

Advanced Algorithms I

Summer 2018 • Lecture 08/09

The Rest of the Quarter

Lectures 1-13 covered the bulk of the material, congrats!

This material will be emphasized on the final (~80% of points).

Lectures 14-15 will cover additional topics.

Intractable problems, approximation algorithms, max-flow

Outline for Today

Tractability

TSP

Approximation algorithms

Vertex Cover

Set Cover

0/1 Knapsack

Background

Defining Efficiency

What is an efficient algorithm?

An algorithm is efficient iff it runs in polynomial time on a serial computer.

Runtimes of “efficient” algorithms: $O(n)$, $O(n \log(n))$, $O(n^8 \log^4(n))$, $O(n^{1,000,000})$.

Runtimes of “inefficient” algorithms: $O(2^n)$, $O(n!)$, $O(1.0000001^n)$.

Some Caveats

Parallelism Some problems can be solved in polynomial time on machines with a polynomial number of processors.

Are all efficient algorithms parallelizable?

Randomization Some algorithms can be solved in expected polynomial time, or have poly-time Monte Carlo algorithms that work with high probability.

Are randomized efficient algorithms efficient solutions? $P \subseteq ? RP \subseteq ? NP$.

Quantum computation Some algorithms can be solved in polynomial time on a quantum computer.

Are quantum efficient algorithms efficient solutions?

These are all open problems!

Tractability

A problem is called **tractable** iff there is an efficient (i.e. polynomial time) algorithm that solves it.

A problem is called **intractable** iff there is no efficient algorithm that solves it.

NP

A **decision problem** is a problem with a yes/no answer.

The class **NP** consists of all decision problems where “yes” answers can be verified efficiently.

Is the k th order statistic of A equal to x ?

Is there a cut in G of size at least k ?

All tractable decision problems are in **NP**, plus a lot of problems whose difficulty is unknown.

NP-Completeness

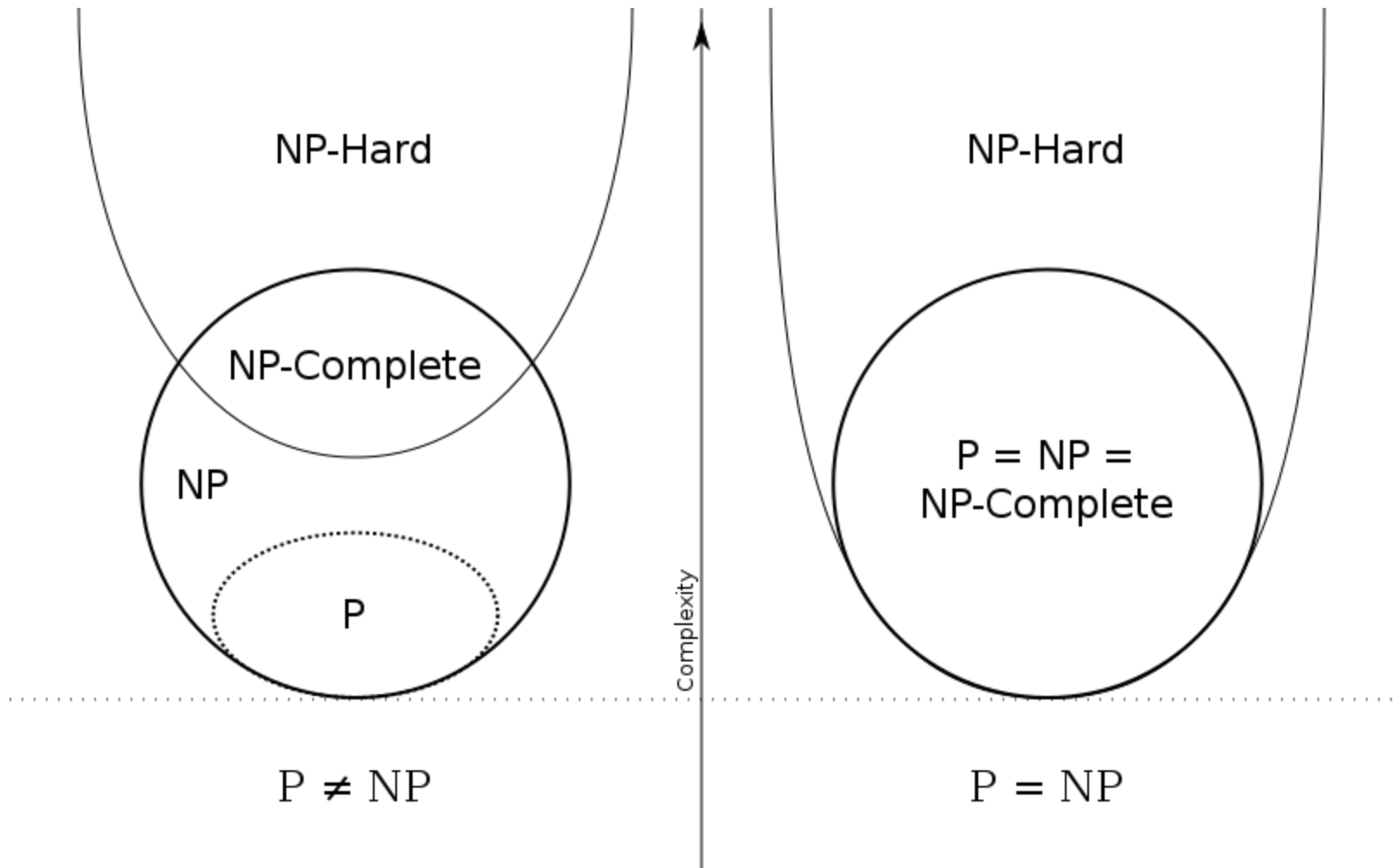
The **NP-complete** problems are (intuitively) the hardest problems in NP.

