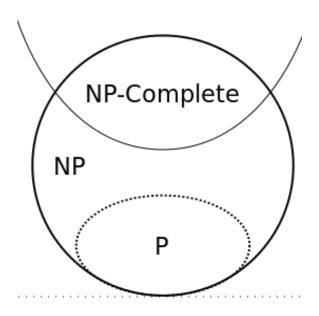
Lecture 10 cont'd: NP and Computational Intractability

NP-Hard



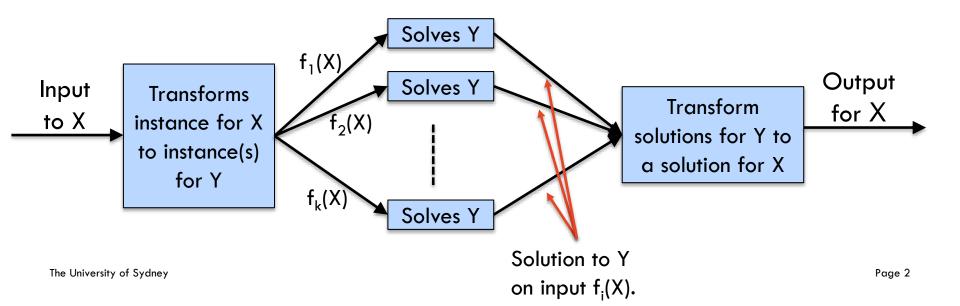


Polynomial-Time Reduction

Suppose we could solve problem Y in polynomial-time. What else could we solve in polynomial time?

Reduction. Problem X polynomial reduces to problem Y, denoted $X \leq_P Y$, if arbitrary instances of problem X can be solved using:

- Polynomial number of standard computational steps, plus
- Polynomial number of calls to an oracle that solves problem Y.



Polynomial-Time Reduction

Purpose. Classify problems according to relative difficulty.

- 1. Design algorithms. If $X \leq_P Y$ and Y can be solved in polynomial-time, then X can also be solved in polynomial time.
- 2. Establish intractability. If $X \leq_P Y$ and X cannot be solved in polynomial-time, then Y cannot be solved in polynomial time.

Summary - Lecture 10

Polynomial time reductions

 $3-SAT \leq_p DIR HAMILTONIAN CYCLE \leq_p HAMILTONIAN CYCLE \leq_p TSP$

 $3-SAT \leq_p INDEPENDENT-SET \leq_p VERTEX-COVER \leq_p SET-COVER$

Complexity classes:

P: Decision problems for which there is a poly-time algorithm.

NP: Decision problems for which there is a poly-time certifier.

NP-complete: A problem in NP such that every problem in NP polynomial reduces to it.

NP-hard: A problem such that every problem in NP polynomial reduces to it.

Lots of problems are NP-complete
See https://www.nada.kth.se/~viggo/wwwcompendium/

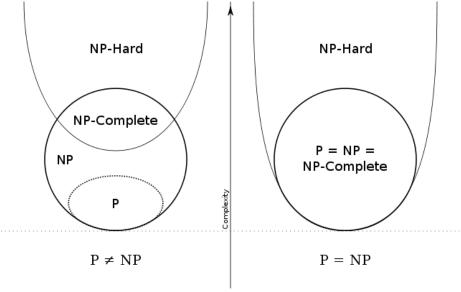
Class NP-hard

Class NP-complete: A problem in NP such that every problem in NP polynomially reduces to it.

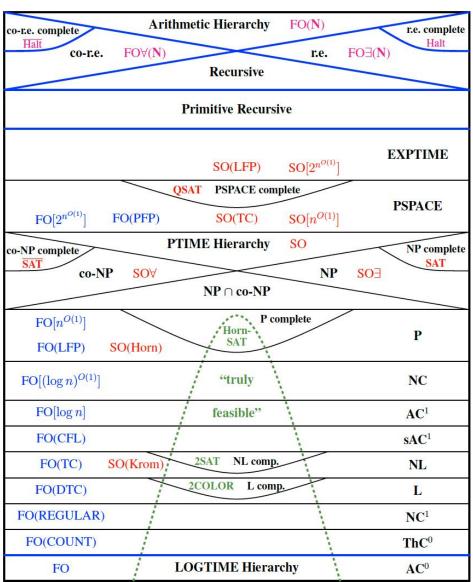
Class NP-hard:

A decision problem such that every problem in NP polynomially reduces to it.

not necessarily in NP



Many classes?



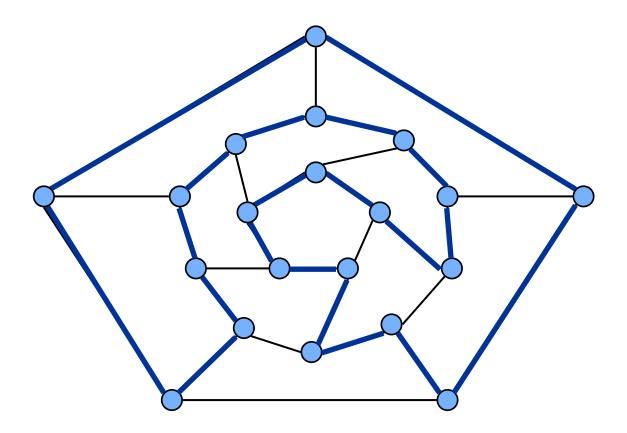
8.5 Sequencing Problems

Six basic genres

- Packing problems: SET-PACKING, INDEPENDENT SET.
- Covering problems: SET-COVER, VERTEX-COVER.
- Constraint satisfaction problems: SAT, 3-SAT.
- Sequencing problems: HAMILTONIAN-CYCLE, TSP.
 3-SAT ≤_p DIR HAMILTONIAN CYCLE ≤_p HAMILTONIAN CYCLE ≤_p TSP
- Partitioning problems: 3D-MATCHING, 3-COLOR.
- Numerical problems: SUBSET-SUM, KNAPSACK.

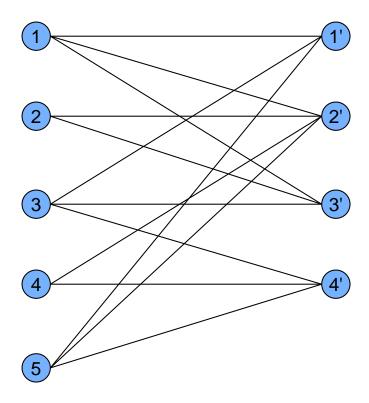
Hamiltonian Cycle

HAM-CYCLE: given an undirected graph G = (V, E), does there exist a simple cycle Γ that contains every node in V.



