SS 2017

Efficient Algorithms and Data Structures II

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http://www14.in.tum.de/lehre/2017SS/ea/

Summer Term 2017



Part I

Organizational Matters



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
 Wed 12:15-13:45 (Room 00.13.009A)
 Fri 10:15-11:45 (MS HS3)
- Webpage: http://www14.in.tum.de/lehre/2017SS/ea/



The Lecturer

- Harald Räcke
- Email: raecke@in.tum.de
- Room: 03.09.044
- Office hours: (per appointment)



Tutorials

Tutor:

- Richard Stotz
- stotz@tum.de
- Room: 03.09.057
- per appointment
- Room: 03.11.018
- Time: Wed 16:00-17:30



Assessment

In order to pass the module you need to pass an exam.

- Exam:
 - 2.5 hours
 - Date will be announced shortly.
 - There are no resources allowed, apart from a hand-written piece of paper (A4).
 - Answers should be given in English, but German is also accepted.



Assessment

- Assignment Sheets:
 - An assignment sheet is usually made available on Wednesday on the module webpage.
 - Solutions have to be handed in in the following week before the lecture on Wednesday.
 - You can hand in your solutions by putting them in the right folder in front of room 03.09.020.
 - Solutions have to be given in English.
 - Solutions will be discussed in the subsequent tutorial.
 - The first one will be out on Wednesday, 3 May.



1 Contents

Part 1: Linear Programming

Part 2: Approximation Algorithms



2 Literatur



V. Chvatal:

Linear Programming, Freeman, 1983



R. Seidel:

Skript Optimierung, 1996

- D. Bertsimas and J.N. Tsitsiklis: Introduction to Linear Optimization, Athena Scientific, 1997

Vijay V. Vazirani: Approximation Algorithms,

Springer 2001



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



Part II

Linear Programming



Brewery Problem

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	



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



⇒ 776€

Brewery Problem

Linear Program

- 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	+	23b
s.t.	5a	+	$15b \leq 480$
	4 <i>a</i>	+	$4b \leq 160$
	35a	+	$20b \leq 1190$
l			$a, b \geq 0$



LP in standard form:

- input: numbers a_{ij} , c_j , b_i
- output: numbers x_j
- n =#decision variables, m = #constraints
- maximize linear objective function subject to linear (in)equalities



Original LP

max	13a	+	23 <i>b</i>	
s.t.	5 <i>a</i>	+	15 b	≤ 480
	4 <i>a</i>	+	4b	≤ 160
	35a	+	20 <i>b</i>	≤ 1190
			a,b	≥ 0

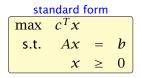
Standard Form

Add a slack variable to every constraint.

max	13a	+	23 <i>b</i>							
s.t.	5 <i>a</i>	+	15 <i>b</i>	+	S_C					= 480
	4 <i>a</i>	+	4b			+	S_h			= 160
	35a	+	20 <i>b</i>					+	s_m	= 1190
	а	,	b	,	S_C	,	s_h	,	s_m	≥ 0

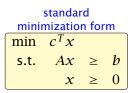


There are different standard forms:



standard						
maximization form						
$\max c^T x$						
s.t.	Ax	\leq	b			
	X	\geq	0			

min	$c^T x$		
s.t.	Ax	=	b
	X	\geq	0





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:

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



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

equality to less or equal:

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

equality to greater or equal:

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

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

unrestricted to nonnegative:

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



Observations:

- a linear program does not contain x^2 , $\cos(x)$, etc.
- transformations between standard forms can be done efficiently and only change the size of the LP by a small constant factor
- for the standard minimization or maximization LPs we could include the nonnegativity constraints into the set of ordinary constraints; this is of course not possible for the standard form



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:

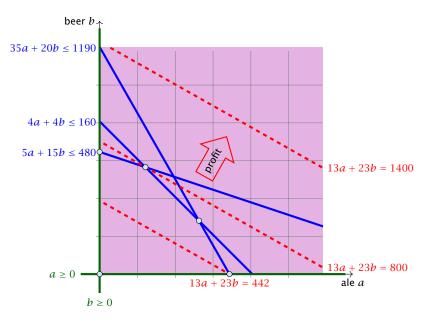
- Is LP in NP?
- Is LP in co-NP?
- Is LP in P?

Input size:

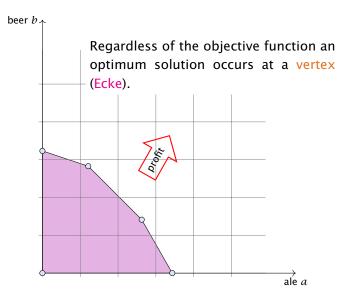
n number of variables, m constraints, L number of bits to encode the input



Geometry of Linear Programming



Geometry of Linear Programming



Let for a Linear Program in standard form $P = \{x \mid Ax = b, x \ge 0\}.$

- ▶ *P* is called the feasible region (Lösungsraum) of the LP.
- A point $x \in P$ is called a feasible point (gültige Lösung).
- ► If $P \neq \emptyset$ then the LP is called feasible (erfüllbar). Otherwise, it is called infeasible (unerfüllbar).
- An LP is bounded (beschränkt) if it is feasible and
 - $c^T x < \infty$ for all $x \in P$ (for maximization problems)
 - $c^T x > -\infty$ for all $x \in P$ (for minimization problems)



Given vectors/points $x_1, \ldots, x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\sum \lambda_i x_i$ is called

- linear combination if $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$.
- affine combination if $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$.
- convex combination if $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sum_i \lambda_i = 1$ and $\lambda_i \ge 0$.
- conic combination if $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\lambda_i \ge 0$.

Note that a combination involves only finitely many vectors.



A set $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is called

- a linear subspace if it is closed under linear combinations.
- an affine subspace if it is closed under affine combinations.
- convex if it is closed under convex combinations.
- a convex cone if it is closed under conic combinations.

Note that an affine subspace is **not** a vector space



Given a set $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$.

- span(X) is the set of all linear combinations of X (linear hull, span)
- aff(X) is the set of all affine combinations of X (affine hull)
- conv(X) is the set of all convex combinations of X (convex hull)
- cone(X) is the set of all conic combinations of X (conic hull)



Definition 5 A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex if for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ we have

 $f(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \le \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y)$

Lemma 6 If $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, and $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ convex then also $O = \{x \in P \mid f(x) \le t\}$



Dimensions

Definition 7

The dimension dim(*A*) of an affine subspace $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is the dimension of the vector space $\{x - a \mid x \in A\}$, where $a \in A$.

Definition 8

The dimension $\dim(X)$ of a convex set $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is the dimension of its affine hull $\operatorname{aff}(X)$.



Definition 9 A set $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a hyperplane if $H = \{x \mid a^T x = b\}$, for $a \neq 0$.

Definition 10 A set $H' \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a (closed) halfspace if $H = \{x \mid a^T x \le b\}$, for $a \ne 0$.



Definition 11

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 |X| = c.



Definition 12

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

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

Definition 13 A polyhedron *P* is bounded if there exists *B* s.t. $||x||_2 \le B$ for all $x \in P$.



Theorem 14

P is a bounded polyhedron iff P is a polytop.



Definition 15 Let $P \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$. The hyperplane

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

is a supporting hyperplane of *P* if $\max\{a^T x \mid x \in P\} = b$.

Definition 16

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 17

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

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



Equivalent definition for vertex:

Definition 18

Given polyhedron *P*. A point $x \in P$ is a vertex if $\exists c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $c^T y < c^T x$, for all $y \in P$, $y \neq x$.

Definition 19

Given polyhedron *P*. A point $x \in P$ is an extreme point if $\nexists a, b \neq x, a, b \in P$, with $\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b = x$ for $\lambda \in [0, 1]$.

Lemma 20

A vertex is also an extreme point.



Observation

The feasible region of an LP is a Polyhedron.



Convex Sets

Theorem 21

If there exists an optimal solution to an LP (in standard form) then there exists an optimum solution that is an extreme point.

Proof

- suppose x is optimal solution that is not extreme point
- 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 $x + \lambda d$, $\lambda > 0$



Convex Sets

Case 1. $[\exists j \text{ s.t. } d_j < 0]$

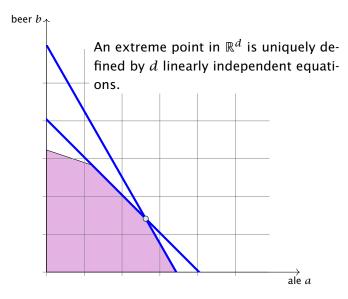
- increase λ to λ' until first component of $x + \lambda d$ hits 0
- $x + \lambda' d$ is feasible. Since $A(x + \lambda' d) = b$ and $x + \lambda' d \ge 0$
- $x + \lambda' d$ has one more zero-component ($d_k = 0$ for $x_k = 0$ as $x \pm d \in P$)
- $c^T x' = c^T (x + \lambda' d) = c^T x + \lambda' c^T d \ge c^T x$

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 $c^T d > 0$



Algebraic View



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



Theorem 22

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

Proof (⇐)

- assume x is not extreme point
- 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
- $d_j = 0$ for all j with $x_j = 0$ as $x \pm d \ge 0$
- Hence, $B' \subseteq B$, $A_{B'}$ is sub-matrix of A_B



Theorem 22 Let $P = \{x \mid Ax = b, x \ge 0\}$. For $x \in P$, define $B = \{j \mid x_j > 0\}$. Then x is extreme point **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 extreme point



Theorem 23

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

• define
$$c_j = \begin{cases} 0 & j \in B \\ -1 & j \notin B \end{cases}$$

- then $c^T x = 0$ and $c^T y \le 0$ for $y \in P$
- assume $c^T \gamma = 0$; then $\gamma_j = 0$ for all $j \notin B$
- $b = Ay = A_By_B = Ax = A_Bx_B$ gives that $A_B(x_B y_B) = 0$;
- this means that $x_B = y_B$ since A_B has linearly independent columns
- we get y = x
- hence, x is a vertex of P



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 xthat fulfill constraints A_2, \ldots, A_m we have

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

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



Theorem 24

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

- 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.



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 $A_B x_B = b$ and $x_j = 0$ for all $j \notin B$ is the basic solution associated to basis B (die zu *B* assoziierte Basislösung)



A BFS fulfills the m equality constraints.

In addition, at least n - m of the x_i 's are zero. The corresponding non-negativity constraint is fulfilled with equality.

Fact:

In a BFS at least n constraints are fulfilled with equality.



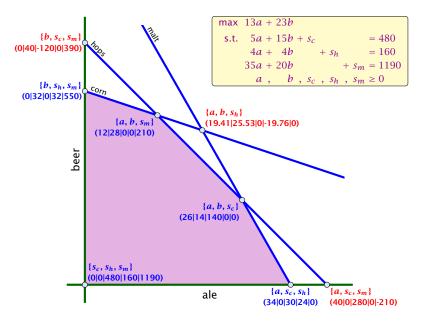
Basic Feasible Solutions

Definition 25

For a general LP (max{ $c^T x | Ax \le b$ }) with n variables a point x is a basic feasible solution if x is feasible and there exist n (linearly independent) constraints that are tight.



Algebraic View



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⁻¹_Bb in polynomial time; then we can also compute the profit.



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

What happens if LP is unbounded?



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.



4 Simplex Algorithm

 $\begin{array}{ll} \max \ 13a + 23b \\ \text{s.t.} \ 5a + 15b + s_c &= 480 \\ 4a + 4b &+ s_h &= 160 \\ 35a + 20b &+ s_m = 1190 \\ a , b , s_c , s_h , s_m \ge 0 \end{array}$

max Z		basis = {
$13a + 23b \qquad -Z = 0$		A = B =
$5a + 15b + s_c = 480$		Z = 0
		$s_c = 480$
$4a + 4b + s_h = 160$		$s_h = 160$
$35a + 20b + s_m = 1190$		$s_m = 119$
a , b , s_c , s_h , $s_m \ge 0$	ļ	<u></u>

basis =
$$\{s_c, s_h, s_m\}$$

 $A = B = 0$
 $Z = 0$
 $s_c = 480$
 $s_h = 160$
 $s_m = 1190$



Pivoting Step

max Z	
13a + 23b	-Z=0
$5a + 15b + s_c$	= 480
$4a + 4b + s_h$	= 160
$35a + 20b + s_m$	= 1190
a, b, s _c , s _h , s _m	≥ 0

basis =
$$\{s_c, s_h, s_m\}$$

 $a = b = 0$
 $Z = 0$
 $s_c = 480$
 $s_h = 160$
 $s_m = 1190$

- 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		basis = $\{s_c, s_h, s_m\}$
13 <i>a</i> + 23 b	-Z = 0	a = b = 0
5a + 15 b + s c	= 480	Z = 0
$4a + 4b + s_h$	= 160	$s_c = 480$
$35a + 20b + s_m$	= 1190	$s_h = 160$ $s_m = 1190$
a, b, s_c, s_h, s_m	≥ 0	

- 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.

max Z	
13 <i>a</i> + 23 b	-Z = 0
$5a + 15b + s_c$	= 480
$4a + 4b + s_h$	= 160
$35a + 20b + s_m$	= 1190
a, b, s_c, s_h, s_m	≥ 0

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

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

 $\max Z$ $\frac{16}{3}a - \frac{23}{15}s_{c} - Z = -736$ $\frac{1}{3}a + b + \frac{1}{15}s_{c} = 32$ $\frac{8}{3}a - \frac{4}{15}s_{c} + s_{h} = 32$ $\frac{85}{3}a - \frac{4}{3}s_{c} + s_{m} = 550$ $a, b, s_{c}, s_{h}, s_{m} \ge 0$

basis =
$$\{b, s_h, s_m\}$$

 $a = s_c = 0$
 $Z = 736$
 $b = 32$
 $s_h = 32$
 $s_m = 550$

max Z	
$\frac{16}{3}a - \frac{23}{15}s_c - Z = -736$	basis = $\{b, s_h, s_m\}$
$\frac{16}{3}a - \frac{23}{15}s_c - Z = -736$	$a = s_c = 0$
$\frac{1}{3}a + b + \frac{1}{15}s_c = 32$	Z = 736
5 15	1 22
$\frac{8}{3}a - \frac{4}{15}s_c + s_h = 32$	b = 32
5 10	$s_h = 32$
$\frac{85}{3}a - \frac{4}{3}s_c + s_m = 550$	$s_m = 550$
a , b , s_c , s_h , $s_m \ge 0$	

Choose variable *a* to bring into basis.

Computing min{3 · 32, 3·32/8, 3·550/85} means pivot on line 2. Substitute $a = \frac{3}{8}(32 + \frac{4}{15}s_c - s_h)$.

basis = $\{a, b, s_m\}$ $s_c = s_h = 0$ Z = 800 b = 28 a = 12 $s_m = 210$

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



Matrix View

Let our linear program be

$$c_B^T x_B + c_N^T x_N = Z$$

$$A_B x_B + A_N x_N = b$$

$$x_B , x_N \ge 0$$

The simplex tableaux for basis *B* is

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

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

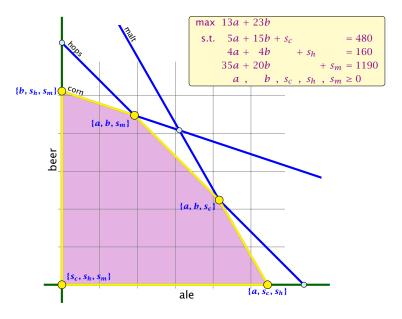
$$x_{B} , \qquad x_{N} \ge 0$$

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.

EADS II Harald Räcke 4 Simplex Algorithm

Geometric View 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 $d_B = -A_B^{-1}A_{*j}$.



Definition 26 (*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 $x^* + \theta \cdot d$ the objective function changes by

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



Definition 27 (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.



Let our linear program be

$$c_B^T x_B + c_N^T x_N = Z$$

$$A_B x_B + A_N x_N = b$$

$$x_B , x_N \ge 0$$

The simplex tableaux for basis B is

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

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

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

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.

EADS II Harald Räcke 4 Simplex Algorithm

4 Simplex Algorithm

Questions:

- 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?



Min Ratio Test

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

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

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

Does it always increase?



Termination

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).

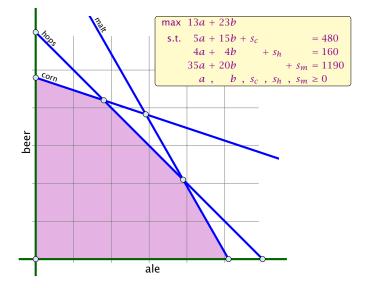
Definition 28 (Degeneracy)

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

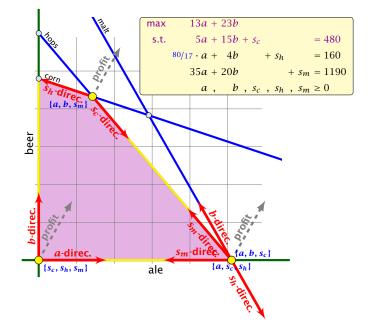
It is possible that the algorithm cycles, i.e., it cycles through a sequence of different bases without ever terminating. Happens, very rarely in practise.



Non Degenerate Example



Degenerate Example



Summary: How to choose pivot-elements

- We can choose a column *e* as an entering variable if *c̃_e* > 0 (*c̃_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_l/A_{le} 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?

- $Ax \leq b, x \geq 0$, and $b \geq 0$.
- 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?



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.



Optimality

Lemma 29

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.



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.



Duality

Definition 30

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.



Duality

Lemma 31

The dual of the dual problem is the primal problem.

Proof:

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

•
$$w = -\max\{-b^T \gamma \mid -A^T \gamma \leq -c, \gamma \geq 0\}$$

The dual problem is

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



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 32 (Weak Duality)

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

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



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 $c^T \hat{x} = z$, and dual feasible \hat{y} with $b^T y = w$ we get $z \le w$.

If P is unbounded then D is infeasible.



5.2 Simplex and Duality

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.



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:

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

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

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

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



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 $A^T (A_B^{-1})^T c_B \ge c$

 $y^{*} = (A_{B}^{-1})^{T} c_{B} \text{ is solution to the dual } \min\{b^{T} y | A^{T} y \ge c\}.$ $b^{T} y^{*} = (A x^{*})^{T} y^{*} = (A_{B} x^{*}_{B})^{T} y^{*}$ $= (A_{B} x^{*}_{B})^{T} (A^{-1}_{B})^{T} c_{B} = (x^{*}_{B})^{T} A^{T}_{B} (A^{-1}_{B})^{T} c_{B}$ $= c^{T} x^{*}$

Hence, the solution is optimal.



