

# 22C:253 Lecture 1

Scribe: Narendra B. Devta Prasanna

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A *decision problem* is a problem  $\Pi$  such that every instance  $I$  of  $\Pi$  has a “yes/no” solution. An algorithm  $A$  that solves  $\Pi$  produces a correct “yes/no” answer for each instance  $I$  of  $\Pi$ .

Every instance  $I$  of an *optimization problem*  $\Pi$  has a non-empty feasible set of solutions, denoted  $F_{\Pi}(I)$  such that associated with every feasible solution,  $s \in F_{\Pi}(I)$ , there is a non-negative rational cost, denoted  $C_{\Pi}(I, s)$ . Any feasible solution that optimizes  $C_{\Pi}(I, s)$  is called an *optimal solution* for  $I$ , denoted  $OPT_{\Pi}(I)$ . An optimization problem  $\Pi$  can either be a maximization problem or a minimization problem and depending on this  $OPT_{\Pi}(I)$  is a feasible solution that either maximizes cost or minimizes cost.

Typically, the following problems related to  $\Pi$  have polynomial time solutions:

- Determining if a given instance  $I$  is a legal instance of  $\Pi$ .
- Checking if a given solution  $s$  is feasible for a given instance  $I$  (that is, determining if  $s \in F_{\Pi}(I)$ ).
- Given  $I$  and a feasible solution  $s$ , determining the cost  $C_{\Pi}(I, s)$ .

So all of these problems are easy and the hardness of  $\Pi$  arises from the fact that  $F_{\Pi}(I)$  is very large and there is no known efficient way of searching  $F_{\Pi}(I)$  to find an optimal feasible solution. Specifically, the optimization problems we will consider will be all be NP-hard. What does it mean for an optimization problem to be NP-hard?

We can view an optimization problem  $\Pi$  as a decision problem by attaching to each problem instance  $I$  a rational  $B$ . So each instance of the decision version of  $\Pi$  is a pair  $(I, B)$ . If  $\Pi$  is a maximization problem, then its decision version asks: *Does  $I$  have a feasible solution  $s$  with cost  $C_{\Pi}(I, s) \geq B$ ?* If  $\Pi$  is a minimization problem, then its decision version asks: *Does  $I$  have a feasible solution  $s$  with cost  $C_{\Pi}(I, s) \leq B$ ?* Given this, the following propositions are obvious.

**Proposition 1** *If an optimization problem  $\Pi$  can be solved in polynomial time, then its decision version can also be solved in polynomial time.*

**Proposition 2** *If the decision version of an optimization problem  $\Pi$  is NP-hard, then  $\Pi$  is also NP-hard.*

So whenever we talk about an optimization problem being NP-hard, we are actually talking about its decision version being NP-hard.

An algorithm  $A$  is a *factor- $f$  approximation algorithm* for a minimization problem  $\Pi$  if

- $A$  runs in poly-time, and
- For every instance  $I$  of  $\Pi$ ,  $A$  finds a feasible solution  $s$  such that

$$C_{\Pi}(I, s) \leq f \cdot OPT_{\Pi}(I). \quad (1)$$

Note that  $f \geq 1$ . If  $\Pi$  is a maximization problem, then  $A$  is a *factor- $f$  approximation algorithm* if  $A$  runs in polynomial-time and for every instance  $I$  of  $\Pi$ , finds a feasible solution  $s$  such that

$$C_{\Pi}(I, s) \geq f \cdot OPT_{\Pi}(I). \quad (2)$$

Note here that  $f \leq 1$ .

We will now discuss easy approximation algorithms for some well-known problems. The table below shows the problems we will consider and the approximation factor  $f$  that the algorithms we present will achieve. Roughly speaking, these are the best known approximation factors for each of these problems.

Problem, $\Pi$	Factor $f$
Graph Coloring	$O(n^c)$ for $c < 1$
Set Cover	$O(\lg n)$
Cardinality Vertex Cover	2
Minimum Makespan	$(1 + \epsilon)$
Knapsack	$(1 + \epsilon)$

The approximation factor  $(1 + \epsilon)$  for *Minimum Makespan* and *Knapsack* problems, means that for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is an algorithm  $A_{\epsilon}$  such that  $A_{\epsilon}$  produces a solution that is within  $(1 + \epsilon)$  times the optimal. So technically speaking, here we have a family of algorithms rather than a single algorithm. This family of algorithms is called a *polynomial time approximation scheme (PTAS)*. The running time of a PTAS depends inversely on  $\epsilon$  and we distinguish the case when the running time of a PTAS is a polynomial function of  $1/\epsilon$ . A PTAS for which this is the case is called a *fully polynomial time approximation scheme (FPTAS)*. A PTAS and an FPTAS will be defined more precisely later. We will present an FPTAS for Knapsack and a PTAS for Minimum Makespan.