Hamiltonian Cycle

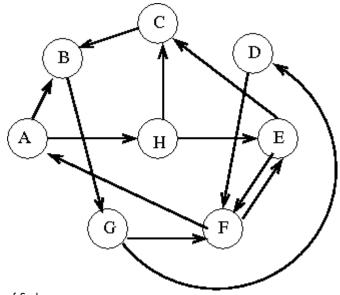
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HAM-CYCLE ∈ NP

Directed Hamiltonian Cycle

DIR-HAM-CYCLE: Given a directed graph G = (V, E), does there exists a simple directed cycle Γ that contains every node in V?



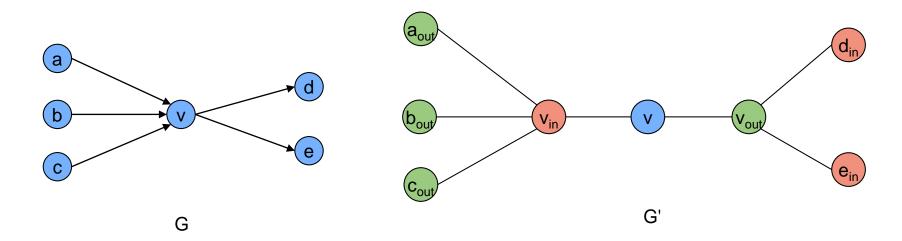
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Directed Hamiltonian Cycle

DIR-HAM-CYCLE: Given a directed graph G = (V, E), does there exists a simple directed cycle Γ that contains every node in V?

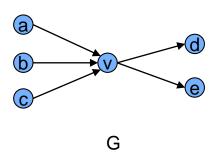
Theorem: DIR-HAM-CYCLE ≤ P HAM-CYCLE.

Proof idea: Given a directed graph G = (V, E), construct an undirected graph G' with 3n vertices.



Directed Hamiltonian Cycle

Claim: G has a Hamiltonian cycle iff G' does.

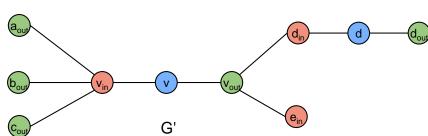


Proof:

- \Rightarrow Suppose G has a directed Hamiltonian cycle Γ .
 - Then G' has an undirected Hamiltonian cycle (same order).
- \leftarrow Suppose G' has an undirected Hamiltonian cycle Γ '.
 - Γ' must visit nodes in G' using one of two orders:

— Blue nodes in Γ' make up directed Hamiltonian cycle Γ in G, or reverse of one. \blacksquare

DIR-HAM-CYCLE ≤ P HAM-CYCLE



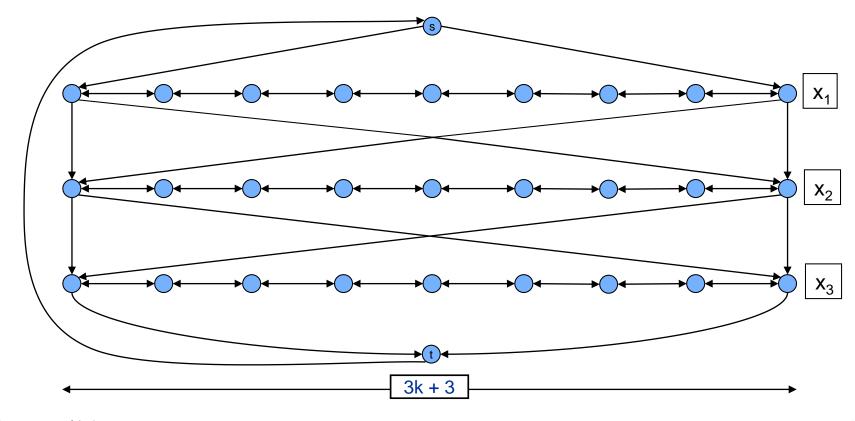
Theorem: $3-SAT \leq_{P} DIR-HAM-CYCLE$.

Proof: Given an instance Φ of 3-SAT, we construct an instance of DIR-HAM-CYCLE that has a Hamiltonian cycle iff Φ is satisfiable.

Construction. First, create graph that has 2ⁿ Hamiltonian cycles which correspond in a natural way to 2ⁿ possible truth assignments.

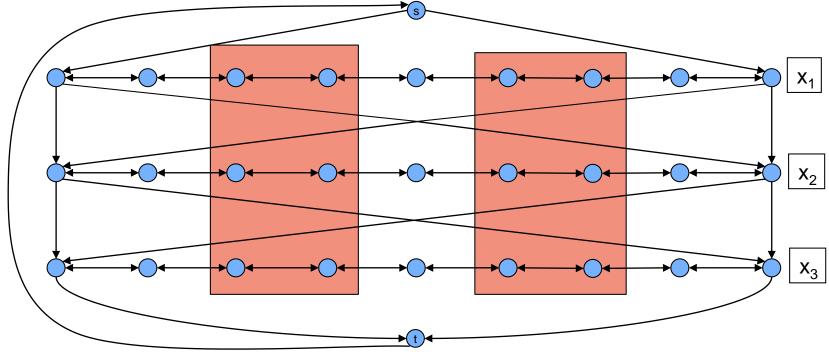
Construction: Given a 3-SAT instance Φ with n variables x_i and k clauses.

- Construct G to have 2ⁿ Hamiltonian cycles.
- Intuition: Traverse path i from left to right \Leftrightarrow set variable $x_i = 1$.

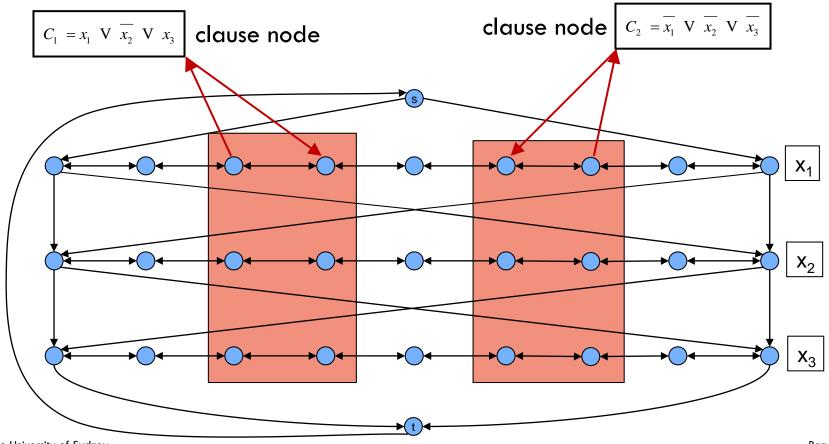


- Construction. Given 3-SAT instance Φ with n variables \mathbf{x}_{i} and k clauses.
 - For each clause: add a node and 6 edges.