5.3 Strong Duality

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

 n_A : number of variables, m_A : number of constraints

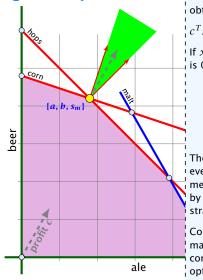
We can put the non-negativity constraints into A (which gives us unrestricted variables): $\bar{P} = \max\{c^T x \mid \bar{A}x \leq \bar{b}\}$

 $n_{ar{A}}=n_A$, $m_{ar{A}}=m_A+n_A$

Dual $D = \min\{\bar{b}^T \gamma \mid \bar{A}^T \gamma = c, \gamma \ge 0\}.$



5.3 Strong Duality



If we have a conic combination y of c then $b^T y$ is an upper bound of the profit we can obtain (weak duality):

$$c^T x = (\bar{A}^T y)^T x = y^T \bar{A} x \le y^T \bar{b}$$

If x and y are optimal then the duality gap is 0 (strong duality). This means

$$0 = c^T x - y^T \bar{b}$$

= $(\bar{A}^T y)^T x - y^T \bar{b}$
= $y^T (\bar{A}x - \bar{b})$

The last term can only be 0 if y_i is 0 whenever the *i*-th constraint is not tight. This means we have a conic combination of *c* by normals (columns of \tilde{A}^T) of *tight* constraints.

Conversely, if we have x such that the normals of tight constraint (at x) give rise to a conic combination of c, we know that x is optimal.

The profit vector c lies in the cone generated by the normals for the hops and the corn constraint (the tight constraints).

Strong Duality

Theorem 33 (Strong Duality)

Let P and D be a primal dual pair of linear programs, and let z^* and w^* denote the optimal solution to P and D, respectively. Then

 $z^* = w^*$



Lemma 34 (Weierstrass)

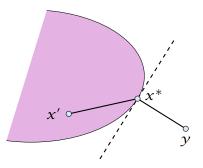
Let X be a compact set and let f(x) be a continuous function on X. Then $\min\{f(x) : x \in X\}$ exists.

(without proof)



Lemma 35 (Projection Lemma)

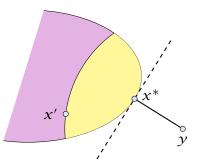
Let $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ be a non-empty convex set, and let $y \notin X$. Then there exist $x^* \in X$ with minimum distance from y. Moreover for all $x \in X$ we have $(y - x^*)^T (x - x^*) \le 0$.





Proof of the Projection Lemma

- 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.





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 $0 \le \epsilon \le 1$.

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

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

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



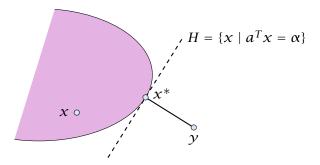
Theorem 36 (Separating Hyperplane)

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 $x \in X$)



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, $a^T y = a^T (x^* a) = \alpha ||a||^2 < \alpha$





Lemma 37 (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 $A^T y \ge 0$, $b^T y < 0$

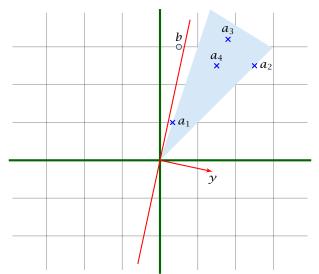
Assume \hat{x} satisfies 1. and \hat{y} satisfies 2. Then

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

Hence, at most one of the statements can hold.



Farkas Lemma



If b is not in the cone generated by the columns of A, there exists a hyperplane y that separates b from the cone.

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.

Lemma 38 (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. $\exists y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ with $A^T y \ge 0$, $b^T y < 0$, $y \ge 0$

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 $\begin{bmatrix} A^T \\ I \end{bmatrix} y \ge 0, b^T y < 0$



Proof of Strong Duality

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

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

Theorem 39 (Strong Duality)

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

z = w .

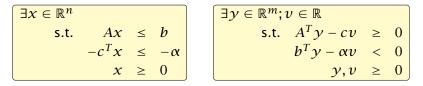


Proof of Strong Duality

 $z \leq w$: follows from weak duality

 $z \geq w$:

We show $z < \alpha$ implies $w < \alpha$.



From the definition of α we know that the first system is infeasible; hence the second must be feasible.



Proof of Strong Duality

$$\exists y \in \mathbb{R}^{m}; v \in \mathbb{R}$$

s.t. $A^{T}y - cv \geq 0$
 $b^{T}y - \alpha v < 0$
 $y, v \geq 0$

If the solution y, v has v = 0 we have that

$$\exists y \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

s.t. $A^T y \ge 0$
 $b^T y < 0$
 $y \ge 0$

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



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 feasible for the dual but $b^T y < \alpha$. This means that $w < \alpha$.



Fundamental Questions

Definition 40 (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 $\alpha > opt(P)$.
- 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.</p>

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Complementary Slackness

Lemma 41

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.



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.

$$\sum_{j} (\mathcal{Y}^T A - c^T)_j x_j^* = 0$$

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.



Interpretation of Dual Variables

Brewer: find mix of ale and beer that maximizes profits

 $\max 13a + 23b$ s.t. $5a + 15b \le 480$ $4a + 4b \le 160$ $35a + 20b \le 1190$ $a, b \ge 0$

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

min	480 <i>C</i>	+	160H	+	1190M	
s.t.	5 <i>C</i>	+	4H	+	35 <i>M</i>	≥ 13
	15 <i>C</i>	+	4H	+	20M	≥ 23
					C, H, M	≥ 0

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

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

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \min & (b^T + \epsilon^T)y \\ \text{s.t.} & A^Ty \geq c \\ & y \geq 0 \end{array}$$



5.4 Interpretation of Dual Variables

Interpretation of Dual Variables

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

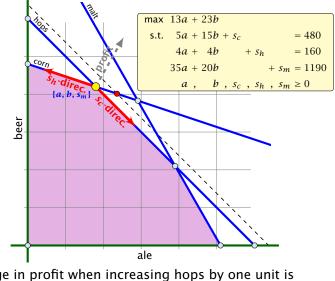
Therefore we can interpret the dual variables as marginal prices.

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.



Example



The change in profit when increasing hops by one unit is $=\underbrace{c_B^T A_B^{-1}}_{\gamma^*}e_h.$ 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.



Flows

Definition 42

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 $v \in V \setminus \{s, t\}$

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

(flow conservation constraints)



Flows

Definition 43 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.



max		$\sum_{z} f_{sz} - \sum_{z} f_{zs}$			
s.t.	$\forall (z, w) \in V \times V$	f_{zw}	\leq	C_{ZW}	ℓ_{zw}
	$\forall w \neq s, t$	$\sum_{z} f_{zw} - \sum_{z} f_{wz}$	=	0	p_w
		f_{zw}	\geq	0	

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	
	$f_{sy}(y \neq s,t)$:	$1\ell_{sy}$ $+1p_y$	\geq	1	
	$f_{xs} (x \neq s, t)$:	$1\ell_{xs}-1p_x$	\geq	-1	
	$f_{ty} (y \neq s, t)$:	$1\ell_{ty}$ $+1p_y$	\geq	0	
	$f_{xt} (x \neq s, t)$:	$1\ell_{xt}-1p_x$	\geq	0	
	f_{st} :	$1\ell_{st}$	\geq	1	
	f_{ts} :	$1\ell_{ts}$	\geq	-1	
		ℓ_{xy}	\geq	0	





with $p_t = 0$ and $p_s = 1$.



We can interpret the ℓ_{xy} value as assigning a length to every edge.

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 ($d(x,t) \leq d(x,y) + d(y,t) \Rightarrow d(x,t) \leq \ell_{xy} + d(y,t)$).



One can show that there is an optimum LP-solution for the dual problem that gives an integral assignment of variables.

This means $p_{\chi} = 1$ or $p_{\chi} = 0$ 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.

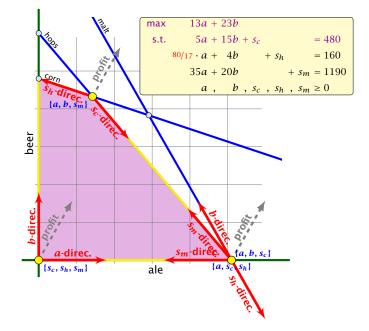
Idea:

Change LP := $\max\{c^Tx, Ax = b; x \ge 0\}$ into LP' := $\max\{c^Tx, Ax = b', x \ge 0\}$ 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



Degenerate Example



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



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.



Property I

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

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



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 $\epsilon > 0$

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

Hence, \tilde{B} is not feasible.



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.

$$A_{\tilde{B}}^{-1}A_B$$
 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.



Since, there are no degeneracies Simplex will terminate when run on $\mathrm{LP}^\prime.$

If it terminates because the reduced cost vector fulfills

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

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 $\tilde{c}_j > 0$ for which the *j*-th basis direction *d*, fulfills $d \ge 0$ we know that LP' is unbounded. The basis direction does not depend on *b*. Hence, we also know that LP is unbounded.



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.



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.



In the following we assume that $b \ge 0$. This can be obtained by replacing the initial system $(A \mid b)$ 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

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



Matrix View

Let our linear program be

$$c_B^T x_B + c_N^T x_N = Z$$

$$A_B x_B + A_N x_N = b$$

$$x_B , x_N \ge 0$$

The simplex tableaux for basis *B* is

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

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

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

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.

EADS II Harald Räcke 6 Degeneracy Revisited

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

$$\theta_{\ell} = \frac{\hat{b}_{\ell}}{\hat{A}_{\ell e}} = \frac{(A_B^{-1}b)_{\ell}}{(A_B^{-1}A_{*e})_{\ell}} \ .$$

 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 $\ell = 2$.



Definition 44

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



 LP^\prime chooses an index that minimizes

$$\theta_{\ell} = \frac{\left(A_B^{-1}\left(b + \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon^m \end{pmatrix}\right)\right)_{\ell}}{(A_B^{-1}A_{*e})_{\ell}} = \frac{\left(A_B^{-1}(b \mid I) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \varepsilon \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon^m \end{pmatrix}\right)_{\ell}}{(A_B^{-1}A_{*e})_{\ell}}$$
$$= \frac{\ell \text{-th row of } A_B^{-1}(b \mid I)}{(A_B^{-1}A_{*e})_{\ell}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \varepsilon \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon^m \end{pmatrix}$$



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

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

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?



Number of Simplex Iterations

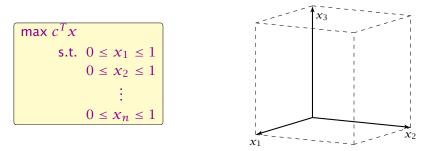
Observation

Simplex visits every feasible basis at most once.

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



Example

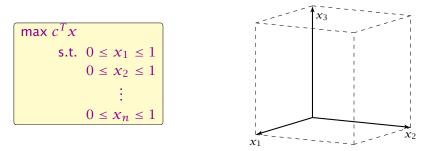


2n constraint on n variables define an n-dimensional hypercube as feasible region.

The feasible region has 2^n vertices.



Example



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.

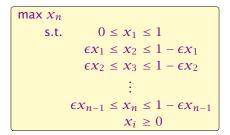


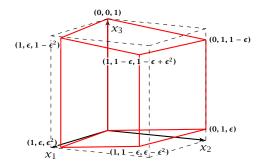
A Pivoting Rule defines how to choose the entering and leaving variable for an iteration of Simplex.

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



Klee Minty Cube





Observations

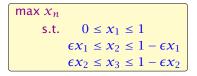
- ▶ We have 2*n* constraints, and 3*n* variables (after adding slack variables to every constraint).
- Every basis is defined by 2n variables, and n non-basic variables.
- There exist degenerate vertices.
- The degeneracies come from the non-negativity constraints, which are superfluous.
- In the following 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 $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$.

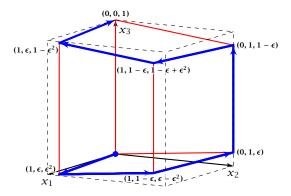
Analysis

- 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.



Klee Minty Cube





Analysis

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

$$(0, ..., 0, 0, 0)$$

$$\begin{cases} S_{n-1} \\ (0, ..., 0, 1, 0) \\ \downarrow \\ (0, ..., 0, 1, 1) \\ \vdots \\ S_{n-1}^{\text{rev}} \\ (0, ..., 0, 0, 1) \end{cases}$$

The non-recursive case is $S_1 = 0 \rightarrow 1$



Analysis

Lemma 45

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 ∈.
- 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} .

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.



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).



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).



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 O(poly(m, d)) is open.



- 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 $O(d! \cdot m)$, i.e., linear in m.



Setting:

We assume an LP of the form

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

• We assume that the LP is bounded.



Ensuring Conditions

Given a standard minimization LP

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

how can we obtain an LP of the required form?

Compute a lower bound on c^Tx for any basic feasible solution.



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



Theorem 46 (Cramers Rule)

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

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

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



Proof:

Define

$$X_{i} = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | & | & | \\ e_{1} \cdots e_{i-1} \mathbf{x} e_{i+1} \cdots e_{n} \\ | & | & | & | \end{pmatrix}$$

Note that expanding along the *i*-th column gives that $det(X_i) = x_i$.

Further, we have

$$MX_{j} = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | & | & | \\ Me_{1} \cdots Me_{i-1} & M\mathbf{X} & Me_{i+1} \cdots Me_{n} \\ | & | & | & | \end{pmatrix} = M_{i}$$

Hence,
$$x_{i} = \det(X_{i}) = \frac{\det(M_{i})}{\det(M)}$$



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} (for some *j*).

Observe that

 $|\det(C)| = \left| \sum_{\pi \in S_m} \operatorname{sgn}(\pi) \prod_{1 \le i \le m} C_{i\pi(i)} \right|$ $\leq \sum_{\pi \in S_m} \prod_{1 \le i \le m} |C_i - \mathbb{I}|^{-1} + \operatorname{Here sgn}(\pi) \text{ denotes the sign of the permutation, which is 1 if the permutation in a sequence of the permutation is 1 if the permutation. Sequence of the permutation is 1 if the permutation. The first identity is known as Leibniz formula.$



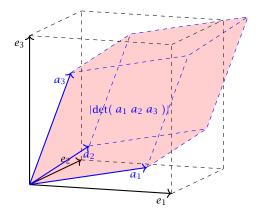
Bounding the Determinant

Alternatively, Hadamards inequality gives

$$|\det(C)| \le \prod_{i=1}^{m} ||C_{*i}|| \le \prod_{i=1}^{m} (\sqrt{m}Z)$$
$$\le m^{m/2} Z^m .$$



Hadamards Inequality



Hadamards inequality says that the volume of the red parallelepiped (Spat) is smaller than the volume in the black cube (if $||e_1|| = ||a_1||$, $||e_2|| = ||a_2||$, $||e_3|| = ||a_3||$).



Ensuring Conditions

Given a standard minimization LP

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.

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.



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 $c^T x \ge -(mZ)(m! \cdot Z^m) - 1.$



Algorithm 1 SeidelLP(\mathcal{H}, d)

- 1: if d = 1 then solve 1-dimensional problem and return;
- 2: if $\mathcal{H} = \emptyset$ then return x on implicit constraint hyperplane
- 3: choose random constraint $h \in \mathcal{H}$

4:
$$\hat{\mathcal{H}} \leftarrow \mathcal{H} \setminus \{h\}$$

- 5: $\hat{x}^* \leftarrow \text{SeidelLP}(\hat{\mathcal{H}}, d)$
- 6: **if** \hat{x}^* = infeasible **then return** infeasible
- 7: if \hat{x}^* fulfills h then return \hat{x}^*
- 8: // optimal solution fulfills h with equality, i.e., $a_h^T x = b_h$
- 9: solve $a_h^T x = b_h$ for some variable x_ℓ ;
- 10: eliminate x_ℓ in constraints from $\hat{\mathcal{H}}$ and in implicit constr.;
- 11: $\hat{x}^* \leftarrow \mathsf{SeidelLP}(\hat{\mathcal{H}}, d-1)$
- 12: **if** \hat{x}^* = infeasible **then**
- 13: return infeasible

14: else

15: add the value of x_ℓ to \hat{x}^* and return the solution

```
Note that for the case d = 1, the asymptotic bound O(\max\{m, 1\}) is valid also for the case m = 0.
```

- If d = 1 we can solve the 1-dimensional problem in time $O(\max\{m, 1\})$.
- 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 $\mathcal{O}(d(m+1)) = \mathcal{O}(dm)$ 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



This gives the recurrence

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

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



Let *C* be the largest constant in the O-notations.

$$T(m,d) = \begin{cases} C \max\{1,m\} & \text{if } d = 1\\ Cd & \text{if } d > 1 \text{ and } m = 0\\ Cd + T(m-1,d) + & \\ \frac{d}{m}(Cdm + T(m-1,d-1)) & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

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



Let *C* be the largest constant in the \mathcal{O} -notations.

We show $T(m, d) \leq Cf(d) \max\{1, m\}$.

d = 1:

 $T(m, 1) \le C \max\{1, m\} \le Cf(1) \max\{1, m\}$ for $f(1) \ge 1$

d > 1; m = 0: $T(0,d) \le O(d) \le Cd \le Cf(d) \max\{1,m\} \text{ for } f(d) \ge d$

d > 1; m = 1: T(1,d) = O(d) + T(0,d) + d(O(d) + T(0,d-1)) $\leq Cd + Cd + Cd^{2} + dCf(d-1)$ $\leq Cf(d) \max\{1,m\} \text{ for } f(d) \geq 3d^{2} + df(d-1)$

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



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

Then

$$\begin{split} f(d) &= 3d^2 + df(d-1) \\ &= 3d^2 + d\left[3(d-1)^2 + (d-1)f(d-2)\right] \\ &= 3d^2 + d\left[3(d-1)^2 + (d-1)\left[3(d-2)^2 + (d-2)f(d-3)\right]\right] \\ &= 3d^2 + 3d(d-1)^2 + 3d(d-1)(d-2)^2 + \dots \\ &+ 3d(d-1)(d-2) \cdot \dots \cdot 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1^2 \\ &= 3d! \left(\frac{d^2}{d!} + \frac{(d-1)^2}{(d-1)!} + \frac{(d-2)^2}{(d-2)!} + \dots\right) \\ &= \mathcal{O}(d!) \end{split}$$

since $\sum_{i\geq 1} \frac{i^2}{i!}$ is a constant.

$$\sum_{i \ge 1} \frac{i^2}{i!} = \sum_{i \ge 0} \frac{i+1}{i!} = e + \sum_{i \ge 1} \frac{i}{i!} = 2e$$



8 Seidels LP-algorithm

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.



9 The Ellipsoid 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.

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

- 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 $L = \Theta(\langle A \rangle + \langle b \rangle)$.

