*-th constraint in *P* is not tight than $y_i^* = 0$.

If we say that a variable x_j^* (y_i^*) has slack if $x_j^* > 0$ ($y_i^* > 0$), (i.e., the corresponding variable restriction is not tight) and a contraint has slack if it is not tight, then the above says that for a primal-dual solution pair it is not possible that a constraint **and** its corresponding (dual) variable has slack.

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Fundamental Questions

Definition 25 (Linear Programming Problem (LP))

Let $A \in \mathbb{Q}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{Q}^m$, $c \in \mathbb{Q}^n$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$. Does there exist $x \in \mathbb{Q}^n$ s.t. Ax = b, $x \ge 0$, $c^t x \ge \alpha$?

Questions:

- Is LP in NP?
- Is LP in co-NP? yes!
- Is LP in P?

Proof:

- Given a primal maximization problem *P* and a parameter *α*.
 Suppose that *α* > opt(*P*).
- > We can prove this by providing an optimal basis for the dual.
- A verifier can check that the associated dual solution fulfills all dual constraints and that it has dual cost < α.

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Proof: Complementary Slackness

Analogous to the proof of weak duality we obtain

$$c^t x^* \le y^{*t} A x^* \le b^t y^*$$

Because of strong duality we then get

$$c^t x^* = y^{*t} A x^* = b^t y^*$$

This gives e.g.

$$\sum_{j} (y^t A - c^t)_j x_j^* = 0$$

From the constraint of the dual it follows that $y^t A \ge c^t$. Hence the left hand side is a sum over the product of non-negative numbers. Hence, if e.g. $(y^t A - c^t)_j > 0$ (the *j*-th constraint in the dual is not tight) then $x_j = 0$ (2.). The result for (1./3./4.) follows similarly.

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Interpretation of Dual Variables

Brewer: find mix of ale and beer that maximizes profits

Entrepeneur: buy resources from brewer at minimum cost C, H, M: unit price for corn, hops and malt.

Note that brewer won't sell (at least not all) if e.g. 5C + 4H + 35M < 13 as then brewing ale would be advantageous.

Interpretation of Dual Variables

If ϵ is "small" enough then the optimum dual solution γ^* might not change. Therefore the profit increases by $\sum_i \epsilon_i \gamma_i^*$.

Therefore we can interpret the dual variables as marginal prices.

Note that with this interpretation, complementary slackness becomes obvious.

- If the brewer has slack of some resource (e.g. corn) then he is not willing to pay anything for it (corresponding dual variable is zero).
- If the dual variable for some resource is non-zero, then an increase of this resource increases the profit of the brewer. Hence, it makes no sense to have left-overs of this resource. Therefore its slack must be zero.

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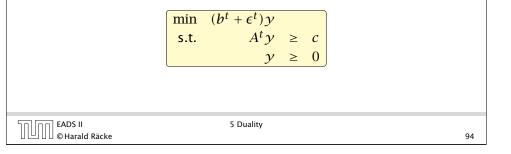
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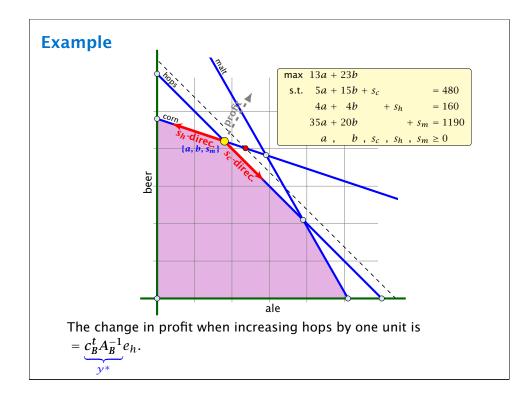
Interpretation of Dual Variables

Marginal Price:

- How much money is the brewer willing to pay for additional amount of Corn, Hops, or Malt?
- We are interested in the marginal price, i.e., what happens if we increase the amount of Corn, Hops, and Malt by ε_C, ε_H, and ε_M, respectively.

The profit increases to $\max\{c^t x \mid Ax \le b + \varepsilon; x \ge 0\}$. Because of strong duality this is equal to





Of course, the previous argument about the increase in the primal objective only holds for the non-degenerate case.

If the optimum basis is degenerate then increasing the supply of one resource may not allow the objective value to increase.

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Flows

Definition 28

The value of an (s, t)-flow f is defined as

$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{X} f_{SX} - \sum_{X} f_{XS}$$

Maximum Flow Problem: Find an (s, t)-flow with maximum value.

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5 Duality

Flows

Definition 27

An (s, t)-flow in a (complete) directed graph $G = (V, V \times V, c)$ is a function $f : V \times V \mapsto \mathbb{R}_0^+$ that satisfies

1. For each edge (x, y)

$$0 \leq f_{xy} \leq c_{xy}$$
 .

(capacity constraints)

2. For each $v \in V \setminus \{s, t\}$

$$\sum_{x} f_{vx} = \sum_{x} f_{xv} \; .$$

5 Duality

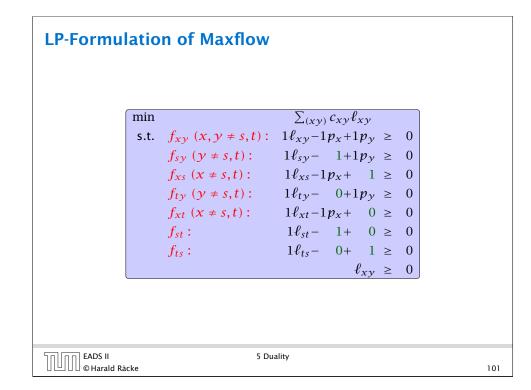
(flow conservation constraints)

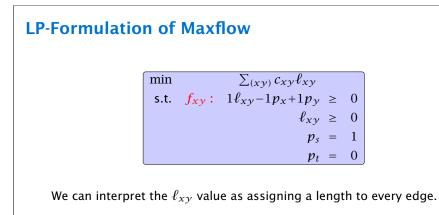
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LP-For	mulation of Maxflow	
	max $\sum_{z} f_{sz} - \sum_{z} f_{zs}$	
	s.t. $\forall (z, w) \in V \times V$ $f_{zw} \leq c_{zw} \ell_{zw}$	
	$\forall w \neq s, t \sum_{z} f_{zw} - \sum_{z} f_{wz} = 0 \qquad p_{w}$	
	$f_{zw} \ge 0$	
	$\min \sum_{(xy)} c_{xy} \ell_{xy}$	
	s.t. $f_{xy}(x, y \neq s, t)$: $1\ell_{xy} - 1p_x + 1p_y \ge 0$	
	$f_{sy}(y \neq s,t): 1\ell_{sy} +1p_y \geq 1$	
	$f_{xs} (x \neq s, t): \qquad 1\ell_{xs} - 1p_x \geq -1$	
	$f_{ty} (y \neq s, t): \qquad 1\ell_{ty} + 1p_y \ge 0$	
	$f_{xt} (x \neq s, t): \qquad 1\ell_{xt} - 1p_x \ge 0$	
	f_{st} : $1\ell_{st} \ge 1$	
	$f_{ts}: \qquad 1\ell_{ts} \geq -1$	
	$\ell_{XY} \geq 0$	
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The value p_x for a variable, then can be seen as the distance of x to t (where the distance from s to t is required to be 1 since $p_s = 1$).

The constraint $p_x \leq \ell_{xy} + p_y$ then simply follows from triangle inequality $(d(x,t) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,t) \Rightarrow d(x,t) \leq \ell_{xy} + d(y,t))$.

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LP-Formulation of Maxflow

	min	$\sum_{(xy)} c_{xy} \ell_{xy}$	
	s.t. $f_{xy}(x, y \neq s,$	$t): 1\ell_{xy} - 1p_x + 1p_y \geq 0$	
	$f_{sy} (y \neq s, t)$	$: \qquad 1\ell_{sy} - p_s + 1p_y \geq 0$	
	$f_{xs} (x \neq s, t)$:	$1\ell_{xs}-1p_x+p_s\geq 0$	
	$f_{ty} (y \neq s, t)$	$: \qquad 1\ell_{ty} - p_t + 1p_y \ge 0$	
	$f_{xt} (x \neq s, t)$:	$1\ell_{xt} - 1p_x + p_t \ge 0$	
	f_{st} :	$1\ell_{st} - p_s + p_t \ge 0$	
	f_{ts} :	$1\ell_{ts} - p_t + p_s \ge 0$	
		$\ell_{xy} \ge 0$	
with $p_t = 0$	0 and $p_s = 1$.		
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One can show that there is an optimum LP-solution for the dual problem that gives an integral assignment of variables.

This means $p_x = 1$ or $p_x = 0$ for our case. This gives rise to a cut in the graph with vertices having value 1 on one side and the other vertices on the other side. The objective function then evaluates the capacity of this cut.

This shows that the Maxflow/Mincut theorem follows from linear programming duality.

Degeneracy Revisited

If a basis variable is 0 in the basic feasible solution then we may not make progress during an iteration of simplex.

Idea:

Change LP := $\max\{c^t x, Ax = b; x \ge 0\}$ into LP' := $\max\{c^t x, Ax = b', x \ge 0\}$ such that

- I. LP is feasible
- **II.** If a set *B* of basis variables corresponds to an infeasible basis (i.e. $A_B^{-1}b \neq 0$) then *B* corresponds to an infeasible basis in LP' (note that columns in A_B are linearly independent).
- III. LP has no degenerate basic solutions

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6 Degeneracy Revisited

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Degeneracy Revisited

If a basis variable is 0 in the basic feasible solution then we may not make progress during an iteration of simplex.

Idea:

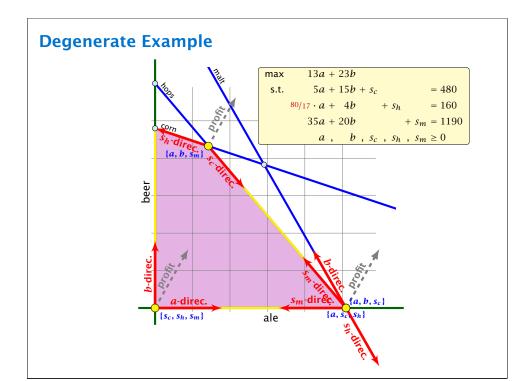
Given feasible LP := $\max\{c^t x, Ax = b; x \ge 0\}$. Change it into LP' := $\max\{c^t x, Ax = b', x \ge 0\}$ such that

```
I. LP' is feasible
```

- **II.** If a set *B* of basis variables corresponds to an infeasible basis (i.e. $A_B^{-1}b \neq 0$) then *B* corresponds to an infeasible basis in LP' (note that columns in A_B are linearly independent).
- III. LP' has no degenerate basic solutions

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Perturbation

Let *B* be index set of some basis with basic solution

$$x_B^* = A_B^{-1}b \ge 0, x_N^* = 0$$
 (i.e. *B* is feasible)

Fix

$$b' := b + A_B \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon^m \end{pmatrix}$$
 for $\varepsilon > 0$.

This is the perturbation that we are using.

6 Degeneracy Revisited

Property I

The new LP is feasible because the set B of basis variables provides a feasible basis:

$$A_B^{-1}\left(b + A_B\left(\begin{array}{c}\varepsilon\\\vdots\\\varepsilon^m\end{array}\right)\right) = x_B^* + \left(\begin{array}{c}\varepsilon\\\vdots\\\varepsilon^m\end{array}\right) \ge 0$$

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Property III

Let \tilde{B} be a basis. It has an associated solution

$$x_{\tilde{B}}^* = A_{\tilde{B}}^{-1}b + A_{\tilde{B}}^{-1}A_B \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon^m \end{pmatrix}$$

in the perturbed instance.

We can view each component of the vector as a polynom with variable ε of degree at most m.

 $A_{\tilde{R}}^{-1}A_B$ has rank *m*. Therefore no polynom is 0.

A polynom of degree at most m has at most m roots (Nullstellen).

Hence, $\epsilon > 0$ small enough gives that no component of the above vector is 0. Hence, no degeneracies.

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Property II

Let \tilde{B} be a non-feasible basis. This means $(A_{\tilde{B}}^{-1}b)_i < 0$ for some row *i*.

Then for small enough $\epsilon > 0$

 $\left(A_{\tilde{B}}^{-1}\left(b+A_{B}\begin{pmatrix}\varepsilon\\\vdots\\\varepsilon^{m}\end{pmatrix}\right)\right)_{i} = (A_{\tilde{B}}^{-1}b)_{i} + \left(A_{\tilde{B}}^{-1}A_{B}\begin{pmatrix}\varepsilon\\\vdots\\\varepsilon^{m}\end{pmatrix}\right)_{i} < 0$

Hence, \tilde{B} is not feasible.

Since, there are no degeneracies Simplex will terminate when

6 Degeneracy Revisited

run on LP'.

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If it terminates because the reduced cost vector fulfills

$$\tilde{c} = (c^t - c_B^t A_B^{-1} A) \le 0$$

then we have found an optimal basis. Note that this basis is also optimal for LP, as the above constraint does not depend on b.

If it terminates because it finds a variable x_j with c̃_j > 0 for which the *j*-th basis direction *d*, fulfills *d* ≥ 0 we know that LP' is unbounded. The basis direction does not depend on *b*. Hence, we also know that LP is unbounded.

Lexicographic Pivoting

Doing calculations with perturbed instances may be costly. Also the right choice of ε is difficult.

Idea:

Simulate behaviour of LP' without explicitly doing a perturbation.

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Lexicographic Pivoting

In the following we assume that $b \ge 0$. This can be obtained by replacing the initial system $(A_B \mid b)$ by $(A_B^{-1}A \mid A_B^{-1}b)$ where *B* is the index set of a feasible basis (found e.g. by the first phase of the Two-phase algorithm).

Then the perturbed instance is

$$b' = b + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon^m \end{pmatrix}$$

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6 Degeneracy Revisited

Lexicographic Pivoting

We choose the entering variable arbitrarily as before ($\tilde{c}_e > 0$, of course).

If we do not have a choice for the leaving variable then LP' and LP do the same (i.e., choose the same variable).

Otherwise we have to be careful.

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6 Degeneracy Revisited

Matrix View Let our linear program be $c_B^t x_B + c_N^t x_N = Z$ $A_B x_B + A_N x_N = b$ $x_B , \quad x_N \ge 0$ The simplex tableaux for basis *B* is $(c_N^t - c_B^t A_B^{-1} A_N) x_N = Z - c_B^t A_B^{-1} b$ $I x_B + A_B^{-1} A_N x_N = A_B^{-1} b$ $I x_B , \quad x_N \ge 0$ The BFS is given by $x_N = 0, x_B = A_B^{-1} b$.

If $(c_N^t - c_B^t A_B^{-1} A_N) \le 0$ we know that we have an optimum solution.

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Lexicographic Pivoting

LP chooses an arbitrary leaving variable that has $\hat{A}_{\ell e} > 0$ and minimizes

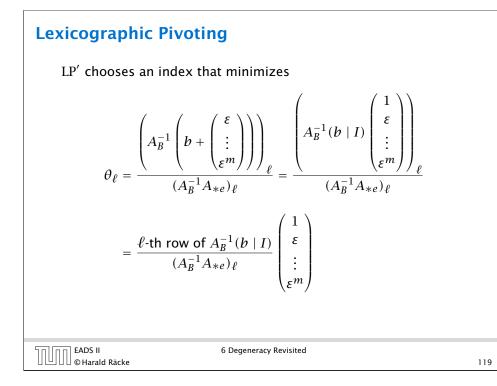
$$heta_{\ell} = rac{b_{\ell}}{\hat{A}_{\ell e}} = rac{(A_B^{-1}b)_{\ell}}{(A_B^{-1}A_{*e})_{\ell}} \; .$$

 ℓ is the index of a leaving variable within *B*. This means if e.g. $B = \{1, 3, 7, 14\}$ and leaving variable is 3 then $\ell = 2$.

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6 Degeneracy Revisited

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Lexicographic Pivoting

Definition 29

 $u \leq_{\text{lex}} v$ if and only if the first component in which u and v differ fulfills $u_i \leq v_i$.

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Lexicographic Pivoting

This means you can choose the variable/row ℓ for which the vector

$$\frac{2 - \text{th row of } A_B^{-1}(b \mid I)}{(A_B^{-1}A_{*e})_{\ell}}$$

is lexicographically minimal.

Of course only including rows with $(A_B^{-1}A_{*e})_{\ell} > 0$.

This technique guarantees that your pivoting is the same as in the perturbed case. This guarantees that cycling does not occur.

Number of Simplex Iterations

Each iteration of Simplex can be implemented in polynomial time.

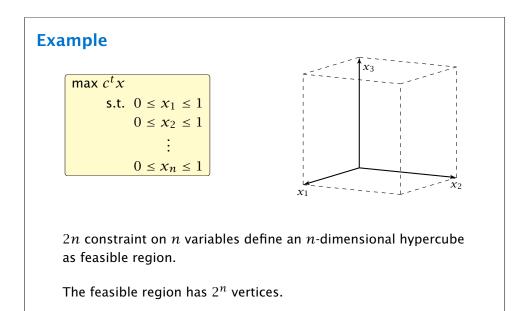
If we use lexicographic pivoting we know that Simplex requires at most $\binom{n}{m}$ iterations, because it will not visit a basis twice.

The input size is $L \cdot n \cdot m$, where *n* is the number of variables, m is the number of constraints, and L is the length of the binary representation of the largest coefficient in the matrix A.

If we really require $\binom{n}{m}$ iterations then Simplex is not a polynomial time algorithm.

Can we obtain a better analysis?

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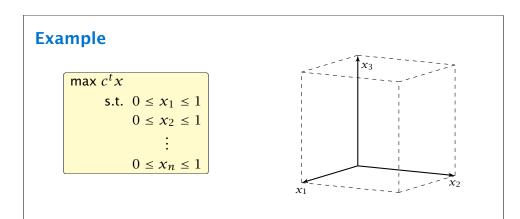


Number of Simplex Iterations

Observation Simplex visits every feasible basis at most once.

However, also the number of feasible bases can be very large.

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However, Simplex may still run quickly as it usually does not visit all feasible bases.

In the following we give an example of a feasible region for which there is a bad Pivoting Rule.

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Pivoting Rule

A Pivoting Rule defines how to choose the entering and leaving variable for an iteration of Simplex.

In the non-degenerate case after choosing the entering variable the leaving variable is unique.

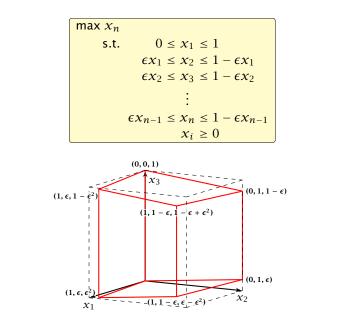
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Observations

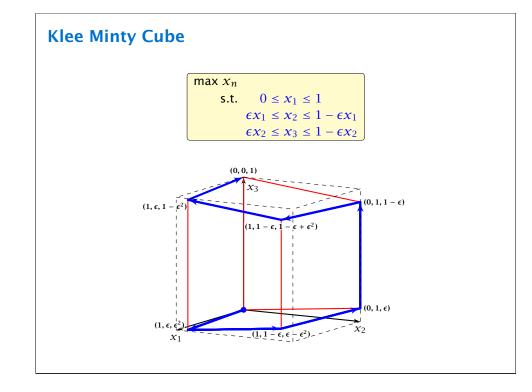
- We have 2n constraints, and 3n variables (after adding slack variables to every constraint).
- Every basis is defined by 2n variables, and n non-basic variables.
- There exist degenerate vertices.
- The degeneracies come from the non-negativity constraints, which are superfluous.
- In the following all variables x_i stay in the basis at all times.
- Then, we can uniquely specify a basis by choosing for each variable whether it should be equal to its lower bound, or equal to its upper bound (the slack variable corresponding to the non-tight constraint is part of the basis).
- We can also simply identify each basis/vertex with the corresponding hypercube vertex obtained by letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$.

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Analysis

- In the following we specify a sequence of bases (identified by the corresponding hypercube node) along which the objective function strictly increases.
- The basis $(0, \ldots, 0, 1)$ is the unique optimal basis.
- ► Our sequence S_n starts at (0,...,0) ends with (0,...,0,1) and visits every node of the hypercube.
- An unfortunate Pivoting Rule may choose this sequence, and, hence, require an exponential number of iterations.



Analysis

Lemma 30

The objective value x_n is increasing along path S_n .

Proof by induction:

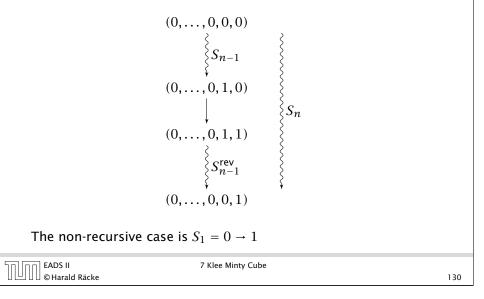
n = 1: obvious, since $S_1 = 0 \rightarrow 1$, and 1 > 0.

$n-1 \rightarrow n$

- For the first part the value of $x_n = \epsilon x_{n-1}$.
- By induction hypothesis x_{n-1} is increasing along S_{n-1}, hence, also x_n.
- Going from (0,...,0,1,0) to (0,...,0,1,1) increases x_n for small enough ε.
- For the remaining path S_{n-1}^{rev} we have $x_n = 1 \epsilon x_{n-1}$.
- ▶ By induction hypothesis x_{n-1} is increasing along S_{n-1} , hence $-\epsilon x_{n-1}$ is increasing along S_{n-1}^{rev} .

Analysis

The sequence S_n that visits every node of the hypercube is defined recursively



Remarks about Simplex Observation The simplex algorithm takes at most $\binom{n}{m}$ iterations. Each iteration can be implemented in time $\mathcal{O}(mn)$. In practise it usually takes a linear number of iterations. In practise it usually takes a linear number of iterations.

Remarks about Simplex

Theorem

For almost all known deterministic pivoting rules (rules for choosing entering and leaving variables) there exist lower bounds that require the algorithm to have exponential running time ($\Omega(2^{\Omega(n)})$) (e.g. Klee Minty 1972).

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Remarks about Simplex Conjecture (Hirsch 1957) The edge-vertex graph of an *m*-facet polytope in *d*-dimensional Euclidean space has diameter no more than m - d. The conjecture has been proven wrong in 2010. But the question whether the diameter is perhaps of the form $\mathcal{O}(\operatorname{poly}(m, d))$ is open.

Remarks about Simplex

Theorem

For some standard randomized pivoting rules there exist subexponential lower bounds ($\Omega(2^{\Omega(n^{\alpha})})$) for $\alpha > 0$) (Friedmann, Hansen, Zwick 2011).

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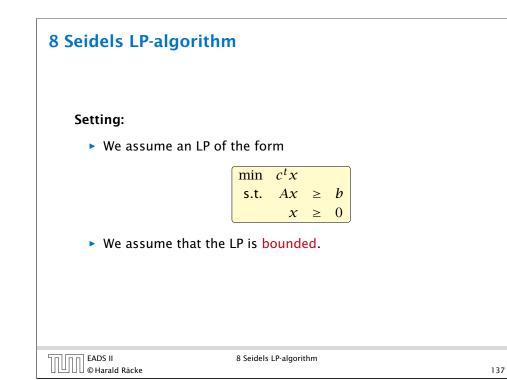
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8 Seidels LP-algorithm

- Suppose we want to solve $\min\{c^t x \mid Ax \ge b; x \ge 0\}$, where $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and we have *m* constraints.
- In the worst-case Simplex runs in time roughly $\mathcal{O}(m(m+d)\binom{m+d}{m}) \approx (m+d)^m$. (slightly better bounds on the running time exist, but will not be discussed here).
- If d is much smaller than m one can do a lot better.
- In the following we develop an algorithm with running time $\mathcal{O}(d! \cdot m)$, i.e., linear in *m*.



Computing a Lower Bound

Let *s* denote the smallest common multiple of all denominators of entries in *A*, *b*.

Multiply entries in A, b by s to obtain integral entries. This does not change the feasible region.

Add slack variables to A; denote the resulting matrix with \overline{A} .

If *B* is an optimal basis then x_B with $\bar{A}_B x_B = b$, gives an optimal assignment to the basis variables (non-basic variables are 0).

Ensuring Conditions Given a standard minimization LP $\begin{array}{c} \min & c^t x \\ \text{s.t.} & Ax &\geq b \\ x &\geq 0 \end{array}$ how can we obtain an LP of the required form? • Compute a lower bound on $c^t x$ for any basic feasible

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solution.

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Theorem 31 (Cramers Rule)

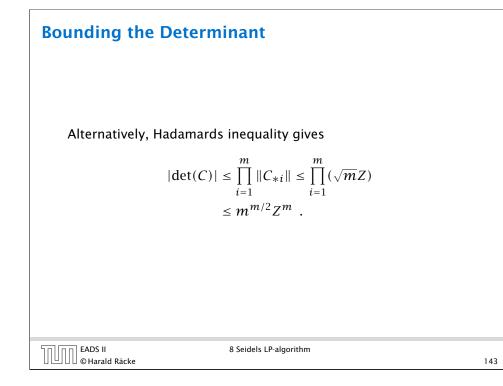
Let M be a matrix with $det(M) \neq 0$. Then the solution to the system Mx = b is given by

$$x_j = rac{\det(M_j)}{\det(M)}$$
 ,

where M_j is the matrix obtained from M by replacing the *j*-th column by the vector b.