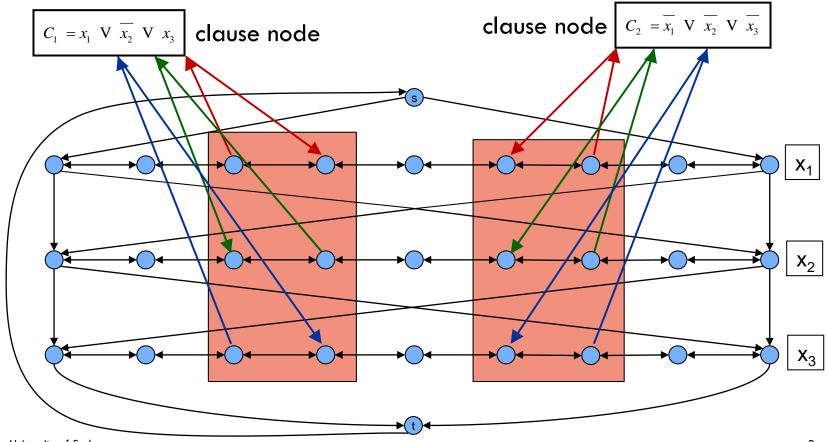




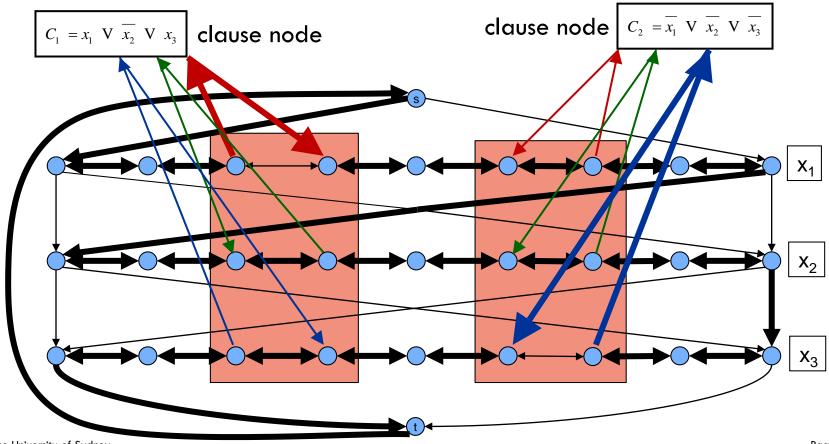
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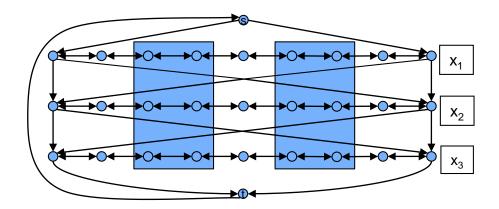
- Construction. Given 3-SAT instance Φ with n variables \mathbf{x}_{i} and k clauses.
 - For each clause: add a node and 6 edges.



Claim: Φ is satisfiable iff G has a Hamiltonian cycle.

Proof: \Rightarrow

- Suppose 3-SAT instance has satisfying assignment x^* .
- Then, define Hamiltonian cycle in G as follows:
 - if $x_i^* = 1$, traverse row i from left to right
 - if $x_i^* = 0$, traverse row i from right to left
 - for each clause C_i , there will be at least one row i in which we are going in "correct" direction to splice node C_i into tour



Claim: Φ is satisfiable iff G has a Hamiltonian cycle.

Proof: ←

- Suppose G has a Hamiltonian cycle Γ .
- If Γ enters clause node $C_{\rm i}$, it must depart on mate edge.
 - thus, nodes immediately before and after C_i are connected by an edge e in G
 - removing C_i from cycle, and replacing it with edge e yields Hamiltonian cycle on $G\backslash\{\,C_i\,\,\}$
- Continuing in this way, we are left with Hamiltonian cycle Γ' in G $\{C_1, C_2, \ldots, C_k\}$.
- Set $x^*_i = 1$ iff Γ' traverses row i left to right.
- Since Γ visits each clause node C_i , at least one of the paths is traversed in "correct" direction, and each clause is satisfied.

Theorem: $3-SAT \leq_{P} DIR-HAM-CYCLE$.

- 3-SAT is NP-complete
- DIR-HAM-CYCLE ∈ NP
- ⇒ DIR-HAM-CYCLE is NP-complete

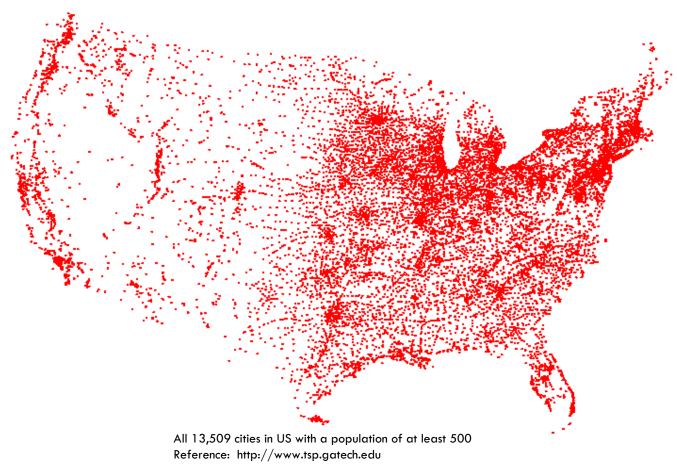
Directed HAM-CYCLE reduces to HAM-CYCLE

Theorem: DIR-HAM-CYCLE ≤ p HAM-CYCLE.

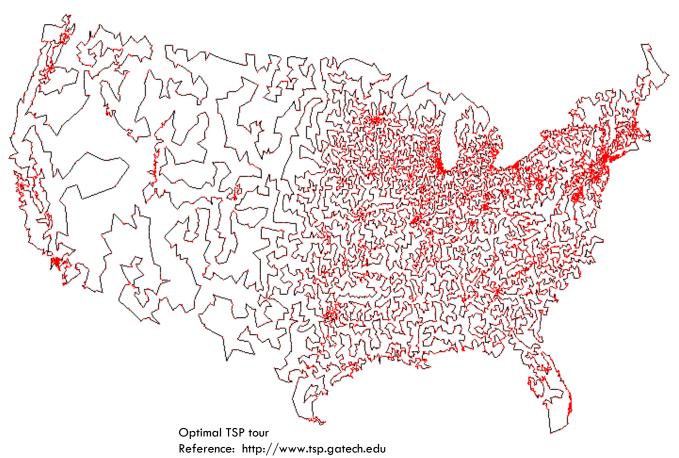
- DIR-HAM-CYCLE is NP-complete
- HAM-CYCLE ∈ NP

⇒ HAM-CYCLE is NP-complete

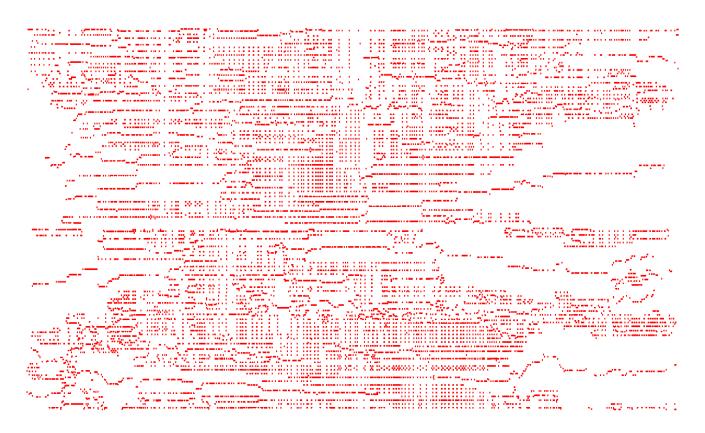
TSP: Given a set of n cities and a pairwise distance function d(u, v), is there a tour of length $\leq D$?