- In the following we sometimes refer to L := ⟨A⟩ + ⟨b⟩ as the input size (even though the real input size is something in Θ(⟨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).



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.

In the following we show that this x has small encoding length and we give an explicit bound on this length. So far we have only been handwaving and have said that we can compute x via Gaussian elimination and it will be short...



Size of a Basic Feasible Solution

Lemma 47

Let $M \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times m}$ be an invertible matrix and let $b \in \mathbb{Z}^m$. Further define $L = \langle M \rangle + \langle b \rangle + n \log_2 n$. 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.



Bounding the Determinant

Let $X = A_B$. Then $|\det(X)| = \left| \sum_{\pi \in S_n} \operatorname{sgn}(\pi) \prod_{1 \le i \le n} X_{i\pi(i)} \right|$ $\leq \sum_{\pi \in S_n} \prod_{1 \le i \le n} |X_{i\pi(i)}|$ $< n! \cdot 2^{\langle A \rangle + \langle b \rangle} < 2^L$.

Analogously for $det(M_j)$.



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 $\frac{1}{\det(A)} \ge \frac{1}{2^{L'}}$.

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

How do we detect whether the LP is unbounded?

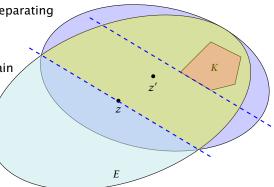
Let $M_{\text{max}} = n2^{2L'}$ be an upper bound on the objective value of a basic feasible solution.

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



Ellipsoid Method

- Let *K* be a convex set.
- Maintain ellipsoid E that is guaranteed to contain K provided that K is non-empty.
- If center $z \in K$ STOP.
- Otw. find a hyperplane separating K from z (e.g. a violated constraint in the LP).
- Shift hyperplane to contain node z. H denotes halfspace that contains K.
- Compute (smallest) ellipsoid E' that contains $E \cap H$.
- REPEAT





9 The Ellipsoid Algorithm

Issues/Questions:

- How do you choose the first Ellipsoid? What is its volume?
- 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?



Definition 48

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 49

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.



Definition 50

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

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

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

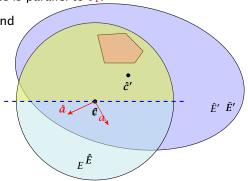
= $\{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid L^{-1}(y-t) \in B(0,1)\}$
= $\{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid (y-t)^T L^{-1} L^{-1}(y-t) \le 1\}$
= $\{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid (y-t)^T Q^{-1}(y-t) \le 1\}$

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



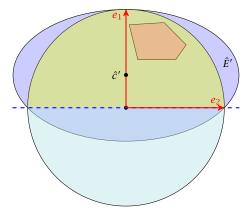
How to Compute the New Ellipsoid

- 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 e₁.
- Compute the new center ĉ' and the new matrix Q̂' for this simplified setting.
- Use the transformations *R* and *f* to get the new center *c'* and the new matrix *Q'* for the original ellipsoid *E*.





9 The Ellipsoid Algorithm



- The new center lies on axis x_1 . Hence, $\hat{c}' = te_1$ for t > 0.
- ► The vectors $e_1, e_2, ...$ have to fulfill the ellipsoid constraint with equality. Hence $(e_i \hat{c}')^T \hat{Q}'^{-1} (e_i \hat{c}') = 1$.

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- To obtain the matrix \hat{Q}'^{-1} for our ellipsoid \hat{E}' note that \hat{E}' is axis-parallel.
- Let a denote the radius along the x₁-axis and let b denote the (common) radius for the other axes.
- The matrix

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

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.



As $\hat{Q}' = \hat{L}' \hat{L}'^{t}$ the matrix \hat{Q}'^{-1} is of the form $\hat{Q}'^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a^{2}} & 0 & \dots & 0\\ 0 & \frac{1}{b^{2}} & \ddots & \vdots\\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0\\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \frac{1}{b^{2}} \end{pmatrix}$



•
$$(e_1 - \hat{c}')^T \hat{Q}'^{-1} (e_1 - \hat{c}') = 1$$
 gives

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 - t \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}^T \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a^2} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{b^2} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \cdots & 0 & \frac{1}{b^2} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 - t \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1$$

• This gives $(1 - t)^2 = a^2$.



For $i \neq 1$ the equation $(e_i - \hat{c}')^T \hat{Q}'^{-1} (e_i - \hat{c}') = 1$ looks like (here i = 2)

$$\begin{pmatrix} -t \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}^{T} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{a^{2}} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{b^{2}} & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & 0 \\ 0 & \dots & 0 & \frac{1}{b^{2}} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -t \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = 1$$

► This gives
$$\frac{t^2}{a^2} + \frac{1}{b^2} = 1$$
, and hence
 $\frac{1}{b^2} = 1 - \frac{t^2}{a^2} = 1 - \frac{t^2}{(1-t)^2} = \frac{1-2t}{(1-t)^2}$



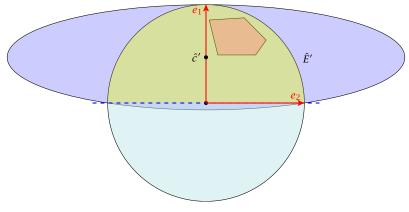
Summary

So far we have

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



We still have many choices for *t*:



Choose *t* such that the volume of \hat{E}' is minimal!!!



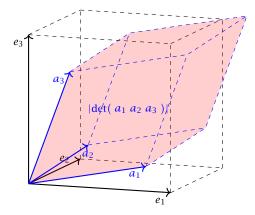
We want to choose t such that the volume of \hat{E}' is minimal.

Lemma 51 Let *L* be an affine transformation and $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

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



n-dimensional volume





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

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

Recall that

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

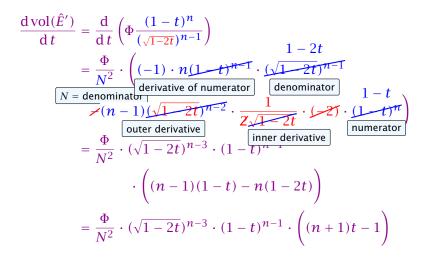
Note that a and b in the above equations depend on t, by the previous equations.

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

= $vol(B(0,1)) \cdot ab^{n-1}$
= $vol(B(0,1)) \cdot (1-t) \cdot \left(\frac{1-t}{\sqrt{1-2t}}\right)^{n-1}$
= $vol(B(0,1)) \cdot \frac{(1-t)^n}{(\sqrt{1-2t})^{n-1}}$

We use the shortcut $\Phi := \operatorname{vol}(B(0, 1))$.







• 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

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



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

$$y_n^2 = \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^2 \left(\frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1}\right)^{n-1}$$

= $\left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{(n-1)(n+1)}\right)^{n-1}$
 $\leq e^{-2\frac{1}{n+1}} \cdot e^{\frac{1}{n+1}}$
= $e^{-\frac{1}{n+1}}$

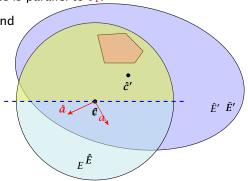
where we used $(1 + x)^a \le e^{ax}$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and a > 0.

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



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 e₁.
- Compute the new center ĉ' and the new matrix Q̂' for this simplified setting.
- Use the transformations *R* and *f* to get the new center *c'* and the new matrix *Q'* for the original ellipsoid *E*.





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*).



How to Compute The New Parameters?

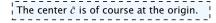
The transformation function of the (old) ellipsoid: f(x) = Lx + c;

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 $\bar{a} = L^T a$.





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,

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

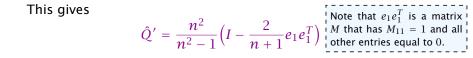
$$c' = f(\bar{c}') = L \cdot \bar{c}' + c$$
$$= -\frac{1}{n+1}L\frac{L^{T}a}{\|L^{T}a\|} + c$$
$$= c - \frac{1}{n+1}\frac{Qa}{\sqrt{a^{T}Qa}}$$

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.



Recall that

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



because for $a^2 = n^2/(n+1)^2$ and $b^2 = n^2/n^2-1$

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

$$\begin{split} \bar{E}' &= R(\hat{E}') \\ &= \{ R(x) \mid x^T \hat{Q}'^{-1} x \le 1 \} \\ &= \{ y \mid (R^{-1} y)^T \hat{Q}'^{-1} R^{-1} y \le 1 \} \\ &= \{ y \mid y^T (R^T)^{-1} \hat{Q}'^{-1} R^{-1} y \le 1 \} \\ &= \{ y \mid y^T (\underline{R} \hat{Q}' R^T)^{-1} y \le 1 \} \\ &= \{ y \mid y^T (\underline{R} \hat{Q}' R^T)^{-1} y \le 1 \} \end{split}$$



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Hence,

$$\begin{split} \hat{Q}' &= R\hat{Q}'R^T \\ &= R \cdot \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1} \Big(I - \frac{2}{n+1} e_1 e_1^T \Big) \cdot R^T \\ &= \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1} \Big(R \cdot R^T - \frac{2}{n+1} (Re_1) (Re_1)^T \Big) \\ &= \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1} \Big(I - \frac{2}{n+1} \frac{L^T a a^T L}{\|L^T a\|^2} \Big) \end{split}$$

Here we used the equation for Re_1 proved before, and the fact that $RR^T = I$, which holds for any rotation matrix. To see this observe that the length of a rotated vector x should not change, i.e.,

$$x^T I x = (Rx)^T (Rx) = x^T (R^T R) x$$

which means $x^T(I - R^T R)x = 0$ for every vector x. It is easy to see that this can only be fulfilled if $I - R^T R = 0$.

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$$E' = L(\bar{E}')$$

= {L(x) | $x^T \bar{Q}'^{-1} x \le 1$ }
= { y | $(L^{-1}y)^T \bar{Q}'^{-1} L^{-1} y \le 1$ }
= { y | $y^T (L^T)^{-1} \bar{Q}'^{-1} L^{-1} y \le 1$ }
= { y | $y^T (\underline{L} \bar{Q}' L^T)^{-1} y \le 1$ }



Hence,

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



Incomplete Algorithm

Algorithm 1 ellipsoid-algorithm

- 1: **input:** point $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$, convex set $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$
- 2: **output:** point $x \in K$ or "K is empty"
- 3: *Q* ← ???

4: repeat

5: **if**
$$c \in K$$
 then return c

6: else

7: choose a violated hyperplane *a*

8:
$$c \leftarrow c - \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{Qa}{\sqrt{a^T Qa}}$$

9:
$$Q \leftarrow \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1} \Big(Q - \frac{2}{n+1} \frac{Qaa^T Q}{a^T Qaa} \Big)$$

10: **endif**

11: until ???

12: return "K is empty"

Repeat: Size of basic solutions

Lemma 52

Let $P = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid Ax \le b\}$ be a bounded polyhedron. 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.



Repeat: Size of basic solutions

Proof: Let $\overline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A & -A & I_m \end{bmatrix}$, *b*, 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 *b*) can become at most

 $\begin{aligned} \det(\bar{A}_B), \det(\bar{M}_j) &\leq \|\vec{\ell}_{\max}\|^{2n} \\ &\leq (\sqrt{2n} \cdot 2^{\langle a_{\max} \rangle})^{2n} \leq 2^{2n \langle a_{\max} \rangle + 2n \log_2 n} \end{aligned}$

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 $R^n \operatorname{vol}(B(0, 1)) \le (n\delta)^n \operatorname{vol}(B(0, 1))$.



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 polyhedron

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

where $\lambda = \delta^2 + 1$.



Lemma 53 P_{λ} is feasible if and only if P is feasible.

←: obvious!





Consider the polyhedrons

$$\bar{P} = \left\{ x \mid \left[A - A I_m \right] x = b; x \ge 0 \right\}$$

and

$$ar{P}_{\lambda} = \left\{ x \mid \left[A - A \ I_m \right] x = b + rac{1}{\lambda} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}; x \ge 0 \right\} \;.$$

P is feasible if and only if \overline{P} is feasible, and P_{λ} feasible if and only if \overline{P}_{λ} feasible.

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

Let
$$\overline{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A & -A & I_m \end{bmatrix}$$
.

 \bar{P}_{λ} feasible implies that there is a basic feasible solution represented by

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

(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

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

By Cramers rule we get

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

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.



Lemma 54

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 $\|\vec{\ell}\| \le r$. Then
 $(A(x + \vec{\ell}))_i = (Ax)_i + (A\vec{\ell})_i \le b_i + \vec{a}_i^T \vec{\ell}$
 $\le b_i + \|\vec{a}_i\| \cdot \|\vec{\ell}\| \le b_i + \sqrt{n} \cdot 2^{\langle a_{\max} \rangle} \cdot r$
 $\le b_i + \frac{\sqrt{n} \cdot 2^{\langle a_{\max} \rangle}}{\delta^3} \le b_i + \frac{1}{\delta^2 + 1} \le b_i + \frac{1}{\lambda}$

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



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,

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



Algorithm 1 ellipsoid-algorithm

1: **input:** point $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$, convex set $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, radii *R* and *r*

- 2: with $K \subseteq B(c, R)$, and $B(x, r) \subseteq K$ for some x
- 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

6: **if**
$$c \in K$$
 then return c

С

7: else

- 8: choose a violated hyperplane *a*
- 9:

$$\leftarrow c - \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{Qa}{\sqrt{a^T Qa}}$$

10:
$$Q \leftarrow \frac{n^2}{n^2 - 1} \left(Q - \frac{2}{n+1} \frac{Qaa^T Q}{a^T Qaa} \right)$$

11: endif

12: **until**
$$det(Q) \le r^{2n} // i.e., det(L) \le r^n$$

13: return "K is empty"

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.



10 Karmarkars Algorithm

- inequalities $Ax \leq b$; $m \times n$ matrix A with rows a_i^T
- $P = \{x \mid Ax \le b\}; P^{\circ} := \{x \mid Ax < b\}$
- interior point algorithm: $x \in P^{\circ}$ throughout the algorithm
- for $x \in P^\circ$ define

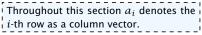
$$s_i(x) := b_i - a_i^T x$$

as the slack of the *i*-th constraint

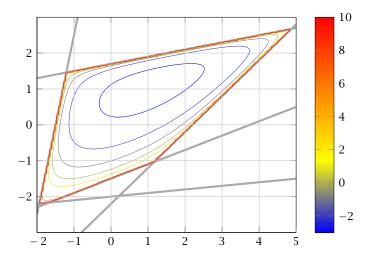
logarithmic barrier function:

$$\phi(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^m \log(s_i(x))$$

Penalty for point *x*; points close to the boundary have a very large penalty.



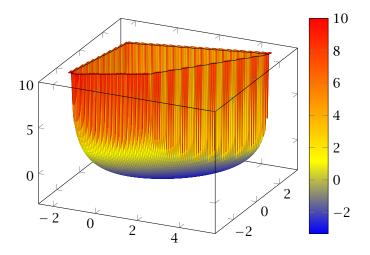
Penalty Function





10 Karmarkars Algorithm

Penalty Function





Gradient and Hessian

Taylor approximation:

$$\phi(x+\epsilon) \approx \phi(x) + \nabla \phi(x)^T \epsilon + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^T \nabla^2 \phi(x) \epsilon$$

Gradient:

$$\nabla \phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{s_i(x)} \cdot a_i = A^T d_x$$

where $d_x^T = (1/s_1(x), \dots, 1/s_m(x))$. (d_x vector of inverse slacks)

Hessian:

$$H_{x} := \nabla^{2} \phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{s_{i}(x)^{2}} a_{i} a_{i}^{T} = A^{T} D_{x}^{2} A$$

with $D_x = \text{diag}(d_x)$.

Proof for Gradient

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \phi(x)}{\partial x_i} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(-\sum_r \ln(s_r(x)) \right) \\ &= -\sum_r \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(\ln(s_r(x)) \right) = -\sum_r \frac{1}{s_r(x)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(s_r(x) \right) \\ &= -\sum_r \frac{1}{s_r(x)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(b_r - a_r^T x \right) = \sum_r \frac{1}{s_r(x)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left(a_r^T x \right) \\ &= \sum_r \frac{1}{s_r(x)} A_{ri} \end{split}$$

The *i*-th entry of the gradient vector is $\sum_{r} 1/s_r(x) \cdot A_{ri}$. This gives that the gradient is

$$\nabla \phi(x) = \sum_{r} 1/s_{r}(x)a_{r} = A^{T}d_{x}$$

Proof for Hessian

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\sum_r \frac{1}{s_r(x)} A_{ri} \right) = \sum_r A_{ri} \left(-\frac{1}{s_r(x)^2} \right) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(s_r(x) \right)$$
$$= \sum_r A_{ri} \frac{1}{s_r(x)^2} A_{rj}$$

Note that $\sum_{r} A_{ri}A_{rj} = (A^{T}A)_{ij}$. Adding the additional factors $1/s_{r}(x)^{2}$ can be done with a diagonal matrix.

Hence the Hessian is

$$H_X = A^T D^2 A$$

Properties of the Hessian

 H_X is positive semi-definite for $x \in P^\circ$

 $u^{T}H_{x}u = u^{T}A^{T}D_{x}^{2}Au = ||D_{x}Au||_{2}^{2} \ge 0$

This gives that $\phi(x)$ is convex.

If rank(A) = n, H_X is positive definite for $x \in P^\circ$

$$u^{T}H_{x}u = \|D_{x}Au\|_{2}^{2} > 0$$
 for $u \neq 0$

This gives that $\phi(x)$ is strictly convex.

 $||u||_{H_x} := \sqrt{u^T H_x u}$ is a (semi-)norm; the unit ball w.r.t. this norm is an ellipsoid.



Dikin Ellipsoid

$$E_{x} = \{ y \mid (y - x)^{T} H_{x} (y - x) \le 1 \} = \{ y \mid ||y - x||_{H_{x}} \le 1 \}$$

Points in E_x are feasible!!!

$$(y - x)^{T} H_{x}(y - x) = (y - x)^{T} A^{T} D_{x}^{2} A(y - x)$$

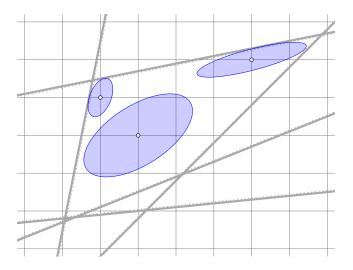
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{(a_{i}^{T}(y - x))^{2}}{s_{i}(x)^{2}}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{(\text{change of distance to } i\text{-th constraint going from } x \text{ to } y)^{2}}{(\text{distance of } x \text{ to } i\text{-th constraint})^{2}}$$

$$\leq 1$$

In order to become infeasible when going from x to y one of the terms in the sum would need to be larger than 1.