Proof:

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•	Define $X_{j} = \begin{pmatrix} & & & \\ e_{1} \cdots e_{j-1} x e_{j+1} \cdots e_{n} \\ & & & \end{pmatrix}$
	Note that expanding along the <i>j</i> -th column gives that $det(X_j) = x_j$.
•	Further, we have
	$MX_{j} = \begin{pmatrix} & & & & \\ Me_{1} \cdots Me_{j-1} & Mx & Me_{j+1} \cdots Me_{n} \\ & & & & \end{pmatrix} = M_{j}$
•	Hence, $x_j = \det(X_j) = \frac{\det(M_j)}{\det(M)}$
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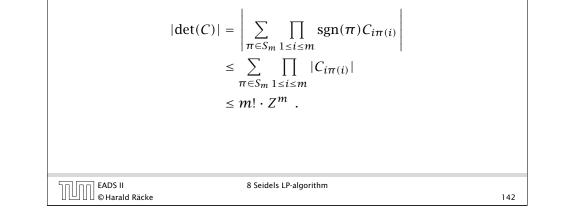


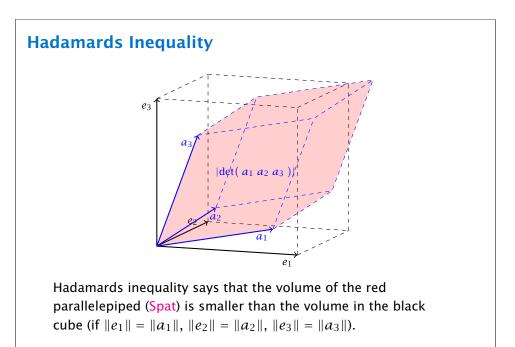
Bounding the Determinant

Let Z be the maximum absolute entry occuring in \bar{A} , \bar{b} or c. Let C denote the matrix obtained from \bar{A}_B by replacing the *j*-th column with vector \bar{b} .

Observe that

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Ensuring Conditions

Given a standard minimization LP

 $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \min & c^t x & \\ \text{s.t.} & Ax & \geq & b \\ & x & \geq & 0 \end{array}$

how can we obtain an LP of the required form?

Compute a lower bound on c^tx for any basic feasible solution. Add the constraint c^tx ≥ -mZ(m! · Z^m) - 1.
 Note that this constraint is superfluous unless the LP is unbounded.

In the following we use \mathcal{H} to denote the set of all constraints apart from the constraint $c^t x \ge -mZ(m! \cdot Z^m) - 1$.

We give a routine SeidelLP(\mathcal{H} , d) that is given a set \mathcal{H} of explicit, non-degenerate constraints over d variables, and minimizes $c^t x$ over all feasible points.

In addition it obeys the implicit constraint $c^t x \ge -(mZ)(m! \cdot Z^m) - 1.$

Ensuring Conditions

Compute an optimum basis for the new LP.

- ► If the cost is $c^t x = -(mZ)(m! \cdot Z^m) 1$ we know that the original LP is unbounded.
- Otw. we have an optimum basis.

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8 Seidels LP-algorithm

Algo	prithm 1 SeidelLP(\mathcal{H}, d)
1: i f	$\mathbf{f} d = 1$ then solve 1-dimensional problem and return;
2: i	f $\mathcal{H} = \emptyset$ then return x on implicit constraint hyperplane
3: C	hoose random constraint $h\in\mathcal{H}$
4: <i>3</i>	$\hat{\mathcal{H}} \leftarrow \mathcal{H} \setminus \{h\}$
5: <i>î</i>	$\hat{c}^* \leftarrow SeidelLP(\hat{\mathcal{H}}, d)$
6: i f	$\mathbf{f} \hat{x}^* = $ infeasible then return infeasible
7: if	f \hat{x}^* fulfills h then return \hat{x}^*
8: /	/ optimal solution fulfills h with equality, i.e., $A_h x = b_h$
9: s	olve $A_h x = b_h$ for some variable x_ℓ ;
10: e	eliminate x_ℓ in constraints from $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$ and in implicit constr.;
11: <i>ś</i>	$\hat{x}^* \leftarrow SeidelLP(\hat{\mathcal{H}}, d-1)$
12: i	$\mathbf{f} \hat{x}^* = $ infeasible then
13:	return infeasible
14: e	else
15:	add the value of x_ℓ to \hat{x}^* and return the solution

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- If d = 1 we can solve the 1-dimensional problem in time $\mathcal{O}(m)$.
- If d > 1 and m = 0 we take time O(d) to return d-dimensional vector x.
- ► The first recursive call takes time T(m-1, d) for the call plus O(d) for checking whether the solution fulfills h.
- ▶ If we are unlucky and \hat{x}^* does not fulfill *h* we need time O(d(m+1)) = O(dm) to eliminate x_{ℓ} . Then we make a recursive call that takes time T(m-1, d-1).
- The probability of being unlucky is at most d/m as there are at most d constraints whose removal will decrease the objective function

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8 Seidels LP-algorithm Let C be the largest constant in the O-notations. $T(m,d) = \begin{cases} Cm & \text{if } d = 1 \\ Cd & \text{if } d > 1 \text{ and } m = 0 \\ Cd + T(m - 1, d) + \\ \frac{d}{m}(Cdm + T(m - 1, d - 1)) & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$ Note that T(m,d) denotes the expected running time.

8 Seidels LP-algorithm

This gives the recurrence

$$T(m,d) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{O}(m) & \text{if } d = 1\\ \mathcal{O}(d) & \text{if } d > 1 \text{ and } m = 0\\ \mathcal{O}(d) + T(m-1,d) + \\ \frac{d}{m}(\mathcal{O}(dm) + T(m-1,d-1)) & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

Note that T(m, d) denotes the expected running time.

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8 Seidels LP-algorithm Let C be the largest constant in the \mathcal{O} -notations. We show $T(m,d) \leq Cf(d) \max\{1,m\}$. d = 1: $T(m,1) \leq Cm \leq Cf(1) \max\{1,m\}$ for $f(1) \geq 1$ d > 1; m = 0: $T(0,d) \leq \mathcal{O}(d) \leq Cd \leq Cf(d) \max\{1,m\}$ for $f(d) \geq d$ d > 1; m = 1: $T(1,d) = \mathcal{O}(d) + T(0,d) + d(\mathcal{O}(d) + T(0,d-1))$ $\leq Cd + Cd + Cd^2 + dCf(d-1)$ $\leq Cf(d) \max\{1,m\}$ for $f(d) \geq 3d^2 + df(d-1)$

8 Seidels LP-algorithm

d > 1; m > 1: (by induction hypothesis statm. true for $d' < d, m' \ge 0$; and for d' = d, m' < m)

$$T(m,d) = \mathcal{O}(d) + T(m-1,d) + \frac{d}{m} \Big(\mathcal{O}(dm) + T(m-1,d-1) \Big)$$

$$\leq Cd + Cf(d)(m-1) + Cd^2 + \frac{d}{m}Cf(d-1)(m-1)$$

$$\leq 2Cd^2 + Cf(d)(m-1) + dCf(d-1)$$

 $\leq Cf(d)m$

if $f(d) \ge df(d-1) + 2d^2$.

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Complexity

LP Feasibility Problem (LP feasibility)

- Given $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{Z}^m$. Does there exist $x \in \mathbb{R}$ with Ax = b, $x \ge 0$?
- Note that allowing A, b to contain rational numbers does not make a difference, as we can multiply every number by a suitable large constant so that everything becomes integral but the feasible region does not change.

Is this problem in NP or even in P?

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• Define
$$f(1) = 3 \cdot 1^2$$
 and $f(d) = df(d-1) + 3d^2$ for $d > 1$.

Then

$$f(d) = 3d^{2} + df(d-1)$$

$$= 3d^{2} + d\left[3(d-1)^{2} + (d-1)f(d-2)\right]$$

$$= 3d^{2} + d\left[3(d-1)^{2} + (d-1)\left[3(d-2)^{2} + (d-2)f(d-3)\right]\right]$$

$$= 3d^{2} + 3d(d-1)^{2} + 3d(d-1)(d-2)^{2} + \dots$$

$$+ 3d(d-1)(d-2) \cdot \dots \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 1^{2}$$

$$= 3d! \left(\frac{d^{2}}{d!} + \frac{(d-1)^{2}}{(d-1)!} + \frac{(d-2)^{2}}{(d-2)!} + \dots\right)$$

$$= \mathcal{O}(d!)$$
since $\sum_{i \ge 1} \frac{i^{2}}{i!}$ is a constant.
8 Seidels LP-algorithm
8 Seidels LP-algorithm
8 Seidels LP-algorithm

The Bit Model

Input size

• The number of bits to represent a number $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ is

 $\lceil \log_2(|a|) \rceil + 1$

• Let for an $m \times n$ matrix M, L(M) denote the number of bits required to encode all the numbers in M.

$$L(M) := \sum_{i,j} \lceil \log_2(|m_{ij}|) + 1 \rceil$$

- In the following we assume that input matrices are encoded in a standard way, where each number is encoded in binary and then suitable separators are added in order to separate distinct number from each other.
- Then the input length is $\Theta(L([A|b]))$.

- In the following we sometimes refer to L := L([A|b]) as the input size (even though the real input size is something in ⊕(L([A|b]))).
- In order to show that LP-decision is in NP we show that if there is a solution x then there exists a small solution for which feasibility can be verified in polynomial time (polynomial in L([A|b])).

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Size of a Basic Feasible Solution

Lemma 32

Let $M \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times m}$ be an invertable matrix and let $b \in \mathbb{Z}^m$. Further define $L' = L([M | b]) + n \log_2 n$. Then a solution to Mx = b has rational components x_j of the form $\frac{D_j}{D}$, where $|D_j| \le 2^{L'}$ and $|D| \le 2^{L'}$.

Proof:

Cramers rules says that we can compute x_j as

$$x_j = \frac{\det(M_j)}{\det(M)}$$

where M_j is the matrix obtained from M by replacing the j-th column by the vector b.

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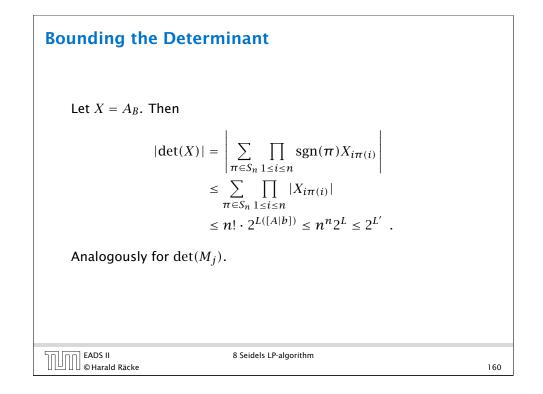
Suppose that Ax = b; $x \ge 0$ is feasible.

Then there exists a basic feasible solution. This means a set B of basic variables such that

 $x_B = A_B^{-1}b$

and all other entries in x are 0.

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This means if Ax = b, $x \ge 0$ is feasible we only need to consider vectors x where an entry x_j can be represented by a rational number with encoding length polynomial in the input length L.

Hence, the x that we have to guess is of length polynomial in the input-length L.

For a given vector x of polynomial length we can check for feasibility in polynomial time.

Hence, LP feasibility is in NP.

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How do we detect whether the LP is unbounded?

Let $M_{\text{max}} = n2^{2L'}$ be an upper bound on the objective value of a basic feasible solution.

We can add a constraint $c^t x \ge M_{max} + 1$ and check for feasibility.

Reducing LP-solving to LP decision.

Given an LP max{ $c^t x | Ax = b; x \ge 0$ } do a binary search for the optimum solution

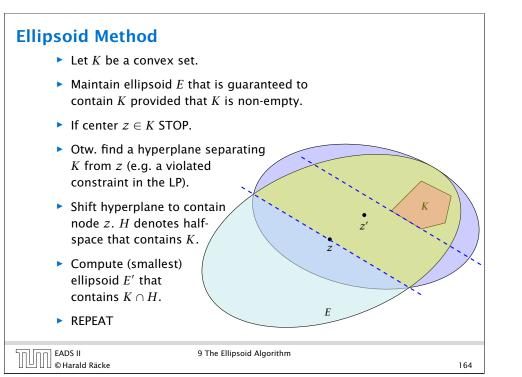
(Add constraint $c^t x - \delta = M$; $\delta \ge 0$ or $(c^t x \ge M)$. Then checking for feasibility shows whether optimum solution is larger or smaller than M).

If the LP is feasible then the binary search finishes in at most

$$\log_2\left(\frac{2n2^{2L'}}{1/2^{L'}}\right) = \mathcal{O}(L')$$

as the range of the search is at most $-n2^{2L'}, \ldots, n2^{2L'}$ and the distance between two adjacent values is at least $\frac{1}{\det(A)} \ge \frac{1}{2L'}$.

Here we use $L' = L([A | b | c]) + n \log_2 n$ (it also includes the encoding size of *c*).



Issues/Questions:

- How do you choose the first Ellipsoid? What is its volume?
- ▶ What if the polytop *K* is unbounded?
- How do you measure progress? By how much does the volume decrease in each iteration?
- When can you stop? What is the minimum volume of a non-empty polytop?

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Definition 34

A ball in \mathbb{R}^n with center *c* and radius *r* is given by

$$B(c,r) = \{x \mid (x-c)^{t}(x-c) \le r^{2}\}\$$
$$= \{x \mid \sum_{i} (x-c)_{i}^{2}/r^{2} \le 1\}\$$

B(0,1) is called the unit ball.

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Definition 33 A mapping $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ with f(x) = Lx + t, where L is an invertible matrix is called an affine transformation.

Definition 35

An affine transformation of the unit ball is called an ellipsoid.

From f(x) = Lx + t follows $x = L^{-1}(f(x) - t)$.

$$f(B(0,1)) = \{f(x) \mid x \in B(0,1)\}$$

= $\{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid L^{-1}(y-t) \in B(0,1)\}$
= $\{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid (y-t)^t L^{-1^t} L^{-1}(y-t) \le 1\}$
= $\{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid (y-t)^t Q^{-1}(y-t) \le 1\}$

where $Q = LL^t$ is an invertible matrix.

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How to Compute the New Ellipsoid

- Use f^{-1} (recall that f = Lx + t is the affine transformation of the unit ball) to rotate/distort the ellipsoid (back) into the unit ball.
- Use a rotation R^{-1} to rotate the unit ball such that the normal vector of the halfspace is parallel to e_1 .
- **•** Compute the new center \hat{c}' and the new matrix \hat{O}' for this simplified setting.
- Use the transformations R and f to get the new center c' and the new matrix O'for the original ellipsoid E.

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â e

 $E^{\hat{E}}$

 $\hat{E}' \ \bar{E}'$

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The Easy Case

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- The obtain the matrix $\hat{O'}^{-1}$ for our ellipsoid $\hat{E'}$ note that $\hat{E'}$ is axis-parallel.
- Let a denote the radius along the x_1 -axis and let b denote the (common) radius for the other axes.
- The matrix

 $\hat{L}' = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & b & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & & 0 & b \end{pmatrix}$

maps the unit ball (via function $\hat{f}'(x) = \hat{L}'x$) to an axis-parallel ellipsoid with radius a in direction x_1 and b in all other directions.

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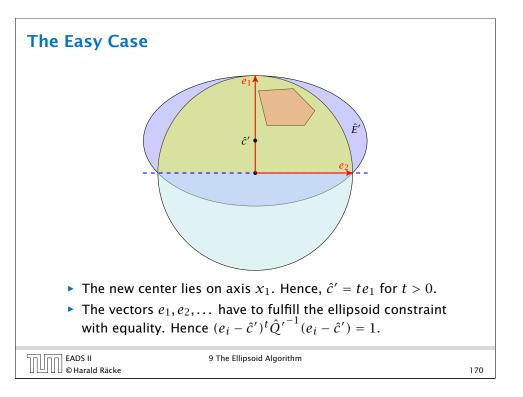
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The Easy Case



 $\hat{Q}'^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a^2} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{b^2} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & & 0 & \frac{1}{a^2} \end{pmatrix}$

• As $\hat{Q}' = \hat{L}' \hat{L}'^t$ the matrix \hat{Q}'^{-1} is of the form



The Easy Case • $(e_1 - \hat{c}')^t \hat{O}'^{-1} (e_1 - \hat{c}') = 1$ gives $\left(\begin{array}{c} 1-t\\ 0\\ \vdots\\ 0\\ 0\end{array}\right)^{t} \cdot \left(\begin{array}{cccc} \frac{1}{a^{2}} & 0 & \dots & 0\\ 0 & \frac{1}{b^{2}} & \ddots & \vdots\\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0\\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \frac{1}{12} \end{array}\right) \cdot \left(\begin{array}{c} 1-t\\ 0\\ \vdots\\ 0\end{array}\right) = 1$ • This gives $(1-t)^2 = a^2$. EADS II © Harald Räcke 9 The Ellipsoid Algorithm

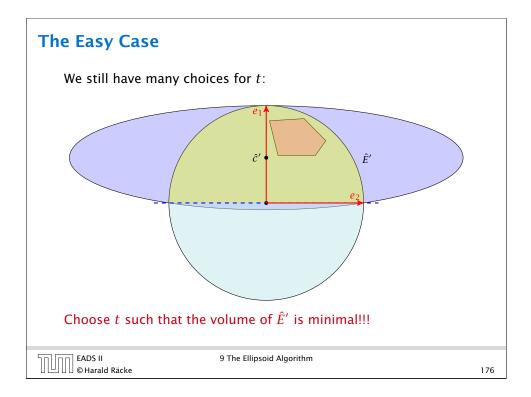
Summary So far we have a = 1 - t and $b = \frac{1 - t}{\sqrt{1 - 2t}}$ EADS II © Harald Räcke EADS II 9 The Ellipsoid Algorithm 175

The Easy Case

• For
$$i \neq 1$$
 the equation $(e_i - \hat{c}')^t \hat{Q}'^{-1}(e_i - \hat{c}') = 1$ gives

$$\begin{pmatrix} -t \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}^t \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a^2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{b^2} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \frac{1}{b^2} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -t \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1$$
• This gives $\frac{t^2}{a^2} + \frac{1}{b^2} = 1$, and hence

$$\frac{1}{b^2} = 1 - \frac{t^2}{a^2} = 1 - \frac{t^2}{(1-t)^2} = \frac{1-2t}{(1-t)^2}$$



The Easy Case

We want to choose t such that the volume of \hat{E}' is minimal.

Lemma 36

Let *L* be an affine transformation and $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

 $\operatorname{vol}(L(K)) = |\det(L)| \cdot \operatorname{vol}(K)$.

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The Easy Case

• We want to choose *t* such that the volume of \hat{E}' is minimal.

 $\operatorname{vol}(\hat{E}') = \operatorname{vol}(B(0,1)) \cdot |\operatorname{det}(\hat{L}')|$,

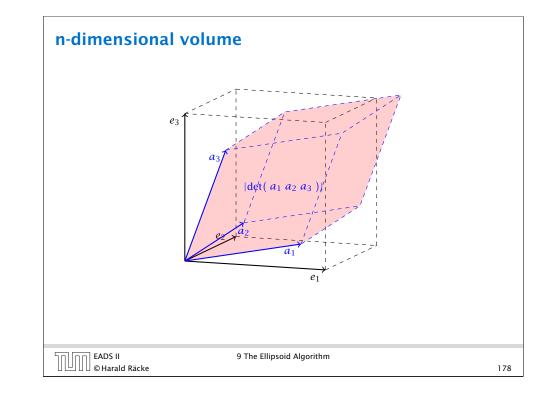
where $\hat{Q}' = \hat{L}' \hat{L'}^t$.

We have

$$\hat{L'}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a} & 0 & \dots & 0\\ 0 & \frac{1}{b} & \ddots & \vdots\\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0\\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \frac{1}{b} \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \hat{L'} = \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & \dots & 0\\ 0 & b & \ddots & \vdots\\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0\\ 0 & \dots & 0 & b \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that a and b in the above equations depend on t, by the previous equations.

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The Easy Cas	e	
	$\hat{E}') = \operatorname{vol}(B(0,1)) \cdot \det(\hat{L}') = \operatorname{vol}(B(0,1)) \cdot ab^{n-1} = \operatorname{vol}(B(0,1)) \cdot (1-t) \cdot \left(\frac{1-t}{\sqrt{1-2t}}\right)^{n-1} = \operatorname{vol}(B(0,1)) \cdot \frac{(1-t)^n}{(\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-1}} $	
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The Easy Case $\frac{\mathrm{d}\operatorname{vol}(\hat{E}')}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \left(\frac{(1-t)^n}{(\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-1}} \right)$ 1 - 2t $= \frac{1}{N^2} \cdot \left((-1) \cdot n(1-t)^{n-1} \cdot (\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-1} \right)$ $= \frac{1}{N} \cdot (\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-1} \cdot (\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-1}$ $= \frac{1}{N} \cdot (\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-1} \cdot (\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-1}$ $= \frac{1}{N} \cdot (\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-1} \cdot (\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-1}$ $= \frac{1}{N^2} \cdot (\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-2} \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1-2t}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2t}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2t}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2t}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2t}} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-2t}} \cdot \frac{1$ numerator $\cdot \left((n-1)(1-t) - n(1-2t) \right)$ $= \frac{1}{N^2} \cdot (\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-3} \cdot (1-t)^{n-1} \cdot \left((n+1)t - 1 \right)$ 9 The Ellipsoid Algorithm EADS II © Harald Räcke EADS II 181

The Easy Case

Let $y_n = \frac{\operatorname{vol}(\hat{E}')}{\operatorname{vol}(B(0,1))} = ab^{n-1}$ be the ratio by which the volume changes:

$$\begin{split} \gamma_n^2 &= \Big(\frac{n}{n+1}\Big)^2 \Big(\frac{n^2}{n^2-1}\Big)^{n-1} \\ &= \Big(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\Big)^2 \Big(1 + \frac{1}{(n-1)(n+1)}\Big)^{n-1} \\ &\le e^{-2\frac{1}{n+1}} \cdot e^{\frac{1}{n+1}} \\ &= e^{-\frac{1}{n+1}} \end{split}$$

where we used $(1 + x)^a \le e^{ax}$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and a > 0.

This gives
$$\gamma_n \leq e^{-\frac{1}{2(n+1)}}$$
.

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The Easy Case

- We obtain the minimum for $t = \frac{1}{n+1}$.
- For this value we obtain

$$a = 1 - t = \frac{n}{n+1}$$
 and $b = \frac{1-t}{\sqrt{1-2t}} = \frac{n}{\sqrt{n^2-1}}$

To see the equation for *b*, observe that

$$b^{2} = \frac{(1-t)^{2}}{1-2t} = \frac{(1-\frac{1}{n+1})^{2}}{1-\frac{2}{n+1}} = \frac{(\frac{n}{n+1})^{2}}{\frac{n-1}{n+1}} = \frac{n^{2}}{n^{2}-1}$$

How to Compute the New Ellipsoid • Use f^{-1} (recall that f = Lx + t is the affine transformation of the unit ball) to rotate/distort the ellipsoid (back) into the unit ball. • Use a rotation R^{-1} to rotate the unit ball such that the normal vector of the halfspace is parallel to e_1 . • Compute the new center \hat{c}' and the new matrix \hat{O}' for this simplified setting. Use the transformations R and f to get the â e $\hat{E}' \ \bar{E}'$ new center c' and the new matrix O'for the original $E^{\hat{E}}$ ellipsoid E. EADS II 9 The Ellipsoid Algorithm

Our progress is the same:

$$e^{-\frac{1}{2(n+1)}} \ge \frac{\operatorname{vol}(\hat{E}')}{\operatorname{vol}(B(0,1))} = \frac{\operatorname{vol}(\hat{E}')}{\operatorname{vol}(\hat{E})} = \frac{\operatorname{vol}(R(\hat{E}'))}{\operatorname{vol}(R(\hat{E}))}$$
$$= \frac{\operatorname{vol}(\bar{E}')}{\operatorname{vol}(\bar{E})} = \frac{\operatorname{vol}(f(\bar{E}'))}{\operatorname{vol}(f(\bar{E}))} = \frac{\operatorname{vol}(E')}{\operatorname{vol}(E)}$$

Here it is important that mapping a set with affine function f(x) = Lx + t changes the volume by factor det(*L*).

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The Ellipsoid Algorithm

After rotating back (applying R^{-1}) the normal vector of the halfspace points in negative x_1 -direction. Hence,

$$R^{-1}\left(\frac{L^{t}a}{\|L^{t}a\|}\right) = -e_{1} \quad \Rightarrow \quad -\frac{L^{t}a}{\|L^{t}a\|} = R \cdot e_{1}$$

Hence,

$$\bar{c}' = R \cdot \hat{c}' = R \cdot \frac{1}{n+1} e_1 = -\frac{1}{n+1} \frac{L^t a}{\|L^t a\|}$$

$$c' = f(\bar{c}') = L \cdot \bar{c}' + c$$
$$= -\frac{1}{n+1}L\frac{L^t a}{\|L^t a\|} + c$$
$$= c - \frac{1}{n+1}\frac{Qa}{\sqrt{a^t Qa}}$$

The Ellipsoid Algorithm

How to Compute The New Parameters?

The transformation function of the (old) ellipsoid: f(x) = Lx + c;

The halfspace to be intersected: $H = \{x \mid a^t(x - c) \le 0\};\$

$$f^{-1}(H) = \{f^{-1}(x) \mid a^{t}(x-c) \le 0\}$$

= $\{f^{-1}(f(y)) \mid a^{t}(f(y)-c) \le 0\}$
= $\{y \mid a^{t}(f(y)-c) \le 0\}$
= $\{y \mid a^{t}(Ly+c-c) \le 0\}$
= $\{y \mid (a^{t}L)y \le 0\}$

This means $\bar{a} = L^t a$.

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For computing the matrix Q' of the new ellipsoid we assume in the following that \hat{E}', \bar{E}' and E' refer to the ellipsoids centered in the origin.