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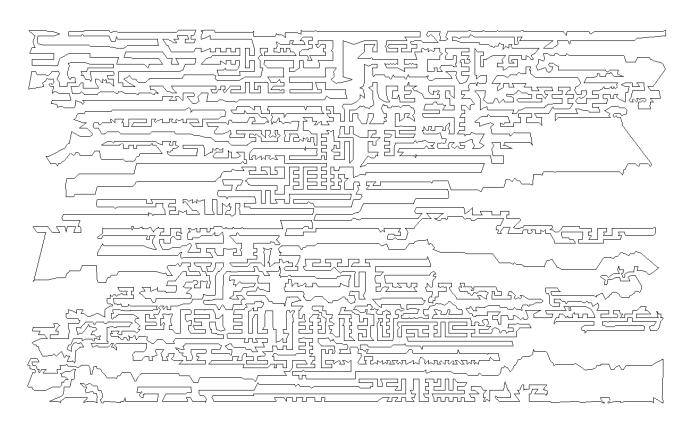


TSP: Given a set of n cities and a pairwise distance function d(u, v), is there a tour of length $\leq D$?



11,849 holes to drill in a programmed logic array Reference: http://www.tsp.gatech.edu

TSP: Given a set of n cities and a pairwise distance function d(u, v), is there a tour of length $\leq D$?



Optimal TSP tour Reference: http://www.tsp.gatech.edu

TSP: Given a set of n cities and a pairwise distance function d(u, v), is there a tour of length $\leq D$?

HAM-CYCLE: given a graph G = (V, E), does there exists a simple cycle that contains every node in V?

Theorem: HAM-CYCLE $\leq P$ TSP.

Proof:

 Given instance G = (V, E) of HAM-CYCLE, create n cities with distance function

$$d(u, v) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (u, v) \in E \\ 2 & \text{if } (u, v) \notin E \end{cases}$$

- TSP instance has tour of length \leq n iff G is Hamiltonian. \blacksquare

TSP is **NP-complete**

Theorem: HAM-CYCLE \leq_P TSP.

- HAM-CYCLE is NP-complete
- $-\mathsf{TSP}\in\mathsf{NP}$

⇒ TSP (decision version) is NP-complete

NP-complete games and puzzles

- Battleship
- Candy Crush Saga
- Donkey Kong
- Eternity II
- FreeCell
- Lemmings
- Minesweeper Consistency Problem
- Pokémon
- SameGame
- Sudoku
- Tetris
- Rush Hour
- Hex
- Super Mario Bros

Summary

Polynomial time reductions

$$3-SAT \leq_p DIR HAMILTONIAN CYCLE \leq_p HAMILTONIAN CYCLE \leq_p TSP$$

$$3-SAT \leq_p INDEPENDENT-SET \leq_p VERTEX-COVER \leq_p SET-COVER$$

Complexity classes:

P: Decision problems for which there is a poly-time algorithm.

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Lots of problems are NP-complete
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Lecture 11: Coping with hardness







Algorithms and hardness

Algorithmic techniques:

- Greedy algorithms [Lecture 3]
- Divide & Conquer algorithms [Lecture 4]
- Sweepline algorithms [Lecture 5]
- Dynamic programming algorithms [Lectures 6 and 7]
- Network flow algorithms [Lectures 8 and 9]

Hardness:

NP-hardness [Lecture 10]: O(n^c) algorithm is unlikely
 Today

— How can we cope with hard problems?

Algorithms and hardness

Lots of problems that we can solve efficiently:

- MST
- Shortest path
- Scheduling
- Max flow
- **–** ...

But lots of problems that we can't solve efficiently:

- All NP-complete problems: O(n^c) algorithm is unlikely vertex cover, independent set, 3-SAT,...
- But what if we need to solve an NP-complete problem?

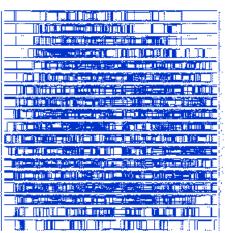
Cope with NP-complete problems?



"I can't find an efficient algorithm, but neither can all these famous people."

Cope with NP-complete problems?

- Heuristics: Local search, simulated annealing, neural networks...
- Randomized algorithms: Not always correct, but a probability is guaranteed.
- Approximation algorithms: Not optimal solution, but within a guaranteed error.
- Fixed-parameter algorithms: Algorithms whose complexity depends on other parameters than n.
- Efficient exact algorithms: Euclidean TSP
- Restricted instance: trees, bipartite graphs...



Coping With NP-Completeness

Question: What should I do if I need to solve an NP-complete problem?

Answer: Theory says you're unlikely to find poly-time algorithm.

Must sacrifice one of three desired features.

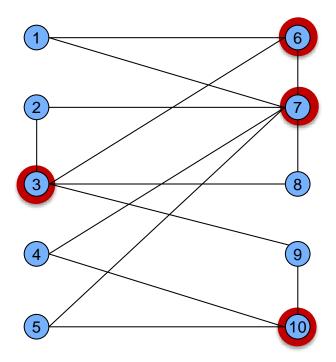
- Solve problem to optimality.
 - Approximation algorithms
 - Randomized algorithms
- Solve problem in polynomial time.
 - Exact exponential time algorithms
- Solve arbitrary instances of the problem.
 - Solve restricted classes of instances

• Parametrized algorithms

10.1 Solving restricted instances

For example in the case when the vertex cover is small.

VERTEX COVER: Given a graph G = (V, E) and an integer k, is there a subset of vertices $S \subseteq V$ such that $|S| \le k$, and for each edge (u, v) either $u \in S$, or $v \in S$, or both.



$$k = 4$$

S = { 3, 6, 7, 10 }

Vertex Cover

VERTEX COVER: Given a graph G = (V, E) and an integer k, is there a subset of vertices $S \subseteq V$ such that $|S| \le k$, and for each edge (u, v) either $u \in S$, or $v \in S$, or both.

Vertex Cover (or Independent Set) arises naturally in many applications:

- dynamic detection of race conditions (distributed systems).
- computational biology
- Biocheimstry
- Pattern recognition
- Computer vision

What should we do if we need to solve it?

Question: What if k is small?

Brute force: O(kn^{k+1}).