Dikin Ellipsoids





Analytic Center

 $x_{\mathrm{ac}} := \operatorname{arg\,min}_{x \in P^{\circ}} \phi(x)$

• x_{ac} is solution to

$$\nabla \phi(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{s_i(x)} a_i = 0$$

- depends on the description of the polytope
- x_{ac} exists and is unique iff P° is nonempty and bounded



Central Path

In the following we assume that the LP and its dual are strictly feasible and that rank(A) = n.

Central Path:

Set of points $\{x^*(t) \mid t > 0\}$ with

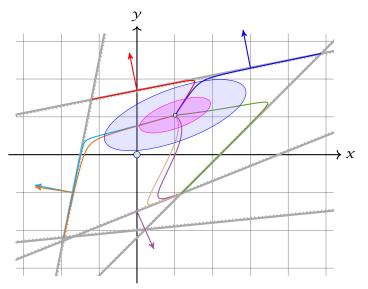
 $x^*(t) = \operatorname{argmin}_{x} \{ tc^T x + \phi(x) \}$

- t = 0: analytic center
- $t = \infty$: optimum solution

 $x^*(t)$ exists and is unique for all $t \ge 0$.



Different Central Paths





10 Karmarkars Algorithm

Central Path

Intuitive Idea:

Find point on central path for large value of t. Should be close to optimum solution.

Questions:

- Is this really true? How large a t do we need?
- How do we find corresponding point $x^*(t)$ on central path?



The Dual

primal-dual pair:

Assumptions

primal and dual problems are strictly feasible;

• $\operatorname{rank}(A) = n$.

Note that the right LP in standard form is equal to $\max\{-b^T y \mid -A^T y = c, x \ge 0\}$. The dual of this is $\min\{c^T x \mid -Ax \ge -b\}$ (variables x are unrestricted).

Force Field Interpretation

Point $x^*(t)$ on central path is solution to $tc + \nabla \phi(x) = 0$

- We can view each constraint as generating a repelling force. The combination of these forces is represented by ∇φ(x).
- In addition there is a force tc pulling us towards the optimum solution.



How large should *t* be?

Point $x^*(t)$ on central path is solution to $tc + \nabla \phi(x) = 0$.

This means

$$tc + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{1}{s_i(x^*(t))} a_i = 0$$

or

$$c + \sum_{i=1}^{m} z_i^*(t) a_i = 0$$
 with $z_i^*(t) = \frac{1}{t s_i(x^*(t))}$

- $z^*(t)$ is strictly dual feasible: $(A^T z^* + c = 0; z^* > 0)$
- duality gap between $x := x^*(t)$ and $z := z^*(t)$ is

$$c^T x + b^T z = (b - Ax)^T z = \frac{m}{t}$$

• if gap is less than $1/2^{\Omega(L)}$ we can snap to optimum point

How to find $x^*(t)$

First idea:

- start somewhere in the polytope
- use iterative method (Newtons method) to minimize $f_t(x) := tc^T x + \phi(x)$



Newton Method

Quadratic approximation of f_t

$$f_t(x + \epsilon) \approx f_t(x) + \nabla f_t(x)^T \epsilon + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^T H_{f_t}(x) \epsilon$$

Suppose this were exact:

$$f_t(x + \epsilon) = f_t(x) + \nabla f_t(x)^T \epsilon + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^T H_{f_t}(x) \epsilon$$

Then gradient is given by:

$$\nabla f_t(x + \epsilon) = \nabla f_t(x) + H_{f_t}(x) \cdot \epsilon$$

Note that for the one-dimensional case $g(\epsilon) = f(x) + f'(x)\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}f''(x)\epsilon^2$, then $g'(\epsilon) = f'(x) + f''(x)\epsilon$.



10 Karmarkars Algorithm

Newton Method

Observe that $H_{f_t}(x) = H(x)$, where H(x) is the Hessian for the function $\phi(x)$ (adding a linear term like $tc^T x$ does not affect the Hessian). Also $\nabla f_t(x) = tc + \nabla \phi(x)$.

We want to move to a point where this gradient is 0:

Newton Step at $x \in P^{\circ}$

$$\Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}} = -H_{f_t}^{-1}(x)\nabla f_t(x) = -H_{f_t}^{-1}(x)(tc + \nabla \phi(x)) = -(A^T D_x^2 A)^{-1}(tc + A^T d_x)$$

Newton Iteration:

 $x := x + \Delta x_{nt}$

Measuring Progress of Newton Step

Newton decrement:

 $\lambda_t(x) = \|D_x A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}\| \\ = \|\Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}\|_{H_x}$

Square of Newton decrement is linear estimate of reduction if we do a Newton step:

 $-\lambda_t(x)^2 = \nabla f_t(x)^T \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}$

• $\lambda_t(x) = 0$ iff $x = x^*(t)$

• $\lambda_t(x)$ is measure of proximity of x to $x^*(t)$

Recall that Δx_{nt} fulfills $-H(x)\Delta x_{nt} = \nabla f_t()$.

Theorem 55

If $\lambda_t(x) < 1$ then

- $x_+ := x + \Delta x_{nt} \in P^\circ$ (new point feasible)
- $\lambda_t(x_+) \leq \lambda_t(x)^2$

This means we have quadratic convergence. Very fast.

feasibility:

► $\lambda_t(x) = \|\Delta x_{nt}\|_{H_x} < 1$; hence x_+ lies in the Dikin ellipsoid around x.

bound on $\lambda_t(x^+)$: we use $D := D_x = \text{diag}(d_x)$ and $D_+ := D_{x^+} = \text{diag}(d_{x^+})$

$$\lambda_t (x^+)^2 = \|D_+ A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^+\|^2$$

$$\leq \|D_+ A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^+\|^2 + \|D_+ A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^+ + (I - D_+^{-1}D) D A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}\|^2$$

$$= \|(I - D_+^{-1}D) D A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}\|^2$$

To see the last equality we use Pythagoras

 $||a||^2 + ||a + b||^2 = ||b||^2$

if $a^T(a+b) = 0$.

$$DA\Delta x_{nt} = DA(x^{+} - x)$$

= $D(b - Ax - (b - Ax^{+}))$
= $D(D^{-1}\vec{1} - D^{-1}_{+}\vec{1})$
= $(I - D^{-1}_{+}D)\vec{1}$

$$a^{T}(a+b)$$

$$= \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^{+T} A^{T} D_{+} \left(D_{+} A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^{+} + (I - D_{+}^{-1} D) D A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}} \right)$$

$$= \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^{+T} \left(A^{T} D_{+}^{2} A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^{+} - A^{T} D^{2} A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}} + A^{T} D_{+} D A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}} \right)$$

$$= \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^{+T} \left(H_{+} \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^{+} - H \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}} + A^{T} D_{+} \vec{1} - A^{T} D \vec{1} \right)$$

$$= \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^{+T} \left(- \nabla f_{t}(x^{+}) + \nabla f_{t}(x) + \nabla \phi(x^{+}) - \nabla \phi(x) \right)$$

$$= 0$$

bound on $\lambda_t(x^+)$: we use $D := D_x = \operatorname{diag}(d_x)$ and $D_+ := D_{x^+} = \operatorname{diag}(d_{x^+})$

$$\begin{split} \lambda_t (x^+)^2 &= \|D_+ A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^+\|^2 \\ &\leq \|D_+ A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^+\|^2 + \|D_+ A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}^+ + (I - D_+^{-1} D) D A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}\|^2 \\ &= \|(I - D_+^{-1} D) D A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}\|^2 \\ &= \|(I - D_+^{-1} D)^2 \vec{1}\|^2 \\ &\leq \|(I - D_+^{-1} D) \vec{1}\|^4 \\ &= \|D A \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}\|^4 \\ &= \lambda_t (x)^4 \end{split}$$

The second inequality follows from $\sum_i y_i^4 \le (\sum_i y_i^2)^2$

If $\lambda_t(x)$ is large we do not have a guarantee.

Try to avoid this case!!!



Path-following Methods

Try to slowly travel along the central path.

Algorithm 1 PathFollowing

- 1: start at analytic center
- 2: while solution not good enough do
- 3: make step to improve objective function
- 4: recenter to return to central path

Short Step Barrier Method

simplifying assumptions:

- a first central point $x^*(t_0)$ is given
- $x^*(t)$ is computed exactly in each iteration

ϵ is approximation we are aiming for

start at $t = t_0$, repeat until $m/t \le \epsilon$

- compute $x^*(\mu t)$ using Newton starting from $x^*(t)$
- ► *t* := *µt*

where $\mu = 1 + 1/(2\sqrt{m})$

Short Step Barrier Method

gradient of f_{t^+} at ($x = x^*(t)$)

$$\nabla f_{t^+}(x) = \nabla f_t(x) + (\mu - 1)tc$$
$$= -(\mu - 1)A^T D_X \vec{1}$$

This holds because $0 = \nabla f_t(x) = tc + A^T D_x \vec{1}$.

The Newton decrement is

$$\begin{split} \lambda_{t^{+}}(x)^{2} &= \nabla f_{t^{+}}(x)^{T} H^{-1} \nabla f_{t^{+}}(x) \\ &= (\mu - 1)^{2} \vec{1}^{T} B (B^{T} B)^{-1} B^{T} \vec{1} \qquad B = D_{x}^{T} A \\ &\leq (\mu - 1)^{2} m \\ &= 1/4 \end{split}$$

This means we are in the range of quadratic convergence!!!

Number of Iterations

the number of Newton iterations per outer tors. Since it is a projection maiteration is very small; in practise only 1 or $2^{1} \frac{\text{trix}}{1000} (P^{2} = P)$ it can only have

Number of outer iterations:

We need $t_k = \mu^k t_0 \ge m/\epsilon$. This holds when

$$k \geq \frac{\log(m/(\epsilon t_0))}{\log(\mu)}$$

We get a bound of

$$\mathcal{O}\left(\sqrt{m}\log\frac{m}{\epsilon t_0}\right)$$

We show how to get a starting point with $t_0 = 1/2^L$. Together with $\epsilon \approx 2^{-L}$ we get $\mathcal{O}(L\sqrt{m})$ iterations.



Explanation for previous slide $P = B(B^TB)^{-1}B^T$ is a symmetric real-valued matrix; it has *n* linearly independent Eigenvectors. Since it is a projection matrix ($P^2 = P$) it can only have Eigenvalues 0 and 1 (because the Eigenvalues of P^2 are λ_i^2 , where λ_i is Eigenvalue of *P*). The expression

$$\max_{v} \frac{v^T P v}{v^T v}$$

gives the largest Eigenvalue for P. Hence, $\vec{1}^T P \vec{1} \le \vec{1}^T \vec{1} = m$

Damped Newton Method

We assume that the polytope (not just the LP) is bounded. Then $Av \leq 0$ is not possible.

For
$$x \in P^\circ$$
 and direction $v \neq 0$ define

$$\sigma_{X}(v) := \max_{i} \frac{a_{i}^{T} v}{s_{i}(x)}$$

 $a_i^T v$ is the change on the left hand side of the *i*-th constraint when moving in direction of v. If $\sigma_x(v) > 1$ then for one coor-

dinate this change is larger than the slack in the constraint at position x.

By downscaling v we can ensure to stay in the polytope.

Observation:

 $x + \alpha v \in P$ for $\alpha \in \{0, 1/\sigma_x(v)\}$



Damped Newton Method

Suppose that we move from x to $x + \alpha v$. The linear estimate says that $f_t(x)$ should change by $\nabla f_t(x)^T \alpha v$.

The following argument shows that f_t is well behaved. For small α the reduction of $f_t(x)$ is close to linear estimate.

$$f_t(x + \alpha v) - f_t(x) = tc^T \alpha v + \phi(x + \alpha v) - \phi(x)$$

$$\begin{split} \phi(x + \alpha v) - \phi(x) &= -\sum_{i} \log(s_i(x + \alpha v)) + \sum_{i} \log(s_i(x)) \\ &= -\sum_{i} \log(s_i(x + \alpha v)/s_i(x)) \\ &= -\sum_{i} \log(1 - a_i^T \alpha v/s_i(x)) \end{split}$$

 $s_i(x + \alpha v) = b_i - a_i^T x - a_i^T \alpha v = s_i(x) - a_i^T \alpha v$



$\nabla f_t(x)^T \alpha v$ **Damped Newton Method** $= (tc^T + \sum_i a_i^T / s_i(x)) \alpha v$ $= tc^T \alpha v + \sum_i \alpha w_i$ Note that $||w|| = ||v||_{H_{\chi}}$. Define $w_i = a_i^T v / s_i(x)$ and $\sigma = \max_i w_i$. Then $f_t(x + \alpha v) - f_t(x) - \nabla f_t(x)^T \alpha v$ $= -\sum_{i} (\alpha w_i + \log(1 - \alpha w_i))$ $\leq -\sum_{w>0} (\alpha w_i + \log(1 - \alpha w_i)) + \sum_{w>0} \frac{\alpha^2 w_i^2}{2}$ $w_i > 0$ $\leq -\sum_{w>0} \frac{w_i^2}{\sigma^2} \left(\alpha \sigma + \log(1 - \alpha \sigma) \right) + \frac{(\alpha \sigma)^2}{2} \sum_{w<0} \frac{w_i^2}{\sigma^2}$

For
$$|x| < 1$$
, $x \le 0$:
 $x + \log(1 - x) = -\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} - \dots \ge -\frac{x^2}{2} = -\frac{y^2}{2} \frac{x^2}{y^2}$
For $|x| < 1$, $0 < x \le y$:
 $x + \log(1 - x) = -\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} - \dots = \frac{x^2}{y^2} \left(-\frac{y^2}{2} - \frac{y^2x}{3} - \frac{y^2x^2}{4} - \dots \right)$
 $\ge \frac{x^2}{y^2} \left(-\frac{y^2}{2} - \frac{y^3}{3} - \frac{y^4}{4} - \dots \right) = \frac{x^2}{y^2} (y + \log(1 - y))$

Damped Newton Method

For
$$x \ge 0$$

 $\frac{x^2}{2} \le \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots = -(x + \log(1 - x))$

$$\leq -\sum_{i} \frac{w_{i}^{2}}{\sigma^{2}} \left(\alpha \sigma + \log(1 - \alpha \sigma) \right)$$
$$= -\frac{1}{\sigma^{2}} \|v\|_{H_{x}}^{2} \left(\alpha \sigma + \log(1 - \alpha \sigma) \right)$$

Damped Newton Iteration:

In a damped Newton step we choose

$$x_{+} = x + \frac{1}{1 + \sigma_{x}(\Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}})} \Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}}$$

This means that in the above expressions we choose $\alpha = \frac{1}{1+\sigma}$ and $v = \Delta x_{nt}$. Note that it wouldn't make sense to choose α larger than 1 as this would mean that our real target $(x + \Delta x_{nt})$ is inside the polytope but we overshoot and go further than this target.

Damped Newton Method

Theorem:

In a damped Newton step the cost decreases by at least

 $\lambda_t(x) - \log(1 + \lambda_t(x))$

Proof: The decrease in cost is

$$-\alpha \nabla f_t(x)^T v + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \|v\|_{H_x} (\alpha \sigma + \log(1 - \alpha \sigma))$$

Choosing $\alpha = \frac{1}{1+\sigma}$ and $v = \Delta x_{nt}$ gives

 $\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{1+\sigma}\lambda_t(x)^2 + \frac{\lambda_t(x)^2}{\sigma^2} \left(\frac{\sigma}{1+\sigma} + \log\left(1-\frac{\sigma}{1+\sigma}\right)\right) \\ &= \frac{\lambda_t(x)^2}{\sigma^2} \left(\sigma - \log(1+\sigma)\right) \end{aligned}$ With $v = \Delta x_{\rm nt}$ we have $\|w\|_2 = \|v\|_{H_x} = \lambda_t(x)$; further recall that $\sigma = \|w\|_{\infty}$; hence $\sigma \le \lambda_t(x)$.

Damped Newton Method

The first inequality follows since the function $\frac{1}{x^2}(x - \log(1+x))$ is monotonically decreasing.

 $\geq \lambda_t(x) - \log(1 + \lambda_t(x))$ ≥ 0.09

for $\lambda_t(x) \ge 0.5$

Centering Algorithm:

Input: precision δ ; starting point x

- **1.** compute Δx_{nt} and $\lambda_t(x)$
- **2.** if $\lambda_t(x) \leq \delta$ return x
- **3.** set $x := x + \alpha \Delta x_{nt}$ with

$$\alpha = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1 + \sigma_x(\Delta x_{\mathsf{nt}})} & \lambda_t \ge 1/2\\ 1 & \mathsf{otw.} \end{cases}$$



Centering

Lemma 56

The centering algorithm starting at x_0 reaches a point with $\lambda_t(x) \le \delta$ after

$$\frac{f_t(x_0) - \min_{\mathcal{Y}} f_t(\mathcal{Y})}{0.09} + \mathcal{O}(\log \log(1/\delta))$$

iterations.

This can be very, very slow...



How to get close to analytic center?

Let $P = \{Ax \le b\}$ be our (feasible) polyhedron, and x_0 a feasible point.

We change $b \rightarrow b + \frac{1}{\lambda} \cdot \vec{1}$, where $L = \langle A \rangle + \langle b \rangle + \langle c \rangle$ (encoding length) and $\lambda = 2^{2L}$. Recall that a basis is feasible in the old LP iff it is feasible in the new LP.



Lemma [without proof]

The inverse of a matrix M can be represented with rational numbers that have denominators $z_{ij} = \det(M)$.

For two basis solutions x_B , $x_{\bar{B}}$, the cost-difference $c^T x_B - c^T x_{\bar{B}}$ can be represented by a rational number that has denominator $z = \det(A_B) \cdot \det(A_{\bar{B}}) \cdot \lambda$.

This means that in the perturbed LP it is sufficient to decrease the duality gap to $1/2^{4L}$ (i.e., $t \approx 2^{4L}$). This means the previous analysis essentially also works for the perturbed LP.

For a point x from the polytope (not necessarily BFS) the objective value $\bar{c}^T x$ is at most $n2^M 2^L$, where $M \leq L$ is the encoding length of the largest entry in \bar{c} .



How to get close to analytic center?

Start at x_0 .	Note that an entry in \hat{c} fulfills $ \hat{c}_i \le 2^{2L}$. This holds since the slack in every constraint
	at x_0 is at least $\lambda = 1/2^{2L}$, and the gradient
Choose $\hat{c} := -\nabla \phi(x)$.	is the vector of inverse slacks.

 $x_0 = x^*(1)$ is point on central path for \hat{c} and t = 1.

You can travel the central path in both directions. Go towards 0 until $t \approx 1/2^{\Omega(L)}$. This requires $O(\sqrt{m}L)$ outer iterations.

Let $x_{\hat{c}}$ denote this point.