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Recall that

$$\hat{Q}' = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & b^2 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & b^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

This gives

$$\hat{Q}' = \frac{n^2}{n^2-1} \left(I - \frac{2}{n+1} e_1 e_1^t \right)$$

because for a = n/n+1 and $b = n/\sqrt{n^2-1}$

$$b^{2} - b^{2} \frac{2}{n+1} = \frac{n^{2}}{n^{2}-1} - \frac{2n^{2}}{(n-1)(n+1)^{2}}$$
$$= \frac{n^{2}(n+1) - 2n^{2}}{(n-1)(n+1)^{2}} = \frac{n^{2}(n-1)}{(n-1)(n+1)^{2}} = a^{2}$$

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Hence,

$$\bar{Q}' = R\hat{Q}'R^{t}$$

$$= R \cdot \frac{n^{2}}{n^{2}-1} \left(I - \frac{2}{n+1}e_{1}e_{1}^{t}\right) \cdot R^{t}$$

$$= \frac{n^{2}}{n^{2}-1} \left(R \cdot R^{t} - \frac{2}{n+1}(Re_{1})(Re_{1})^{t}\right)$$

$$= \frac{n^{2}}{n^{2}-1} \left(I - \frac{2}{n+1}\frac{L^{t}aa^{t}L}{\|L^{t}a\|^{2}}\right)$$
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$$\bar{E}' = R(\hat{E}')$$

$$= \{R(x) \mid x^{t} \hat{Q}'^{-1} x \leq 1\}$$

$$= \{y \mid (R^{-1}y)^{t} \hat{Q}'^{-1} R^{-1} y \leq 1\}$$

$$= \{y \mid y^{t} (R\hat{Q}'R^{t})^{-1} Y \leq 1\}$$

$$= \{y \mid y^{t} (R\hat{Q}'R^{t})^{-1} y \leq 1\}$$
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$$E' = L(\bar{E}')$$

$$= \{L(x) \mid x^t \bar{Q}'^{-1} x \le 1\}$$

$$= \{y \mid (L^{-1}y)^t \bar{Q}'^{-1} L^{-1} y \le 1\}$$

$$= \{y \mid y^t (L^t)^{-1} \bar{Q}'^{-1} L^{-1} y \le 1\}$$

$$= \{y \mid y^t (\underline{L}\bar{Q}' L^t)^{-1} y \le 1\}$$

$$= \{y \mid y^t (\underline{L}\bar{Q}' L^t)^{-1} y \le 1\}$$
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Hence,

$$Q' = L\bar{Q}'L^{t}$$
$$= L \cdot \frac{n^{2}}{n^{2} - 1} \left(I - \frac{2}{n+1} \frac{L^{t}aa^{t}L}{a^{t}Qa}\right) \cdot L^{t}$$
$$= \frac{n^{2}}{n^{2} - 1} \left(Q - \frac{2}{n+1} \frac{Qaa^{t}Q}{a^{t}Qa}\right)$$

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Repeat: Size of basic solutions

Lemma 37

Let $P = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax \le b\}$ be a bounded polytop. Let $\langle a_{\max} \rangle$ be the maximum encoding length of an entry in A, b. Then every entry x_j in a basic solution fulfills $|x_j| = \frac{D_j}{D}$ with $D_j, D \le 2^{2n\langle a_{\max} \rangle + 2n\log_2 n}$.

In the following we use $\delta := 2^{2n\langle a_{\max} \rangle + 2n \log_2 n}$.

Note that here we have $P = \{x \mid Ax \le b\}$. The previous lemmas we had about the size of feasible solutions were slightly different as they were for different polytopes.

Incomplete Algorithm

Algo	rithm 1 ellipsoid-algorithm
1: in	put: point $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$, convex set $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$
2: O	utput: point $x \in K$ or "K is empty"
3: Q	← ???
4: re	epeat
5:	if $c \in K$ then return c
6:	else
7:	choose a violated hyperplane <i>a</i>
8:	$c \leftarrow c - \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{Qa}{\sqrt{a^t Qa}}$
9:	$Q \leftarrow \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1} \Big(Q - \frac{2}{n+1} \frac{Qaa^t Q}{a^t Q a} \Big)$
10:	endif
11: u	ntil ???
12: re	eturn "K is empty"

Repeat: Size of basic solutions

Proof:

Let $\bar{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A & -A \\ -A & A \end{bmatrix}$, $\bar{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b \\ -b \end{pmatrix}$, be the matrix and right-hand vector after transforming the system to standard form.

The determinant of the matrices \bar{A}_B and \bar{M}_j (matrix obt. when replacing the *j*-th column of \bar{A}_B by \bar{b}) can become at most

 $\det(\bar{A}_B), \det(\bar{M}_j) \le \|\vec{\ell}_{\max}\|^{2n}$

 $\leq (\sqrt{2n} \cdot 2^{\langle a_{\max} \rangle})^{2n} \leq 2^{2n \langle a_{\max} \rangle + 2n \log_2 n}$

where $\vec{\ell}_{max}$ is the longest column-vector that can be obtained after deleting all but 2n rows and columns from \bar{A} .

This holds because columns from I_m selected when going from \overline{A} to \overline{A}_B do not increase the determinant. Only the at most 2n columns from matrices A and -A that \overline{A} consists of contribute.

How do we find the first ellipsoid?

For feasibility checking we can assume that the polytop P is bounded; it is sufficient to consider basic solutions.

Every entry x_i in a basic solution fulfills $|x_i| \le \delta$.

Hence, *P* is contained in the cube $-\delta \le x_i \le \delta$.

A vector in this cube has at most distance $R := \sqrt{n}\delta$ from the origin.

Starting with the ball $E_0 := B(0, R)$ ensures that P is completely contained in the initial ellipsoid. This ellipsoid has volume at most $R^n B(0, 1) \le (n\delta)^n B(0, 1)$.

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Lemma 38

 P_{λ} is feasible if and only if P is feasible.

 \Leftarrow : obvious!

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When can we terminate?

Let $P := \{x \mid Ax \leq b\}$ with $A \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $b \in \mathbb{Z}$ be a bounded polytop. Let $\langle a_{\max} \rangle$ be the encoding length of the largest entry in A or b.

Consider the following polytope

$$P_{\lambda} := \left\{ x \mid Ax \leq b + rac{1}{\lambda} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}
ight\},$$

where $\lambda = \delta^2 + 1$.		
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⇒:

Consider the polytops

$$\bar{P} = \left\{ x \mid \begin{bmatrix} A & -A \\ -A & A \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} b \\ -b \end{pmatrix}; x \ge 0 \right\}$$

and

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$$\bar{P}_{\lambda} = \left\{ x \mid \begin{bmatrix} A & -A \\ -A & A \end{bmatrix} x = \begin{pmatrix} b \\ -b \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{\lambda} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}; x \ge 0 \right\}$$

P is feasible if and only if \bar{P} is feasible, and P_λ feasible if and only if \bar{P}_λ feasible.

 \bar{P}_{λ} is bounded since P_{λ} and P are bounded.

Let
$$\bar{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A & -A \\ -A & A \end{bmatrix}$$
, and $\bar{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b \\ -b \end{pmatrix}$.

 $ar{P}_{\lambda}$ feasible implies that there is a basic feasible solution represented by

$$x_B = \bar{A}_B^{-1}\bar{b} + \frac{1}{\lambda}\bar{A}_B^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1\\ \vdots\\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

(The other *x*-values are zero)

The only reason that this basic feasible solution is not feasible for \bar{P} is that one of the basic variables becomes negative.

Hence, there exists i with

$$(\bar{A}_B^{-1}\bar{b})_i < 0 \le (\bar{A}_B^{-1}\bar{b})_i + \frac{1}{\lambda}(\bar{A}_B^{-1}\vec{1})_i$$

By Cramers rule we get

$$(\bar{A}_B^{-1}\bar{b})_i < 0 \implies (\bar{A}_B^{-1}\bar{b})_i \le -\frac{1}{\det(\bar{A}_B)}$$

and

$$(\bar{A}_B^{-1}\vec{1})_i \leq \det(\bar{M}_j)$$

where \bar{M}_j is obtained by replacing the *j*-th column of \bar{A}_B by $\vec{1}$.

However, we showed that the determinants of \bar{A}_B and \bar{M}_j can become at most δ .

Since, we chose $\lambda = \delta^2 + 1$ this gives a contradiction.

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Lemma 39

If P_{λ} is feasible then it contains a ball of radius $r := 1/\delta^3$. This has a volume of at least $r^n \operatorname{vol}(B(0,1)) = \frac{1}{\delta^{3n}} \operatorname{vol}(B(0,1))$.

Proof:

If P_{λ} feasible then also P. Let x be feasible for P. This means $Ax \leq b$.

Let $\vec{\ell}$ with $\|\vec{\ell}\| \leq r$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} (A(x+\vec{\ell}))_i &= (Ax)_i + (A\vec{\ell})_i \le b_i + A_i\vec{\ell} \\ &\le b_i + \|A_i\| \cdot \|\vec{\ell}\| \le b_i + \sqrt{n} \cdot 2^{\langle a_{\max} \rangle} \cdot r \\ &\le b_i + \frac{\sqrt{n} \cdot 2^{\langle a_{\max} \rangle}}{\delta^3} \le b_i + \frac{1}{\delta^2 + 1} \le b_i + \frac{1}{\lambda} \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $x + \vec{\ell}$ is feasible for P_{λ} which proves the lemma.

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How many iterations do we need until the volume becomes too small?

$$e^{-\frac{i}{2(n+1)}}\cdot \operatorname{vol}(B(0,R)) < \operatorname{vol}(B(0,r))$$

Hence,

$$i > 2(n+1) \ln\left(\frac{\operatorname{vol}(B(0,R))}{\operatorname{vol}(B(0,r))}\right)$$
$$= 2(n+1) \ln\left(n^n \delta^n \cdot \delta^{3n}\right)$$
$$= 8n(n+1) \ln(\delta) + 2(n+1)n \ln(n)$$
$$= \mathcal{O}(\operatorname{poly}(n, \langle a_{\max} \rangle))$$

Algorithm 1 ellipsoid-algorithm 1: input: point $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$, convex set $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, radii R and r with $K \subseteq B(c, R)$, and $B(x, r) \subseteq K$ for some x 2: 3: **output:** point $x \in K$ or "K is empty" 4: $Q \leftarrow \operatorname{diag}(R^2, \dots, R^2) // \text{ i.e., } L = \operatorname{diag}(R, \dots, R)$ 5: repeat if $c \in K$ then return c6: 7: else choose a violated hyperplane *a* 8: $c \leftarrow c - \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{Qa}{\sqrt{a^t Qa}}$ 9: $Q \leftarrow \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1} \Big(Q - \frac{2}{n+1} \frac{Qaa^t Q}{a^t Q a} \Big)$ 10: endif 11: 12: **until** det(Q) $\leq r^{2n}$ // i.e., det(L) $\leq r^{n}$ 13: **return** "*K* is empty"

10 Karmarkars Algorithm

We want to solve the following linear program:

- min $v = c^t x$ subject to Ax = 0 and $x \in \Delta$.
- ► Here $\Delta = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid e^t x = 1, x \ge 0\}$ with $e^t = (1, ..., 1)$ denotes the standard simplex in \mathbb{R}^n .

Further assumptions:

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- **1.** A is an $m \times n$ -matrix with rank m.
- **2.** Ae = 0, i.e., the center of the simplex is feasible.
- **3.** The optimum solution is 0.

Separation Oracle:

Let $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a convex set. A separation oracle for K is an algorithm A that gets as input a point $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and either

- certifies that $x \in K$,
- or finds a hyperplane separating *x* from *K*.

We will usually assume that A is a polynomial-time algorithm.

In order to find a point in K we need

- ▶ a guarantee that a ball of radius *r* is contained in *K*,
- an initial ball B(c, R) with radius R that contains K,
- a separation oracle for *K*.

The Ellipsoid algorithm requires $O(\text{poly}(n) \cdot \log(R/r))$ iterations. Each iteration is polytime for a polynomial-time Separation oracle.

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9 The Ellipsoid Algorithm

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10 Karmarkars Algorithm

Suppose you start with $\max\{c^t x \mid Ax = b; x \ge 0\}$.

- Multiply c by −1 and do a minimization. ⇒ minimization problem
- We can check for feasibility by using the two phase algorithm. ⇒ can assume that LP is feasible.
- Compute the dual; pack primal and dual into one LP and minimize the duality gap. ⇒ optimum is 0
- ► Add a new variable pair x_{ℓ} , x'_{ℓ} (both restricted to be positive) and the constraint $\sum_i x_i = 1$. \Rightarrow solution in simplex
- Add $-(\sum_i x_i)b_i = -b_i$ to every constraint. \Rightarrow vector b is 0
- If A does not have full row rank we can delete constraints (or conclude that the LP is infeasible).

 \Rightarrow A has full row rank

We still need to make e/n feasible.

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The algorithm computes strictly feasible interior points $x^{(0)} = \frac{e}{n}, x^{(1)}, x^{(2)}, \dots$ with

 $c^t x^{(k)} \le 2^{-\Theta(L)} c^t x^{(0)}$

For $k = \Theta(L)$. A point x is strictly feasible if x > 0.

If my objective value is close enough to 0 (the optimum!!) I can "snap" to an optimum vertex.

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The Transformation

Let $\bar{Y} = \text{diag}(\bar{x})$ the diagonal matrix with entries \bar{x} on the diagonal.

Define

$$F_{\bar{X}}: x \mapsto \frac{Y^{-1}x}{e^t \bar{Y}^{-1}x}$$

- -

The inverse function is

$$F_{\bar{x}}^{-1}: \hat{x} \mapsto \frac{\bar{Y}\hat{x}}{e^t \bar{Y}\hat{x}}$$

Note that $\bar{x} > 0$ in every coordinate. Therefore the above is well defined.

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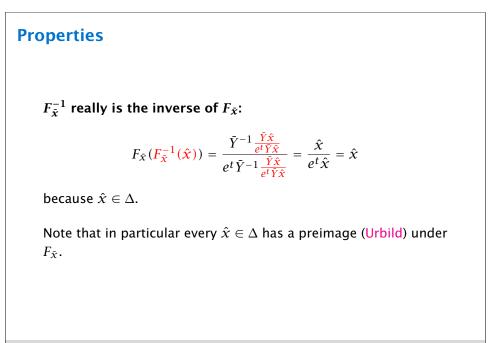
10 Karmarkars Algorithm

Iteration:

- 1. Distort the problem by mapping the simplex onto itself so that the current point \bar{x} moves to the center.
- 2. Project the optimization direction c onto the feasible region. Determine a distance to travel along this direction such that you do not leave the simplex (and you do not touch the border). \hat{x}_{new} is the point you reached.
- **3.** Do a backtransformation to transform \hat{x} into your new point \hat{x}_{new} .

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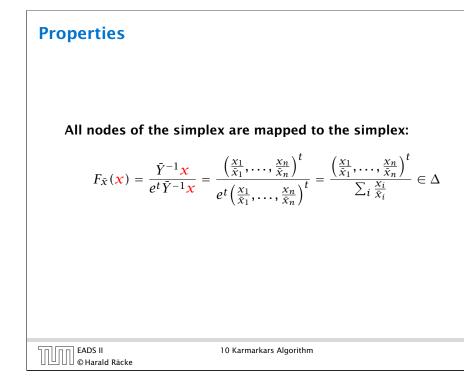
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 Properties

 \bar{x} is mapped to e/n

 $F_{\bar{x}}(\bar{x}) = \frac{\bar{Y}^{-1}\bar{x}}{e^t\bar{Y}^{-1}\bar{x}} = \frac{e}{e^te} = \frac{e}{n}$

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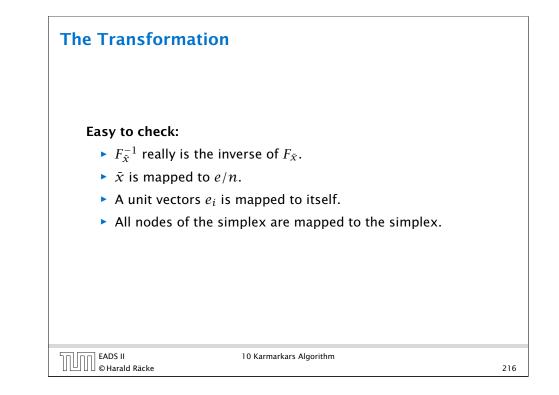
Properties

A unit vectors e_i is mapped to itself:

$$F_{\bar{X}}(\boldsymbol{e}_{i}) = \frac{\bar{Y}^{-1}\boldsymbol{e}_{i}}{\boldsymbol{e}^{t}\bar{Y}^{-1}\boldsymbol{e}_{i}} = \frac{(0,\ldots,0,1/\bar{x}_{i},0,\ldots,0)^{t}}{\boldsymbol{e}^{t}(0,\ldots,0,1/\bar{x}_{i},0,\ldots,0)^{t}} = \boldsymbol{e}_{i}$$

$$EADS II \qquad 10 \text{ Karmarkars Algorithm}$$

$$10 \text{ Karmarkars Algorithm} \qquad 214$$



10 Karmarkars Algorithm

We have the problem

$$\begin{split} \min\{c^{t}x \mid Ax &= 0; x \in \Delta\} \\ &= \min\{c^{t}F_{\hat{x}}^{-1}(\hat{x}) \mid AF_{\hat{x}}^{-1}(\hat{x}) = 0; F_{\hat{x}}^{-1}(\hat{x}) \in \Delta\} \\ &= \min\{c^{t}F_{\hat{x}}^{-1}(\hat{x}) \mid AF_{\hat{x}}^{-1}(\hat{x}) = 0; \hat{x} \in \Delta\} \\ &= \min\left\{\frac{c^{t}\bar{Y}\hat{x}}{e^{t}\bar{Y}\hat{x}} \mid \frac{A\bar{Y}\hat{x}}{e^{t}\bar{Y}\hat{x}} = 0; \hat{x} \in \Delta\right\} \end{split}$$

Since the optimum solution is 0 this problem is the same as

$$\min\{\hat{c}^t\hat{x} \mid \hat{A}\hat{x} = 0, \hat{x} \in \Delta\}$$

with $\hat{c} = \bar{Y}^t c = \bar{Y}c$ and $\hat{A} = A\bar{Y}$.

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Note that $e^t \overline{Y} x > 0$ for $x \in \Delta$.

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10 Karmarkars Algorithm

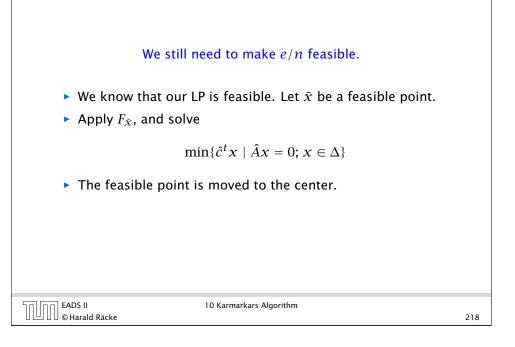
When computing \hat{x}_{new} we do not want to leave the simplex or touch its boundary (why?).

For this we compute the radius of a ball that completely lies in the simplex.

$$B\left(rac{e}{n},
ho
ight) = \left\{x\in\mathbb{R}^n\mid \left\|x-rac{e}{n}\right\|\leq
ho
ight\}$$
.

We are looking for the largest radius r such that

$$B\left(\frac{e}{n},r\right)\cap\left\{x\mid e^{t}x=1\right\}\subseteq\Delta.$$



10 Karmarkars Algorithm

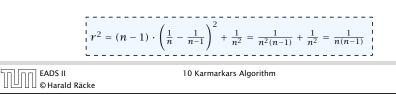
This holds for $r = \|\frac{e}{n} - (e - e_1)\frac{1}{n-1}\|$. (*r* is the distance between the center e/n and the center of the (n-1)-dimensional simplex obtained by intersecting a side ($x_i = 0$) of the unit cube with Δ .)

This gives
$$r = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n(n-1)}}$$
.

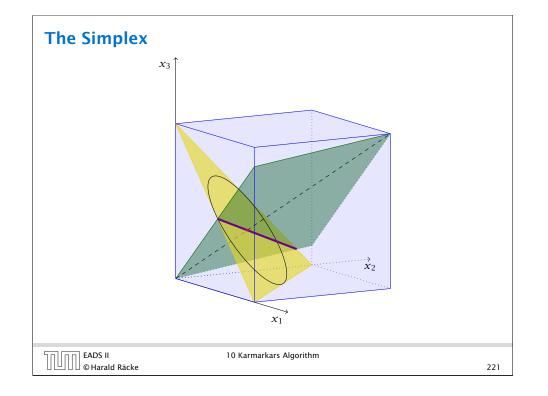
Now we consider the problem

$$\min\{\hat{c}^t x \mid \hat{A}x = 0, x \in B(e/n, r) \cap \Delta\}$$

This problem is easy to solve!!!



10 Karmarkars Algorithm



10 Karmarkars Algorithm We get the new point $\hat{x}(\rho) = \frac{e}{n} - \rho \frac{\hat{d}}{\|\hat{d}\|}$ for $\rho < r$. Choose $\rho = \alpha r$ with $\alpha = 1/4$.

10 Karmarkars Algorithm

Ideally we would like to go in direction of $-\hat{c}$ (starting from the center of the simplex).

However, doing this may violate constraints $\hat{A}\hat{x}=0$ or the constraint $\hat{x}\in\Delta.$

Therefore we first project \hat{c} on the nullspace of

 $B = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{A} \\ e^t \end{pmatrix}$

We use

Then

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 $\hat{d} = P\hat{c}$

 $P = I - B^t (BB^t)^{-1} B$

is the required projection.

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Current solution	n \bar{x} . $\bar{Y} := \operatorname{diag}(\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n)$.
• Transform prob Let $\hat{c} = \bar{Y}c$, and	elem via $F_{\bar{X}}(x) = rac{\bar{Y}^{-1}x}{e^t \bar{Y}^{-1}x}$. $\hat{A} = A\bar{Y}$.
Compute	
	$\hat{d}=(I-B^t(BB^t)^{-1}B)\hat{c}$,
where $B = \begin{pmatrix} \hat{A} \\ e^t \end{pmatrix}$	
Set	^
	$\hat{x}_{ m new} = rac{e}{n} - ho rac{\dot{d}}{\ \hat{d}\ }$,
with $ ho = lpha r$ wit	:h $\alpha = 1/4$ and $r = 1/\sqrt{n(n-1)}$.
• Compute \bar{x}_{new}	$=F_{\tilde{\mathbf{z}}}^{-1}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}_{\text{new}}).$
• Compute \bar{x}_{new} =	$=F_{\tilde{X}}^{-1}(\hat{X}_{\text{new}}).$
• Compute \bar{x}_{new} =	$=F_{\tilde{x}}^{-1}(\hat{x}_{\text{new}}).$
	10 Karmarkars Algorithm

Lemma 40

The new point \hat{x}_{new} in the transformed space is the point that minimizes the cost $\hat{c}^t \hat{x}$ among all feasible points in $B(\frac{e}{n}, \rho)$.

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But
$$\frac{\hat{d}^t}{\|\hat{d}\|} \left(\hat{x}_{\text{new}} - \hat{z} \right) = \frac{\hat{d}^t}{\|\hat{d}\|} \left(\frac{e}{n} - \rho \frac{\hat{d}}{\|\hat{d}\|} - \hat{z} \right) = \frac{\hat{d}^t}{\|\hat{d}\|} \left(\frac{e}{n} - \hat{z} \right) - \rho < 0$$

as $\frac{e}{n} - \hat{z}$ is a vector of length at most ρ .

This gives
$$\hat{d}(\hat{x}_{\text{new}} - \hat{z}) \le 0$$
 and therefore $\hat{c}\hat{x}_{\text{new}} \le \hat{c}\hat{z}$.

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Proof: Let \hat{z} be another feasible point in $B(\frac{e}{n}, \rho)$.

As
$$\hat{A}\hat{z} = 0$$
, $\hat{A}\hat{x}_{new} = 0$, $e^t\hat{z} = 1$, $e^t\hat{x}_{new} = 1$ we have

$$B(\hat{x}_{\text{new}} - \hat{z}) = 0 .$$

Further,

$$(\hat{c} - \hat{d})^t = (\hat{c} - P\hat{c})^t$$
$$= (B^t (BB^t)^{-1} B\hat{c})^t$$
$$= \hat{c}^t B^t (BB^t)^{-1} B$$

Hence, we get

$$(\hat{c} - \hat{d})^t (\hat{x}_{\text{new}} - \hat{z}) = 0 \text{ or } \hat{c}^t (\hat{x}_{\text{new}} - \hat{z}) = \hat{d}^t (\hat{x}_{\text{new}} - \hat{z})$$

which means that the cost-difference between \hat{x}_{new} and \hat{z} is the same measured w.r.t. the cost-vector \hat{c} or the projected cost-vector \hat{d} .

In order to measure the progress of the algorithm we introduce a potential function f:

$$f(x) = \sum_{j} \ln(\frac{c^t x}{x_j}) = n \ln(c^t x) - \sum_{j} \ln(x_j) .$$

- The function f is invariant to scaling (i.e., f(kx) = f(x)).
- ► The potential function essentially measures cost (note the term n ln(c^tx)) but it penalizes us for choosing x_j values very small (by the term ∑_j ln(x_j); note that ln(x_j) is always positive).

For a point \hat{z} in the transformed space we use the potential function

$$\hat{f}(\hat{z}) := f(F_{\bar{x}}^{-1}(\hat{z})) = f(\frac{\bar{Y}\hat{z}}{e^t\bar{Y}\hat{z}}) = f(\bar{Y}\hat{z})$$
$$= \sum_j \ln(\frac{c^t\bar{Y}\hat{z}}{\bar{x}_j\hat{z}_j}) = \sum_j \ln(\frac{\hat{c}^t\hat{z}}{\hat{z}_j}) - \sum_j \ln\bar{x}_j$$

Observation:

This means the potential of a point in the transformed space is simply the potential of its pre-image under F.

Note that if we are interested in potential-change we can ignore the additive term above. Then f and \hat{f} have the same form; only c is replaced by \hat{c} .

	10 Karmarkars Algorithm	
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The basic idea is to show that one iteration of Karmarkar results in a constant decrease of $\hat{f}.$ This means

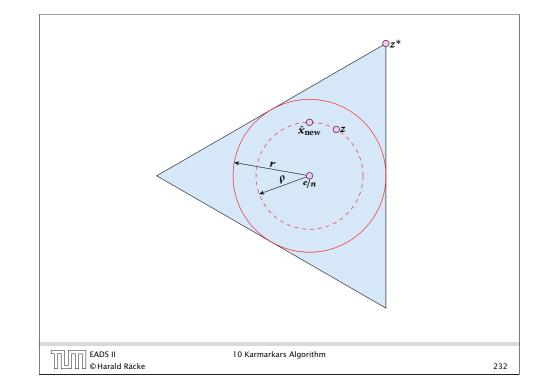
$$\hat{f}(\hat{x}_{\text{new}}) \leq \hat{f}(\frac{e}{n}) - \delta$$
 ,

where δ is a constant.

This gives

$$f(\bar{x}_{\text{new}}) \leq f(\bar{x}) - \delta$$
 .





Lemma 41

There is a feasible point z (i.e., $\hat{A}z = 0$) in $B(\frac{e}{n}, \rho) \cap \Delta$ that has

$$\hat{f}(z) \leq \hat{f}(\frac{e}{n}) - \delta$$

with $\delta = \ln(1 + \alpha)$.