- Try all $\binom{n}{k} \in O(n^k)$ subsets of size k.
- Takes O(kn) time to check whether a subset is a vertex cover.

Question: What if k is small?

Brute force: $O(kn^{k+1})$.

- Try all $\binom{n}{k} \in O(n^k)$ subsets of size k.
- Takes O(kn) time to check whether a subset is a vertex cover.

Aim: Limit exponential dependency on k, e.g., to $O(2^k \text{ kn})$.

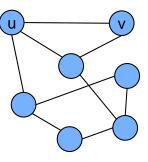
Example: n = 1000, k = 10.

- Brute force. $kn^{k+1} = 10^{34} \implies infeasible$.
- Better. $2^k \text{ kn} = 10^7 \implies \text{feasible.}$

Remark. If k is a constant, algorithm is poly-time; if k is a small constant, then it's also practical.

Theorem: Let (u,v) be an edge of G. G has a vertex cover of size $\leq k$ iff at least one of $G\setminus\{u\}$ and $G\setminus\{v\}$ has a vertex cover of size $\leq k-1$.

delete u and all incident edges



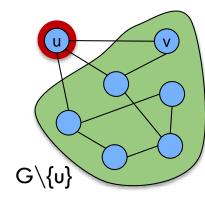
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Proof:



- Suppose G has a vertex cover S of size $\leq k$.
- S contains either u or v (or both). Assume it contains u.
- $S\setminus\{u\}$ is a vertex cover of $G\setminus\{u\}$.



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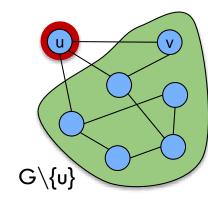
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- Suppose S is a vertex cover of $G\setminus\{u\}$ of size $\leq k-1$.
- Then $S \cup \{u\}$ is a vertex cover of G of size k. \bullet



Theorem: Let (u,v) be an edge of G. G has a vertex cover of size $\leq k$ iff at least one of $G\setminus\{u\}$ and $G\setminus\{v\}$ has a vertex cover of size $\leq k-1$.

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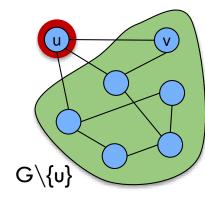
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- Suppose S is a vertex cover of $G\setminus\{u\}$ of size $\leq k-1$.
- Then $S \cup \{u\}$ is a vertex cover of G of size k. •

Observation: If G has a vertex cover of size k, it has \leq k(n-1) edges.

Proof: Each vertex covers at most n-1 edges. •



Theorem: The following algorithm determines if G has a vertex cover of size $\leq k$ in $O(2^k \text{ kn})$ time.

```
boolean Vertex-Cover(G,k) {
   if (G contains no edges)    return true
   if (G contains > k(n-1) edges) return false

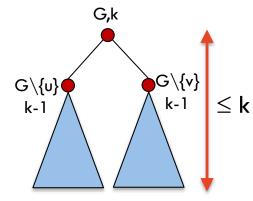
let (u,v) be any edge of G
   a = Vertex-Cover(G\{u\},k-1)
   b = Vertex-Cover(G\{v\},k-1)
   return a or b
}
```

Theorem: The following algorithm determines if G has a vertex cover of size $\leq k$ in $O(2^k \text{ kn})$ time.

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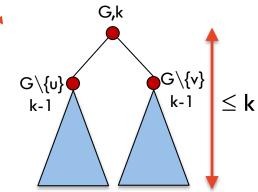


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Proof:

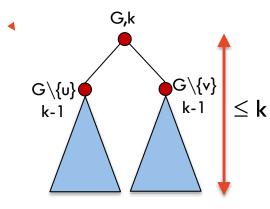
- Correctness follows from previous two claims.
- There are $\leq 2^{k+1}$ nodes in the recursion tree; each invocation takes O(kn) time. •

Theorem: Vertex cover can be solved in O(2^k kn) time.

This is fine as long as k is (a small) constant.



What if k is not a small constant?



10.2 Solving NP-Hard Problems on restricted input instances

For example special cases of graphs:

- trees,
- bipartite graphs,
- planar graphs,

- ...

Independent Set on Trees

INDEPENDENT-SET: Given a graph G = (V, E) and an integer k, is there a subset of vertices $S \subseteq V$ such that $|S| \ge k$, and for each edge at most one of its endpoints is in S?

Problem: Given a tree, find a maximum IS.

Key observation: If v is a leaf, there exists a maximum size independent set containing v.

Proof: [exchange argument]

- Consider a max cardinality independent set S.
- If $v \in S$, we're done.
- If $u \notin S$ and $v \notin S$, then $S \cup \{v\}$ is independent $\Rightarrow S$ not maximum.
- IF $u \in S$ and $v \notin S$, then $S \cup \{v\}/\{u\}$ is independent. (exchange)

Independent Set on Trees: Greedy Algorithm

Theorem: The following greedy algorithm finds a maximum cardinality independent set in forests (and hence trees).

```
Independent-Set-In-A-Forest(F) {
    S ← ∅
    while (F has at least one edge) {
        Let e = (u,v) be an edge such that v is a leaf
        Add v to S
        Delete from F nodes u and v, and all edges
            incident to them.
    }
    return S
}
```

Proof: Correctness follows from the previous key observation.

Remark. Can implement in O(n) time by considering nodes in postorder.

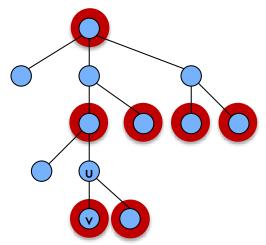
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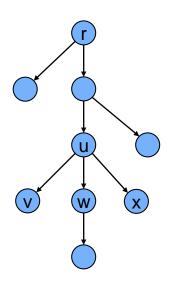
Theorem:

INDEPENDENT-SET on trees can be solved in O(n) time.



Weighted Independent Set on Trees

Weighted independent set on trees. Given a tree and node weights $w_v > 0$, find an independent set S that maximizes $\Sigma_{v \in S} w_v$.

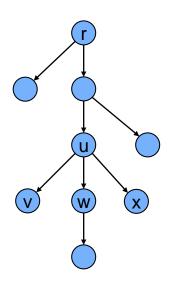


children(u) = { v, w, x }

Weighted Independent Set on Trees

Weighted independent set on trees. Given a tree and node weights $w_v > 0$, find an independent set S that maximizes $\Sigma_{v \in S} w_v$.

Observation: If (u, v) is an edge such that v is a leaf node, then either OPT includes u, or it includes all leaf nodes incident to u.



 $children(u) = \{ v, w, x \}$

Weighted Independent Set on Trees: DP

Weighted independent set on trees. Given a tree and node weights $w_v > 0$, find an independent set S that maximizes $\Sigma_{v \in S} w_v$.

Observation: If (u, v) is an edge such that v is a leaf node, then either OPT includes u, or it includes all leaf nodes incident to u.