Let x_c denote the point that minimizes

 $t \cdot c^T x + \phi(x)$

(i.e., same value for t but different c, hence, different central path).

How to get close to analytic center?

Clearly,

$$t \cdot \hat{c}^T \boldsymbol{x}_{\hat{c}} + \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_{\hat{c}}) \leq t \cdot \hat{c}^T \boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{c}} + \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{c}})$$

The different between $f_t(x_{\hat{c}})$ and $f_t(x_c)$ is

$$tc^{T}x_{\hat{c}} + \phi(x_{\hat{c}}) - tc^{T}x_{c} - \phi(x_{c})$$

$$\leq t(c^{T}x_{\hat{c}} + \hat{c}^{T}x_{c} - \hat{c}^{T}x_{\hat{c}} - c^{T}x_{c})$$

$$\leq 4tn2^{3L}$$

For $t = 1/2^{\Omega(L)}$) the last term becomes constant. Hence, using damped Newton we can move from $x_{\hat{c}}$ to x_c quickly.

In total for this analysis we require $\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{m}L)$ outer iterations for the whole algorithm.

One iteration can be implemented in $\tilde{\mathcal{O}}(m^3)$ time.

Part III

Approximation Algorithms



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.



Definition 57

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.



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.



Definition 58

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
- $y \in sol(1)$ 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 59 (Performance Ratio)

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



11 Introduction to Approximation

Definition 60 (*r***-approximation)**

An algorithm A is an r-approximation algorithm iff

 $\forall x \in \mathcal{I}: R(x, A(x)) \leq r$,

and A runs in polynomial time.



Definition 61 (PTAS)

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

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

The running time is polynomial in |x|.

approximation with arbitrary good factor... fast?



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.



Definition 62 (FPTAS)

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



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.



Definition 63 (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...



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.



There are really difficult problems!

Theorem 64

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.



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 $NP \subseteq DTIME(n^{\log \log \log n})$.



Class APX not important in practise.

Instead of saying problem P is in APX one says problem P admits a 4-approximation.

One only says that a problem is APX-hard.



11 Introduction to Approximation

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.



Definition 65

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

Definition 66

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



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!



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

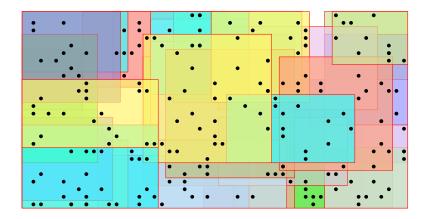
 $\forall u \in U \exists i \in I : u \in S_i$ (every element is covered)

and

$$\sum_{i\in I} w_i$$
 is minimized.



Set Cover





IP-Formulation of Set Cover

min		$\sum_i w_i x_i$		
s.t.	$\forall u \in U$	$\sum_{i:u\in S_i} x_i$	≥	1
	$\forall i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$	x_i	≥	0
	$\forall i \in \{1, \ldots, k\}$	x_i	integral	



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 Vertex Cover

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} \min & & \sum_{v \in V} w_v x_v \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall e = (i,j) \in E & & x_i + x_j & \geq & 1 \\ & \forall v \in V & & x_v & \in & \{0,1\} \end{array}$$



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	$\{0, 1\}$



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	$\{0, 1\}$



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.

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} \max & & \sum_{i=1}^{n} p_{i} x_{i} \\ \text{s.t.} & & \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} x_{i} & \leq & K \\ & \forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\} & & x_{i} & \in & \{0, 1\} \end{array}$$



Relaxations

Definition 67

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 $x_i \in \{0, 1\}$.

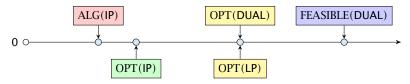


By solving a relaxation we obtain an upper bound for a maximization problem and a lower bound for a minimization problem.

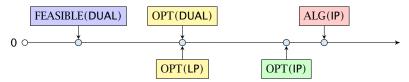


Relations

Maximization Problems:



Minimization Problems:





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

Set Cover relaxation:

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|}\hline \min & & \sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i x_i \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall u \in U & \sum_{i:u \in S_i} x_i \geq 1 \\ & \forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\} & x_i \in [0, 1] \end{array}$$

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.



Rounding Algorithm:

Set all x_i -values with $x_i \ge \frac{1}{f}$ to 1. Set all other x_i -values to 0.



Lemma 68

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.



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

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



Relaxation for Set Cover

Primal:

 $\begin{array}{|c|c|c|} \min & \sum_{i \in I} w_i x_i \\ \text{s.t. } \forall u & \sum_{i: u \in S_i} x_i \ge 1 \\ & x_i \ge 0 \end{array}$

Dual:

$$\begin{array}{c|c}
\max & \sum_{u \in U} \mathcal{Y}_{u} \\
\text{s.t. } \forall i & \sum_{u:u \in S_{i}} \mathcal{Y}_{u} \leq w_{i} \\
\mathcal{Y}_{u} \geq 0
\end{array}$$



Rounding Algorithm:

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

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



Lemma 69

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.



Proof:

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



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 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.

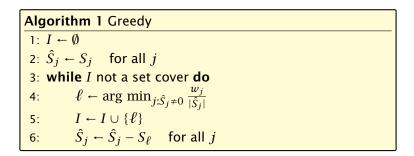
Of course, we also need that I is a cover.



Technique 3: The Primal Dual Method

Algorithm 1 PrimalDual				
1: $y \leftarrow 0$				
2: $I \leftarrow \emptyset$				
3: while exists $u \notin \bigcup_{i \in I} S_i$ do				
4: increase dual variable y_u until constraint for some				
new set S_ℓ becomes tight				
5: $I \leftarrow I \cup \{\ell\}$				





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.



Lemma 70

Given positive numbers a_1, \ldots, a_k and b_1, \ldots, b_k , and $S \subseteq \{1, \ldots, k\}$ then

$$\min_{i} \frac{a_i}{b_i} \le \frac{\sum_{i \in S} a_i}{\sum_{i \in S} b_i} \le \max_{i} \frac{a_i}{b_i}$$



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, $w_j/|\hat{S}_j| \leq \frac{\text{OPT}}{n_\ell}$.



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

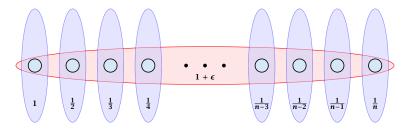
$$w_j \leq \frac{|\hat{S}_j|\text{OPT}}{n_\ell} = \frac{n_\ell - n_{\ell+1}}{n_\ell} \cdot \text{OPT}$$



$$\sum_{j \in I} w_j \le \sum_{\ell=1}^s \frac{n_\ell - n_{\ell+1}}{n_\ell} \cdot \text{OPT}$$
$$\le \text{OPT} \sum_{\ell=1}^s \left(\frac{1}{n_\ell} + \frac{1}{n_\ell - 1} + \dots + \frac{1}{n_{\ell+1} + 1} \right)$$
$$= \text{OPT} \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{i}$$
$$= H_n \cdot \text{OPT} \le \text{OPT}(\ln n + 1) \quad .$$



A tight example:





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 nearly have a cover. Cover remaining elements by some simple heuristic.

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):

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



 $\Pr[\exists u \in U \text{ not covered after } \ell \text{ round}]$

$$= \Pr[u_1 \text{ not covered } \lor u_2 \text{ not covered } \lor \dots \lor u_n \text{ not covered}]$$

$$\leq \sum_i \Pr[u_i \text{ not covered after } \ell \text{ rounds}] \leq ne^{-\ell} .$$

Lemma 71 With high probability $O(\log n)$ rounds suffice.

With high probability:

For any constant α the number of rounds is at most $O(\log n)$ with probability at least $1 - n^{-\alpha}$.



Proof: We have

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



Expected Cost

Version A.

Repeat for $s = (\alpha + 1) \ln n$ rounds. If you don't have a cover simply take for each element u the cheapest set that contains u.

 $E[\text{cost}] \le (\alpha+1) \ln n \cdot \text{cost}(LP) + (n \cdot \text{OPT})n^{-\alpha} = \mathcal{O}(\ln n) \cdot \text{OPT}$



Expected Cost

Version B.

Repeat for $s = (\alpha + 1) \ln n$ rounds. If you don't have a cover simply repeat the whole process.

 $E[cost] = Pr[success] \cdot E[cost | success] + Pr[no success] \cdot E[cost | no success]$

This means

E[cost | success]

 $= \frac{1}{\Pr[\mathsf{succ.}]} \left(E[\cos t] - \Pr[\mathsf{no \ success}] \cdot E[\cos t | \mathsf{no \ success}] \right)$ $\leq \frac{1}{\Pr[\mathsf{succ.}]} E[\cos t] \leq \frac{1}{1 - n^{-\alpha}} (\alpha + 1) \ln n \cdot \operatorname{cost}(\operatorname{LP})$ $\leq 2(\alpha + 1) \ln n \cdot \operatorname{OPT}$

for $n \ge 2$ and $\alpha \ge 1$.



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

Theorem 72 (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 $2^{\operatorname{poly}(\log n)}$).



Integrality Gap

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

▶ $n = 2^k - 1$

- Elements are all vectors \vec{x} over GF[2] of length k (excluding zero vector).
- Every vector \vec{y} defines a set as follows

$$S_{\vec{y}} := \{ \vec{x} \mid \vec{x}^T \vec{y} = 1 \}$$

• 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.



Integrality Gap

Every collection of p < k sets does not cover all elements.

Hence, we get a gap of $\Omega(\log n)$.



Techniques:

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



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
	$\forall jobs \ j$	$\sum_{i} x_{j,i} \ge 1$		
	$\forall i, j$	$x_{j,i}$	\in	$\{0, 1\}$

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



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 \mathcal{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.



Lower Bounds on the Solution

The average work performed by a machine is $\frac{1}{m} \sum_{j} p_{j}$. Therefore,

$$C_{\max}^* \ge \frac{1}{m} \sum_j p_j$$



Local Search

A local search algorithm successively 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.



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



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.



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

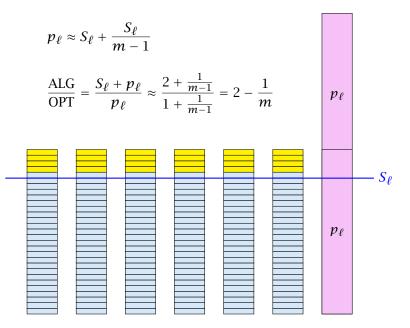
$$m \cdot S_{\ell} \leq \sum_{j \neq \ell} p_j$$
.

Hence, the length of the schedule is at most

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



A Tight Example



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.



A Greedy Strategy

Lemma 73

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



Proof:

- Let $p_1 \ge \cdots \ge p_n$ 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

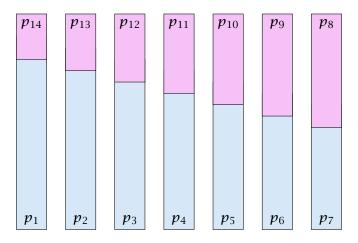
$$C_{\max}^* + p_n \le \frac{4}{3} C_{\max}^*$$
 .

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.



When in an optimal solution a machine can have at most 2 jobs the optimal solution looks as follows.



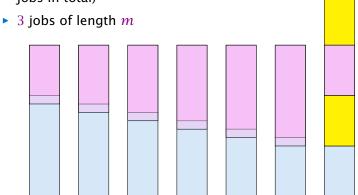


- We can assume that one machine schedules p₁ and p_n (the largest and smallest job).
- If not assume wlog. that p₁ is scheduled on machine A and p_n on machine B.
- ► Let p_A and p_B be the other job scheduled on A and B, respectively.
- *p*₁ + *p*_n ≤ *p*₁ + *p*_A and *p*_A + *p*_B ≤ *p*₁ + *p*_A, 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.



Tight Example

- ▶ 2*m* + 1 jobs
- ▶ 2 jobs with length 2m, 2m 1, 2m 2, ..., m + 1 (2m 2 jobs in total)





Traveling Salesman

Given a set of cities $(\{1, ..., n\})$ and a symmetric matrix $C = (c_{ij}), c_{ij} \ge 0$ that specifies for every pair $(i, j) \in [n] \times [n]$ the cost for travelling from city i to city j. Find a permutation π of the cities such that the round-trip cost

$$C_{\pi(1)\pi(n)} + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} C_{\pi(i)\pi(i+1)}$$

is minimized.



Traveling Salesman

Theorem 74

There does not exist an $O(2^n)$ -approximation algorithm for TSP.

Hamiltonian Cycle:

For a given undirected graph G = (V, E) decide whether there exists a simple cycle that contains all nodes in G.

- Given an instance to HAMPATH we create an instance for TSP.
- ► If $(i, j) \notin E$ then set c_{ij} to $n2^n$ otw. set c_{ij} to 1. This instance has polynomial size.
- There exists a Hamiltonian Path iff there exists a tour with cost n. Otw. any tour has cost strictly larger than n2ⁿ.
- An $O(2^n)$ -approximation algorithm could decide btw. these cases. Hence, cannot exist unless P = NP.



Metric Traveling Salesman

In the metric version we assume for every triple $i, j, k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$

 $c_{ij} \leq c_{ij} + c_{jk}$.

It is convenient to view the input as a complete undirected graph G = (V, E), where c_{ij} for an edge (i, j) defines the distance between nodes i and j.



TSP: Lower Bound I

Lemma 75

The cost $OPT_{TSP}(G)$ of an optimum traveling salesman tour is at least as large as the weight $OPT_{MST}(G)$ of a minimum spanning tree in G.

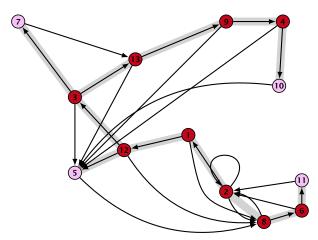
Proof:

- ► Take the optimum TSP-tour.
- Delete one edge.
- This gives a spanning tree of cost at most $OPT_{TSP}(G)$.



- Start with a tour on a subset *S* containing a single node.
- Take the node v closest to S. Add it S and expand the existing tour on S to include v.
- Repeat until all nodes have been processed.





The gray edges form an MST, because exactly these edges are taken in Prims algorithm.



Lemma 76

The Greedy algorithm is a 2*-approximation algorithm.*

Let S_i be the set at the start of the *i*-th iteration, and let v_i denote the node added during the iteration.

Further let $s_i \in S_i$ be the node closest to $v_i \in S_i$.

Let r_i denote the successor of s_i in the tour before inserting v_i .

We replace the edge (s_i, r_i) in the tour by the two edges (s_i, v_i) and (v_i, r_i) .

This increases the cost by

$$c_{s_i,v_i} + c_{v_i,r_i} - c_{s_i,r_i} \le 2c_{s_i,v_i}$$



The edges (s_i, v_i) considered during the Greedy algorithm are exactly the edges considered during PRIMs MST algorithm.

Hence,

$$\sum_{i} c_{s_i, v_i} = \operatorname{OPT}_{\operatorname{MST}}(G)$$

which with the previous lower bound gives a 2-approximation.



TSP: A different approach

Suppose that we are given an Eulerian graph G' = (V, E', c') of G = (V, E, c) such that for any edge $(i, j) \in E' c'(i, j) \ge c(i, j)$.

Then we can find a TSP-tour of cost at most

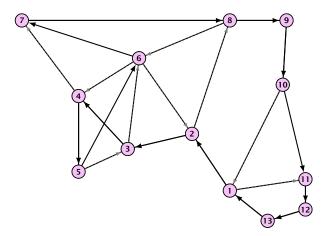
 $\sum_{e\in E'}c'(e)$

- ▶ Find an Euler tour of *G*′.
- Fix a permutation of the cities (i.e., a TSP-tour) by traversing the Euler tour and only note the first occurrence of a city.
- The cost of this TSP tour is at most the cost of the Euler tour because of triangle inequality.

This technique is known as short cutting the Euler tour.



TSP: A different approach





TSP: A different approach

Consider the following graph:

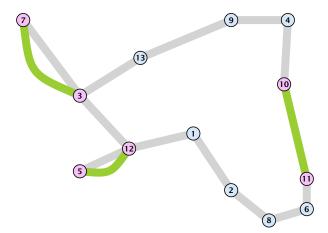
- Compute an MST of *G*.
- Duplicate all edges.

This graph is Eulerian, and the total cost of all edges is at most $2 \cdot OPT_{MST}(G)$.

Hence, short-cutting gives a tour of cost no more than $2 \cdot OPT_{MST}(G)$ which means we have a 2-approximation.



TSP: Can we do better?





Duplicating all edges in the MST seems to be rather wasteful.

We only need to make the graph Eulerian.

For this we compute a Minimum Weight Matching between odd degree vertices in the MST (note that there are an even number of them).



TSP: Can we do better?

An optimal tour on the odd-degree vertices has cost at most $OPT_{TSP}(G)$.

However, the edges of this tour give rise to two disjoint matchings. One of these matchings must have weight less than $OPT_{TSP}(G)/2$.

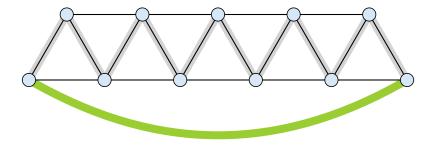
Adding this matching to the MST gives an Eulerian graph with edge weight at most

$$OPT_{MST}(G) + OPT_{TSP}(G)/2 \le \frac{3}{2}OPT_{TSP}(G)$$
,

Short cutting gives a $\frac{3}{2}$ -approximation for metric TSP.

This is the best that is known.

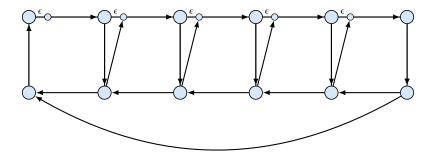
Christofides. Tight Example



- optimal tour: n edges.
- ▶ MST: *n* − 1 edges.
- weight of matching (n + 1)/2 1
- MST+matching $\approx 3/2 \cdot n$



Tree shortcutting. Tight Example



edges have Euclidean distance.



Knapsack:

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
	$\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$	x_i	\in	$\{0, 1\}$



 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 $(p + p_j, w + w_j)$ 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.



Definition 77

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.



- 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

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



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

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



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.



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.



We still have a cost of

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

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 .



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 78

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



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.



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

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



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

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



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

We have

$$OPT(n_1, ..., n_{k^2}) = \begin{cases} 0 & (n_1, ..., n_{k^2}) = 0\\ 1 + \min_{(s_1, ..., s_{k^2}) \in C} OPT(n_1 - s_1, ..., n_{k^2} - s_{k^2}) & (n_1, ..., n_{k^2}) \ge 0\\ \infty & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

where C is the set of all configurations.

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



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 79

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



- 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



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.