Note that this shows the existence of a good point within the ball. In general it will be difficult to find this point.

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Let z^* be the feasible point in the transformed space where $\hat{c}^t x$ is minimized. (Note that in contrast \hat{x}_{new} is the point in the intersection of the feasible region and $B(\frac{e}{n},\rho)$ that minimizes this function; in general $z^* \neq \hat{x}_{new}$)

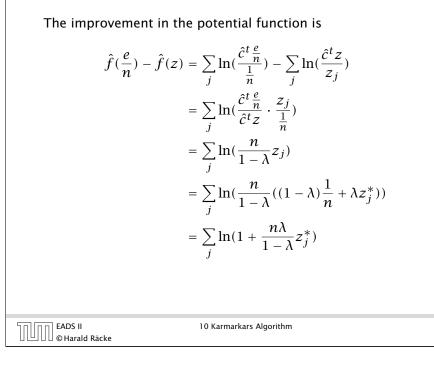
 z^* must lie at the boundary of the simplex. This means $z^* \notin B(\frac{e}{n}, \rho)$.

The point *z* we want to use lies farthest in the direction from $\frac{e}{n}$ to z^* , namely

$$z = (1 - \lambda)\frac{e}{n} + \lambda z$$

for some positive $\lambda < 1$.

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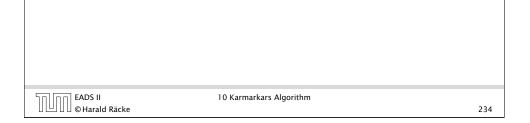
Hence,

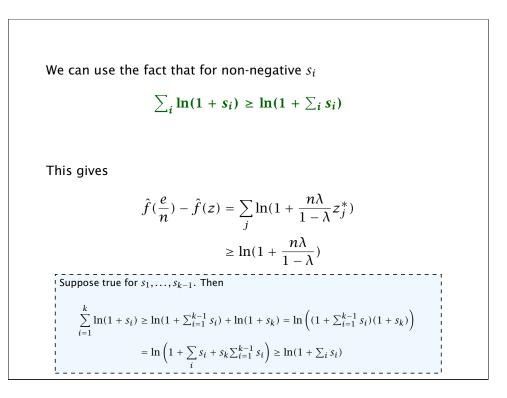
$$\hat{c}^t z = (1-\lambda)\hat{c}^t \frac{e}{n} + \lambda \hat{c}^t z^*$$

The optimum cost (at z^*) is zero.

Therefore,

$\hat{c}^t \frac{e}{n}$	_		1	
$\hat{c}^t z$	_	1	-	λ





In order to get further we need a bound on λ :

$$\alpha r = \rho = \|z - e/n\| = \|\lambda(z^* - e/n)\| \le \lambda R$$

Here *R* is the radius of the ball around $\frac{e}{n}$ that contains the whole simplex.

$$R=\sqrt{(n-1)/n}.$$
 Since $r=1/\sqrt{(n-1)n}$ we have $R/r=n-1$ and $\lambda\geq lpharac{r}{R}\geq lpha/(n-1)$

Then

$$1 + n \frac{\lambda}{1 - \lambda} \ge 1 + \frac{n\alpha}{n - \alpha - 1} \ge 1 + \alpha$$

This gives the lemma.

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Proof:

Define

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$$g(\hat{x}) = n \ln \frac{\hat{c}^t \hat{x}}{\hat{c}^t \frac{e}{n}}$$
$$= n(\ln \hat{c}^t \hat{x} - \ln \hat{c}^t \frac{e}{n}) .$$

This is the change in the cost part of the potential function when going from the center $\frac{e}{n}$ to the point \hat{x} in the transformed space.

10 Karmarkars Algorithm

Lemma 42

If we choose $\alpha = 1/4$ and $n \ge 4$ in Karmarkars algorithm the point \hat{x}_{new} satisfies

$$\hat{f}(\hat{x}_{\text{new}}) \leq \hat{f}(\frac{e}{n}) - \delta$$

with $\delta = 1/10$.

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Similar, the penalty when going from $\frac{e}{n}$ to w increases by

$$h(\hat{x}) = \operatorname{pen}(\hat{x}) - \operatorname{pen}(\frac{e}{n}) = -\sum_{i} \ln \frac{\hat{x}_{i}}{\frac{1}{n}}$$

where $pen(v) = -\sum_j \ln(v_j)$.

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10 Karmarkars Algorithm

We want to derive a lower bound on

$$\hat{f}(\frac{e}{n}) - \hat{f}(\hat{x}_{\text{new}}) = [\hat{f}(\frac{e}{n}) - \hat{f}(z)] + h(z) - h(\hat{x}_{\text{new}}) + [g(z) - g(\hat{x}_{\text{new}})]$$

where z is the point in the ball where \hat{f} achieves its minimum.

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We show that the change h(w) in penalty when going from e/n to w fulfills

$$|h(w)| \le \frac{\beta^2}{2(1-\beta)}$$

where $\beta = n\alpha r$ and w is some point in the ball $B(\frac{e}{n}, \alpha r)$.

Hence,

$$\hat{f}(\frac{e}{n}) - \hat{f}(\hat{x}_{\text{new}}) \ge \ln(1+\alpha) - \frac{\beta^2}{(1-\beta)}$$

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We have

$$\hat{f}(\frac{e}{n}) - \hat{f}(z)] \ge \ln(1+\alpha)$$

by the previous lemma.

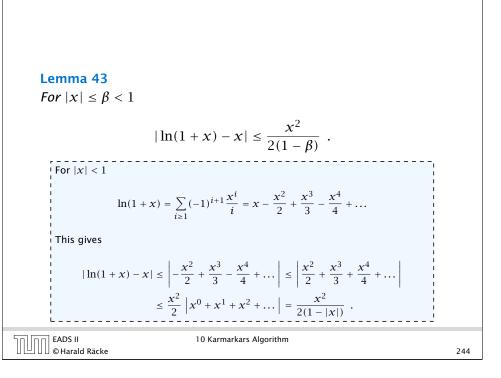
We have

$$[g(z) - g(\hat{x}_{\text{new}})] \ge 0$$

since \hat{x}_{new} is the point with minimum cost in the ball, and g is monotonically increasing with cost.

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10 Karmarkars Algorithm



This gives for
$$w \in B(\frac{e}{n}, \rho)$$

$$|h(w)| = \left| \sum_{j} \ln \frac{w_{j}}{1/n} \right|$$

$$= \left| \sum_{j} \ln \left(\frac{1/n + (w_{j} - 1/n)}{1/n} \right) - \sum_{j} n \left(w_{j} - \frac{1}{n} \right) \right|$$

$$= \left| \sum_{j} \left[\ln \left(1 + n \left(w_{j} - 1/n \right) \right) - n \left(w_{j} - 1/n \right) \right] \right|$$

$$\leq \sum_{j} \frac{n^{2} (w_{j} - 1/n)^{2}}{2(1 - \alpha n r)}$$

$$\leq \frac{(\alpha n r)^{2}}{2(1 - \alpha n r)}$$
Its function of the second secon

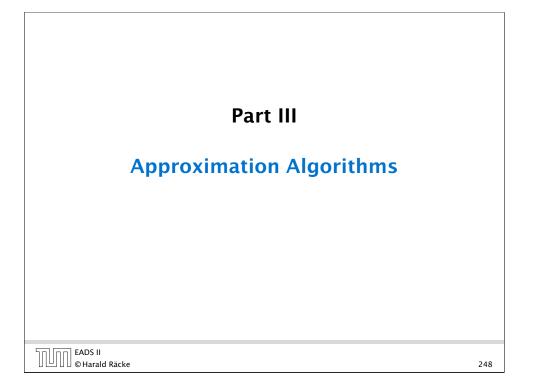
The decrease in potential is therefore at least

$$\ln(1+\alpha) - \frac{\beta^2}{1-\beta}$$

with $\beta = n\alpha r = \alpha \sqrt{\frac{n}{n-1}}$.

It can be shown that this is at least $\frac{1}{10}$ for $n \ge 4$ and $\alpha = 1/4$.

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Let $\bar{x}^{(k)}$ be the current point after the *k*-th iteration, and let $\bar{x}^{(0)} = \frac{e}{n}$.

Then $f(\bar{x}^{(k)}) \leq f(e/n) - k/10$. This gives

$$n\ln\frac{c^t \bar{x}^{(k)}}{c^t \frac{e}{n}} \le \sum_j \ln \bar{x}_j^{(k)} - \sum_j \ln\frac{1}{n} - k/10$$
$$\le n\ln n - k/10$$

Choosing $k = 10n(\ell + \ln n)$ with $\ell = \Theta(L)$ we get

$$\frac{c^t \bar{x}^{(k)}}{c^t \frac{e}{n}} \le e^{-\ell} \le 2^{-\ell}$$

Hence, $\Theta(nL)$ iterations are sufficient. One iteration can be performed in time $O(n^3)$.

10 Karmarkars Algorithm

There are many practically important optimization problems that are NP-hard.

What can we do?

- Heuristics.
- Exploit special structure of instances occurring in practise.
- Consider algorithms that do not compute the optimal solution but provide solutions that are close to optimum.

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11 Introduction

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Why approximation algorithms?

- We need algorithms for hard problems.
- It gives a rigorous mathematical base for studying heuristics.
- It provides a metric to compare the difficulty of various optimization problems.
- Proving theorems may give a deeper theoretical understanding which in turn leads to new algorithmic approaches.

Why not?

 Sometimes the results are very pessimistic due to the fact that an algorithm has to provide a close-to-optimum solution on every instance.

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Definition 44

An α -approximation for an optimization problem is a polynomial-time algorithm that for all instances of the problem produces a solution whose value is within a factor of α of the value of an optimal solution.

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11 Introduction

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Definition 45

An optimization problem $P = (\mathcal{I}, \text{sol}, m, \text{goal})$ is in **NPO** if

- $x \in \mathcal{I}$ can be decided in polynomial time
- $y \in sol(\mathcal{I})$ can be verified in polynomial time
- *m* can be computed in polynomial time
- ▶ goal \in {min, max}

In other words: the decision problem is there a solution y with m(x, y) at most/at least z is in NP.

- x is problem instance
- y is candidate solution
- $m^*(x)$ cost/profit of an optimal solution

Definition 46 (Performance Ratio)

$$R(x, y) := \max\left\{\frac{m(x, y)}{m^*(x)}, \frac{m^*(x)}{m(x, y)}\right\}$$

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	11 Introduction

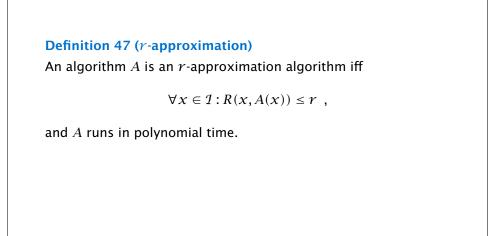
Definition 48 (PTAS)

A PTAS for a problem *P* from NPO is an algorithm that takes as input $x \in I$ and $\epsilon > 0$ and produces a solution y for x with

 $R(x, y) \leq 1 + \epsilon$.

The running time is polynomial in |x|.

approximation with arbitrary good factor... fast?



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Problems that have a PTAS

Scheduling. Given m jobs with known processing times; schedule the jobs on n machines such that the MAKESPAN is minimized.

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Definition 49 (FPTAS)

An FPTAS for a problem *P* from NPO is an algorithm that takes as input $x \in I$ and $\epsilon > 0$ and produces a solution *y* for *x* with

 $R(x,y) \leq 1 + \epsilon$.

The running time is polynomial in |x| and $1/\epsilon$.

approximation with arbitrary good factor... fast!

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Definition 50 (APX – approximable)

A problem *P* from NPO is in APX if there exist a constant $r \ge 1$ and an *r*-approximation algorithm for *P*.

constant factor approximation...

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Problems that have an FPTAS

KNAPSACK. Given a set of items with profits and weights choose a subset of total weight at most W s.t. the profit is maximized.

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Problems that are in APX

MAXCUT. Given a graph G = (V, E); partition V into two disjoint pieces A and B s.t. the number of edges between both pieces is maximized.

MAX-3SAT. Given a 3CNF-formula. Find an assignment to the variables that satisfies the maximum number of clauses.

Problems with polylogarithmic approximation guarantees

- Set Cover
- Minimum Multicut
- Sparsest Cut
- Minimum Bisection

There is an *r*-approximation with $r \leq O(\log^{c}(|x|))$ for some constant c.

Note that only for some of the above problem a matching lower bound is known.

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There are weird problems!

Asymmetric *k*-Center admits an $O(\log^* n)$ -approximation.

There is no $o(\log^* n)$ -approximation to Asymmetric *k*-Center unless $NP \subseteq DTIME(n^{\log \log \log n})$.

There are really difficult problems!

Theorem 51

For any constant $\epsilon > 0$ there does not exist an $\Omega(n^{1-\epsilon})$ -approximation algorithm for the maximum clique problem on a given graph G with n nodes unless P = NP.

Note that an *n*-approximation is trivial.

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11 Introduction

Class APX not important in practise. Instead of saying problem P is in APX one says problem Padmits a 4-approximation. One only says that a problem is APX-hard.

11 Introduction

A crucial ingredient for the design and analysis of approximation algorithms is a technique to obtain an upper bound (for maximization problems) or a lower bound (for minimization problems).

Therefore Linear Programs or Integer Linear Programs play a vital role in the design of many approximation algorithms.

הח (הח) EADS II	12 Integer Programs	
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Many important combinatorial optimization problems can be formulated in the form of an Integer Program.

Note that solving Integer Programs in general is NP-complete!

An Integer Linear Program or Integer Program is a Linear Program in which all variables are required to be integral.

Definition 53

Definition 52

A Mixed Integer Program is a Linear Program in which a subset of the variables are required to be integral.

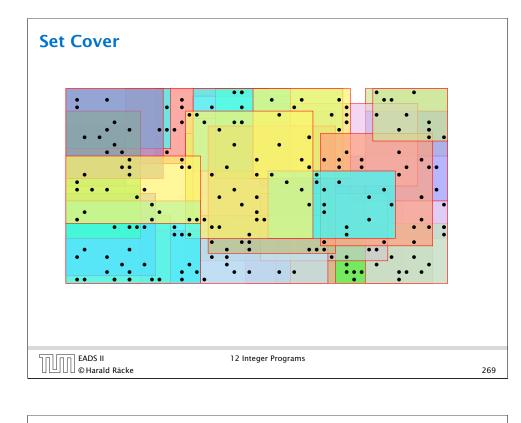
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EADS II © Harald Räcke 12 Integer Programs



Set Cover Given a ground set U, a collection of subsets $S_1, \ldots, S_k \subseteq U$, where the *i*-th subset S_i has weight/cost w_i . Find a collection $I \subseteq \{1, \ldots, k\}$ such that $\forall u \in U \exists i \in I : u \in S_i \text{ (every element is covered)}$ and $\sum_{i \in I} w_i$ is minimized.

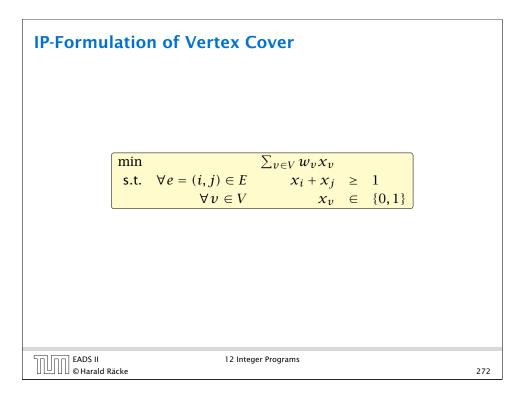
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Vertex Cover

Given a graph G = (V, E) and a weight w_v for every node. Find a vertex subset $S \subseteq V$ of minimum weight such that every edge is incident to at least one vertex in S.

IP-Formulation of Set Cover $\min \qquad \sum_i w_i x_i$ s.t. $\forall u \in U \ \sum_{i:u \in S_i} x_i \geq 1$ $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ $x_i \geq 0$ $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ x_i integral



12 Integer Programs

Maximum Weighted Matching

Given a graph G = (V, E), and a weight w_e for every edge $e \in E$. Find a subset of edges of maximum weight such that no vertex is incident to more than one edge.

max		$\sum_{e\in E} w_e x_e$		
s.t.	$\forall v \in V$	$\sum_{e:v \in e} x_e$	\leq	1
	$\forall e \in E$	x_e	\in	{0,1}

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Knapsack

Given a set of items $\{1, ..., n\}$, where the *i*-th item has weight w_i and profit p_i , and given a threshold K. Find a subset $I \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$ of items of total weight at most K such that the profit is maximized.

max		$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i$		
s.t.		$\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i$	\leq	Κ
	$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$	x_i	\in	$\{0, 1\}$

Maximum Independent Set

Given a graph G = (V, E), and a weight w_v for every node $v \in V$. Find a subset $S \subseteq V$ of nodes of maximum weight such that no two vertices in S are adjacent.

max		$\sum_{v \in V} w_v x_v$		
s.t.	$\forall e = (i, j) \in E$	$x_i + x_j$	\leq	1
	$\forall v \in V$	x_v	\in	$\{0, 1\}$

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Relaxations Definition 54 A linear program LP is a relaxation of an integer program IP if

any feasible solution for IP is also feasible for LP and if the objective values of these solutions are identical in both programs.

We obtain a relaxation for all examples by writing $x_i \in [0, 1]$ instead of $x_i \in \{0, 1\}$.

12 Integer Programs

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EADS II © Harald Räcke By solving a relaxation we obtain an upper bound for a maximization problem and a lower bound for a minimization problem.

	12 Integer Programs	
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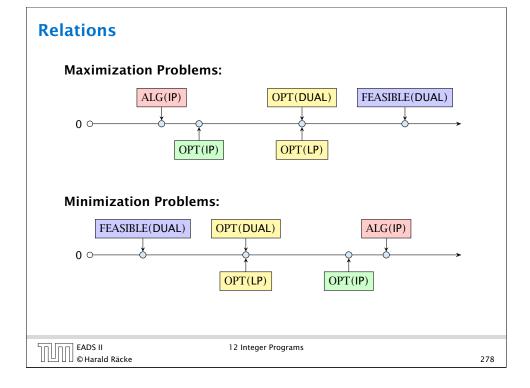
Technique 1: Round the LP solution.

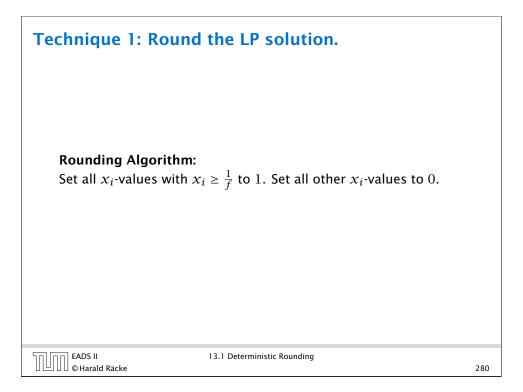
We first solve the LP-relaxation and then we round the fractional values so that we obtain an integral solution.

Set Cover relaxation:

min		$\sum_{i=1}^k w_i x_i$		
s.t.	$\forall u \in U$	$\sum_{i:u\in S_i} x_i$	\geq	1
	$\forall i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$	x_i	\in	[0,1]

Let f_u be the number of sets that the element u is contained in (the frequency of u). Let $f = \max_u \{f_u\}$ be the maximum frequency.





Technique 1: Round the LP solution.

Lemma 55 The rounding algorithm gives an f-approximation.

Proof: Every $u \in U$ is covered.

- We know that $\sum_{i:u \in S_i} x_i \ge 1$.
- The sum contains at most $f_u \leq f$ elements.
- Therefore one of the sets that contain u must have $x_i \ge 1/f$.
- ► This set will be selected. Hence, *u* is covered.

EADS II 13.1 Deterministic Rounding © Harald Räcke 28		
	13.1 Deterministic Rounding	281

Technique 2: Rounding	the Dual Solution.
Relaxation for Set Cover	
Primal:	Dual:
$\min \sum_{i \in I} w_i x_i$	$\boxed{\max \qquad \sum_{u \in U} \mathcal{Y}_u}$
s.t. $\forall u \sum_{i:u \in S_i} x_i \ge 1$	s.t. $\forall i \sum_{u:u \in S_i} \mathcal{Y}_u \leq w_i$
$x_i \ge 0$	$\mathcal{Y}_u \ge 0$
	.2 Rounding the Dual
□□□□ © Harald Räcke	283

Technique 1: Round the LP solution.

The cost of the rounded solution is at most $f \cdot \text{OPT}$.

$$\sum_{i \in I} w_i \leq \sum_{i=1}^k w_i (f \cdot x_i)$$
$$= f \cdot \operatorname{cost}(x)$$
$$\leq f \cdot \operatorname{OPT} .$$

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Technique 2: Rounding the Dual Solution.

Rounding Algorithm:

Let I denote the index set of sets for which the dual constraint is tight. This means for all $i \in I$

$$\sum_{u:u\in S_i} y_u = w_i$$

13.2 Rounding the Dual

Technique 2: Rounding the Dual Solution.

Lemma 56

The resulting index set is an f-approximation.

Proof:

Every $u \in U$ is covered.

- Suppose there is a *u* that is not covered.
- This means $\sum_{u:u \in S_i} y_u < w_i$ for all sets S_i that contain u.
- But then y_u could be increased in the dual solution without violating any constraint. This is a contradiction to the fact that the dual solution is optimal.

	13.2 Rounding the Dual	
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Let *I* denote the solution obtained by the first rounding algorithm and I' be the solution returned by the second algorithm. Then

 $I \subseteq I'$.

This means I' is never better than I.

- Suppose that we take S_i in the first algorithm. I.e., $i \in I$.
- This means $x_i \ge \frac{1}{f}$.
- Because of Complementary Slackness Conditions the corresponding constraint in the dual must be tight.
- Hence, the second algorithm will also choose S_i .

Technique 2: Rounding the Dual Solution.

Proof:

$$\sum_{i \in I} w_i = \sum_{i \in I} \sum_{u:u \in S_i} y_u$$
$$= \sum_{u} |\{i \in I : u \in S_i\}| \cdot y_u$$
$$\leq \sum_{u} f_u y_u$$
$$\leq f \sum_{u} y_u$$
$$\leq f \operatorname{cost}(x^*)$$
$$\leq f \cdot \operatorname{OPT}$$
13.2 Rounding the Dual

Technique 3: The Primal Dual Method

The previous two rounding algorithms have the disadvantage that it is necessary to solve the LP. The following method also gives an f-approximation without solving the LP.

For estimating the cost of the solution we only required two properties.

1. The solution is dual feasible and, hence,

$$\sum_{u} y_{u} \le \operatorname{cost}(x^{*}) \le \operatorname{OPT}$$

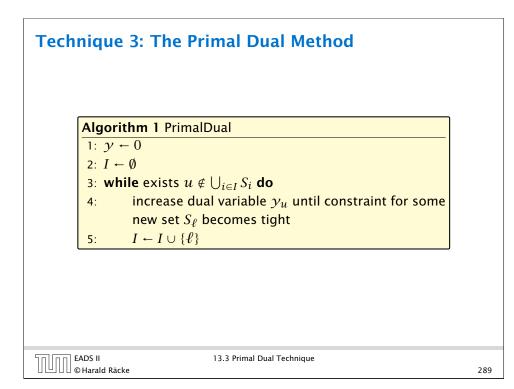
where x^* is an optimum solution to the primal LP.

2. The set *I* contains only sets for which the dual inequality is tight.

Of course, we also need that *I* is a cover.

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Lemma 57 *Given positive numbers* a_1, \ldots, a_k *and* b_1, \ldots, b_k , *and* $S \subseteq \{1, \ldots, k\}$ *then* $\min_i \frac{a_i}{b_i} \le \frac{\sum_{i \in S} a_i}{\sum_{i \in S} b_i} \le \max_i \frac{a_i}{b_i}$

13.4 Greedy

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Technique 4: The Greedy Algorithm

Algorithm 1 Greedy
$I: I \leftarrow \emptyset$
2: $\hat{S}_j \leftarrow S_j$ for all j
3: while I not a set cover do
4: $\ell \leftarrow \arg \min_{j:\hat{S}_j \neq 0} \frac{w_j}{ \hat{S}_j }$
5: $I \leftarrow I \cup \{\ell\}$
6: $\hat{S}_j \leftarrow \hat{S}_j - S_\ell$ for all j

In every round the Greedy algorithm takes the set that covers remaining elements in the most cost-effective way.

We choose a set such that the ratio between cost and still uncovered elements in the set is minimized.

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EADS II 13.4 Greedy
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Technique 4: The Greedy Algorithm

Let n_{ℓ} denote the number of elements that remain at the beginning of iteration ℓ . $n_1 = n = |U|$ and $n_{s+1} = 0$ if we need s iterations.

In the ℓ -th iteration

$$\min_{j} \frac{w_{j}}{|\hat{S}_{j}|} \leq \frac{\sum_{j \in \text{OPT}} w_{j}}{\sum_{j \in \text{OPT}} |\hat{S}_{j}|} = \frac{\text{OPT}}{\sum_{j \in \text{OPT}} |\hat{S}_{j}|} \leq \frac{\text{OPT}}{n_{\ell}}$$

since an optimal algorithm can cover the remaining n_ℓ elements with cost OPT.

Let \hat{S}_j be a subset that minimizes this ratio. Hence, $w_j/|\hat{S}_j| \leq \frac{\text{OPT}}{n_\ell}$.