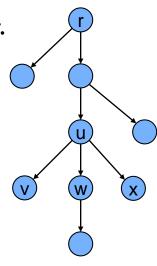
Dynamic programming solution: Root tree at some node, say r.

- $OPT_{in}(u) = max$ weight independent set rooted at u, containing u.
- $OPT_{out}(u) = max$ weight independent set rooted at u, not containing u.

$$OPT_{in}(u) = w_u + \sum_{v \in \text{children}(u)} OPT_{out}(v)$$

$$OPT_{out}(u) = \sum_{v \in \text{children}(u)} \{OPT_{in}(v), OPT_{out}(v)\}$$

$$v \in \text{children}(u)$$

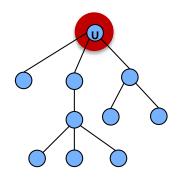


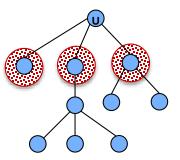
 $children(u) = \{ v, w, x \}$

Weighted Independent Set on Trees: DP

Theorem: The dynamic programming algorithm find a maximum weighted independent set in trees in O(n) time.

```
\label{eq:weighted-Independent-Set-In-A-Tree} \begin{tabular}{ll} Weighted-Independent-Set-In-A-Tree} (T) & Root the tree at a node $r$ \\ foreach (node $u$ of $T$ in postorder) & if ($u$ is a leaf) & \\ & if ($u$ is a leaf) & \\ & M_{in} [u] = w_u \\ & M_{out} [u] = 0 & \\ & else & \\ & M_{in} [u] = \sum_{v \in children\,(u)} M_{out}[v] + w_v \\ & M_{out}[u] = \sum_{v \in children\,(u)} max\,(M_{out}[v], M_{in}[v]) & \\ & return max\,(M_{in}[r], M_{out}[r]) & \\ \end{tabular}
```





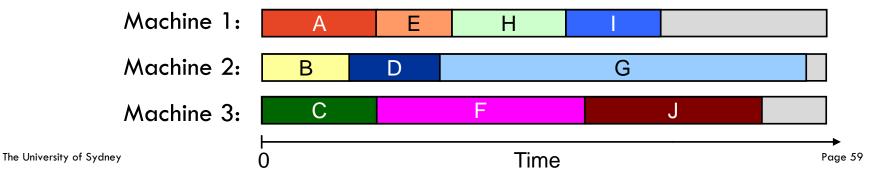
Proof: Takes O(n) time since we visit nodes in postorder and examine each edge exactly once.

11.1 Approximation algorithms: Load Balancing

Load Balancing

Input: m identical machines; n jobs, job j has processing time t_i.

- Job j must run contiguously on one machine.
- A machine can process at most one job at a time.



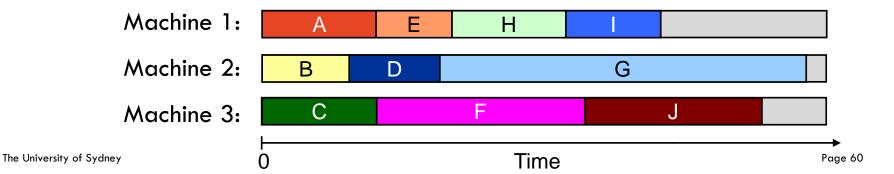
Load Balancing

Input: m identical machines; n jobs, job j has processing time t_i.

- Job j must run contiguously on one machine.
- A machine can process at most one job at a time.

Definition: Let J(i) be the subset of jobs assigned to machine i. The load of machine i is $L_i = \sum_{i \in J(i)} t_i$.

Example: $J(1) = \{A,E,H,I\}, J(2) = \{B,D,G\}, J(3) = \{C,F,J\}$



Load Balancing

Input: m identical machines; n jobs, job j has processing time t_i.

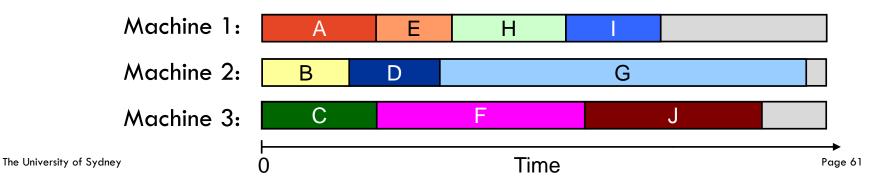
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Example: $J(1) = \{A,E,H,I\}, J(2) = \{B,D,G\}, J(3) = \{C,F,J\}$

Definition: The makespan is the maximum load on any machine $L = \max_i L_i$.

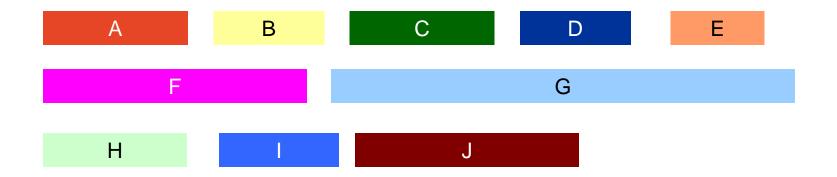
Load balancing: Assign each job to a machine to minimize makespan.

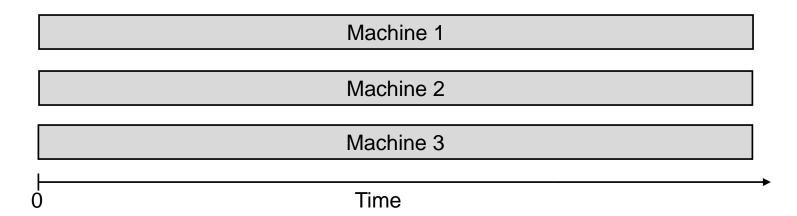


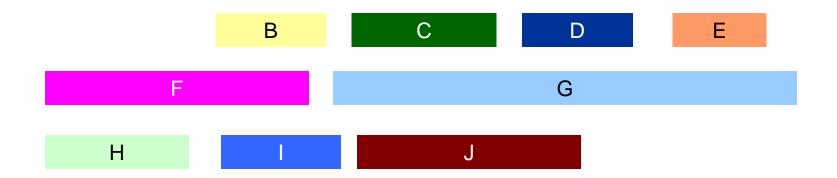
List-scheduling algorithm:

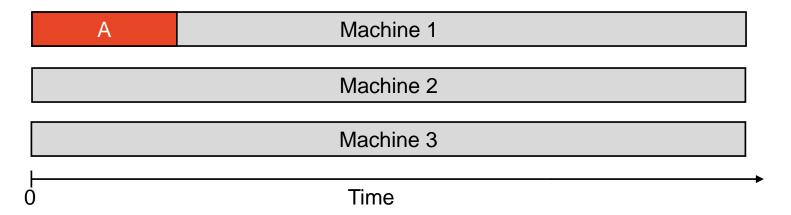
- Consider n jobs in some fixed order.
- Assign job j to machine whose load is smallest so far.