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

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.

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 80

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



Proof

▶ In the partition problem we are given positive integers b_1, \ldots, 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.



Definition 81

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.



Again we can differentiate between small and large items.

Lemma 82

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 − y) ≤ SIZE(I) where r is the number of nearly-full bins.
- This gives the lemma.



Choose $\gamma = \epsilon/2$. 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.



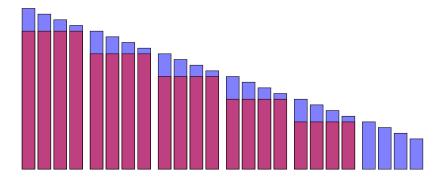
Linear Grouping:

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.



Linear Grouping





Lemma 83 $OPT(I') \le OPT(I) \le OPT(I') + k$

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 84 $OPT(I') \le OPT(I) \le OPT(I') + k$

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;

▶ ...



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

We set $k = \lfloor \epsilon \text{SIZE}(I) \rfloor$.

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 $\alpha \ge 1$).

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

Can we do better?

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

```
OPT(I) + O(log^2(SIZE(I))).
```

Note that this is usually better than a guarantee of

 $(1+\epsilon) \operatorname{OPT}(I) + 1$.



16.4 Advanced Rounding for Bin Packing

Configuration LP

Change of Notation:

- Group pieces of identical size.
- Let s₁ denote the largest size, and let b₁ denote the number of pieces of size s₁.
- s_2 is second largest size and b_2 number of pieces of size s_2 ;
- ▶ ...
- *s_m* smallest size and *b_m* number of pieces of size *s_m*.



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.



Configuration LP

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).

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} \min & & \sum_{j=1}^{N} x_j \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall i \in \{1 \dots m\} & \sum_{j=1}^{N} T_{ji} x_j & \geq & b_i \\ & \forall j \in \{1, \dots, N\} & & x_j & \geq & 0 \\ & \forall j \in \{1, \dots, N\} & & x_j & \text{integral} \end{array}$$



16.4 Advanced Rounding for Bin Packing

How to solve this LP?

later...



16.4 Advanced Rounding for Bin Packing

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.



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 $n_i \ge n_{i-1}$.



Lemma 85

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*′.



Lemma 86

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

- ► The total size of items in G₁ and G_r is at most 6 as a group has total size at most 3.
- 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)).

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 $O(\log(\text{SIZE}(I)))$ 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)



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 .



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.



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.

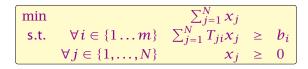
- ► The number of non-zero entries in the solution to the configuration LP for I' is at most the number of constraints, which is the number of different sizes (≤ SIZE(I)/2).
- ► The total size of items in I₂ can be at most ∑_{j=1}^N x_j ⌊x_j⌋ which is at most the number of non-zero entries in the solution to the configuration LP.

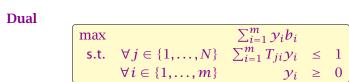


How to solve the LP?

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_j pieces of size s_i .

Primal







16.4 Advanced Rounding for Bin Packing

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

▶ is feasible, i.e.,

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

and has a large profit

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

But this is the Knapsack problem.



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'

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

Primal'

min		$(1+\epsilon')\sum_{j=1}^N x_j$		
s.t.	$\forall i \in \{1 \dots m\}$	$\sum_{j=1}^{N} T_{ji} x_j$	\geq	b_i
	$\forall j \in \{1, \dots, N\}$	x_j		

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') \text{OPT}_{\text{LP}}(I) + \mathcal{O}(\log^2(\text{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.



Lemma 87 (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

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



Lemma 88 *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

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



Proof of Chernoff Bounds

Markovs Inequality:

Let \boldsymbol{X} be random variable taking non-negative values. Then

$\Pr[X \ge a] \le \mathbb{E}[X]/a$

Trivial!



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 :(



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 (!?)



Proof of Chernoff Bounds

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

$$\mathbb{E}\left[e^{tX_i}\right] = (1 - p_i) + p_i e^t = 1 + p_i(e^t - 1) \le e^{p_i(e^t - 1)}$$

$$\prod_{i} \mathbb{E}\left[e^{tX_{i}}\right] \leq \prod_{i} e^{p_{i}(e^{t}-1)} = e^{\sum p_{i}(e^{t}-1)} = e^{(e^{t}-1)U}$$



17.1 Chernoff Bounds

Now, we apply Markov:

$$\Pr[X \ge (1+\delta)U] = \Pr[e^{tX} \ge e^{t(1+\delta)U}]$$
$$\le \frac{\operatorname{E}[e^{tX}]}{e^{t(1+\delta)U}} \le \frac{e^{(e^t-1)U}}{e^{t(1+\delta)U}} \le \left(\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{1+\delta}}\right)^U$$

We choose $t = \ln(1 + \delta)$.



Lemma 89 *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

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



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:

 $-\ln(1+\delta) \leq -2\delta/3$

Reason:

As long as derivative of left side is smaller than derivative of right side the inequality holds.



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

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 $f(1) = -\ln(2) + 2/3 < 0$



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.



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:

 $\ln(1-\delta) \leq -\delta$

Reason:

As long as derivative of left side is smaller than derivative of right side the inequality holds.



 $\ln(1-\delta) \leq -\delta$

True for $\delta = 0$. Take derivatives:

$$-\frac{1}{1-\delta} \le -1$$

This holds for $0 \le \delta < 1$.



Integer Multicommodity Flows

- Given s_i - t_i pairs in a graph.
- Connect each pair by a path such that not too many path use any given edge.



17.2 Integer Multicommodity Flows

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.



Theorem 90

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 91

With probability at least $n^{-c/3}$ the total number of paths using any edge is at most $W^* + c \ln n$.



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 $Y_e = \sum_i X_e^i$.

$$E[Y_e] = \sum_i \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}_i: e \in p} x_p^* = \sum_{p: e \in P} x_p^* \le W^*$$



17.2 Integer Multicommodity Flows

Integer Multicommodity Flows

Choose $\delta = \sqrt{(c \ln n)/W^*}$.

Then

$$\Pr[Y_e \ge (1+\delta)W^*] < e^{-W^*\delta^2/3} = \frac{1}{n^{c/3}}$$



17.2 Integer Multicommodity Flows

17.3 MAXSAT

Problem definition:

- n Boolean variables
- *m* 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.



17.3 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_i 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 x̄_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.



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).



Define random variable X_j 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

$$W = \sum_{j} w_{j} X_{j}$$



$$E[W] = \sum_{j} w_{j} E[X_{j}]$$

= $\sum_{j} w_{j} \Pr[C_{j} \text{ is satisified}]$
= $\sum_{j} w_{j} \left(1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\ell_{j}}\right)$
 $\geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j} w_{j}$
 $\geq \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{OPT}$



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.

$$C_j = \bigvee_{j \in P_j} x_i \lor \bigvee_{j \in N_j} \bar{x}_i$$

max		$\sum_j w_j z_j$		
s.t.	$\forall j$	$\sum_{i\in P_i} \mathcal{Y}_i + \sum_{i\in N_i} (1-\mathcal{Y}_i)$	\geq	z_j
	$\forall i$	\mathcal{Y}_i	\in	$\{0, 1\}$
	$\forall j$	z_j	\leq	1



MAXSAT: Randomized Rounding

Set each x_i independently to true with probability y_i (and, hence, to false with probability $(1 - y_i)$).



Lemma 92 (Geometric Mean \leq **Arithmetic Mean)** For any nonnegative a_1, \ldots, a_k

$$\left(\prod_{i=1}^k a_i\right)^{1/k} \le \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k a_i$$



Definition 93

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) \geq \lambda f(s) + (1-\lambda)f(r)
```

Lemma 94

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 $\lambda \in [0,1]$.



$$\Pr[C_j \text{ not satisfied}] = \prod_{i \in P_j} (1 - y_i) \prod_{i \in N_j} y_i$$
$$\leq \left[\frac{1}{\ell_j} \left(\sum_{i \in P_j} (1 - y_i) + \sum_{i \in N_j} y_i \right) \right]^{\ell_j}$$
$$= \left[1 - \frac{1}{\ell_j} \left(\sum_{i \in P_j} y_i + \sum_{i \in N_j} (1 - y_i) \right) \right]^{\ell_j}$$
$$\leq \left(1 - \frac{z_j}{\ell_j} \right)^{\ell_j} .$$



17.3 MAXSAT

The function $f(z)=1-(1-\frac{z}{\ell})^\ell$ is concave. Hence,

$$\Pr[C_j \text{ satisfied}] \ge 1 - \left(1 - \frac{z_j}{\ell_j}\right)^{\ell_j}$$
$$\ge \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\ell_j}\right)^{\ell_j}\right] \cdot z_j .$$

$$f''(z) = -\frac{\ell-1}{\ell} \Big[1 - \frac{z}{\ell} \Big]^{\ell-2} \le 0$$
 for $z \in [0,1]$. Therefore, f is concave.



$$E[W] = \sum_{j} w_{j} \Pr[C_{j} \text{ is satisfied}]$$

$$\geq \sum_{j} w_{j} z_{j} \left[1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{\ell_{j}}\right)^{\ell_{j}} \right]$$

$$\geq \left(1 - \frac{1}{e}\right) \text{ OPT }.$$



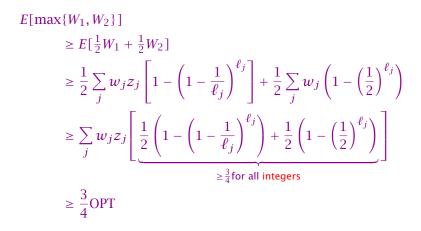
MAXSAT: The better of two

Theorem 95

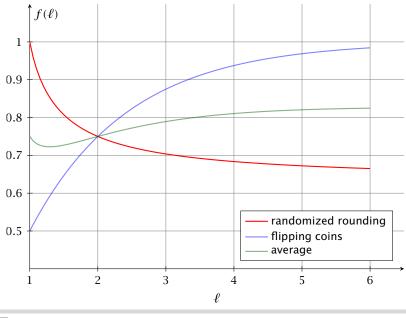
Choosing the better of the two solutions given by randomized rounding and coin flipping yields a $\frac{3}{4}$ -approximation.



Let W_1 be the value of randomized rounding and W_2 the value obtained by coin flipping.







EADS II Harald Räcke 17.3 MAXSAT

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 $f(y_i)$.



MAXSAT: Nonlinear Randomized Rounding

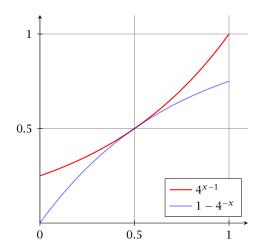
Let $f : [0,1] \rightarrow [0,1]$ be a function with

 $1 - 4^{-x} \le f(x) \le 4^{x-1}$

Theorem 96

Rounding the LP-solution with a function f of the above form gives a $\frac{3}{4}$ -approximation.







$$Pr[C_j \text{ not satisfied}] = \prod_{i \in P_j} (1 - f(y_i)) \prod_{i \in N_j} f(y_i)$$
$$\leq \prod_{i \in P_j} 4^{-y_i} \prod_{i \in N_j} 4^{y_i - 1}$$
$$= 4^{-(\sum_{i \in P_j} y_i + \sum_{i \in N_j} (1 - y_i))}$$
$$\leq 4^{-z_j}$$



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,

$$E[W] = \sum_{j} w_{j} \Pr[C_{j} \text{ satisfied}] \ge \frac{3}{4} \sum_{j} w_{j} z_{j} \ge \frac{3}{4} \operatorname{OPT}$$



Can we do better?

Not if we compare ourselves to the value of an optimum LP-solution.

Definition 97 (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 98

Our ILP-formulation for the MAXSAT problem has integrality gap at most $\frac{3}{4}$.

max		$\sum_j w_j z_j$		
s.t.	$\forall j$	$\sum_{i \in P_i} \mathcal{Y}_i + \sum_{i \in N_i} (1 - \mathcal{Y}_i)$	\geq	z_j
	$\forall i$	\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 y₁ = y₂ = 1/2 in the LP; this allows to set z₁ = z₂ = z₃ = z₄ = 1
- hence, the LP has value 4.

MaxCut

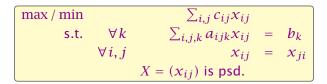
MaxCut

Given a weighted graph G = (V, E, w), $w(v) \ge 0$, partition the vertices into two parts. Maximize the weight of edges between the parts.

Trivial 2-approximation



Semidefinite Programming



- linear objective, linear contraints
- we can constrain a square matrix of variables to be symmetric positive definite

Note that wlog. we can assume that all variables appear in this matrix. Suppose we have a non-negative scalar z and want to express something like

$$\sum_{ij} a_{ijk} x_{ij} + z = b_k$$

where x_{ij} are variables of the positive semidefinite matrix. We can add z as a diagonal entry $x_{\ell\ell}$, and additionally introduce constraints $x_{\ell r} = 0$ and $x_{r\ell} = 0$.

Vector Programming

 $\begin{array}{cccc} \max / \min & & \sum_{i,j} c_{ij}(v_i^t v_j) \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall k & \sum_{i,j,k} a_{ijk}(v_i^t v_j) &= b_k \\ & \forall i,j & & x_{ij} &= x_{ji} \\ & & v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n \end{array}$

- variables are vectors in n-dimensional space
- objective functions and contraints are linear in inner products of the vectors

This is equivalent!



Fact [without proof]

We (essentially) can solve Semidefinite Programs in polynomial time...



Quadratic Programs

Quadratic Program for MaxCut:

$$\begin{array}{c|c} \max & \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} w_{ij} (1 - y_i y_j) \\ \forall i & y_i \in \{-1,1\} \end{array}$$

This is exactly MaxCut!



Semidefinite Relaxation

max		$\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i,j}w_{ij}(1-v_i^t v_j)$		
	$\forall i$	$v_i^t v_i$	=	1
	$\forall i$	v_i	\in	\mathbb{R}^{n}

- this is clearly a relaxation
- the solution will be vectors on the unit sphere



- Choose a random vector r such that r/||r|| is uniformly distributed on the unit sphere.
- If $r^t v_i > 0$ set $y_i = 1$ else set $y_i = -1$



Choose the *i*-th coordinate r_i as a Gaussian with mean 0 and variance 1, i.e., $r_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

Density function:

$$\varphi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{x^2/2}$$

Then

$$\Pr[r = (x_1, \dots, x_n)]$$

= $\frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{x_1^2/2} \cdot e^{x_2^2/2} \cdot \dots \cdot e^{x_n^2/2} dx_1 \cdot \dots \cdot dx_n$
= $\frac{1}{(\sqrt{2\pi})^n} e^{\frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2)} dx_1 \cdot \dots \cdot dx_n$

Hence the probability for a point only depends on its distance to the origin.

Fact

The projection of r onto two unit vectors e_1 and e_2 are independent and are normally distributed with mean 0 and variance 1 iff e_1 and e_2 are orthogonal.

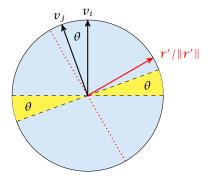
Note that this is clear if e_1 and e_2 are standard basis vectors.



Corollary

If we project r onto a hyperplane its normalized projection (r'/||r'||) is uniformly distributed on the unit circle within the hyperplane.





- if the normalized projection falls into the shaded region, v_i and v_j are rounded to different values
- this happens with probability $heta/\pi$



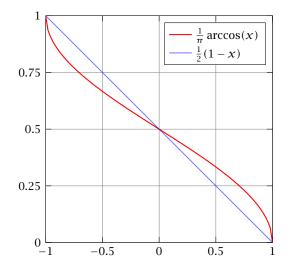
► contribution of edge (*i*, *j*) to the SDP-relaxation:

$$\frac{1}{2}w_{ij}\left(1-v_i^t v_j\right)$$

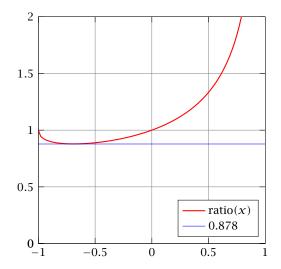
- (expected) contribution of edge (*i*, *j*) to the rounded instance w_{ij} arccos(v^t_iv_j)/π
- ratio is at most

$$\min_{x \in [-1,1]} \frac{2 \arccos(x)}{\pi (1-x)} \ge 0.878$$











Theorem 99

Given the unique games conjecture, there is no α -approximation for the maximum cut problem with constant

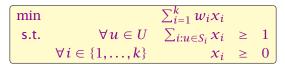
 $\alpha > \min_{x \in [-1,1]} \frac{2 \arccos(x)}{\pi(1-x)}$

unless P = NP.



Repetition: Primal Dual for Set Cover

Primal Relaxation:



Dual Formulation:

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \max & \sum_{u \in U} \mathcal{Y}_{u} \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\} & \sum_{u: u \in S_{i}} \mathcal{Y}_{u} & \leq w_{i} \\ & & \mathcal{Y}_{u} & \geq & 0 \end{array}$$



Repetition: Primal Dual for Set Cover

Algorithm:

- Start with y = 0 (feasible dual solution).
 Start with x = 0 (integral primal solution that may be infeasible).
- 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_j set x_j = 1 (add this set to your solution).



Repetition: Primal Dual for Set Cover

Analysis:

For every set S_j with $x_j = 1$ we have

$$\sum_{e \in S_j} y_e = w_j$$

Hence our cost is

$$\sum_{j} w_{j} x_{j} = \sum_{j} \sum_{e \in S_{j}} y_{e} = \sum_{e} |\{j : e \in S_{j}\}| \cdot y_{e}$$
$$\leq f \cdot \sum_{e} y_{e} \leq f \cdot \text{OPT}$$



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!!!



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.

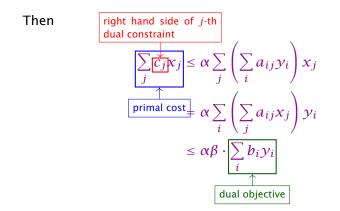


Suppose we have a primal/dual pair

and solutions that fulfill approximate slackness conditions:

$$x_j > 0 \Rightarrow \sum_i a_{ij} y_i \ge \frac{1}{\alpha} c_j$$
$$y_i > 0 \Rightarrow \sum_j a_{ij} x_j \le \beta b_i$$







Feedback Vertex Set for Undirected Graphs

- Given a graph G = (V, E) and non-negative weights $w_v \ge 0$ for vertex $v \in V$.
- Choose a minimum cost subset of vertices s.t. every cycle contains at least one vertex.



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.



Let $\mathbb C$ denote the set of all cycles (where a cycle is identified by its set of vertices)

Primal Relaxation:

$$\begin{array}{|c|c|c|c|c|} \min & & \sum_{v} w_{v} x_{v} \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall C \in \mathfrak{C} & \sum_{v \in C} x_{v} & \geq & 1 \\ & & \forall v & & x_{v} & \geq & 0 \end{array}$$

Dual Formulation:



18.2 Feedback Vertex Set for Undirected Graphs

If we perform the previous dual technique for Set Cover we get the following:

- Start with x = 0 and y = 0
- While there is a cycle C that is not covered (does not contain a chosen vertex).
 - Increase y_C until dual constraint for some vertex v becomes tight.
 - set $x_v = 1$.



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.



Algorithm 1 FeedbackVertexSet

- 1: $y \leftarrow 0$
- 2: *x* ← 0
- 3: while exists cycle C in G do
- 4: increase y_C until there is $v \in C$ s.t. $\sum_{C:v \in C} y_C = w_v$

5:
$$x_v = 1$$

- 6: remove v from G
- 7: repeatedly remove vertices of degree 1 from G



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 100

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.

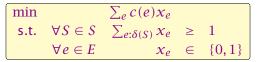
This means we have

 $\mathcal{Y}_C > 0 \Rightarrow |S \cap C| \leq \mathcal{O}(\log n)$.



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.



Here $\delta(S)$ denotes the set of edges with exactly one end-point in S, and $S = \{S \subseteq V : s \in S, t \notin S\}$.



Primal Dual for Shortest Path

The Dual:

Here $\delta(S)$ denotes the set of edges with exactly one end-point in S, and $S = \{S \subseteq V : s \in S, t \notin S\}$.



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.



Algorithm 1 PrimalDualShortestPath

1: $y \leftarrow 0$

2:
$$F \leftarrow \emptyset$$

- 3: while there is no s-t path in (V, F) do
- 4: Let *C* be the connected component of (*V*,*F*) containing *s*
- 5: Increase γ_C until there is an edge $e' \in \delta(C)$ such that $\sum_{S:e' \in \delta(S)} \gamma_S = c(e')$. 6: $F \leftarrow F \cup \{e'\}$

7: Let P be an s-t path in
$$(V, F)$$

8: return P



Lemma 101

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.



$$\sum_{e \in P} c(e) = \sum_{e \in P} \sum_{S: e \in \delta(S)} y_S$$
$$= \sum_{S: s \in S, t \notin S} |P \cap \delta(S)| \cdot y_S .$$

If we can show that $y_S > 0$ implies $|P \cap \delta(S)| = 1$ gives

$$\sum_{e \in P} c(e) = \sum_{S} y_{S} \le \text{OPT}$$

by weak duality.

Hence, we find a shortest path.



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 γ_S , S was a connected component of the set of edges F' that we had chosen till this point.

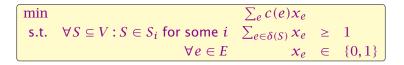
 $F' \cup P'$ contains a cycle. Hence, also the final set of edges contains a cycle.

This is a contradiction.



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.



Here S_i contains all sets S such that $s_i \in S$ and $t_i \notin S$.



$$\begin{array}{cccc} \max & \sum_{S: \exists i \text{ s.t. } S \in S_i} \mathcal{Y}S \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall e \in E & \sum_{S:e \in \delta(S)} \mathcal{Y}S &\leq c(e) \\ & & \mathcal{Y}S &\geq 0 \end{array}$$

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).



Algorithm 1 FirstTry

1:
$$y \leftarrow 0$$

2: $F \leftarrow \emptyset$
3: while not all $s_i \cdot t_i$ pairs connected in F do
4: Let C be some connected component of (V, F)
such that $|C \cap \{s_i, t_i\}| = 1$ for some i .
5: Increase y_C until there is an edge $e' \in \delta(C)$ s.t.
 $\sum_{S \in S_i: e' \in \delta(S)} y_S = C_{e'}$
6: $F \leftarrow F \cup \{e'\}$
7: return $\bigcup_i P_i$



$$\sum_{e \in F} c(e) = \sum_{e \in F} \sum_{S: e \in \delta(S)} \gamma_S = \sum_S |\delta(S) \cap F| \cdot \gamma_S .$$

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 $|\delta(\{v_0\}) \cap F| = k$.



Algorithm 1 SecondTry

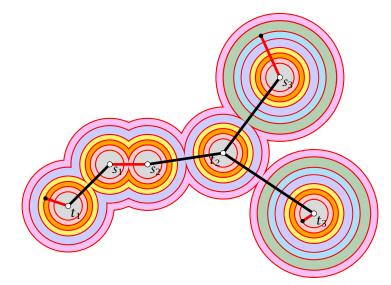
1:
$$y \leftarrow 0$$
; $F \leftarrow \emptyset$; $\ell \leftarrow 0$
2: while not all $s_i \cdot t_i$ pairs connected in F do
3: $\ell \leftarrow \ell + 1$
4: Let \mathfrak{C} be set of all connected components C of (V, F)
such that $|C \cap \{s_i, t_i\}| = 1$ for some i .
5: Increase y_C for all $C \in \mathfrak{C}$ uniformly until for some edge
 $e_\ell \in \delta(C'), C' \in \mathfrak{C}$ s.t. $\sum_{S:e_\ell \in \delta(S)} y_S = c_{e_\ell}$
6: $F \leftarrow F \cup \{e_\ell\}$
7: $F' \leftarrow F$
8: for $k \leftarrow \ell$ downto 1 do // reverse deletion
9: if $F' - e_k$ is feasible solution then
10: remove e_k from F'
11: return F'



The reverse deletion step is not strictly necessary this way. It would also be sufficient to simply delete all unnecessary edges in any order.



Example





Lemma 102 For any C in any iteration of the algorithm

 $\sum_{C \in \mathfrak{C}} |\delta(C) \cap F'| \le 2|\mathfrak{C}|$

This means that the number of times a moat from \mathbb{C} is crossed in the final solution is at most twice the number of moats.

Proof: later...



$$\sum_{e \in F'} c_e = \sum_{e \in F'} \sum_{S: e \in \delta(S)} \gamma_S = \sum_S |F' \cap \delta(S)| \cdot \gamma_S .$$

We want to show that

$$\sum_{S} |F' \cap \delta(S)| \cdot \gamma_{S} \le 2 \sum_{S} \gamma_{S}$$

In the *i*-th iteration the increase of the left-hand side is

$$\epsilon \sum_{C \in \mathfrak{C}} |F' \cap \delta(C)|$$

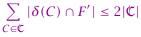
and the increase of the right hand side is $2\epsilon |C|$.

Hence, by the previous lemma the inequality holds after the iteration if it holds in the beginning of the iteration.



Lemma 103

For any set of connected components $\mathbb C$ in any iteration of the algorithm



Proof:

- At any point during the algorithm the set of edges forms a forest (why?).
- ► Fix iteration *i*. 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.



- ► 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 𝔅 (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

$$\sum_{v \in R} \deg(v) \ge \sum_{C \in \mathfrak{C}} |\delta(C) \cap F'| \stackrel{?}{\le} 2|\mathfrak{C}| = 2|R|$$



- 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 $b \in B$ 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.



19 Cuts & Metrics

Shortest Path

S is the set of subsets that separate s from t.

The Dual:

$$\begin{array}{c|cccc} \max & \sum_{S} y_{S} \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall e \in E & \sum_{S:e \in \delta(S)} y_{S} &\leq c(e) \\ & \forall S \in S & y_{S} &\geq 0 \end{array}$$

The Separation Problem for the Shortest Path LP is the Minimum Cut Problem.

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19 Cuts & Metrics

Minimum Cut

 \mathcal{P} is the set of path that connect s and t.

The Dual:

$$\begin{array}{c|ccc} \max & & \sum_{P} y_{P} \\ \text{s.t.} & \forall e \in E & \sum_{P:e \in P} y_{P} & \leq & c(e) \\ & \forall P \in \mathcal{P} & y_{P} & \geq & 0 \end{array}$$

The Separation Problem for the Minimum Cut LP is the Shortest Path Problem.



19 Cuts & Metrics

19 Cuts & Metrics

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.



How do we round the LP?

Let B(s, r) be the ball of radius r around s (w.r.t. metric d). Formally:

 $B = \{ v \in V \mid d(s, v) \le r \}$

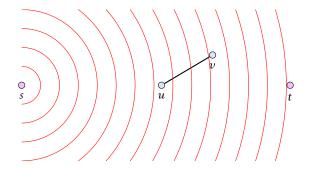
For $0 \le r < 1$, B(s, r) is an *s*-*t*-cut.

Which value of *r* should we choose? choose randomly!!!

Formally: choose r u.a.r. (uniformly at random) from interval [0,1)



What is the probability that an edge (u, v) is in the cut?



• asssume wlog. $d(s, u) \le d(s, v)$

$$\Pr[e \text{ is cut}] = \Pr[r \in [d(s, u), d(s, v))] \le \frac{d(s, v) - d(s, u)}{1 - 0}$$
$$\le \ell_e$$



19 Cuts & Metrics

What is the expected size of a cut?

$$E[\text{size of cut}] = E[\sum_{e} c(e) \Pr[e \text{ is cut}]]$$
$$\leq \sum_{e} c(e) \ell_{e}$$

On the other hand:

$$\sum_{e} c(e) \ell_{e} \leq \text{size of mincut}$$

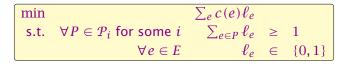
as the ℓ_e are the solution to the Mincut LP *relaxation*.

Hence, our rounding gives an optimal solution.



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 $G = (V, E \setminus F)$.



Here \mathcal{P}_i contains all path P between s_i and t_i .



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.



- 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 02: repeat3: flip a coin (Pr[heads] = p)4: z \leftarrow z + 15: until heads6: return B(s_i, z)
```