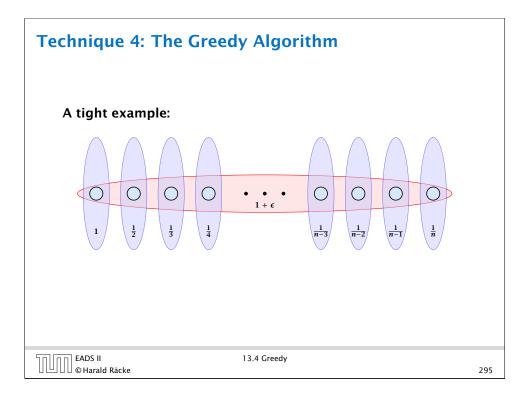
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Technique 4: The Greedy Algorithm

Adding this set to our solution means $n_{\ell+1} = n_{\ell} - |\hat{S}_j|$.

$$w_j \leq \frac{|\hat{S}_j|\text{OPT}}{n_\ell} = \frac{n_\ell - n_{\ell+1}}{n_\ell} \cdot \text{OPT}$$

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Technique 4: The Greedy Algorithm

$$\begin{split} \sum_{j \in I} w_j &\leq \sum_{\ell=1}^s \frac{n_\ell - n_{\ell+1}}{n_\ell} \cdot \operatorname{OPT} \\ &\leq \operatorname{OPT} \sum_{\ell=1}^s \left(\frac{1}{n_\ell} + \frac{1}{n_\ell - 1} + \dots + \frac{1}{n_{\ell+1} + 1} \right) \\ &= \operatorname{OPT} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{i} \\ &= H_n \cdot \operatorname{OPT} \leq \operatorname{OPT}(\ln n + 1) \end{split}$$

Technique 5: Randomized Rounding

One round of randomized rounding: Pick set S_j uniformly at random with probability $1 - x_j$ (for all j).

Version A: Repeat rounds until you have a cover.

Version B: Repeat for *s* rounds. If you have a cover STOP. Otherwise, repeat the whole algorithm.

Probability that $u \in U$ is not covered (in one round):

Pr[*u* not covered in one round]

$$= \prod_{j:u\in S_j} (1-x_j) \le \prod_{j:u\in S_j} e^{-x_j}$$
$$= e^{-\sum_{j:u\in S_j} x_j} \le e^{-1} .$$

Probability that $u \in U$ is not covered (after ℓ rounds):

 $\Pr[u \text{ not covered after } \ell \text{ round}] \leq \frac{1}{e^{\ell}}$.

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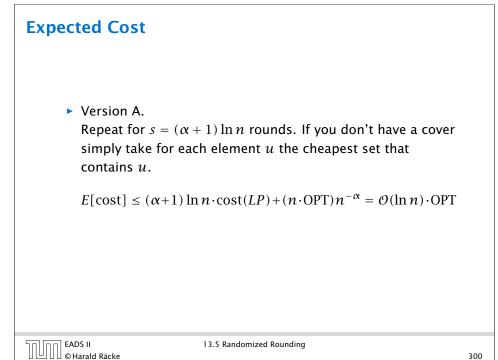
13.5 Randomized Rounding

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Proof: We have

 $\Pr[\#rounds \ge (\alpha + 1) \ln n] \le n e^{-(\alpha + 1) \ln n} = n^{-\alpha}$.

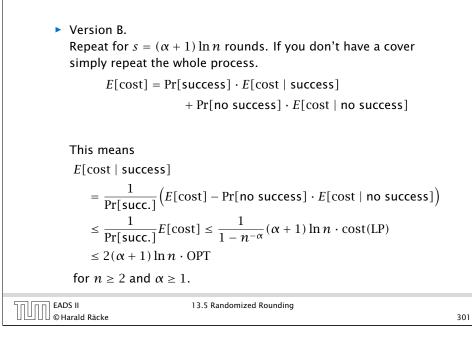
$\Pr[\exists u \in U \text{ not covered } a]$	after ℓ round]	
$= \Pr[u_1 \text{ not covere}]$	ed \lor u_2 not covered $\lor \ldots \lor u_n$ not covered]	
$\leq \sum_{i} \Pr[u_i \text{ not cov}]$	ered after ℓ rounds] $\leq n e^{-\ell}$.	
Lemma 58		
With high probability O	$(\log n)$ rounds suffice.	
With high probability: For any constant α the with probability at least	number of rounds is at most $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$: $1 - n^{-\alpha}$.	
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13.5 Randomized Rounding

Expected Cost



Integrality Gap

The integrality gap of the SetCover LP is $\Omega(\log n)$.

- ▶ $n = 2^k 1$
- Elements are all vectors *i* over *GF*[2] of length *k* (excluding zero vector).
- Every vector *j* defines a set as follows

 $S_j := \{ \boldsymbol{i} \mid \boldsymbol{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{j} = 1 \}$

- each set contains 2^{k-1} vectors; each vector is contained in 2^{k-1} sets
- $x_i = \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} = \frac{2}{n+1}$ is fractional solution.

Randomized rounding gives an $O(\log n)$ approximation. The running time is polynomial with high probability.

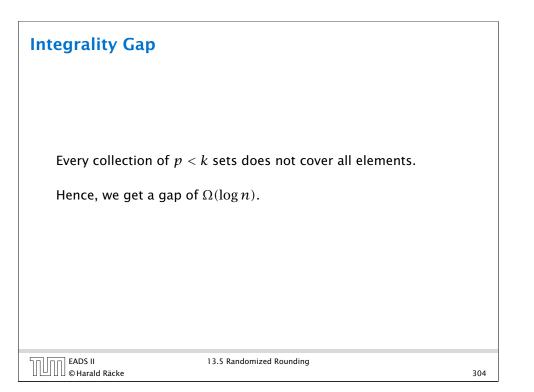
Theorem 59 (without proof)

There is no approximation algorithm for set cover with approximation guarantee better than $\frac{1}{2}\log n$ unless NP has quasi-polynomial time algorithms (algorithms with running time $2^{\operatorname{poly}(\log n)}$).

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13.5 Randomized Rounding

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EADS II © Harald Räcke 13.5 Randomized Rounding

Techniques:

- Deterministic Rounding
- Rounding of the Dual
- Primal Dual
- Greedy
- Randomized Rounding
- Local Search
- Rounding Data + Dynamic Programming

	13.5 Randomized Rounding	
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		505

Lower Bounds on the Solution

Let for a given schedule C_j denote the finishing time of machine j, and let C_{max} be the makespan.

Let C^*_{max} denote the makespan of an optimal solution.

Clearly

$$C_{\max}^* \ge \max_j p_j$$

as the longest job needs to be scheduled somewhere.

Scheduling Jobs on Identical Parallel Machines

Given n jobs, where job $j \in \{1, ..., n\}$ has processing time p_j . Schedule the jobs on m identical parallel machines such that the Makespan (finishing time of the last job) is minimized.

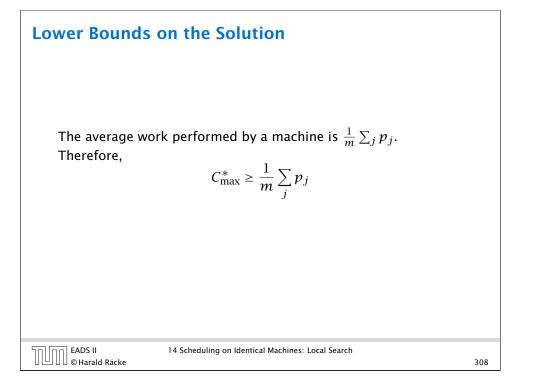
min		L		
s.t.	\forall machines i	$\sum_{j} p_{j} \cdot x_{j,i}$	\leq	L
		$\sum_{i} x_{j,i} \ge 1$		
	$\forall i, j$	$x_{j,i}$	\in	$\{0, 1\}$

Here the variable $x_{j,i}$ is the decision variable that describes whether job j is assigned to machine i.

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14 Scheduling on Identical Machines: Local Search

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Local Search

A local search algorithm successivley makes certain small (cost/profit improving) changes to a solution until it does not find such changes anymore.

It is conceptionally very different from a Greedy algorithm as a feasible solution is always maintained.

Sometimes the running time is difficult to prove.

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14 Scheduling on Identical Machines: Local Search

Local Search Analysis

Let ℓ be the job that finishes last in the produced schedule.

Let S_{ℓ} be its start time, and let C_{ℓ} be its completion time.

Note that every machine is busy before time S_{ℓ} , because otherwise we could move the job ℓ and hence our schedule would not be locally optimal.

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14 Scheduling on Identical Machines: Local Search

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Local Search for Scheduling

Local Search Strategy: Take the job that finishes last and try to move it to another machine. If there is such a move that reduces the makespan, perform the switch.

REPEAT

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14 Scheduling on Identical Machines: Local Search

We can split the total processing time into two intervals one from 0 to S_{ℓ} the other from S_{ℓ} to C_{ℓ} .

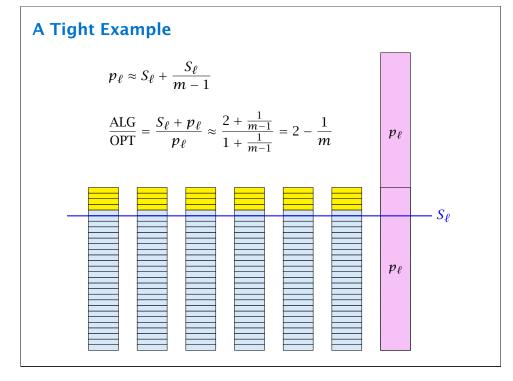
The interval $[S_{\ell}, C_{\ell}]$ is of length $p_{\ell} \leq C_{\max}^*$.

During the first interval $[0, S_{\ell}]$ all processors are busy, and, hence, the total work performed in this interval is

 $m \cdot S_{\ell} \leq \sum_{i \neq \ell} p_j$.

Hence, the length of the schedule is at most

 $p_{\ell} + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i \neq \ell} p_j = (1 - \frac{1}{m}) p_{\ell} + \frac{1}{m} \sum_i p_j \le (2 - \frac{1}{m}) C_{\max}^*$



A Greedy Strategy

Lemma 60

If we order the list according to non-increasing processing times the approximation guarantee of the list scheduling strategy improves to 4/3.

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15 Scheduling on Identical Machines: Greedy

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A Greedy Strategy

List Scheduling:

Order all processes in a list. When a machine runs empty assign the next yet unprocessed job to it.

Alternatively:

Consider processes in some order. Assign the i-th process to the least loaded machine.

It is easy to see that the result of these greedy strategies fulfill the local optimally condition of our local search algorithm. Hence, these also give 2-approximations.

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Proof:

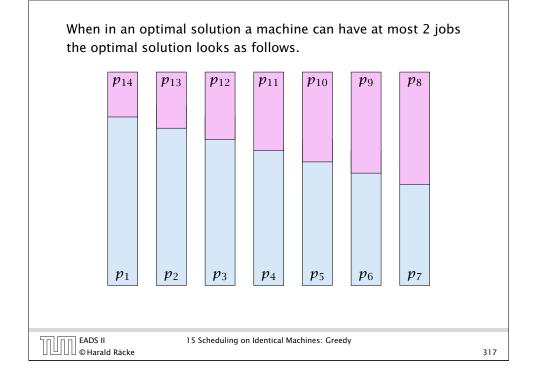
- Let p₁ ≥ · · · ≥ p_n denote the processing times of a set of jobs that form a counter-example.
- Wlog. the last job to finish is n (otw. deleting this job gives another counter-example with fewer jobs).
- If p_n ≤ C^{*}_{max}/3 the previous analysis gives us a schedule length of at most

$$C^*_{\max} + p_n \leq \frac{4}{3} C^*_{\max} \ .$$

Hence, $p_n > C_{\max}^*/3$.

- This means that all jobs must have a processing time $> C_{\text{max}}^*/3$.
- But then any machine in the optimum schedule can handle at most two jobs.
- ► For such instances Longest-Processing-Time-First is optimal.

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16 Rounding Data + Dynamic Programming

Knapsack:

חחרט

Given a set of items $\{1, ..., n\}$, where the *i*-th item has weight $w_i \in \mathbb{N}$ and profit $p_i \in \mathbb{N}$, and given a threshold W. Find a subset $I \subseteq \{1, ..., n\}$ of items of total weight at most W such that the profit is maximized (we can assume each $w_i \leq W$).

	max		$\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i$		
	s.t.		$\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i$	\leq	W
		$\forall i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$	$\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} p_i x_i}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i}$	\in	$\{0, 1\}$
EADS II		16.1	Knapsack		
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- ▶ We can assume that one machine schedules p_1 and p_n (the largest and smallest job).
- If not assume wlog. that p₁ is scheduled on machine A and p_n on machine B.
- Let *p_A* and *p_B* be the other job scheduled on *A* and *B*, respectively.
- ▶ $p_1 + p_n \le p_1 + p_A$ and $p_A + p_B \le p_1 + p_A$, hence scheduling p_1 and p_n on one machine and p_A and p_B on the other, cannot increase the Makespan.
- Repeat the above argument for the remaining machines.

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16 Rounding Data + Dynamic Programming

Algorithm 1 Knapsack
1: $A(1) \leftarrow [(0,0), (p_1, w_1)]$
2: for $j \leftarrow 2$ to n do
3: $A(j) \leftarrow A(j-1)$
4: for each $(p, w) \in A(j-1)$ do
5: if $w + w_j \le W$ then
6: $add (p + p_j, w + w_j) \text{ to } A(j)$
7: remove dominated pairs from $A(j)$
8: return $\max_{(p,w)\in A(n)} p$

The running time is $\mathcal{O}(n \cdot \min\{W, P\})$, where $P = \sum_i p_i$ is the total profit of all items. This is only pseudo-polynomial.

16 Rounding Data + Dynamic Programming

Definition 61

An algorithm is said to have pseudo-polynomial running time if the running time is polynomial when the numerical part of the input is encoded in unary.

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16.1 Knapsack

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16 Rounding Data + Dynamic Programming

Let S be the set of items returned by the algorithm, and let O be an optimum set of items.

$$\sum_{i \in S} p_i \ge \mu \sum_{i \in S} p'_i$$
$$\ge \mu \sum_{i \in O} p'_i$$
$$\ge \sum_{i \in O} p_i - |O|\mu$$
$$\ge \sum_{i \in O} p_i - n\mu$$
$$= \sum_{i \in O} p_i - \epsilon M$$
$$\ge (1 - \epsilon) \text{OPT} .$$

16.1 Knapsack

16 Rounding Data + Dynamic Programming

- Let *M* be the maximum profit of an element.
- Set $\mu := \epsilon M/n$.
- Set $p'_i := \lfloor p_i / \mu \rfloor$ for all *i*.
- Run the dynamic programming algorithm on this revised instance.

Running time is at most

$$\mathcal{O}(nP') = \mathcal{O}\Big(n\sum_i p'_i\Big) = \mathcal{O}\Big(n\sum_i \Big\lfloor \frac{p_i}{\epsilon M/n} \Big\rfloor\Big) \leq \mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{n^3}{\epsilon}\Big) \ .$$

EADS II © Harald Räcke 16.1 Knapsack

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Scheduling Revisited The previous analysis of the scheduling algorithm gave a makespan of $\frac{1}{m}\sum_{j\neq\ell}p_j + p_\ell$ where ℓ is the last job to complete. Together with the obervation that if each $p_i \ge \frac{1}{3}C_{\max}^*$ then LPT is optimal this gave a 4/3-approximation.

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16.2 Scheduling Revisited

Partition the input into long jobs and short jobs.

A job j is called short if

$$p_j \leq \frac{1}{km} \sum_i p_i$$

Idea:

- 1. Find the optimum Makespan for the long jobs by brute force.
- 2. Then use the list scheduling algorithm for the short jobs, always assigning the next job to the least loaded machine.

	16.2 Scheduling Revisited	
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Hence we get a schedule of length at most

 $\left(1+\frac{1}{k}\right)C_{\max}^*$

There are at most km long jobs. Hence, the number of possibilities of scheduling these jobs on m machines is at most m^{km} , which is constant if m is constant. Hence, it is easy to implement the algorithm in polynomial time.

Theorem 62

The above algorithm gives a polynomial time approximation scheme (PTAS) for the problem of scheduling n jobs on m identical machines if m is constant.

We choose $k = \lceil \frac{1}{\epsilon} \rceil$.

16.2 Scheduling Revisited

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We still have the inequality

$$\frac{1}{m}\sum_{j\neq\ell}p_j+p_\ell$$

where ℓ is the last job (this only requires that all machines are busy before time S_{ℓ}).

If ℓ is a long job, then the schedule must be optimal, as it consists of an optimal schedule of long jobs plus a schedule for short jobs.

If ℓ is a short job its length is at most

$$p_{\ell} \leq \sum_{j} p_{j}/(mk)$$

which is at most C^*_{\max}/k .

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How to get rid of the requirement that m is constant?

We first design an algorithm that works as follows: On input of T it either finds a schedule of length $(1 + \frac{1}{k})T$ or certifies that no schedule of length at most T exists (assume $T \ge \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j} p_{j}$).

We partition the jobs into long jobs and short jobs:

- A job is long if its size is larger than T/k.
- Otw. it is a short job.

- We round all long jobs down to multiples of T/k^2 .
- For these rounded sizes we first find an optimal schedule.
- If this schedule does not have length at most T we conclude that also the original sizes don't allow such a schedule.
- If we have a good schedule we extend it by adding the short jobs according to the LPT rule.

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During the second phase there always must exist a machine with load at most T, since T is larger than the average load. Assigning the current (short) job to such a machine gives that the new load is at most

$$T + \frac{T}{k} \le \left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right)T \; .$$

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16.2 Scheduling Revisited

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After the first phase the rounded sizes of the long jobs assigned to a machine add up to at most T.

There can be at most k (long) jobs assigned to a machine as otw. their rounded sizes would add up to more than T (note that the rounded size of a long job is at least T/k).

Since, jobs had been rounded to multiples of T/k^2 going from rounded sizes to original sizes gives that the Makespan is at most $\left(1+\frac{1}{k}\right)T$.

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16.2 Scheduling Revisited

Running Time for scheduling large jobs: There should not be a job with rounded size more than T as otw. the problem becomes trivial.

Hence, any large job has rounded size of $\frac{i}{k^2}T$ for $i \in \{k, ..., k^2\}$. Therefore the number of different inputs is at most n^{k^2} (described by a vector of length k^2 where, the *i*-th entry describes the number of jobs of size $\frac{i}{k^2}T$). This is polynomial.

The schedule/configuration of a particular machine x can be described by a vector of length k^2 where the *i*-th entry describes the number of jobs of rounded size $\frac{i}{k^2}T$ assigned to x. There are only $(k + 1)^{k^2}$ different vectors.

This means there are a constant number of different machine configurations.

Let $OPT(n_1, ..., n_{k^2})$ be the number of machines that are required to schedule input vector $(n_1, ..., n_{k^2})$ with Makespan at most T.

If $OPT(n_1, \ldots, n_{k^2}) \le m$ we can schedule the input.

We have

 $OPT(n_1,\ldots,n_{k^2})$

 ∞

 $\min_{(s_1,\ldots,s_{k^2})\in C} OPT(n_1 - s_1,\ldots,n_{k^2} - s_{k^2}) \quad (n_1,\ldots,n_{k^2}) \ge 0$ otw.

where C is the set of all configurations.

```
Hence, the running time is roughly (k + 1)^{k^2} n^{k^2} \approx (nk)^{k^2}.
```

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- Suppose we have an instance with polynomially bounded processing times p_i ≤ q(n)
- We set $k := \lceil 2nq(n) \rceil \ge 2 \text{ OPT}$
- Then

$$ALG \le \left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right)OPT \le OPT + \frac{1}{2}$$

- But this means that the algorithm computes the optimal solution as the optimum is integral.
- This means we can solve problem instances if processing times are polynomially bounded
- Running time is $\mathcal{O}(\operatorname{poly}(n,k)) = \mathcal{O}(\operatorname{poly}(n))$
- For strongly NP-complete problems this is not possible unless P=NP

We can turn this into a PTAS by choosing $k = \lceil 1/\epsilon \rceil$ and using binary search. This gives a running time that is exponential in $1/\epsilon$.

Can we do better?

Scheduling on identical machines with the goal of minimizing Makespan is a strongly NP-complete problem.

Theorem 63

There is no FPTAS for problems that are strongly NP-hard.

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More General

Let $OPT(n_1, ..., n_A)$ be the number of machines that are required to schedule input vector $(n_1, ..., n_A)$ with Makespan at most T (A: number of different sizes).

If $OPT(n_1, ..., n_A) \le m$ we can schedule the input.

$OPT(n_1,\ldots,n_A)$

$$= \begin{cases} 0 & (n_1, \dots, n_A) = 0 \\ 1 + \min_{(s_1, \dots, s_A) \in C} OPT(n_1 - s_1, \dots, n_A - s_A) & (n_1, \dots, n_A) \ge 0 \\ \infty & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

where C is the set of all configurations.

 $|C| \le (B + 1)^A$, where *B* is the number of jobs that possibly can fit on the same machine.

The running time is then $O((B+1)^A n^A)$ because the dynamic programming table has just n^A entries.

Bin Packing

Given n items with sizes s_1, \ldots, s_n where

 $1 > s_1 \ge \cdots \ge s_n > 0$.

Pack items into a minimum number of bins where each bin can hold items of total size at most 1.

Theorem 64

There is no ρ -approximation for Bin Packing with $\rho < 3/2$ unless P = NP.

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Bin Packing

Definition 65

An asymptotic polynomial-time approximation scheme (APTAS) is a family of algorithms $\{A_{\epsilon}\}$ along with a constant c such that A_{ϵ} returns a solution of value at most $(1 + \epsilon)$ OPT + c for minimization problems.

- Note that for Set Cover or for Knapsack it makes no sense to differentiate between the notion of a PTAS or an APTAS because of scaling.
- However, we will develop an APTAS for Bin Packing.

Bin Packing

Proof

▶ In the partition problem we are given positive integers $b_1, ..., b_n$ with $B = \sum_i b_i$ even. Can we partition the integers into two sets *S* and *T* s.t.

$$\sum_{i\in S} b_i = \sum_{i\in T} b_i \quad ?$$

- We can solve this problem by setting $s_i := 2b_i/B$ and asking whether we can pack the resulting items into 2 bins or not.
- A ρ -approximation algorithm with $\rho < 3/2$ cannot output 3 or more bins when 2 are optimal.
- Hence, such an algorithm can solve Partition.

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Bin Packing

Again we can differentiate between small and large items.

Lemma 66

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Any packing of items into ℓ bins can be extended with items of size at most γ s.t. we use only $\max\{\ell, \frac{1}{1-\gamma}SIZE(I) + 1\}$ bins, where $SIZE(I) = \sum_i s_i$ is the sum of all item sizes.

- ► If after Greedy we use more than ℓ bins, all bins (apart from the last) must be full to at least 1γ .
- Hence, r(1 − γ) ≤ SIZE(I) where r is the number of nearly-full bins.
- This gives the lemma.

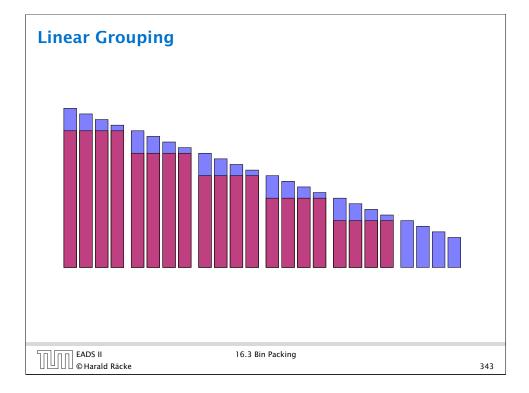
Choose
$$y = \epsilon/2$$
. Then we either use ℓ bins or at most

$$\frac{1}{1 - \epsilon/2} \cdot \text{OPT} + 1 \le (1 + \epsilon) \cdot \text{OPT} + 1$$

bins.

It remains to find an algorithm for the large items.

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Bin Packing

Linear Grouping:

Generate an instance I' (for large items) as follows.

- Order large items according to size.
- Let the first k items belong to group 1; the following k items belong to group 2; etc.
- Delete items in the first group;
- Round items in the remaining groups to the size of the largest item in the group.

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16.3 Bin Packing

Lemma 67 OPT $(I') \le OPT(I) \le OPT(I') + k$

Proof 1:

- ► Any bin packing for *I* gives a bin packing for *I*′ as follows.
- Pack the items of group 2, where in the packing for *I* the items for group 1 have been packed;
- Pack the items of groups 3, where in the packing for *I* the items for group 2 have been packed;
- ▶ ...

Lemma 68 $OPT(I') \le OPT(I) \le OPT(I') + k$

Proof 2:

- Any bin packing for I' gives a bin packing for I as follows.
- ▶ Pack the items of group 1 into *k* new bins;
- Pack the items of groups 2, where in the packing for I' the items for group 2 have been packed;

▶

	16.3 Bin Packing	
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Can we do better?

In the following we show how to obtain a solution where the number of bins is only

$$OPT(I) + \mathcal{O}(\log^2(SIZE(I)))$$
.

Note that this is usually better than a guarantee of

$$(1 + \epsilon)$$
OPT $(I) + 1$

Assume that our instance does not contain pieces smaller than $\epsilon/2$. Then SIZE(*I*) $\geq \epsilon n/2$.

We set $k = |\epsilon SIZE(I)|$.

Then $n/k \le n/\lfloor \epsilon^2 n/2 \rfloor \le 4/\epsilon^2$ (here we used $\lfloor \alpha \rfloor \ge \alpha/2$ for $\alpha \geq 1$).

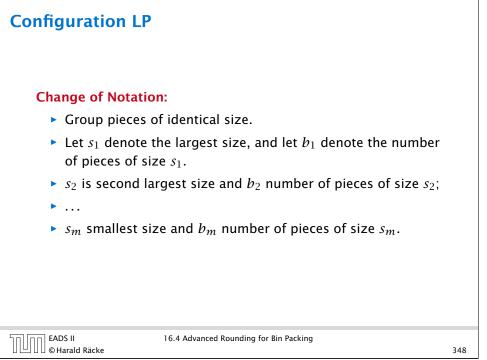
Hence, after grouping we have a constant number of piece sizes $(4/\epsilon^2)$ and at most a constant number $(2/\epsilon)$ can fit into any bin.

We can find an optimal packing for such instances by the previous Dynamic Programming approach.

cost (for large items) at most

 $OPT(I') + k \le OPT(I) + \epsilon SIZE(I) \le (1 + \epsilon)OPT(I)$

• running time $\mathcal{O}((\frac{2}{\epsilon}n)^{4/\epsilon^2})$.



16.4 Advanced Rounding for Bin Packing

Configuration LP

A possible packing of a bin can be described by an *m*-tuple (t_1, \ldots, t_m) , where t_i describes the number of pieces of size s_i . Clearly,

 $\sum_i t_i \cdot s_i \leq 1 \; .$

We call a vector that fulfills the above constraint a configuration.