**Example of Approximation algorithm.** A *vertex cover* for a graph  $G = (V, E)$  is a subset  $V' \subseteq V$  such that for every edge  $\{u, v\} \in E$ , either  $u \in V'$  or  $v \in V'$  (or both). If  $G$  is a vertex-weighted graph with weight function  $w : V \rightarrow Q^+$  then the *weight* of a vertex cover is simply the sum of the weights of the vertices in it.

#### Vertex Cover (VC)

**Input:** A vertex-weighted graph  $G = (V, E)$  with weight function  $w : V \rightarrow Q^+$ .

**Output:** A vertex cover of  $G$  with minimum weight.

In the “cardinality” version of the problem, called *Cardinality Vertex Cover (CVC)*, vertices have unit weights. This essentially means that we are looking for a vertex cover with fewest vertices in it.

We want to come up with an algorithm  $A$  such that for every instance  $I$  of CVC,  $A$  produces a vertex cover  $s$  such that

$$C_{CVC}(I, s) \leq 2 \cdot OPT_{CVC}(I) \quad (3)$$

The problem with showing such an inequality is that we don't know anything about  $OPT_{CVC}(I)$ . This is the fundamental problem faced by people designing approximation algorithms. Typically, to get around this problem, we first show a lower bound  $LB_{\Pi}(I)$  on  $OPT_{\Pi}(I)$ . That is,

$$LB_{\Pi}(I) \leq OPT_{\Pi}(I) \quad \text{for all } I \quad (4)$$

and then show that

$$C_{\Pi}(I, s) \leq 2 \cdot LB_{\Pi}(I) \leq 2 \cdot OPT_{\Pi}(I) \quad (5)$$

It turns out that it is extremely easy to obtain a lower bound on  $OPT_{CVC}(I)$ .

A *matching*  $M$  in a graph is a set of edges, no two of which share an endpoint. A *maximal matching* is a matching that is maximal with respect to inclusion, that is, adding any other edge to the maximal matching makes it not a matching.

Algorithm for CVC

1. Compute a maximal matching  $M$  of  $G$ .
2. Output the endpoints of the edges in  $M$ .

**Lemma 3** *The above algorithm produces a vertex cover of  $G$ .*

**Proof:** Let  $V'$  be the set of endpoints of the edges in  $M$ . If  $V'$  is not a vertex cover, then there is an edge  $\{u, v\} \in E$  such that  $u \notin V'$  and  $v \notin V'$ . Hence,  $\{u, v\}$  can be added to  $M$  and it would still be matching. This contradicts the fact that  $M$  is a maximal matching. Therefore  $V'$  is a vertex cover.  $\square$

**Lemma 4** *For any matching  $M$  of  $G$  and any vertex cover  $V'$  of  $G$ ,  $|M| \leq |V'|$ .*

**Proof:** For every edge in  $M$ , there is at least one of its end points in  $V'$ . Since  $M$  contains edges no two of which share an endpoint,  $|M| \leq |V'|$ .  $\square$

A corollary of the above lemma is that if  $OPT$  is the size of a minimum cardinality vertex cover of  $G$  and  $M$  is a maximal matching,  $|M| \leq OPT$ . If we let  $V'$  denote the output of the above algorithm, we have that  $|V'| = 2 \cdot |M|$  therefore  $|V'| \leq 2 \cdot OPT$ . This shows that the above algorithm is a factor-2 approximation algorithm for CVC.

**Remarks:**

- Rather than use  $OPT_{\Pi}(I)$  we will use  $OPT$  when  $\Pi$  and  $I$  are clear from the context. In fact, we will use  $OPT$  to denote not only the optimal cost, but also the optimal solution sometimes.
- A factor-2 approximation can also be achieved for the usual (weighted) vertex cover problem.