Algorithm 1 Multicut(G')1: while $\exists s_i \cdot t_i$ pair in G' do2: $C \leftarrow$ RegionGrowing(s_i, p)3: $G' = G' \setminus C //$ cuts edges leaving C4: 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.



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 $1/2 \ \mbox{we are in}$ good shape.



- 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,

$$\Pr[\exists i \text{ that is not successful}] \leq \frac{1}{k^2}$$



What is expected cost?

$$\begin{split} E[\texttt{cutsize}] &= \Pr[\texttt{success}] \cdot E[\texttt{cutsize} \mid \texttt{success}] \\ &+ \Pr[\texttt{no success}] \cdot E[\texttt{cutsize} \mid \texttt{no success}] \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \text{E}[\text{cutsize} \mid \text{succ.}] &= \frac{\text{E}[\text{cutsize}] - \text{Pr}[\text{no succ.}] \cdot \text{E}[\text{cutsize} \mid \text{no succ.}]}{\text{Pr}[\text{success}]} \\ &\leq \frac{\text{E}[\text{cutsize}]}{\text{Pr}[\text{success}]} \leq \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{k^2}} 6 \ln k \cdot \text{OPT} \leq 8 \ln k \cdot \text{OPT} \end{split}$$

Note: success means all source-target pairs separated We assume $k \ge 2$.



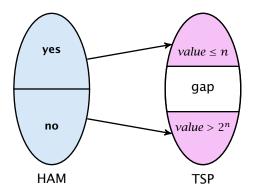
If we are not successful we simply perform a trivial *k*-approximation.

This only increases the expected cost by at most $\frac{1}{k^2} \cdot k\text{OPT} \leq \text{OPT}/k$.

Hence, our final cost is $\mathcal{O}(\ln k) \cdot \text{OPT}$ in expectation.



Gap Introducing Reduction



Reduction from Hamiltonian cycle to TSP

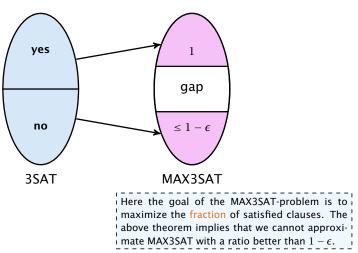
- instance that has Hamiltonian cycle is mapped to TSP instance with small cost
- otherwise it is mapped to instance with large cost
- \Rightarrow there is no $2^n/n$ -approximation for TSP

PCP theorem: Approximation View

Theorem 104 (PCP Theorem A)

There exists $\epsilon > 0$ for which there is gap introducing reduction between 3SAT and MAX3SAT.

The standard formulation of the PCP theorem looks very different but the I above theorem is i equivalent. Originally, the PCP theorem is a result about interactive proof systems and its importance to hardness of approximation is somewhat a side effect.



PCP theorem: Proof System View

Definition 105 (NP)

A language $L \in NP$ if there exists a polynomial time, deterministic verifier V (a Turing machine), s.t.

- [x ∈ L] completeness $There exists a proof string <math>\mathcal{Y}$, $|\mathcal{Y}| = poly(|x|)$, s.t. $V(x, \mathcal{Y}) =$ "accept".
- $[x \notin L]$ soundness For any proof string *y*, *V*(*x*, *y*) = "reject".

Note that requiring |y| = poly(|x|) for $x \notin L$ does not make a difference (**why?**).



Definition 106 (NP)

A language $L \in \mathbb{NP}$ if there exists a polynomial time, deterministic verifier V (a Turing machine), s.t.

[x ∈ 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?).



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.

For a proof string y, π_y is an oracle that upon given an index i returns the *i*-th character y_i of y.



Non-adaptive means that e.g. the second proof-bit read by the verifier may not depend on the value of the first bit.

Definition 107 (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, s.t.

- $[x \in L]$ There exists a proof string y, s.t. $V^{\pi_y}(x) =$ "accept" with proability $\geq c(n)$.
- [*x* ∉ *L*] For any proof string *y*, $V^{\pi_y}(x) =$ "accept" with probability ≤ *s*(*n*).

The verifier uses at most O(r(n)) random bits and makes at most O(q(n)) oracle queries.

Note that the proof itself does not count towards the input of the verifier. The verifier has to write the number of a bit-position it wants to read onto a special tape, and then the corresponding bit from the proof is returned to the verifier. The proof may only be exponentially long, as a polynomial time verifier cannot address longer proofs.

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.



RP = coRP = P is a commonly believed conjecture. RP stands for randomized polynomial time (with a non-zero probability of rejecting a YES-instance).

 $\blacktriangleright P = PCP(0, 0)$

verifier without randomness and proof access is deterministic algorithm

• $PCP(\log n, 0) \subseteq P$

we can simulate $O(\log n)$ random bits in deterministic, polynomial time

• $PCP(0, \log n) \subseteq P$

we can simulate short proofs in polynomial time

• $PCP(poly(n), 0) = coRP \stackrel{?!}{=} P$

by definition; coRP is randomized polytime with one sided error (positive probability of accepting NO-instance)

Note that the first three statements also hold with equality



Probabilistic Checkable Proofs

• PCP(0, poly(n)) = NP

by definition; NP-verifier does not use randomness and asks polynomially many queries

• $PCP(\log n, poly(n)) \subseteq NP$

NP-verifier can simulate $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ random bits

- $PCP(poly(n), 0) = coRP \stackrel{?!}{\subseteq} NP$
- ▶ NP \subseteq PCP(log n, 1)

hard part of the PCP-theorem



PCP theorem: Proof System View

Theorem 108 (PCP Theorem B) NP = PCP(log n, 1)



Probabilistic Proof for Graph NonIsomorphism

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

 $G_0 \equiv H \implies P[H] = 0$ $G_1 \equiv H \implies P[H] = 1$ $G_0, G_1 \neq H \implies P[H] = \text{arbitrary}$



20 Hardness of Approximation

Probabilistic Proof for Graph NonIsomorphism

Verifier:

- 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.

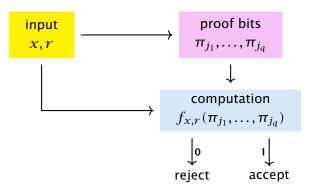
If $G_0 \equiv G_1$ a proof only accepts with probability 1/2.

- suppose $\pi(G_0) = G_1$
- if we accept for b = 1 and permutation π_{rand} we reject for

b=0 and permutation $\pi_{rand}\circ\pi$

Version $B \Rightarrow$ Version A

- ► For 3SAT there exists a verifier that uses c log n random bits, reads q = O(1) bits from the proof, has completeness 1 and soundness 1/2.
- fix x and r:





20 Hardness of Approximation

Version $B \Rightarrow$ Version A

- transform Boolean formula f_{x,r} into 3SAT formula C_{x,r} (constant size, variables are proof bits)
- consider 3SAT formula $C_X \coloneqq \bigwedge_{r} C_{x,r}$
- $[x \in L]$ There exists proof string γ , s.t. all formulas $C_{\chi,\gamma}$ evaluate to 1. Hence, all clauses in C_{χ} satisfied.
- [$x \notin L$] For any proof string γ , at most 50% of formulas $C_{\chi,\gamma}$ evaluate to 1. Since each contains only a constant number of clauses, a constant fraction of clauses in C_{χ} are not satisfied.

this means we have gap introducing reduction



Version $A \Rightarrow$ Version B

We show: Version A \Rightarrow NP \subseteq PCP_{1,1- ϵ} (log *n*, 1).

given $L \in \mathbb{NP}$ we build a PCP-verifier for L

Verifier:

- ▶ 3SAT is NP-complete; map instance x for L into 3SAT instance I_x , s.t. I_x satisfiable iff $x \in L$
- map I_X to MAX3SAT instance C_X (PCP Thm. Version A)
- interpret proof as assignment to variables in C_x
- choose random clause X from C_X
- query variable assignment σ for X;
- accept if $X(\sigma)$ = true otw. reject

Version $A \Rightarrow$ Version B

- $[x \in L]$ There exists proof string γ , s.t. all clauses in C_{χ} evaluate to 1. In this case the verifier returns 1.
- $[x \notin L]$ For any proof string γ , at most a (1ϵ) -fraction of clauses in C_x evaluate to 1. The verifier will reject with probability at least ϵ .

To show Theorem B we only need to run this verifier a constant number of times to push rejection probability above 1/2.



Note that this approach has strong connections to error correction codes.

PCP(poly(n), 1) means we have a potentially exponentially long proof but we only read a constant number of bits from it.

The idea is to encode an NP-witness (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.



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 .



The Code

Lemma 109 If $u \neq u'$ then WH_u and $WH_{u'}$ differ in at least 2^{n-1} bits.

Proof: 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

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

$$f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$$

for all 2^{2n} pairs x, y. But that's not very efficient.



Can we just check a constant number of positions?



Observe that for two codewords $\Pr_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} [f(x) = g(x)] = 1/2.$

Definition 110 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 111 (proof deferred)

Let $f: \{0,1\}^n \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ 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.



We need $\mathcal{O}(1/\delta)$ trials to be sure that f is $(1 - \delta)$ -close to a linear function with (arbitrary) constant probability.



Suppose for $\delta < 1/4 f$ is $(1 - \delta)$ -close to some linear function \tilde{f} .