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How to solve this	s LP?		
later			
			_
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Configuration LP

 \mathbb{N}

Let N be the number of configurations (exponential).

Let T_1, \ldots, T_N be the sequence of all possible configurations (a configuration T_j has T_{ji} pieces of size s_i).

min		$\sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$			
s.t.	$\forall i \in \{1 \dots m\}$	$\sum_{i=1}^{N} T_{ii} x_i$	≥	b_i	
	$\forall j \in \{1, \dots, N\}$	$-j-1$ $j \ell j$	≥	0	
	$\forall j \in \{1, \dots, N\}$	x_j	integral		

We can assume that each item has size at least 1/SIZE(I).

Harmonic Grouping

- Sort items according to size (monotonically decreasing).
- Process items in this order; close the current group if size of items in the group is at least 2 (or larger). Then open new group.
- I.e., G₁ is the smallest cardinality set of largest items s.t. total size sums up to at least 2. Similarly, for G₂,...,G_{r-1}.
- Only the size of items in the last group G_r may sum up to less than 2.

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Lemma 69

The number of different sizes in I' is at most SIZE(I)/2.

- Each group that survives (recall that G₁ and G_r are deleted) has total size at least 2.
- Hence, the number of surviving groups is at most SIZE(I)/2.
- All items in a group have the same size in I'.

Harmonic Grouping

From the grouping we obtain instance I' as follows:

- Round all items in a group to the size of the largest group member.
- Delete all items from group G_1 and G_r .
- For groups G_2, \ldots, G_{r-1} delete $n_i n_{i-1}$ items.
- Observe that $n_i \ge n_{i-1}$.

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Lemma 70

The total size of deleted items is at most $O(\log(SIZE(I)))$.

▶ The total size of items in *G*¹ and *G*^{*r*} is at most 6 as a group has total size at most 3.

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- Consider a group G_i that has strictly more items than G_{i-1} .
- It discards $n_i n_{i-1}$ pieces of total size at most

$$3\frac{n_i - n_{i-1}}{n_i} \le \sum_{j=n_{i-1}+1}^{n_i} \frac{3}{j}$$

since the smallest piece has size at most $3/n_i$.

Summing over all *i* that have n_i > n_{i-1} gives a bound of at most

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n_{r-1}} \frac{3}{j} \leq \mathcal{O}(\log(\text{SIZE}(I))) \ .$$

(note that $n_r \leq \text{SIZE}(I)$ since we assume that the size of each item is at least 1/SIZE(I)).

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Algorithm 1 BinPack

- 1: **if** SIZE(I) < 10 **then**
- 2: pack remaining items greedily
- 3: Apply harmonic grouping to create instance I'; pack discarded items in at most $O(\log(SIZE(I)))$ bins.
- 4: Let x be optimal solution to configuration LP
- 5: Pack $\lfloor x_j \rfloor$ bins in configuration T_j for all j; call the packed instance I_1 .
- 6: Let I_2 be remaining pieces from I'
- 7: Pack I_2 via BinPack (I_2)

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Analysis

Each level of the recursion partitions pieces into three types

- 1. Pieces discarded at this level.
- **2.** Pieces scheduled because they are in I_1 .
- **3.** Pieces in I_2 are handed down to the next level.

Pieces of type 2 summed over all recursion levels are packed into at most $\mbox{OPT}_{\mbox{LP}}$ many bins.

Pieces of type 1 are packed into at most

$\mathcal{O}(\log(\text{SIZE}(I))) \cdot L$

many bins where L is the number of recursion levels.

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Analysis

$OPT_{LP}(I_1) + OPT_{LP}(I_2) \le OPT_{LP}(I') \le OPT_{LP}(I)$

Proof:

- ► Each piece surviving in I' can be mapped to a piece in I of no lesser size. Hence, OPT_{LP}(I') ≤ OPT_{LP}(I)
- $\lfloor x_j \rfloor$ is feasible solution for I_1 (even integral).
- $x_j \lfloor x_j \rfloor$ is feasible solution for I_2 .

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Analysis

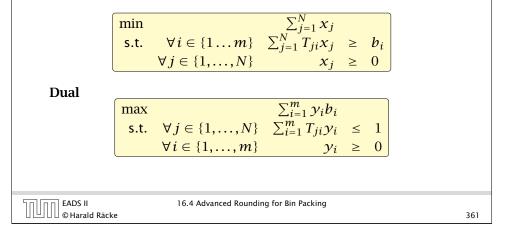
We can show that $SIZE(I_2) \le SIZE(I)/2$. Hence, the number of recursion levels is only $O(\log(SIZE(I_{original})))$ in total.

- ► The number of non-zero entries in the solution to the configuration LP for I' is at most the number of constraints, which is the number of different sizes (≤ SIZE(I)/2).
- ► The total size of items in I_2 can be at most $\sum_{j=1}^{N} x_j \lfloor x_j \rfloor$ which is at most the number of non-zero entries in the solution to the configuration LP.

How to solve the LP?

Let T_1, \ldots, T_N be the sequence of all possible configurations (a configuration T_j has T_{ji} pieces of size s_i). In total we have b_i pieces of size s_i .

Primal



Separation Oracle

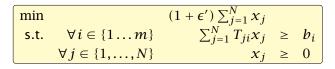
We have FPTAS for Knapsack. This means if a constraint is violated with $1 + \epsilon' = 1 + \frac{\epsilon}{1-\epsilon}$ we find it, since we can obtain at least $(1 - \epsilon)$ of the optimal profit.

The solution we get is feasible for:

Dual'

 $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|} \hline max & & \sum_{i=1}^{m} y_i b_i \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall j \in \{1, \dots, N\} & \sum_{i=1}^{m} T_{ji} y_i & \leq & 1 + \epsilon' \\ & \forall i \in \{1, \dots, m\} & & y_i & \geq & 0 \end{array}$

Primal'



Separation Oracle

Suppose that I am given variable assignment y for the dual.

How do I find a violated constraint?

I have to find a configuration $T_j = (T_{j1}, \ldots, T_{jm})$ that

m

is feasible, i.e.,

$$\sum_{i=1}^m T_{ji} \cdot s_i \le 1 \quad ,$$

and has a large profit

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} T_{ji} y_i > 1$$

But this is the Knapsack problem.

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Separation Oracle

If the value of the computed dual solution (which may be infeasible) is z then

$$OPT \le z \le (1 + \epsilon')OPT$$

How do we get good primal solution (not just the value)?

- The constraints used when computing z certify that the solution is feasible for DUAL'.
- Suppose that we drop all unused constraints in DUAL. We will compute the same solution feasible for DUAL'.
- ► Let DUAL'' be DUAL without unused constraints.
- The dual to DUAL" is PRIMAL where we ignore variables for which the corresponding dual constraint has not been used.
- The optimum value for PRIMAL'' is at most $(1 + \epsilon')$ OPT.
- > We can compute the corresponding solution in polytime.

This gives that overall we need at most

$$(1 + \epsilon')$$
OPT_{LP} $(I) + O(\log^2(SIZE(I)))$

bins.

We can choose $\epsilon' = \frac{1}{OPT}$ as $OPT \le \#$ items and since we have a fully polynomial time approximation scheme (FPTAS) for knapsack.

	16.4 Advanced Rounding for Bin Packing		
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Lemma 72

For $0 \le \delta \le 1$ we have that

$$\left(\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{1+\delta}}\right)^U \le e^{-U\delta^2/3}$$

and

$$\left(\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1-\delta)^{1-\delta}}\right)^L \le e^{-L\delta^2/2}$$

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Lemma 71 (Chernoff Bounds)

Let $X_1, ..., X_n$ be *n* independent 0-1 random variables, not necessarily identically distributed. Then for $X = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ and $\mu = E[X], L \le \mu \le U$, and $\delta > 0$

$$\Pr[X \ge (1+\delta)U] < \left(\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{1+\delta}}\right)^U$$

and

$$\Pr[X \le (1-\delta)L] < \left(\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1-\delta)^{1-\delta}}\right)^L \ ,$$

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	17.1 Chernoff Bounds	366

Proof of Chernoff Bounds	
Markovs Inequality:	
Let X be random variable taking non-negative values.	
Then	
$\Pr[X \ge a] \le \mathbb{E}[X]/a$	
Trivia!	

Proof of Chernoff Bounds

Hence:

$$\Pr[X \ge (1+\delta)U] \le \frac{\mathbb{E}[X]}{(1+\delta)U} \approx \frac{1}{1+\delta}$$

That's awfully weak :(
EADS II © Harald Räcke	17.1 Chernoff Bounds

Proof of Chernoff Bounds

$$E\left[e^{tX}\right] = E\left[e^{t\sum_{i} X_{i}}\right] = E\left[\prod_{i} e^{tX_{i}}\right] = \prod_{i} E\left[e^{tX_{i}}\right]$$

$$E\left[e^{tX_{i}}\right] = (1 - p_{i}) + p_{i}e^{t} = 1 + p_{i}(e^{t} - 1) \le e^{p_{i}(e^{t} - 1)}$$

$$\prod_{i} E\left[e^{tX_{i}}\right] \le \prod_{i} e^{p_{i}(e^{t} - 1)} = e^{\sum p_{i}(e^{t} - 1)} = e^{(e^{t} - 1)U}$$
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Proof of Chernoff Bounds

Set $p_i = \Pr[X_i = 1]$. Assume $p_i > 0$ for all *i*.

Cool Trick:

$$\Pr[X \ge (1+\delta)U] = \Pr[e^{tX} \ge e^{t(1+\delta)U}]$$

Now, we apply Markov:

$$\Pr[e^{tX} \ge e^{t(1+\delta)U}] \le \frac{\mathrm{E}[e^{tX}]}{e^{t(1+\delta)U}}$$

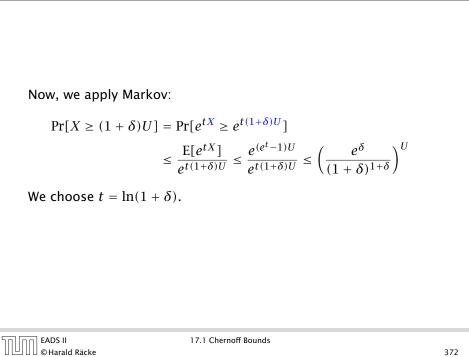
This may be a lot better (!?)

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17.1 Chernoff Bounds



Lemma 73
For
$$0 \le \delta \le 1$$
 we have that

$$\left(\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{1+\delta}}\right)^U \le e^{-U\delta^2/3}$$

and

$$\left(\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1-\delta)^{1-\delta}}\right)^L \le e^{-L\delta^2/2}$$

	17.1 Chernoff Bounds	
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 $f(\delta) := -\ln(1+\delta) + 2\delta/3 \le 0$

A convex function $(f''(\delta) \ge 0)$ on an interval takes maximum at the boundaries.

$$f'(\delta) = -\frac{1}{1+\delta} + 2/3$$
 $f''(\delta) = \frac{1}{(1+\delta)^2}$

$$f(0) = 0$$
 and $f(1) = -\ln(2) + 2/3 < 0$

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Show:

$$\left(\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{1+\delta}}\right)^U \le e^{-U\delta^2/3}$$

Take logarithms:

$$U(\delta - (1+\delta)\ln(1+\delta)) \le -U\delta^2/3$$

True for $\delta = 0$. Divide by *U* and take derivatives:

$$-\ln(1+\delta) \le -2\delta/3$$

Reason:

As long as derivative of left side is smaller than derivative of right side the inequality holds.

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For $\delta \ge 1$ we show

$$\left(\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{1+\delta}}\right)^U \le e^{-U\delta/3}$$

Take logarithms:

$$U(\delta - (1 + \delta)\ln(1 + \delta)) \le -U\delta/3$$

True for $\delta = 0$. Divide by U and take derivatives:

 $-\ln(1+\delta) \le -1/3 \iff \ln(1+\delta) \ge 1/3$ (true)

Reason:

As long as derivative of left side is smaller than derivative of right side the inequality holds.

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Show:

$$\left(\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1-\delta)^{1-\delta}}\right)^{L} \le e^{-L\delta^{2}/2}$$

Take logarithms:

$$L(-\delta - (1-\delta)\ln(1-\delta)) \le -L\delta^2/2$$

True for $\delta = 0$. Divide by *L* and take derivatives:

$$\ln(1-\delta) \le -\delta$$

Reason:

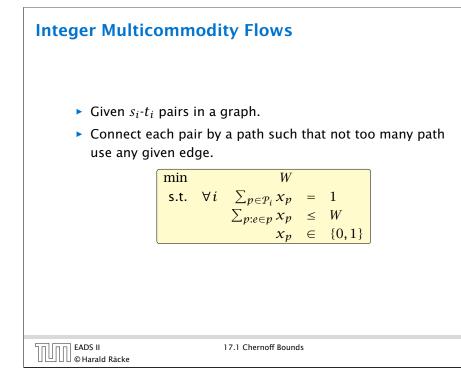
As long as derivative of left side is smaller than derivative of right side the inequality holds.

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17.1 Chernoff Bounds

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$$\ln(1-\delta) \leq -\delta$$

True for $\delta = 0$. Take derivatives:
$$-\frac{1}{1-\delta} \leq -1$$

This holds for $0 \leq \delta < 1$.

Integer Multicommodity Flows Randomized Rounding: For each *i* choose one path from the set \mathcal{P}_i at random according to the probability distribution given by the Linear Programming solution. Integer Multicommodity Flows 12.1 Chernoff Bounds12.1 Chernoff Bounds 12.1 Chernoff Bounds

Theorem 74

If $W^* \ge c \ln n$ for some constant c, then with probability at least $n^{-c/3}$ the total number of paths using any edge is at most $W^* + \sqrt{cW^* \ln n}$.

Theorem 75

With probability at least $n^{-c/3}$ the total number of paths using any edge is at most $W^* + c \ln n$.

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Integer Multicommodity Flows Choose $\delta = \sqrt{(c \ln n)/W^*}$. Then $\Pr[Y_e \ge (1 + \delta)W^*] < e^{-W^*\delta^2/3} = \frac{1}{n^{c/3}}$

17.1 Chernoff Bounds

Integer Multicommodity Flows

Let X_e^i be a random variable that indicates whether the path for s_i - t_i uses edge e.

Then the number of paths using edge *e* is $Y_e = \sum_i X_e^i$.

$$E[Y_e] = \sum_i \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}_i: e \in p} x_p^* = \sum_{p: e \in P} x_p^* \le W^*$$

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18 MAXSAT	
Problem definition:	
n Boolean variables	
• <i>m</i> clauses C_1, \ldots, C_m . For example	
$C_7 = x_3 \vee \bar{x}_5 \vee \bar{x}_9$	
Non-negative weight w _j for each clause C _j .	
Find an assignment of true/false to the variables sucht that the total weight of clauses that are satisfied is maximum.	
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18 MAXSAT

Terminology:

- A variable x_i and its negation \bar{x}_i are called literals.
- ► Hence, each clause consists of a set of literals (i.e., no duplications: x_i ∨ x_i ∨ x_j is not a clause).
- We assume a clause does not contain x_i and \bar{x}_i for any *i*.
- x_i is called a positive literal while the negation \bar{x}_i is called a negative literal.
- For a given clause C_j the number of its literals is called its length or size and denoted with ℓ_j .
- Clauses of length one are called unit clauses.

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MAXSAT: Flipping Coins

Set each x_i independently to true with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ (and, hence, to false with probability $\frac{1}{2}$, as well).

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Define random variable X_i with

$$X_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } C_j \text{ satisfied} \\ 0 & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

Then the total weight W of satisfied clauses is given by

$$W = \sum_{j} w_{j} X_{j}$$

	18 MAXSAT
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 Π

$$E[W] = \sum_{j} w_{j}E[X_{j}]$$

$$= \sum_{j} w_{j}\Pr[C_{j} \text{ is satisified}]$$

$$= \sum_{j} w_{j} \left(1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\ell_{j}}\right)$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j} w_{j}$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{2} \text{OPT}$$
EADS II 18 MAXSAT 388

MAXSAT: LP formulation

Let for a clause C_j, P_j be the set of positive literals and N_j the set of negative literals.

$$C_j = \bigvee_{j \in P_j} x_i \lor \bigvee_{j \in N_j} \bar{x}_i$$

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} \max & & \sum_{j} w_{j} z_{j} \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall j & \sum_{i \in P_{j}} y_{i} + \sum_{i \in N_{j}} (1 - y_{i}) & \geq & z_{j} \\ & \forall i & & y_{i} & \in & \{0, 1\} \\ & \forall j & & z_{j} & \leq & 1 \end{array}$$

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Lemma 76 (Geometric Mean < Arithmetic Mean)

For any nonnegative a_1, \ldots, a_k

$$\left(\prod_{i=1}^k a_i\right)^{1/k} \leq \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k a_i$$

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MAXSAT: Randomized Rounding

Set each x_i independently to true with probability y_i (and, hence, to false with probability $(1 - y_i)$).

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Definition 77

A function f on an interval I is concave if for any two points s and r from I and any $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ we have

$$f(\lambda s + (1 - \lambda)r) \ge \lambda f(s) + (1 - \lambda)f(r)$$

Lemma 78

Let f be a concave function on the interval [0,1], with f(0) = aand f(1) = a + b. Then

$$f(\lambda) = f((1 - \lambda)0 + \lambda 1)$$

$$\geq (1 - \lambda)f(0) + \lambda f(1)$$

$$= a + \lambda b$$

for $\lambda \in [0, 1]$.

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$$\Pr[C_{j} \text{ not satisfied}] = \prod_{i \in P_{j}} (1 - y_{i}) \prod_{i \in N_{j}} y_{i}$$

$$\leq \left[\frac{1}{\ell_{j}} \left(\sum_{i \in P_{j}} (1 - y_{i}) + \sum_{i \in N_{j}} y_{i} \right) \right]^{\ell_{j}}$$

$$= \left[1 - \frac{1}{\ell_{j}} \left(\sum_{i \in P_{j}} y_{i} + \sum_{i \in N_{j}} (1 - y_{i}) \right) \right]^{\ell_{j}}$$

$$\leq \left(1 - \frac{z_{j}}{\ell_{j}} \right)^{\ell_{j}}.$$
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$$\exp \left[2 \log 2 \left(1 - \frac{z_{j}}{\ell_{j}} \right)^{\ell_{j}} \right]$$

$$E[W] = \sum_{j} w_{j} \Pr[C_{j} \text{ is satisfied}]$$

$$\geq \sum_{j} w_{j} z_{j} \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\ell_{j}}\right)^{\ell_{j}} \right]$$

$$\geq \left(1 - \frac{1}{\ell_{j}}\right) \operatorname{OPT} .$$

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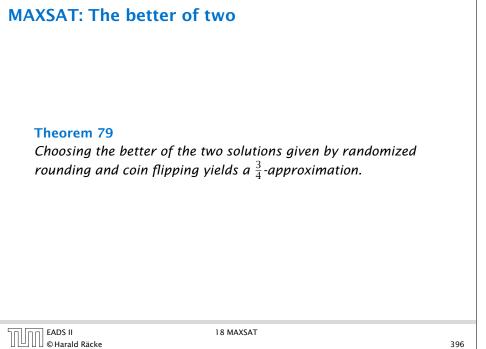
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The function $f(z) = 1 - (1 - \frac{z}{\ell})^{\ell}$ is concave. Hence,

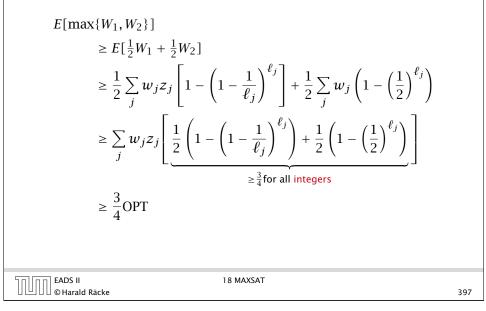
$$\Pr[C_j \text{ satisfied}] \ge 1 - \left(1 - \frac{z_j}{\ell_j}\right)^{\ell_j}$$
$$\ge \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\ell_j}\right)^{\ell_j}\right] \cdot z_j .$$

 $f^{\prime\prime}(z) = -\frac{\ell-1}{\ell} \Big[1 - \frac{z}{\ell} \Big]^{\ell-2} \le 0$ for $z \in [0,1]$. Therefore, f is concave.

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Let W_1 be the value of randomized rounding and W_2 the value obtained by coin flipping.



MAXSAT: Nonlinear Randomized Rounding

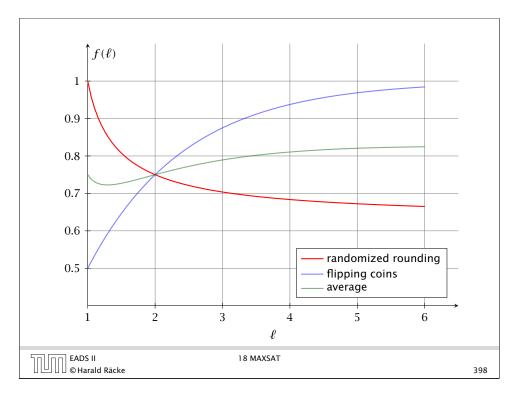
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So far we used linear randomized rounding, i.e., the probability that a variable is set to 1/true was exactly the value of the corresponding variable in the linear program.

We could define a function $f : [0,1] \rightarrow [0,1]$ and set x_i to true with probability $f(y_i)$.

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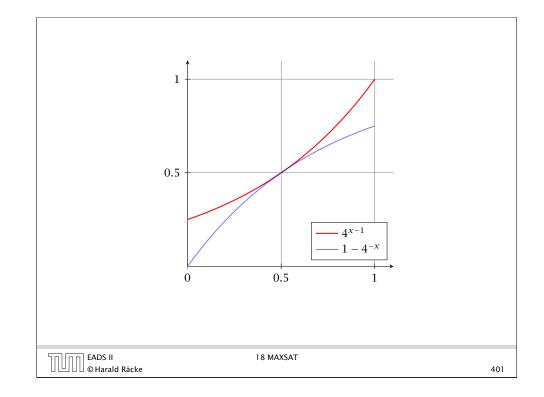
MAXSAT: Nonlinear Randomized Rounding Let $f : [0,1] \rightarrow [0,1]$ be a function with

 $1 - 4^{-x} \le f(x) \le 4^{x-1}$

Theorem 80

Rounding the LP-solution with a function f of the above form gives a $\frac{3}{4}$ -approximation.

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The function $g(z) = 1 - 4^{-z}$ is concave on [0, 1]. Hence,

$$\Pr[C_j \text{ satisfied}] \ge 1 - 4^{-z_j} \ge \frac{3}{4}z_j$$
.

Therefore,

$$E[W] = \sum_{j} w_{j} \Pr[C_{j} \text{ satisfied}] \ge \frac{3}{4} \sum_{j} w_{j} z_{j} \ge \frac{3}{4} \operatorname{OPT}$$

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$$\Pr[C_{j} \text{ not satisfied}] = \prod_{i \in P_{j}} (1 - f(y_{i})) \prod_{i \in N_{j}} f(y_{i})$$

$$\leq \prod_{i \in P_{j}} 4^{-y_{i}} \prod_{i \in N_{j}} 4^{y_{i}-1}$$

$$= 4^{-(\sum_{i \in P_{j}} y_{i} + \sum_{i \in N_{j}} (1 - y_{i}))}$$

$$\leq 4^{-z_{j}}$$
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$$(1 - y_{i}) = 1$$

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Can we do better?

Not if we compare ourselves to the value of an optimum LP-solution.

Definition 81 (Integrality Gap)

The integrality gap for an ILP is the worst-case ratio over all instances of the problem of the value of an optimal IP-solution to the value of an optimal solution to its linear programming relaxation.

Note that the integrality is less than one for maximization problems and larger than one for minimization problems (of course, equality is possible).

Note that an integrality gap only holds for one specific ILP formulation.

Lemma 82

Our ILP-formulation for the MAXSAT problem has integrality gap at most $\frac{3}{4}$.

max		$\sum_j w_j z_j$		
s.t.	$\forall j$	$\sum_{i \in P_i} y_i + \sum_{i \in N_i} (1 - y_i)$	\geq	z_j
	∀i	\mathcal{Y}_i	\in	$\{0, 1\}$
	$\forall j$	z_j	\leq	1

Consider: $(x_1 \lor x_2) \land (\bar{x}_1 \lor x_2) \land (x_1 \lor \bar{x}_2) \land (\bar{x}_1 \lor \bar{x}_2)$

- any solution can satisfy at most 3 clauses
- we can set $y_1 = y_2 = 1/2$ in the LP; this allows to set $z_1 = z_2 = z_3 = z_4 = 1$
- hence, the LP has value 4.

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Repetition: Primal Dual for Set Cover

Algorithm:

- Start with $\gamma = 0$ (feasible dual solution). Start with x = 0 (integral primal solution that may be infeasible).
- \blacktriangleright While x not feasible
 - Identify an element *e* that is not covered in current primal integral solution.
 - Increase dual variable y_e until a dual constraint becomes tight (maybe increase by 0!).
 - If this is the constraint for set S_i set $x_i = 1$ (add this set to your solution).

Repetition: Primal Dual for Set Cover

Primal Relaxation:

min		$\sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i x_i$		
s.t.	$\forall u \in U$	$\sum_{i:u\in S_i} x_i$	\geq	1
	$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$	x_i	\geq	0

Dual Formulation:

max	$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$	$\sum_{u\in U} \mathcal{Y}_u$		
s.t.	$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$	$\sum_{u:u\in S_i} \mathcal{Y}_u$	\leq	w_i
		$\mathcal{Y}u$	\geq	0

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Repetition: Primal Dual for Set Cover

Analysis:

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For every set S_i with $x_i = 1$ we have

$$\sum_{e \in S_j} y_e = w_j$$

Hence our cost is

$$\sum_{j} w_{j} = \sum_{j} \sum_{e \in S_{j}} y_{e} = \sum_{e} |\{j : e \in S_{j}\}| \cdot y_{e} \le f \cdot \sum_{e} y_{e} \le f \cdot \text{OPT}$$

Note that the constructed pair of primal and dual solution fulfills primal slackness conditions.

This means

$$x_j > 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{e \in S_j} y_e = w_j$$

If we would also fulfill dual slackness conditions

$$y_e > 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{j:e \in S_j} x_j = 1$$

then the solution would be optimal!!!