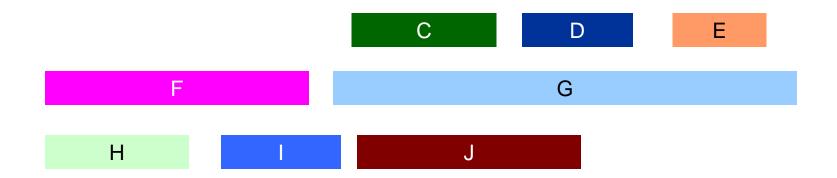
Implementation: O(n log n) using a priority queue.

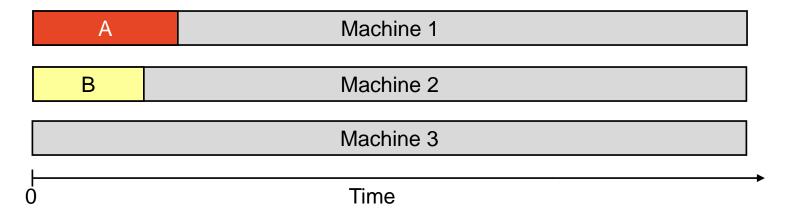


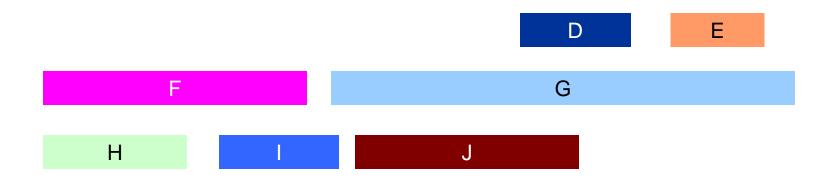


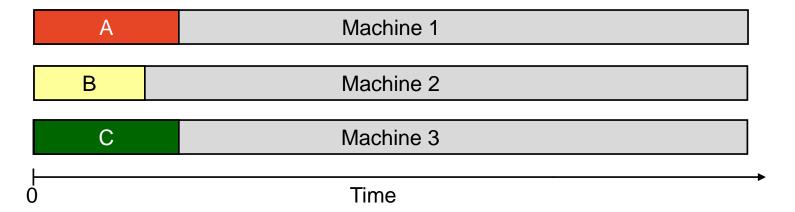


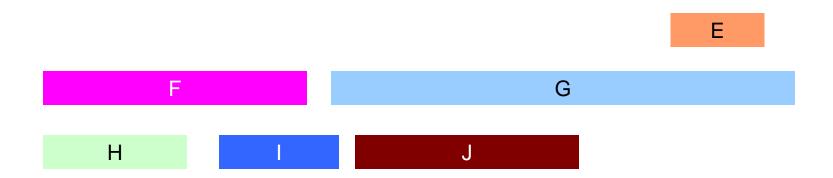


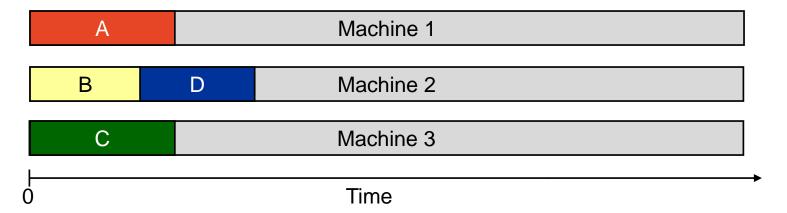


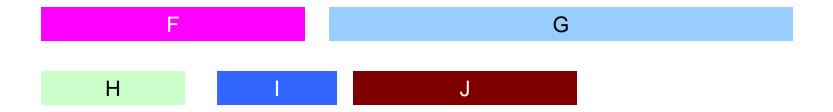


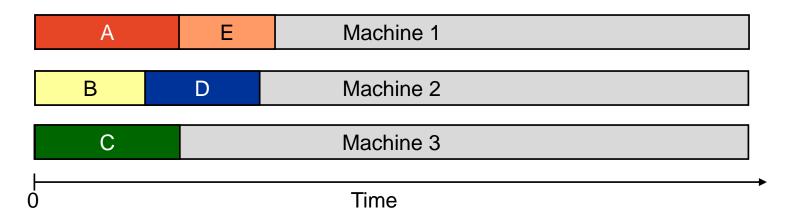


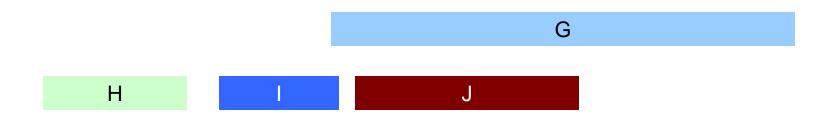


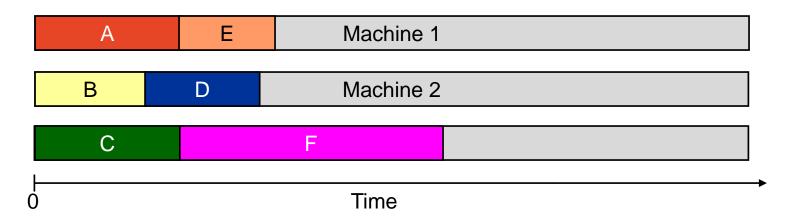




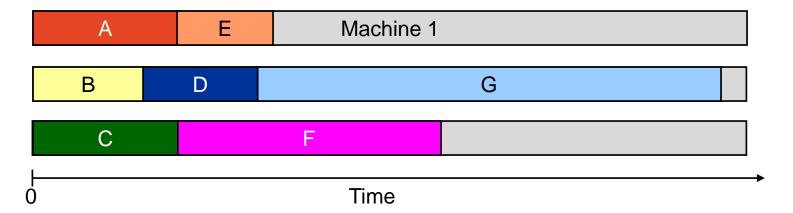




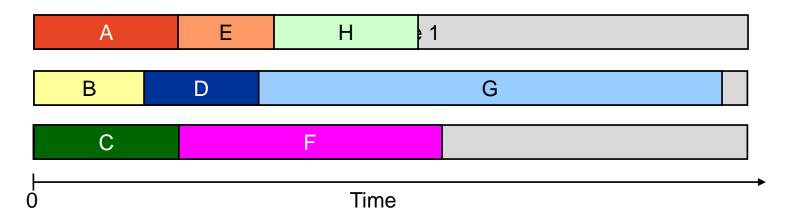




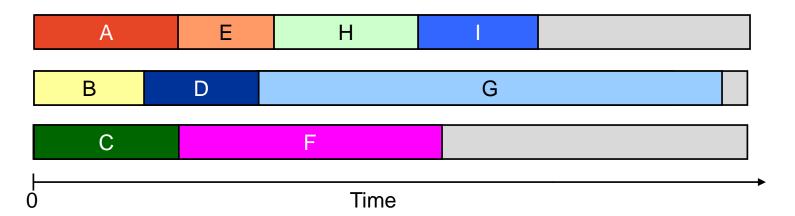


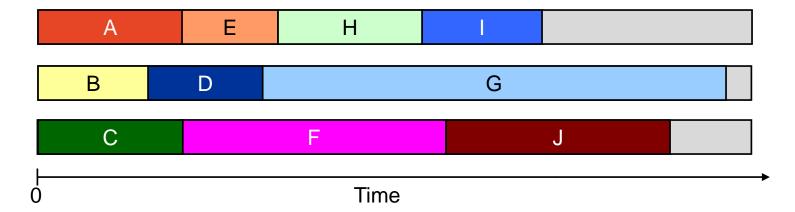










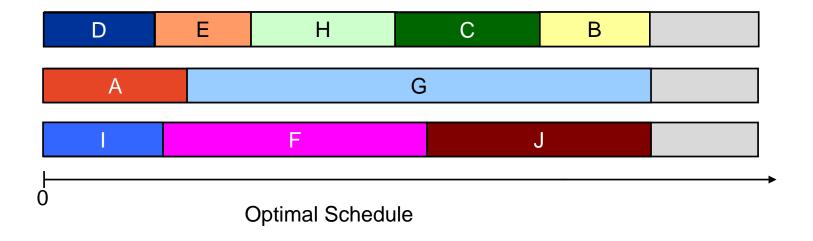


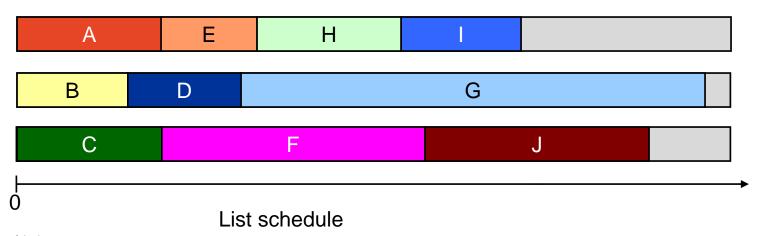
Is this a good schedule?

The schedule may not be optimal (minimum makespan).

– How do we prove that statement?

We only need to provide a counterexample.





How far off can the schedule be from optimal?

Is there an approximation guarantee?

Approximation ratio =
$$\frac{\text{Cost of apx solution}}{\text{Cost of optimal solutions}}$$

An approximation algorithm for a minimization problem requires an approximation guarantee:

- Approximation ratio $\leq c$
- Approximation solution $\leq c \cdot \text{value of optimal solution}$

Theorem: [Graham, 1966]

Greedy algorithm is a 2-approximation.

- First worst-case analysis of an approximation algorithm.
- Need to compare resulting solution with optimal makespan L*.

Lemma 1: The optimal makespan $L^* \ge \max_i t_i$.

Proof: Some machine must process the most time-consuming job. •

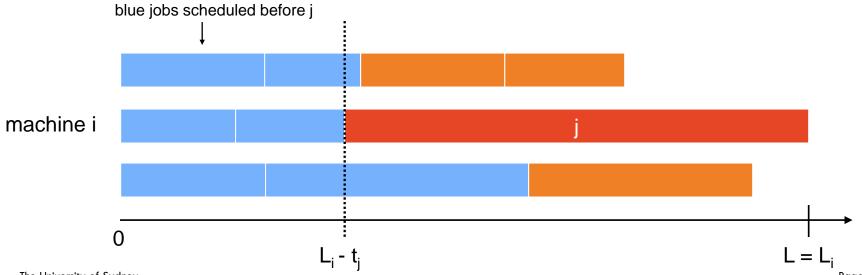
Lemma 2: The optimal makespan $L^* \geq \frac{1}{m} \sum_j t_j$. Proof:

- The total processing time is $\Sigma_i t_i$.
- One of m machines must do at least a 1/m fraction of total work.

Theorem: Greedy algorithm is a 2-approximation.

Proof: Consider load L_i of bottleneck machine i.

- Let j be last job scheduled on machine i.
- When job j assigned to machine i, i had smallest load. Its load before assignment is L_i - t_j \implies L_i - t_j \le L_k for all $1 \le k \le m$.



Theorem: Greedy algorithm is a 2-approximation.

Proof: Consider load Li of bottleneck machine i.

- Let j be last job scheduled on machine i.
- When job j was assigned to machine i, i had smallest load. Its load before assignment is L_i t_j \implies L_i t_j \le L_k for all $1 \le k \le m$.
- Sum inequalities over all k and divide by m:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} L_i - t_j & \leq & \frac{1}{m} \sum_k L_k \\ & = & \frac{1}{m} \sum_k t_k \end{array}$$
 Lemma 1 \rightarrow \leq L^*

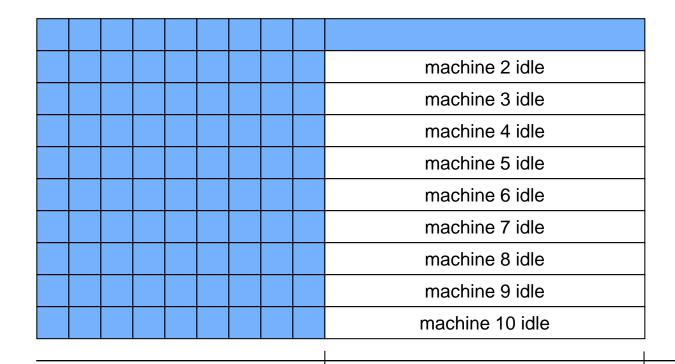
$$L_{i} = \underbrace{(L_{i} - t_{j})}_{\leq L^{*}} + \underbrace{t_{j}}_{\leq L^{*}} \leq 2L^{*}.$$

The University of Sydney Lemma 2 Page 79

Question: Is our analysis tight?

Answer: Yes...more or less.

Example: m machines, m(m-1) jobs of length 1, one job of length m

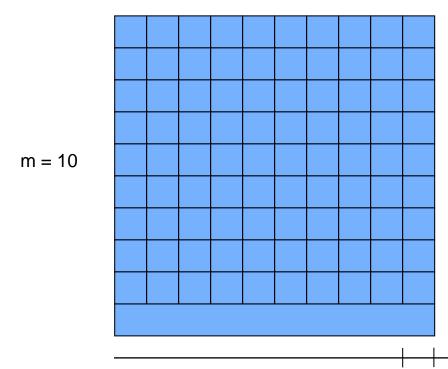


m = 10

Question: Is our analysis tight?

Answer: Yes...more or less.

Example: m machines, m(m-1) jobs of length 1, one job of length m



optimal makespan = 10

Summary

NP-complete problems show up in many applications. There are different approaches to cope with it:

- Approximation algorithms
- Restricted cases (trees, bipartite graphs, small solution...)
- Randomized algorithms
- •

Each approach has its pros and cons.