 \widetilde{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?



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 the above routine returns $\tilde{f}(x)$.

This technique is known as local decoding of the Walsh-Hadamard code.

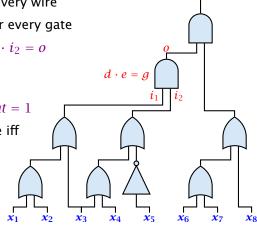
We show that $QUADEQ \in PCP(poly(n), 1)$. The theorem follows since any PCP-class is closed under polynomial time reductions.

 $\ensuremath{\textbf{QUADEQ}}$ Given a system of quadratic equations over GF(2). Is there a solution?



QUADEQ is NP-complete

- ▶ given 3SAT instance *C* represent it as Boolean circuit e.g. $C = (x_1 \lor x_2 \lor x_3) \land (x_3 \lor x_4 \lor \bar{x}_5) \land (x_6 \lor x_7 \lor x_8)$
- add variable for every wire
- add constraint for every gate
 - OR: $i_1 + i_2 + i_1 \cdot i_2 = o$ AND: $i_1 \cdot i_2 = o$ NEG: i = 1 - o
- add constraint out = 1
- system is feasible iff
 C is satisfiable





20 Hardness of Approximation

Note that over $GF(2) \ x = x^2$. Therefore, we can assume that there are no terms of degree 1.

We encode an instance of QUADEQ by a matrix A that has n^2 columns; one for every pair *i*, *j*; and a right hand side vector *b*.

For an *n*-dimensional vector x we use $x \otimes x$ to denote the n^2 -dimensional vector whose i, j-th entry is $x_i x_j$.

Then we are asked whether

 $A(x \otimes x) = b$

has a solution.

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.



Recall that for a correct proof there is no difference between f and \tilde{f} .

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 0.999-linearity test for both functions (requires a constant number of queries).

We also assume that for the remaining constant number of accesses WH-decoding succeeds and we recover $\tilde{f}(x)$.

Hence, our proof will only ever see \tilde{f} . To simplify notation we use f for \tilde{f} , in the following (similar for g, \tilde{g}).

We need to show that the probability of accepting a wrong proof is small.

This first step means that in order to fool us with reasonable probability a wrong proof needs to be very close to a linear function. The probability that we accept a proof when the functions are not close to linear is just a small constant.

Similarly, if the functions are close to linear then the probability that the Walsh Hadamard decoding fails (for *any* of the remaining accesses) is just a small constant. If we ignore this small constant error then a malicious prover could also provide a linear function (as a near linear function f is "rounded" by us to the corresponding linear function \tilde{f}). If this rounding is successful it doesn't make sense for the prover to provide a function that is not linear.



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

$$f(r) \cdot f(r') = u^{T}r \cdot u^{T}r'$$
$$= \left(\sum_{i} u_{i}r_{i}\right) \cdot \left(\sum_{j} u_{j}r'_{j}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{ij} u_{i}u_{j}r_{i}r'_{j}$$
$$= (u \otimes u)^{T}(r \otimes r')$$
$$= g(r \otimes r')$$



20 Hardness of Approximation

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 $U_{ii} = u_i \cdot u_i$ (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 $r^TWr' \neq r^TUr'$ with probability at least 1/4.

For a non-zero vector x and a random vector r (both with elements from GF(2)), we have $Pr[x^T r \neq 0] = \frac{1}{2}$. This holds because the product is zero iff the number of ones in r that "hit" ones in x in the product is even.

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 $r^T A$, 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 constraints.

In this case $r^T A(u \otimes u) \neq r^T b_k$. The left hand side is equal to $g(A^T r)$.

We used the following theorem for the linearity test:

Theorem 111 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.



20 Hardness of Approximation

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 $f: \{-1,1\}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ form a 2^n -dimensional Hilbert space.



Hilbert space

- addition (f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)
- scalar multiplication $(\alpha f)(x) = \alpha f(x)$
- ▶ inner product $\langle f, g \rangle = E_{x \in \{-1,1\}^n} [f(x)g(x)]$ (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

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \|x_k\| < \infty \text{ fulfills } \left\| L - \sum_{k=1}^{N} x_k \right\| \to 0$$

for some vector L.



standard basis

$$e_{x}(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & x = y \\ 0 & \text{otw.} \end{cases}$$

Then, $f(x) = \sum_i \alpha_i e_i(x)$ where $\alpha_x = f(x)$, this means the functions e_i form a basis. This basis is orthonormal.



20 Hardness of Approximation

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...)



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.



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 112

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 $f : \{-1, 1\}^n \to \{-1, 1\}$, $\langle f, f \rangle = 1$.

 $\langle f,f\rangle = E_x[f(x)^2] = 1$



20 Hardness of Approximation

Linearity Test

in 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.

in Hilbert space: (we will prove) Suppose $f : \{\pm 1\}^n \rightarrow \{-1, 1\}$ fulfills

$$\Pr_{x,y}[f(x)f(y) = f(x \circ y)] \ge \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon .$$

Then there is some $\alpha \subseteq [n]$, s.t. $\hat{f}_{\alpha} \ge 2\epsilon$.

Here $x \circ y$ denotes the *n*-dimensional vector with entry $x_i y_i$ in position *i* (Hadamard product). Observe that we have $\chi_{\alpha}(x \circ y) = \chi_{\alpha}(x)\chi_{\alpha}(y)$.



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 $\frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$.



Linearity Test

$$\Pr_{x,y}[f(x \circ y) = f(x)f(y)] \ge \frac{1}{2} + \epsilon$$

means that the fraction of inputs x, y on which $f(x \circ y)$ and f(x)f(y) agree is at least $1/2 + \epsilon$.

This gives

 $E_{x,y}[f(x \circ y)f(x)f(y)] = \text{agreement} - \text{disagreement}$ = 2agreement - 1 $\geq 2\epsilon$



20 Hardness of Approximation

$$\begin{aligned} 2\epsilon &\leq E_{x,y} \left[f(x \circ y) f(x) f(y) \right] \\ &= E_{x,y} \left[\left(\sum_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha} \chi_{\alpha}(x \circ y) \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{\beta} \hat{f}_{\beta} \chi_{\beta}(x) \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{\gamma} \hat{f}_{\gamma} \chi_{\gamma}(y) \right) \right] \\ &= E_{x,y} \left[\sum_{\alpha,\beta,\gamma} \hat{f}_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\beta} \hat{f}_{\gamma} \chi_{\alpha}(x) \chi_{\alpha}(y) \chi_{\beta}(x) \chi_{\gamma}(y) \right] \\ &= \sum_{\alpha,\beta,\gamma} \hat{f}_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\beta} \hat{f}_{\gamma} \cdot E_{x} \left[\chi_{\alpha}(x) \chi_{\beta}(x) \right] E_{y} \left[\chi_{\alpha}(y) \chi_{\gamma}(y) \right] \\ &= \sum_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha}^{3} \\ &\leq \max_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha} \cdot \sum_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha}^{2} = \max_{\alpha} \hat{f}_{\alpha} \end{aligned}$$



20 Hardness of Approximation

Approximation Preserving Reductions

AP-reduction

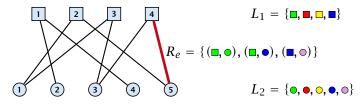
- $x \in I_1 \Rightarrow f(x,r) \in I_2$
- $SOL_1(x) \neq \emptyset \Rightarrow SOL_1(f(x,r)) \neq \emptyset$
- $y \in SOL_2(f(x,r)) \Rightarrow g(x,y,r) \in SOL_1(x)$
- f, g are polynomial time computable
- $\blacktriangleright R_2(f(x,r),y) \le r \Rightarrow R_1(x,g(x,y,r)) \le 1 + \alpha(r-1)$



Label Cover

Input:

- bipartite graph $G = (V_1, V_2, E)$
- ▶ 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



The label cover problem also has its origin in proof systems. It encodes a 2PR1 (2 prover 1 round system). Each side of the graph corresponds to a prover. An edge is a query consisting of a question for prover 1 and prover 2. If the answers are consistent the verifer accepts otw. it rejects.

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 y ∈ 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)

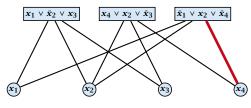


MAX E3SAT via Label Cover

instance:

 $\Phi(\boldsymbol{x}) = (\boldsymbol{x}_1 \vee \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}_2 \vee \boldsymbol{x}_3) \land (\boldsymbol{x}_4 \vee \boldsymbol{x}_2 \vee \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}_3) \land (\bar{\boldsymbol{x}}_1 \vee \boldsymbol{x}_2 \vee \bar{\boldsymbol{x}}_4)$

corresponding graph:



The verifier accepts if the labelling (assignment to variables in clauses at the top + assignment to variables at the bottom) causes the clause to evaluate to true and is consistent, i.e., the assignment of e.g. x_4 at the bottom is the same as the assignment given to x_4 in the labelling of the clause.

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*

$$R = \{((F,F,F),F), ((F,T,F),F), ((F,F,T),T), ((F,T,T),T), ((T,T,T),T), ((T,T,F),F), ((T,F,F),F)\}$$

MAX E3SAT via Label Cover

Lemma 113

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

Lemma 114

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

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We cannot distinguish between the following two cases

- all 3m edges can be made happy
- ► at most $2m + (1 \epsilon)m = (3 \epsilon)m$ out of the 3m edges can be made happy

Hence, we cannot obtain an approximation constant $\alpha > \frac{3-\epsilon}{3}$.



(3, 5)-regular instances

Theorem 115

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)



(3, 5)-regular instances

The previous theorem can be obtained with a series of gap-preserving reductions:

- MAX3SAT \leq MAX3SAT(\leq 29)
- $MAX3SAT(\leq 29) \leq MAX3SAT(\leq 5)$
- $MAX3SAT(\leq 5) \leq MAX3SAT(= 5)$
- $MAX3SAT(= 5) \le MAXE3SAT(= 5)$

Here MAX3SAT(≤ 29) is the variant of MAX3SAT in which a variable appears in at most 29 clauses. Similar for the other problems.



Regular instances

We take the (3, 5)-regular instance. We make 3 copies of every clause vertex and 5 copies of every variable vertex. Then we add edges between clause vertex and variable vertex iff the clause contains the variable. This increases the size by a constant factor. The gap instance can still either only satisfy a constant fraction of the edges or all edges. The uniqueness property still holds for the new instance.

Theorem 116

There is a constant $\alpha < 1$ such if 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)



Parallel Repetition

We would like to increase the inapproximability for Label Cover.

In the verifier view, in order to decrease the acceptance probability of a wrong proof (or as here: a pair of wrong proofs) one could repeat the verification several times.

Unfortunately, we have a 2P1R-system, i.e., we are stuck with a single round and cannot simply repeat.

The idea is to use parallel repetition, i.e., we simply play several rounds in parallel and hope that the acceptance probability of wrong proofs goes down.



Parallel Repetition

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':

$$V'_1 = V_1^k = V_1 \times \cdots \times V_1$$

$$V'_2 = V_2^k = V_2 \times \cdots \times V_2$$

$$L'_1 = L_1^k = L_1 \times \cdots \times L_1$$

$$L'_2 = L_2^k = L_2 \times \cdots \times L_2$$

$$E' = E^k = E \times \cdots \times E$$

An edge $((x_1, \ldots, x_k), (y_1, \ldots, y_k))$ whose end-points are labelled by $(\ell_1^x, \ldots, \ell_k^x)$ and $(\ell_1^y, \ldots, \ell_k^y)$ is happy if $(\ell_i^x, \ell_i^y) \in R_{x_i, y_i}$ for all *i*.



Parallel Repetition

If I is regular than also I'.

If I has the uniqueness property than also I'.

Did the gap increase?

- Suppose we have labelling ℓ_1, ℓ_2 that satisfies just an α -fraction of edges in *I*.
- We transfer this labelling to instance I': vertex $(x_1, ..., x_k)$ gets label $(\ell_1(x_1), ..., \ell_1(x_k))$, vertex $(y_1, ..., y_k)$ gets label $(\ell_2(y_1), ..., \ell_2(y_k))$.
- How many edges are happy?
 only (α|E|)^k out of |E|^k!!! (just an α^k fraction)

Does this always work?



Counter Example

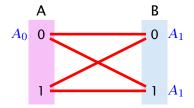
Non interactive agreement:

- Two provers A and B
- ► The verifier generates two random bits *b*_{*A*}, and *b*_{*B*}, and sends one to *A* and one to *B*.
- ► Each prover has to answer one of A₀, A₁, B₀, B₁ with the meaning A₀ := prover A has been given a bit with value 0.
- The provers win if they give the same answer and if the answer is correct.



Counter Example

The provers can win with probability at most 1/2.



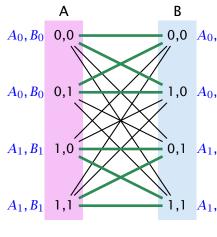
Regardless what we do 50% of edges are unhappy!



20 Hardness of Approximation

Counter Example

In the repeated game the provers can also win with probability 1/2:



The provers give for the first game/coordinate an answer of the form "A has received..." (A_0 or A_1) and for the second an answer of the form "B has received..." (B_0 or B_1).

If the answer to be given is about himself a prover can answer correctly. If the answer to be given A_0, B_0 is about the other prover we return the same bit. This means e.g. Prover B answers A_1 for the first game iff in the second game he receives a 1-bit.

By this method the provers always win if Prover A gets the same bit in the first game as Prover B in the second game. This happens A1, B1, with probability 1/2.

Note that this strategy is not possible for the provers if the game is repeated sequentially. A_1, B_1 How should prover *B* know (for her answer in the first game) which bit she is going to receive in the second game.

Boosting

Theorem 117

There is a constant c > 0 such if $OPT(I) = |E|(1 - \delta)$ then $OPT(I') \le |E'|(1 - \delta)^{\frac{ck}{\log L}}$, where $L = |L_1| + |L_2|$ denotes total number of labels in I.

proof is highly non-trivial



20 Hardness of Approximation

Hardness of Label Cover

Theorem 118

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 $(I) = |E|(1 \delta)^{ck}$

unless each problem in NP has an algorithm running in time $\mathcal{O}(n^{\mathcal{O}(k)})$.

Corollary 119

There is no α -approximation for Label Cover for any constant α .



Theorem 120

There exist regular Label Cover instances s.t. we cannot distinguish whether

- all edges are satisfiable, or
- at most a $1/\log^2(|L_1||E|)$ -fraction is satisfiable

unless NP-problems have algorithms with running time $\mathcal{O}(n^{\mathcal{O}(\log \log n)})$.

choose $k \ge \frac{2}{c} \log_{1/(1-\delta)} (\log(|L_1||E|)) = \mathcal{O}(\log\log n)$.



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

we will show later:

for any *h*, *t* with $h \le t$ there exist systems with $s = |U| \le 4t^2 2^h$



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; ($t = |L_1|$, $h = \log(|E||L_1|)$)

for all $u \in V_1$, $\ell_1 \in L_1$

 $S_{u,\ell_1} = \{((u,v),a) \mid (u,v) \in E, a \in A_{\ell_1}\}$

for all $v \in V_2$, $\ell_2 \in L_2$

 $S_{v,\ell_2} = \{((u,v),a) \mid (u,v) \in E, a \in \bar{A}_{\ell_1}, \text{ where } (\ell_1,\ell_2) \in R_{(u,v)}\}$

note that S_{v,ℓ_2} is well defined because of uniqueness property



Suppose that we can make all edges happy.

Choose sets S_{u,ℓ_1} 's and S_{v,ℓ_2} 's, where ℓ_1 is the label we assigned to u, and ℓ_2 the label for v. ($|V_1|+|V_2|$ sets)

For an edge (u, v), S_{v,ℓ_2} contains $\{(u, v)\} \times A_{\ell_2}$. For a happy edge S_{u,ℓ_1} contains $\{(u, v)\} \times \overline{A}_{\ell_2}$.

Since all edges are happy we have covered the whole universe.

If the Label Cover instance is completely satisfiable we can cover with $|V_1| + |V_2|$ sets.



Lemma 121

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.

If the Label Cover instance cannot satisfy a $2/h^2$ -fraction we cannot cover with $\frac{h}{8}(|V_1| + |V_2|)$ sets.

Since differentiating between both cases for the Label Cover instance is hard, we have an $\mathcal{O}(h)$ -hardness for Set Cover.



- n_u : number of $S_{u,i}$'s in cover
- n_v : number of $S_{v,j}$'s in cover
- ► at most 1/4 of the vertices can have n_u, n_v ≥ 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,j}, s.t. (i, j) ∈ 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,j}-sets
- (u, v) gets happy with probability at least $4/h^2$
- hence we make a 2/h²-fraction of edges happy



Set Cover

Theorem 122

There is no $\frac{1}{32}\log n$ -approximation for the unweighted Set Cover problem unless problems in NP can be solved in time $\mathcal{O}(n^{\mathcal{O}(\log \log n)})$.



Given label cover instance (V_1, V_2, E) , label sets L_1 and L_2 ;

Set $h = \log(|E||L_1|)$ and $t = |L_1|$; Size of partition system is $s = |U| = 4t^22^h = 4|L_1|^2(|E||L_1|)^2 = 4|E|^2|L_1|^4$

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 $2/h^2 \ge 1/\log^2(|E||L_1|)$ of the edges. this is not possible...

Partition Systems

Lemma 123

Given h and t with $h \le t$, there is a partition system of size $s = \ln(4t)h2^h \le 4t^22^h$.

We pick t sets at random from the possible $2^{|U|}$ subsets of U.

Fix a choice of h of these sets, and a choice of h bits (whether we choose A_i or \bar{A}_i). There are $2^h \cdot {t \choose h}$ such choices.



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 $1 - \frac{1}{2h}$.

The probability that all u are covered is $(1 - \frac{1}{2h})^s$

The probability that there exists a choice such that all u are covered is at most

$$\binom{t}{h} 2^h \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^h} \right)^s \le (2t)^h e^{-s/2^h} = (2t)^h \cdot e^{-h \ln(4t)} < \frac{1}{2} \ .$$

The random process outputs a partition system with constant probability!



Advanced PCP Theorem

Here the verifier reads exactly three bits from the proof. Not O(3) bits.

Theorem 124

For any positive constant $\epsilon > 0$, it is the case that $NP \subseteq PCP_{1-\epsilon,1/2+\epsilon}(\log n, 3)$. Moreover, the verifier just reads three bits from the proof, and bases its decision only on the parity of these bits.

It is NP-hard to approximate a MAXE3LIN problem by a factor better than $1/2 + \delta$, for any constant δ .

It is NP-hard to approximate MAX3SAT better than $7/8 + \delta$, for any constant δ .