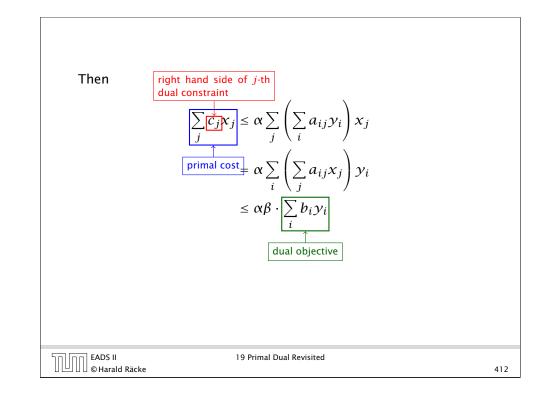
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We don't fulfill these constraint but we fulfill an approximate version:

$$y_e > 0 \Rightarrow 1 \le \sum_{j:e \in S_j} x_j \le f$$

This is sufficient to show that the solution is an f-approximation.

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Suppose we have a primal/dual pair

min $\sum_j c_j$		$\sum_i b_i y_i$
s.t. $\forall i \sum_{j:} a_{ij}$	$j \geq b_i$ s.t. \forall	$j \sum_i a_{ij} y_i \leq c_j$
$\forall j$	$j \geq 0$ \forall	$i \qquad y_i \ge 0$

and solutions that fulfill approximate slackness conditions:

$$x_{j} > 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{i} a_{ij} y_{i} \ge \frac{1}{\alpha} c_{j}$$
$$y_{i} > 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{j} a_{ij} x_{j} \le \beta b_{i}$$

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Feedback Vertex Set for Undirected Graphs Given a graph G = (V, E) and non-negative weights w_v ≥ 0 for vertex v ∈ V. Choose a minimum cost subset of vertices s.t. every cycle contains at least one vertex.

Let *C* denote the set of all cycles (where a cycle is identified by its set of vertices)

Primal Relaxation:

min		$\sum_{v} w_{v} x_{v}$		
s.t.	$\forall C \in C$	$\sum_{v \in C} x_v$	\geq	1
	$\forall v$	x_v	\geq	0

Dual Formulation:

max		$\sum_{C \in C} \mathcal{Y}_C$		
s.t.	$\forall v \in V$	$\sum_{C:v \in C} \mathcal{Y}_C$	\leq	w_v
	$\forall C$	$\mathcal{Y}_{\mathcal{C}}$	\geq	0

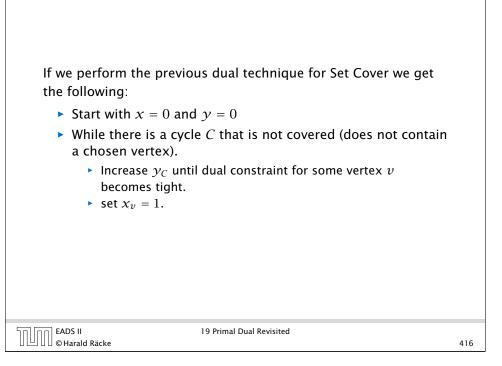
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We can encode this as an instance of Set Cover

- Each vertex can be viewed as a set that contains some cycles.
- However, this encoding gives a Set Cover instance of non-polynomial size.
- The O(log n)-approximation for Set Cover does not help us to get a good solution.

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Then

$$\sum_{v} w_{v} x_{v} = \sum_{v} \sum_{C:v \in C} y_{C} x_{v}$$
$$= \sum_{v \in S} \sum_{C:v \in C} y_{C}$$
$$= \sum_{C} |S \cap C| \cdot y_{C}$$

where S is the set of vertices we choose.

If every cycle is short we get a good approximation ratio, but this is unrealistic.

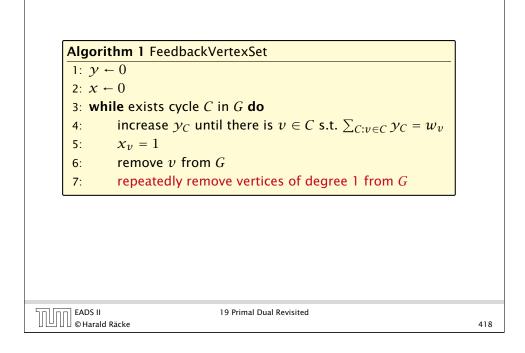
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Idea:

Always choose a short cycle that is not covered. If we always find a cycle of length at most α we get an α -approximation.

Observation:

For any path P of vertices of degree 2 in G the algorithm chooses at most one vertex from P.



Observation:

If we always choose a cycle for which the number of vertices of degree at least 3 is at most α we get a 2α -approximation.

Theorem 83

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In any graph with no vertices of degree 1, there always exists a cycle that has at most $O(\log n)$ vertices of degree 3 or more. We can find such a cycle in linear time.

This means we have

$$y_C > 0 \Rightarrow |S \cap C| \le \mathcal{O}(\log n)$$
.

Primal Dual for Shortest Path

Given a graph G = (V, E) with two nodes $s, t \in V$ and edge-weights $c : E \to \mathbb{R}^+$ find a shortest path between s and tw.r.t. edge-weights c.

min		$\sum_{e} c(e) x_{e}$		
s.t.	$\forall S \in S$	$\sum_{e:\delta(S)} x_e$	\geq	1
	$\forall e \in E$	x_e	\in	{0,1}

Here $\delta(S)$ denotes the set of edges with exactly one end-point in S, and $S = \{S \subseteq V : s \in S, t \notin S\}.$

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Primal Dual for Shortest Path
We can interpret the value y_S as the width of a moat surounding the set S .
Each set can have its own moat but all moats must be disjoint.
An edge cannot be shorter than all the moats that it has to cross.

Primal Dual for Shortest Path

The Dual:

max		$\sum_{S} \gamma_{S}$		
s.t.	$\forall e \in E$	$\sum_{S:e\in\delta(S)} \mathcal{Y}_S$	\leq	c(e)
	$\forall S \in S$	$\mathcal{Y}S$	\geq	0

Here $\delta(S)$ denotes the set of edges with exactly one end-point in S, and $S = \{S \subseteq V : s \in S, t \notin S\}.$

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Algo	rithm 1 PrimalDualShortestPath
1: J	<i>ν</i> ← 0
2: F	$f \leftarrow \emptyset$
3: N	hile there is no <i>s</i> - <i>t</i> path in (V, F) do
4:	Let C be the connected component of (V, F) con-
	taining s
5:	Increase $\mathcal{Y}_{\mathcal{C}}$ until there is an edge $e'\in\delta(\mathcal{C})$ such
	that $\sum_{S:e'\in\delta(S)} y_S = c(e')$.
6:	$F \leftarrow F \cup \{e'\}$
7: L	et P be an s - t path in (V, F)
8: r	eturn P

Lemma 84

At each point in time the set F forms a tree.

Proof:

- ► In each iteration we take the current connected component from (V, F) that contains *s* (call this component *C*) and add some edge from $\delta(C)$ to *F*.
- Since, at most one end-point of the new edge is in C the edge cannot close a cycle.

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If *S* contains two edges from *P* then there must exist a subpath P' of *P* that starts and ends with a vertex from *S* (and all interior vertices are not in *S*).

When we increased y_S , S was a connected component of the set of edges F' that we had chosen till this point.

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 $F' \cup P'$ contains a cycle. Hence, also the final set of edges contains a cycle.

This is a contradiction.

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$$\sum_{e \in P} c(e) = \sum_{e \in P} \sum_{S: e \in \delta(S)} y_S$$
$$= \sum_{S: s \in S, t \notin S} |P \cap \delta(S)| \cdot y_S$$

If we can show that $y_S > 0$ implies $|P \cap \delta(S)| = 1$ gives

$$\sum_{e \in P} c(e) = \sum_{S} y_{S} \le \text{OPT}$$

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by weak duality.

Hence, we find a shortest path.

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Steiner Forest Problem:

Given a graph G = (V, E), together with source-target pairs $s_i, t_i, i = 1, ..., k$, and a cost function $c : E \to \mathbb{R}^+$ on the edges. Find a subset $F \subseteq E$ of the edges such that for every $i \in \{1, ..., k\}$ there is a path between s_i and t_i only using edges in F.

min		$\sum_{e} c(e) x_{e}$		
s.t.	$\forall S \subseteq V : S \in S_i \text{ for some } i$	$\sum_{e \in \delta(S)} x_e$	\geq	1
	$\forall e \in E$	x_e	\in	{0,1}

Here S_i contains all sets S such that $s_i \in S$ and $t_i \notin S$.

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max		$\sum S: \exists i \text{ s.t. } S \in S_i \mathcal{Y}S$		
s.t.	$\forall e \in E$	$\sum_{S:e\in\delta(S)} \mathcal{Y}S$	\leq	c(e)
		Ys	\geq	0

The difference to the dual of the shortest path problem is that we have many more variables (sets for which we can generate a moat of non-zero width).

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$$\sum_{e \in F} c(e) = \sum_{e \in F} \sum_{S: e \in \delta(S)} y_S = \sum_{S} |\delta(S) \cap F| \cdot y_S$$

If we show that $y_S > 0$ implies that $|\delta(S) \cap F| \le \alpha$ we are in good shape.

However, this is not true:

- Take a complete graph on k + 1 vertices v_0, v_1, \ldots, v_k .
- The *i*-th pair is v_0 - v_i .
- The first component *C* could be $\{v_0\}$.
- We only set $y_{\{v_0\}} = 1$. All other dual variables stay 0.
- The final set *F* contains all edges $\{v_0, v_i\}, i = 1, ..., k$.
- $y_{\{v_0\}} > 0$ but $|\delta(\{v_0\}) \cap F| = k$.

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1: <i>Y</i>	<i>←</i> 0
2: F	$\leftarrow \emptyset$
3: wl	hile not all <i>s_i-t_i</i> pairs connected in <i>F</i> do
4:	Let C be some connected component of (V, F)
	such that $ C \cap \{s_i, t_i\} = 1$ for some <i>i</i> .
5:	Increase $\mathcal{Y}_{\mathcal{C}}$ until there is an edge $e' \in \delta(\mathcal{C})$ s.t.
	$\sum_{S \in S_i: e' \in \delta(S)} \mathcal{Y}_S = c_{e'}$
6:	$F \leftarrow F \cup \{e'\}$
7: re	turn $\bigcup_i P_i$

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Algorithm 1 SecondTry	
1: <i>Y</i>	$\leftarrow 0; F \leftarrow \emptyset; \ell \leftarrow 0$
2: wl	hile not all <i>s_i-t_i</i> pairs connected in <i>F</i> do
3:	$\ell \leftarrow \ell + 1$
4:	Let C be set of all connected components C of (V, F)
	such that $ C \cap \{s_i, t_i\} = 1$ for some <i>i</i> .
5:	Increase y_C for all $C \in C$ uniformly until for some edge
	$e_{\ell} \in \delta(C'), C' \in C \text{ s.t. } \sum_{S:e_{\ell} \in \delta(S)} y_S = c_{e_{\ell}}$
6:	$F \leftarrow F \cup \{e_\ell\}$
7: <i>F</i> ′	$\leftarrow F$
8: fo	r $k \leftarrow \ell$ downto 1 do // reverse deletion
9:	if $F' - e_k$ is feasible solution then
10:	remove e_k from F'
11: re	turn F'

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The reverse deletion step is not strictly necessary this way. It would also be sufficient to simply delete all unnecessary edges in any order.

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Lemma 85

For any C in any iteration of the algorithm

$$\sum_{C \in C} |\delta(C) \cap F'| \le 2|C|$$

This means that the number of times a moat from *C* is crossed in the final solution is at most twice the number of moats.

Proof: later...



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Example t_2 EADS II © Harald Räcke 19 Primal Dual Revisited

$$\sum_{e \in F'} c_e = \sum_{e \in F'} \sum_{S: e \in \delta(S)} y_S = \sum_S |F' \cap \delta(S)| \cdot y_S .$$

We want to show that

$$\sum_{S} |F' \cap \delta(S)| \cdot y_{S} \le 2 \sum_{S} y_{S}$$

In the *i*-th iteration the increase of the left-hand side is

$$\epsilon \sum_{C \in C} |F' \cap \delta(C)|$$

and the increase of the right hand side is $2\epsilon |C|$.

• Hence, by the previous lemma the inequality holds after the iteration if it holds in the beginning of the iteration.

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Lemma 86

For any set of connected components *C* in any iteration of the algorithm

$$\sum_{C \in C} |\delta(C) \cap F'| \le 2|C|$$

Proof:

- At any point during the algorithm the set of edges forms a forest (why?).
- Fix iteration *i*. *e_i* is the set we add to *F*. Let *F_i* be the set of edges in *F* at the beginning of the iteration.
- Let $H = F' F_i$.
- ► All edges in *H* are necessary for the solution.

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- Suppose that no node in *B* has degree one.
- Then

$$\sum_{\nu \in R} \deg(\nu) = \sum_{\nu \in R \cup B} \deg(\nu) - \sum_{\nu \in B} \deg(\nu)$$
$$\leq 2(|R| + |B|) - 2|B| = 2|R|$$

- Every blue vertex with non-zero degree must have degree at least two.
 - Suppose not. The single edge connecting b ∈ B comes from H, and, hence, is necessary.
 - But this means that the cluster corresponding to b must separate a source-target pair.
 - But then it must be a red node.

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- Contract all edges in F_i into single vertices V'.
- We can consider the forest H on the set of vertices V'.
- Let deg(v) be the degree of a vertex $v \in V'$ within this forest.
- ► Color a vertex $v \in V'$ red if it corresponds to a component from *C* (an active component). Otw. color it blue. (Let *B* the set of blue vertices (with non-zero degree) and *R* the set of red vertices)
- We have

$$\sum_{v \in R} \deg(v) \ge \sum_{C \in C} |\delta(C) \cap F'| \stackrel{?}{\le} 2|C| = 2|R|$$

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Shortest Path

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\min & \sum_{e} c(e) x_{e} \\
\text{s.t.} & \forall S \in S & \sum_{e:\delta(S)} x_{e} \geq 1 \\
& \forall e \in E & x_{e} \in \{0,1\}
\end{array}$$
S is the set of subsets that separate s from t.
The Dual:

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
\max & \sum_{S} y_{S} \\
\text{s.t.} & \forall e \in E & \sum_{S:e \in \delta(S)} y_{S} \leq c(e)
\end{array}$$

The Separation Problem for the Shortest Path LP is the Minimum Cut Problem.

 $\gamma_S \geq 0$

 $\forall S \in S$

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Minimum Cut

min		$\sum_{e} c(e) x_{e}$		
s.t.	$\forall P \in \mathcal{P}$	$\sum_{e\in P} x_e$	\geq	1
	$\forall e \in E$	x_e	\in	{0,1

 \mathcal{P} is the set of path that connect s and t.

The Dual:

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max		$\sum_{P} y_{P}$		
s.t.	$\forall e \in E$	$\sum_{P:e\in P} \gamma_P$	\leq	c(e)
	$\forall P \in \mathcal{P}$	\mathcal{Y}_P	\geq	0

The Separation Problem for the Minimum Cut LP is the Shortest Path Problem.

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How do we round the LP?

Let B(s, r) be the ball of radius r around s (w.r.t. metric d). Formally:

 $B = \{ v \in V \mid d(s, v) \le r \}$

For $0 \le r < 1$, B(s, r) is an *s*-*t*-cut.

Which value of *r* should we choose? **choose randomly**!!!

Formally: choose r u.a.r. (uniformly at random) from interval [0, 1)

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Observations:

Suppose that ℓ_e -values are solution to Minimum Cut LP.

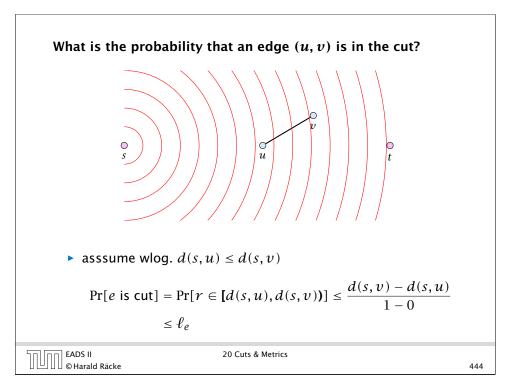
- We can view ℓ_e as defining the length of an edge.
- ► Define $d(u, v) = \min_{\text{path } P \text{ btw. } u \text{ and } v} \sum_{e \in P} \ell_e$ as the Shortest Path Metric induced by ℓ_e .
- ► We have d(u, v) = l_e for every edge e = (u, v), as otw. we could reduce l_e without affecting the distance between s and t.

Remark for bean-counters:

d is not a metric on V but a semimetric as two nodes u and v could have distance zero.

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20 Cuts & Metrics





$$E[\text{size of cut}] = E\left[\sum_{e} c(e) \Pr[e \text{ is cut}]\right]$$
$$\leq \sum_{e} c(e) \ell_{e}$$

On the other hand:

$$\sum_{e} c(e) \ell_e \leq \text{size of mincut}$$

as the ℓ_e are the solution to the Mincut LP *relaxation*.

Hence, our rounding gives an optimal solution.

Re-using the analysis for the single-commodity case is difficult.

$\Pr[e \text{ is cut}] \leq ?$

- If for some *R* the balls $B(s_i, R)$ are disjoint between different sources, we get a 1/R approximation.
- However, this cannot be guaranteed.

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Minimum Multicut:

Given a graph G = (V, E), together with source-target pairs s_i, t_i , i = 1, ..., k, and a capacity function $c : E \to \mathbb{R}^+$ on the edges. Find a subset $F \subseteq E$ of the edges such that all s_i - t_i pairs lie in different components in $G = (V, E \setminus F)$.

min		$\sum_{e} c(e) \ell_{e}$		
s.t.	$\forall P \in \mathcal{P}_i \text{ for some } i$	$\sum_{e \in P} \ell_e$	\geq	1
	$\forall e \in E$	ℓ_e	\in	{0,1}

Here \mathcal{P}_i contains all path P between s_i and t_i .

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- Assume for simplicity that all edge-length ℓ_e are multiples of $\delta \ll 1$.
- Replace the graph *G* by a graph *G'*, where an edge of length ℓ_e is replaced by ℓ_e/δ edges of length δ .
- ► Let $B(s_i, z)$ be the ball in G' that contains nodes v with distance $d(s_i, v) \le z\delta$.

Algorithm 1 RegionGrowing(s_i, p) 1: $z \leftarrow 0$

2: **repeat** 3: flip a coin (Pr[heads] = p) 4: $z \leftarrow z + 1$

- 5: until heads
- 6: **return** *B*(*s*_{*i*}, *z*)

Algorithm 1 Multicut(G')

- 1: while $\exists s_i t_i$ pair in G' do
- $C \leftarrow \text{RegionGrowing}(s_i, p)$ 2:
- 3: $G' = G' \setminus C // \text{ cuts edges leaving } C$
- 4: return $B(s_i, z)$
- probability of cutting an edge is only p
- a source either does not reach an edge during Region Growing; then it is not cut
- if it reaches the edge then it either cuts the edge or protects the edge from being cut by other sources
- if we choose $p = \delta$ the probability of cutting an edge is only its LP-value; our expected cost are at most OPT.

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• choose $p = 6 \ln k \cdot \delta$

- we make $\frac{1}{2\delta}$ trials before reaching radius 1/2.
- we say a Region Growing is not successful if it does not terminate before reaching radius 1/2.

$$\Pr[\mathsf{not successful}] \le (1-p)^{\frac{1}{2\delta}} = \left((1-p)^{1/p}\right)^{\frac{p}{2\delta}} \le e^{-\frac{p}{2\delta}} \le \frac{1}{k^3}$$

Hence,

$$\Pr[\exists i \text{ that is not successful}] \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$

Problem:

We may not cut all source-target pairs.

A component that we remove may contain an s_i - t_i pair.

If we ensure that we cut before reaching radius 1/2 we are in good shape.

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What is expected cost?	
$E[cutsize] = Pr[success] \cdot E[cutsize success]$	
+ Pr[no success] · E[cutsize no success]	
$E[\text{cutsize} \mid \text{succ.}] = \frac{E[\text{cutsize}] - \Pr[\text{no succ.}] \cdot E[\text{cutsize} \mid \text{no succ.}]}{\Pr[\text{success}]}$ $\leq \frac{E[\text{cutsize}]}{\Pr[\text{success}]} \leq \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{k^2}} 6 \ln k \cdot \text{OPT} \leq 8 \ln k \cdot \text{OPT}$	
Note: success means all source-target pairs separated	
We assume $k \ge 2$.	
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If we are not successful we simply perform a trivial *k*-approximation.

This only increases the expected cost by at most $\frac{1}{k^2} \cdot kOPT \le OPT/k.$

Hence, our final cost is $O(\ln k) \cdot OPT$ in expectation.

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Probabilistic Proof Verification

Definition 88 (IP)

In an interactive proof system a randomized polynomial-time verifier V (with private coin tosses) interacts with an all powerful prover *P* in polynomially many rounds. $L \in IP$ if

- $[x \in L]$ There exists a strategy for *P* s.t. *V* accepts with probability 1.
- $[x \notin L]$ Regardless of *P*'s strategy *V* accepts with probability at most 1/2.

Definition 87 (NP)

A language $L \in NP$ if there exists a polynomial time, deterministic verifier V (a Turing machine), s.t.

 $[x \in L]$ There exists a proof string y, |y| = poly(|x|), s.t. V(x, y) = "accept".

[$x \notin L$] For any proof string γ , $V(x, \gamma) =$ "reject". Note that requiring $|\gamma| = poly(|x|)$ for $x \notin L$ does not make a difference (why?).

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Probabilistic Checkable Proofs

Definition 89 (PCP)

A language $L \in PCP_{c(n),S(n)}(r(n),q(n))$ if there exists a polynomial time, non-adaptive, randomized verifier V (an Oracle Turing Machine), s.t.

- $[x \in L]$ There exists a proof string γ , s.t. $V^{\pi_{\gamma}}(x) =$ "accept" with proability $\geq c(n)$.
- $[x \notin L]$ For any proof string γ , $V^{\pi_y}(x) =$ "accept" with probability $\leq s(n)$.

The verifier uses at most r(n) random bits and makes at most q(n) oracle queries.

Probabilistic Checkable Proofs

An Oracle Turing Machine *M* is a Turing machine that has access to an oracle.

Such an oracle allows M to solve some problem in a single step.

For example having access to a TSP-oracle π_{TSP} would allow M to write a TSP-instance x on a special oracle tape and obtain the answer (yes or no) in a single step.

For such TMs one looks in addition to running time also at query complexity, i.e., how often the machine queries the oracle.

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 $IP \subseteq PCP_{1,1/2}(poly(n), poly(n))$

We can view non-adadpative $PCP_{1,1/2}(poly(n), poly(n))$ as the version of IP in which the prover has written down his answers to all possible queries (beforehand).

This makes it harder for the prover to cheat.

The non-cheating prover does not loose power.

Note that the above is not a proof!

For a proof string y, π_y is an oracle that upon given an index *i* returns the *i*-th character γ_i of γ .

c(n) is called the completeness. If not specified otw. c(n) = 1. Probability of accepting a correct proof.

s(n) < c(n) is called the soundness. If not specified otw. s(n) = 1/2. Probability of accepting a wrong proof.

r(n) is called the randomness complexity, i.e., how many random bits the (randomized) verifier uses.

q(n) is the query complexity of the verifier.

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- \blacktriangleright PCP(0.0) = P
- ▶ $PCP(\mathcal{O}(\log n), 0) = P$
- \blacktriangleright PCP(0, $\mathcal{O}(\log n)) = P$
- ▶ PCP(0, $\mathcal{O}(\text{poly}(n))) = \text{NP}$
- $PCP(\mathcal{O}(\log n), \mathcal{O}(\operatorname{poly}(n))) = NP$
- ▶ $PCP(\mathcal{O}(poly(n)), 0) = coRP$ randomized polynomial time with one sided error (positive probability of accepting a false statement)
- $PCP(O(\log n), O(1)) = NP$ (the PCP theorem)

$NP \subseteq PCP(poly(n), 1)$ PCP(poly(n), 1) means that we have a potentially exponentially long proof but we only read a constant number of bits from the proof. The idea is to encode an NP-witness/proof (e.g. a satisfying assignment (say n bits)) by a code whose code-words have 2^n bits. A wrong proof is either a code-word whose pre-image does not correspond to a satisfying assignment or, a sequence of bits that does not correspond to a code-word We can detect both cases by querying a few positions.

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The Code

Lemma 90 If $u \neq u'$ then WH_u and WH_{u'} differ in at least 2^{n-1} bits.

Suppose that $u - u' \neq 0$. Then

 $WH_{u}(x) \neq WH_{u'}(x) \iff (u - u')^{T} x \neq 0$

This holds for 2^{n-1} different vectors *x*.

The Code

 $u \in \{0,1\}^n$ (satisfying assignment)

Walsh-Hadamard Code: WH_{*u*} : {0,1}^{*n*} \rightarrow {0,1}, *x* \mapsto *x*^{*T*}*u* (over GF(2))

The code-word for u is WH_u . We identify this function by a bit-vector of length 2^n .

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The Code

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Suppose we are given access to a function $f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ and want to check whether it is a codeword.

Since the set of codewords is the set of all linear functions $\{0,1\}^n$ to $\{0,1\}$ we can check

 $f(x + \gamma) = f(x) + f(\gamma)$

for all 2^{2n} pairs x, y. But that's not very efficient.

Can we just check a constant number of positions?	
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We need $O(1/\delta)$ trials to be sure that f is $(1 - \delta)$ -close to a linear function with (arbitrary) constant probability.

Definition 91

Let $\rho \in [0,1]$. We say that $f, g : \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ are ρ -close if

 $\Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} [f(x) = g(x)] \ge \rho \; .$

Theorem 92 Let $f : \{0, 1\}^n \to \{0, 1\}$ with

$$\Pr_{x,y \in \{0,1\}^n} \left[f(x) + f(y) = f(x+y) \right] \ge \rho > \frac{1}{2} .$$

Then there is a linear function \tilde{f} such that f and \tilde{f} are ρ -close.

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Suppose for $\delta < 1/4 f$ is $(1 - \delta)$ -close to some linear function \tilde{f} .

 \tilde{f} is uniquely defined by f, since linear functions differ on at least half their inputs.

Suppose we are given $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and access to f. Can we compute $\tilde{f}(x)$ using only constant number of queries?

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Suppose we are given $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ and access to f. Can we compute $\tilde{f}(x)$ using only constant number of queries?

- 1. Choose $x' \in \{0, 1\}^n$ u.a.r.
- **2.** Set x'' := x + x'.
- **3.** Let y' = f(x') and y'' = f(x'').
- **4.** Output y' + y''.

x' and x'' are uniformly distributed (albeit dependent). With probability at least $1 - 2\delta$ we have $f(x') = \tilde{f}(x')$ and $f(x'') = \tilde{f}(x'')$.

Then we can compute $\tilde{f}(x)$.

This technique is known as local decoding of the Walsh-Hadamard code.

NP \subseteq PCP(poly(*n*), 1)

We show that $QUADEQ \in PCP(poly(n), 1)$. The theorem follows since any PCP-class is closed under polynomial time reductions.

introduce QUADEQ...

prove NP-completeness...

Let A, b be an instance of QUADEQ. Let u be a satisfying assignment.

The correct PCP-proof will be the Walsh-Hadamard encodings of u and $u \otimes u$. The verifier will accept such a proof with probability 1.

We have to make sure that we reject proofs that do not correspond to codewords for vectors of the form u, and $u \otimes u$.

We also have to reject proofs that correspond to codewords for vectors of the form z, and $z \otimes z$, where z is not a satisfying assignment.

Step 1. Linearity Test. The proof contains $2^n + 2^{n^2}$ bits. This is interpreted as a pair of functions $f: \{0,1\}^n \to \{0,1\}$ and $g: \{0,1\}^{n^2} \to \{0,1\}$.

We do a 0.99-linearity test for both functions (requires a constant number of queries).

We also assume that the remaining constant number of (random) accesses only hit points where $f(x) = \tilde{f}(x)$.

Hence, our proof will only see \tilde{f} and therefore we use f for \tilde{f} , in the following (similar for g, \tilde{g}).

Step 2. Verify that g encodes $u \otimes u$ where u is string encoded by f.

- $f(r) = u^T r$ and $g(z) = w^T z$ since f, g are linear.
 - choose r, r' independently, u.a.r. from $\{0, 1\}^n$
 - if $f(r)f(r') \neq g(r \otimes r')$ reject
 - repeat 3 times

A correct proof survives the test

$$f(r) \cdot f(r') = u^{T}r \cdot u^{T}r' = \left(\sum_{i} u_{i}r_{i}\right) \cdot \left(\sum_{j} u_{j}r'_{j}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{ij} u_{i}u_{j}r_{i}r'_{j} = (u \otimes u)^{T}(r \otimes r') = g(r \otimes r')$$

Suppose that the proof is not correct and $w \neq u \otimes u$.

Let *W* be $n \times n$ -matrix with entries from *w*. Let *U* be matrix with $U_{ij} = u_i \cdot u_j$ (entries from $u \otimes u$).

$$g(r \otimes r') = w^T(r \otimes r') = \sum_{ij} w_{ij} r_i r'_j = r^T W r$$

$$f(r)f(r') = u^T r \cdot u^T r' = r^T U r'$$

If $U \neq W$ then $Wr' \neq Ur'$ with probability at least 1/2. Then $r^T Wr' \neq r^T Ur'$ with probability at least 1/4.

Step 3. Verify that f encodes satisfying assignment.

We need to check

$$A_k(u \otimes u) = b_k$$

where A_k is the *k*-th row of the constraint matrix. But the left hand side is just $g(A_k^T)$.

We can handle this by a single query but checking all constraints would take $\mathcal{O}(m)$ steps.

We compute rA, where $r \in_R \{0, 1\}^m$. If u is not a satisfying assignment then with probability 1/2 the vector r will hit an odd number of violated constraint.

In this case $rA(u \otimes u) \neq rb_k$. The left hand side is equal to $g(A^T r^T)$.

Theorem 92 Let $f : \{0, 1\}^n \to \{0, 1\}$ with

 $\Pr_{x,y \in \{0,1\}^n} \left[f(x) + f(y) = f(x+y) \right] \ge \rho > \frac{1}{2} .$

Then there is a linear function \tilde{f} such that f and \tilde{f} are ρ -close.

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Hilbert space

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- addition (f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)
- scalar multiplication $(\alpha f)(x) = \alpha f(x)$
- inner product $\langle f, g \rangle = E_{x \in \{0,1\}^n}[f(x)g(x)]$ (bilinear, $\langle f, f \rangle \ge 0$, and $\langle f, f \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow f = 0$)
- completeness: any sequence x_k of vectors for which

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \|x_k\| < \infty \text{ fulfills } \left\| L - \sum_{k=1}^{N} x_k \right\| \to 0$$

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for some vector L.

Fourier Transform over GF(2)

In the following we use $\{-1,1\}$ instead of $\{0,1\}$. We map $b \in \{0,1\}$ to $(-1)^b$.

This turns summation into multiplication.

The set of function $f : \{-1, 1\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ form a 2^n -dimensional Hilbert space.

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standard basis

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$$e_X(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & x = y \\ 0 & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

Then, $f(x) = \sum_{x} \alpha_{x} e_{x}$ where $\alpha_{x} = f(x)$, this means the functions e_{x} form a basis. This basis is orthonormal.

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fourier basis

For $\alpha \subseteq [n]$ define

$$\chi_{\alpha}(x) = \prod_{i \in \alpha} x_i$$

Note that

$$\langle \chi_{\alpha}, \chi_{\beta} \rangle = E_{X} \Big[\chi_{\alpha}(x) \chi_{\beta}(x) \Big] = E_{X} \Big[\chi_{\alpha \bigtriangleup \beta}(x) \Big] = \begin{cases} 1 & \alpha = \beta \\ 0 & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

This means the χ_{α} 's also define an orthonormal basis. (since we have 2^n orthonormal vectors...)

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We can write any function $f: \{-1, 1\}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ as

$$f = \sum_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha} \chi_{\alpha}$$

We call \hat{f}_{α} the α^{th} Fourier coefficient.

Lemma 93

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1. $\langle f, g \rangle = \sum_{\alpha} f_{\alpha} g_{\alpha}$ 2. $\langle f, f \rangle = \sum_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}^2$

Note that for Boolean functions $f : \{-1, 1\}^n \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$, $\langle f, f \rangle = 1$.

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A function χ_{α} multiplies a set of x_i 's. Back in the GF(2)-world this means summing a set of z_i 's where $x_i = (-1)^{z_i}$.

This means the function χ_{α} correspond to linear functions in the GF(2) world.

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Linearity Test

GF(2)

We want to show that if $Pr_{x,y}[f(x) + f(y) = f(x + y)]$ is large than f has a large agreement with a linear function.

Hilbert space (we prove)

Suppose that $f : \{+1, -1\}^n \to \{-1, 1\}$ satisfies $\Pr_{x, y}[f(x)f(y) = f(xy)] \ge \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$. Then there is some $\alpha \subseteq [n]$, s.t. $\hat{f}_{\alpha} \ge 2\epsilon$.

For Boolean functions $\langle f, g \rangle$ is the fraction of inputs on which f, g agree **minus** the fraction of inputs on which they disagree.

 $2\epsilon \leq \hat{f}_{\alpha} = \langle f, \chi_{\alpha} \rangle = \text{agree} - \text{disagree} = 2\text{agree} - 1$

This gives that the agreement between f and χ_{α} is at least $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$.

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Linearity Test

$$\Pr_{x,y}[f(xy) = f(x)f(y)] \ge \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$$

is equivalent to

 $E_{x,y}[f(xy)f(x)f(y)] = \text{agreement} - \text{disagreement} \ge 2\epsilon$

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Probabilistic proof for Graph Nonlsomorphism

GNI is the language of pairs of non-isomorphic graphs

Verifier gets input (G_0, G_1) (two graphs with *n*-nodes)

It expects a proof of the following form:

For any labeled *n*-node graph *H* the *H*'s bit *P*[*H*] of the proof fulfills

$$G_0 \equiv H \implies P[H] = 0$$

 $G_1 \equiv H \implies P[H] = 1$
 $G_0, G_1 \equiv H \implies P[H] = arbitrary$

$$2\epsilon \leq E_{x,y} \left[f(xy)f(x)f(y) \right] \\= E_{x,y} \left[\left(\sum_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha}\chi_{\alpha}(xy) \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{\beta} \hat{f}_{\beta}\chi_{\beta}(x) \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{\gamma} \hat{f}_{\gamma}\chi_{\gamma}(y) \right) \right] \\= E_{x,y} \left[\sum_{\alpha,\beta,\gamma} \hat{f}_{\alpha}\hat{f}_{\beta}\hat{f}_{\gamma}\chi_{\alpha}(x)\chi_{\alpha}(y)\chi_{\beta}(x)\chi_{\gamma}(y) \right] \\= \sum_{\alpha,\beta,\gamma} \hat{f}_{\alpha}\hat{f}_{\beta}\hat{f}_{\gamma} \cdot E_{x} \left[\chi_{\alpha}(x)\chi_{\beta}(x) \right] E_{y} \left[\chi_{\alpha}(y)\chi_{\gamma}(y) \right] \\= \sum_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha}^{3} \\\leq \max_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha} \cdot \sum_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha}^{2} = \max_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha}$$

Probabilistic proof for Graph NonIsomorphism

Verifier:

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- choose $b \in \{0, 1\}$ at random
- take graph G_b and apply a random permutation to obtain a labeled graph H
- check whether P[H] = b

If $G_0 \neq G_1$ then by using the obvious proof the verifier will always accept.

If $G_0 \neq G_1$ a proof only accepts with probability 1/2.

- suppose $\pi(G_0) = G_1$
- ► if we accept for b = 1 and permutation π_{rand} we reject for permutation b = 0 and $\pi_{rand} \circ \pi$

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How to show Harndess of Approximation?

Decision version of optimization problems: Suppose we have some maximization problem.

The corresponding decision problem equips each instance with a parameter k and asks whether we can obtain a solution value of at least k. (where infeasible solutions are assumed to have value $-\infty$)

(Analogous for minimization problems.)

This is the standard way to show that some optimization problem is e.g. NP-hard.

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An approximation algorithm with approximation guarantee $c \leq \beta / \alpha$ can solve an (α, β) -gap problem.

How to show Harndess of Approximation?

Gap version of optimization problems: Suppose we have some maximization problem.

The corresponding (α, β) -gap problem asks the following:

Suppose we are given an instance I and a promise that either $opt(I) \ge \beta$ or $opt(I) \le \alpha$. Can we differentiate between these two cases?

An algorithm *A* has to output

- A(I) = 1 if $opt(I) \ge \beta$
- A(I) = 0 if $opt(I) \le \alpha$
- A(I) =arbitrary, otw

Note that this is not a decision problem

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Constraint Satisfaction Problem

A *q*CSP ϕ consists of *m n*-ary Boolean functions ϕ_1, \ldots, ϕ_m (constraints), where each function only depends on *a* inputs. The goal is to maximize the number of satisifed constraints.

- $u \in \{0,1\}^n$ satsifies constraint ϕ_i if $\phi_i(u) = 1$
- $r(u) := \sum_i \phi_i(u) / m$ is fraction of satisfied constraints
- value(ϕ) = max_u r(u)

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• ϕ is satisfiable if value(ϕ) = 1.

3SAT is a constraint satsifaction problem with q = 3.

Constraint Satisfaction Problem

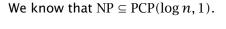
GAP version:

A ρ GAPqCSP ϕ consists of m n-ary Boolean functions ϕ_1, \ldots, ϕ_m (constraints), where each function only depends on q inputs. We know that either ϕ is satisfiable or value(ϕ) < ρ , and want to differentiate between these cases.

 ρ GAPqCSP is NP-hard if for any $L \in NP$ there is a polytime computable function f mapping strings to instances of qCSP s.t.

- ▶ $x \in L \implies$ value(f(x)) = 1
- $x \notin L \Rightarrow \text{value}(f(x)) < \rho$

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We reduce 3SAT to ρ GAPqCSP.

3SAT has a PCP system in which the verifier makes a constant number of queries (q), and uses $c \log n$ random bits (for some c).

For input x and $r \in \{0, 1\}^{c \log n}$ define

- V_{x,r} as function that maps a proof π to the result (0/1) computed by the verifier when using proof π, instance x and random coins r.
- $V_{x,r}$ only depends on q bits of the proof

For any x the collection ϕ of the $V_{x,r}$'s over all r is polynomial size qCSP.

 ϕ can be computed in polynomial time.

Theorem 94 There exists constants q, ρ such that ρ GAPqCSP is I	NP-hard.
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 $x \in 3$ SAT $\Rightarrow \phi$ is satisfiable

$$x \notin 3$$
SAT \Rightarrow value $(\phi) \leq \frac{1}{2}$

This means that ρ GAP*q*CSP is NP-hard.

Suppose that ρ GAPqCSP is NP-hard for some constants q, ρ ($\rho < 1$).

Suppose you get an input x, and have to decide whether $x \in L$.

We get a verifier as follows.

We use the reduction to map an input x into an instance ϕ of q CSP.

The proof is considered to be an assignment to the variables.

We can check a random constraint ϕ_i by making q queries. If $x \in L$ the verifier accepts with probability 1.

Otw. at most a ρ fraction of constraints are satisfied by the proof, and the verifier accepts with probability at most ρ .

Hence, $L \in PCP_{1,\rho}(\log_2 m, q)$, where m is the number of constraints.

The following GAP-problem is NP-hard for any $\epsilon > 0$.

Given a graph G = (V, E) composed of m independent sets of size 3 (|V| = 3m). Distinguish between

• the graph has a CLIQUE of size m

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• the largest CLIQUE has size at most $(7/8 + \epsilon)m$

Theorem 95

For any positive constants $\epsilon, \delta > 0$, it is the case that $NP \subseteq PCP_{1-\epsilon,1/2+\delta}(\log n, 3)$, and the verifier is restricted to use only the functions odd and even.

It is NP-hard to approximate an ODD/EVEN constraint satisfaction problem by a factor better than $1/2 + \delta$, for any constant δ .

Theorem 96

For any positive constant $\delta > 0$, NP \subseteq PCP_{1,7/8+ δ}($\mathcal{O}(\log n), 3$) and the verifier is restricted to use only functions that check the OR of three bits or their negations.

It is NP-hard to approximate 3SAT better than $7/8 + \delta$.

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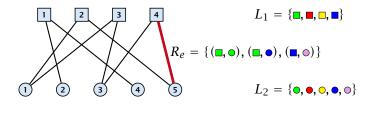
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Label Cover

Input:

- bipartite graph $G = (V_1, V_2, E)$
- \blacktriangleright label sets L_1, L_2
- ► for every edge $(u, v) \in E$ a relation $R_{u,v} \subseteq L_1 \times L_2$ that describe assignments that make the edge *happy*.
- maximize number of happy edges



Label Cover

- an instance of label cover is (d₁, d₂)-regular if every vertex in L₁ has degree d₁ and every vertex in L₂ has degree d₂.
- if every vertex has the same degree d the instance is called d-regular

Minimization version:

- assign a set L_x ⊆ L₁ of labels to every node x ∈ L₁ and a set L_y ⊆ L₂ to every node x ∈ L₂
- ▶ make sure that for every edge (x, y) there is $\ell_x \in L_x$ and $\ell_y \in L_y$ s.t. $(\ell_x, \ell_y) \in R_{x,y}$
- minimize $\sum_{x \in L_1} |L_x| + \sum_{y \in L_2} |L_y|$ (total labels used)

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MAX E3SAT via Label Cover

Lemma 97

If we can satisfy k out of m clauses in ϕ we can make at least 3k + 2(m - k) edges happy.

Proof:

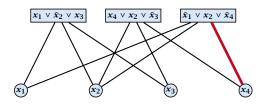
- for V₂ use the setting of the assignment that satisfies k clauses
- for satisfied clauses in V₁ use the corresponding assignment to the clause-variables (gives 3k happy edges)
- for unsatisfied clauses flip assignment of one of the variables; this makes one incident edge unhappy (gives 2(m k) happy edges)

MAX E3SAT via Label Cover

instance:

 $\Phi(x) = (x_1 \lor \bar{x}_2 \lor x_3) \land (x_4 \lor x_2 \lor \bar{x}_3) \land (\bar{x}_1 \lor x_2 \lor \bar{x}_4)$

corresponding graph:



label sets: $L_1 = \{T, F\}^3, L_2 = \{T, F\}$ (*T*=true, *F*=false)

relation: $R_{C,x_i} = \{((u_i, u_j, u_k), u_i)\}$, where the clause *C* is over variables x_i, x_j, x_k and assignment (u_i, u_j, u_k) satisfies *C*

$$\begin{split} R &= \{ ((F,F,F),F), ((F,T,F),F), ((F,F,T),T), ((F,T,T),T), \\ &\quad ((T,T,T),T), ((T,T,F),F), ((T,F,F),F) \} \end{split}$$

MAX E3SAT via Label Cover

Lemma 98

If we can satisfy at most k clauses in Φ we can make at most 3k + 2(m - k) = 2m + k edges happy.

Proof:

- the labeling of nodes in V₂ gives an assignment
- every unsatisfied clause in this assignment cannot be assigned a label that satisfies all 3 incident edges
- hence at most 3m (m k) = 2m + k edges are happy

Hardness for Label Cover

We cannot distinguish between the following two cases

- all 3m edges can be made happy
- ► at most $2m + (7/8 + \epsilon)m \approx (\frac{23}{8} + \epsilon)m$ out of the 3m edges can be made happy

Hence, we cannot obtain an approximation constant $lpha$ > γ	$\frac{23}{24}$	-
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Here α is a constant!!! Maybe a guarantee of the form $\frac{23}{8} + \frac{1}{m}$ is possible.

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Regular instances

Theorem 100

If for a particular constant $\alpha < 1$ there is an α -approximation algorithm for Label Cover on 15-regular instances than P=NP.

Given a label ℓ_1 for $x \in V_1$ there is at most one label ℓ_2 for y that makes (x, y) happy. (uniqueness property)

Theorem 99

(3, 5)-regular instances

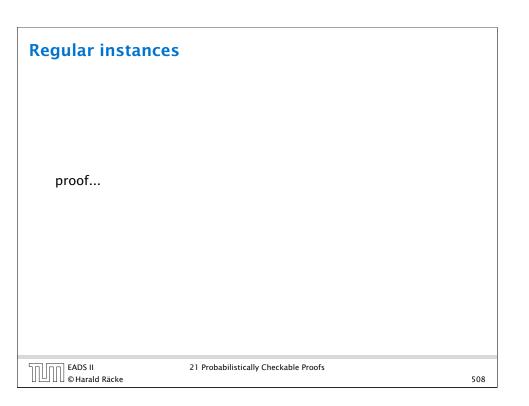
There is a constant ρ s.t. MAXE3SAT is hard to approximate with a factor of ρ even if restricted to instances where a variable appears in exactly 5 clauses.

Then our reduction has the following properties:

- ▶ the resulting Label Cover instance is (3, 5)-regular
- it is hard to approximate for a constant $\alpha < 1$
- ▶ given a label ℓ₁ for x there is at most one label ℓ₂ for y that makes edge (x, y) happy (uniqueness property)

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Boosting

Given Label Cover instance I with $G = (V_1, V_2, E)$, label sets L_1 and L_2 we construct a new instance I':

- $\blacktriangleright V_1' = V_1^k = V_1 \times \cdots \times V_1$
- $\blacktriangleright V_2' = V_2^k = V_2 \times \cdots \times V_2$
- $\blacktriangleright L_1' = L_1^k = L_1 \times \cdots \times L_1$
- $\blacktriangleright L'_2 = L_2^k = L_2 \times \cdots \times L_2$
- $\blacktriangleright E' = E^k = E \times \cdots \times E$

An edge $((x_1, \ldots, x_k), (y_1, \ldots, y_k))$ whose end-points are labelled by $(\ell_1^{\chi}, \dots, \ell_k^{\chi})$ and $(\ell_1^{\mathcal{Y}}, \dots, \ell_k^{\mathcal{Y}})$ is happy if $(\ell_i^{\chi}, \ell_i^{\gamma}) \in R_{\chi_i, \gamma_i}$ for all *i*.

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Theorem 102

There are constants c > 0, $\delta < 1$ s.t. for any k we cannot distinguish regular instances for Label Cover in which either

- OPT(I) = |E|, or
- OPT(I) = $|E|(1-\delta)^{\frac{ck}{\log 10}}$

unless each problem in NP has an algorithm running in time $\mathcal{O}(n^{\mathcal{O}(k)}).$

Corollary 103

There is no α -approximation for Label Cover for any constant α .

Boosting

If I is regular than also I'.

If I has the uniqueness property than also I'.

Theorem 101 There is a constant c > 0 such if $OPT(I) = |E|(1 - \delta)$ then $OPT(I') \leq |E'|(1-\delta)^{\frac{ck}{\log L}}$, where $L = |L_1| + |L_2|$ denotes total number of labels in I.

proof is highly non-trivial

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Set Cover

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Theorem 104

There exist regular Label Cover instances s.t. we cannot distinguish whether

▶ all edges are satisfiable, or

• at most a $1/\log^2(|L_2||E|)$ -fraction is satisfiable

unless NP-problems have algorithms with running time $\mathcal{O}(n^{\mathcal{O}(\log \log n)}).$

choose
$$k = \frac{2\log 10}{c} \log_{1/(1-\delta)} (\log(|L_2||E|)) = \mathcal{O}(\log \log n)$$

Set Cover

Partition System (s, t, h)

- universe U of size s
- ► t pairs of sets $(A_1, \bar{A}_1), \dots, (A_t, \bar{A}_t);$ $A_i \subseteq U, \bar{A}_i = U \setminus A_i$
- choosing from any *h* pairs only one of A_i, A_i we do not cover the whole set U

For any *h*, *t* with $h \le t$ there exist systems with $s = |U| \le 2^{2h+2}t^2$.

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Suppose that we can make all edges happy.

Choose sets $S_{u,i}$'s and $S_{v,j}$'s, where *i* is the label we assigned to *u*, and *j* the label for *v*. ($|V_1| + |V_2|$ sets)

For an edge (u, v), $S_{v,j}$ contains $\{(u, v)\} \times A_j$. For a happy edge $S_{u,i}$ contains $\{(u, v)\} \times \bar{A}_j$.

Since all edges are happy we have covered the whole universe.

Set Cover

Given a Label Cover instance we construct a Set Cover instance;

The universe is $E \times U$, where U is the universe of some partition system; ($t = |L_2|$, $h = (\log |E||L_2|)$)

for all $v \in V_2$, $j \in L_2$

$$S_{v,j} = \{((u,v),a) \mid (u,v) \in E, a \in A_j\}$$

for all $u \in V_1$, $i \in L_1$

 $S_{u,i} = \{((u,v),a) \mid (u,v) \in E, a \in \bar{A}_j, \text{ where } (i,j) \in R_{(u,v)}\}$

note that $S_{u,i}$ is well-defined because of the uniqueness property

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Lemma 105

Given a solution to the set cover instance using at most $\frac{h}{8}(|V_1| + |V_2|)$ sets we can find a solution to the Label Cover instance satisfying at least $\frac{2}{h^2}|E|$ edges.

- n_u : number of $S_{u,i}$'s in cover
- n_v : number of $S_{v,i}$'s in cover
- at most 1/4 of the vertices can have $n_u, n_v \ge h/2$; mark these vertices
- at least half of the edges have both end-points unmarked, as the graph is regular
- for such an edge (u, v) we must have chosen $S_{u,i}$ and a corresponding $S_{v,i}$, s.t. $(i, j) \in R_{u,v}$ (making (u, v) happy)
- we choose a random label for u from the (at most h/2) chosen $S_{u,i}$ -sets and a random label for v from the (at most h/2) $S_{v,i}$ -sets
- (u, v) gets happy with probability at least $4/h^2$
- hence we make an $2/h^2$ -fraction of edges happy

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Given label cover instance (V_1, V_2, E) , label sets L_1 and L_2 ;

Set $h = \log(|E||L_2|)$ and $t = |L_2|$; Size of partition system is

 $s = |U| = 2^{2h+2}t^2 = 4(|E||L_2|)^2|L_2|^2 = 4|E|^2|L_2|^4$

The size of the ground set is then

 $N = |E||U| = 4|E|^3|L_2|^4 \le (|E||L_2|)^4$

for sufficiently large |E|. Then $h \ge \frac{1}{4} \log N$.

If we get an instance where all edges are satisfiable there exists a cover of size only $|V_1| + |V_2|$.

If we find a cover of size at most $\frac{h}{8}(|V_1| + |V_2|)$ we can use this to satisfy at least a fraction of $2/h^2 \ge 1/\log^2(|E||L_2|)$ of the edges. this is not possible...

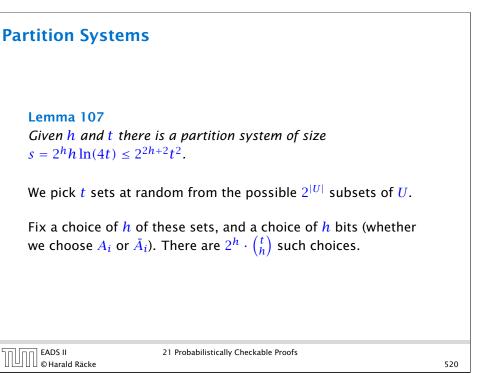
Set Cover

Theorem 106

There is no $\frac{1}{32} \log N$ -approximation for the unweighted Set Cover problem unless problems in NP can be solved in time $\mathcal{O}(n^{\mathcal{O}(\log \log n)}).$

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21 Probabilistically Checkable Proofs



What is the probability that a given choice covers U?

The probability that an element $u \in A_i$ is 1/2 (same for \overline{A}_i).

The probability that u is covered is $1 - \frac{1}{2^{h}}$.

The probability that all u are covered is $(1 - \frac{1}{2^{h}})^{s}$

The probability that there exists a choice such that all \boldsymbol{u} are covered is at most

 $\binom{t}{h} 2^h \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^h} \right)^s \le (2t)^h e^{-s/2^h} = (2t)^h \cdot e^{-h \ln(4t)} \le \frac{1}{2^h}$

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