Either every **NP**-complete problem is tractable or no **NP**-complete problem is tractable.

This is an open problem: the $P = NP$ question!

There are no known polynomial-time algorithms for any **NP**-complete problem.

Complexity Classes



NP-Hardness

A problem (which may or may not be a decision problem) is called **NP-hard** if (intuitively) it is at least as hard as every problem in **NP**.

As before: no polynomial-time algorithms are known for any **NP-hard** problem.

NP-Hardness

Assuming that $P \neq NP$, all NP-hard problems are intractable.

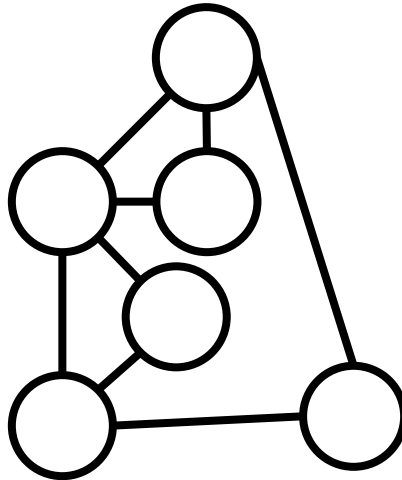
This does not mean that brute-force algorithms are the only option.

This does not mean that it is hard to get approximate answers.

Traveling Salesperson Problem

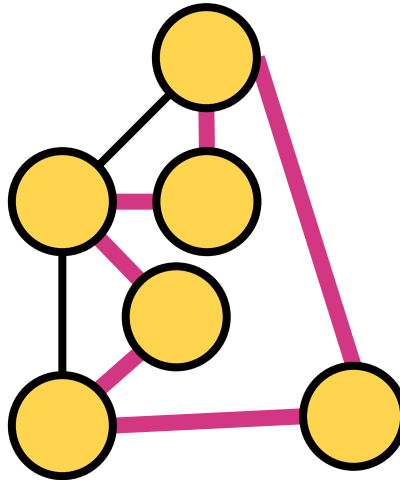
TSP

A **Hamiltonian cycle** in an undirected graph G is a simple cycle that visits every vertex in G .



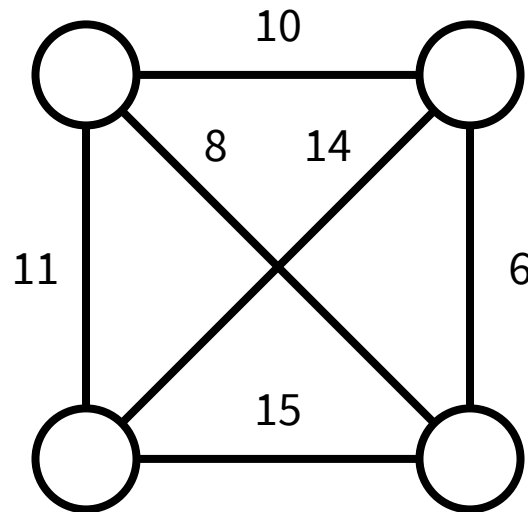
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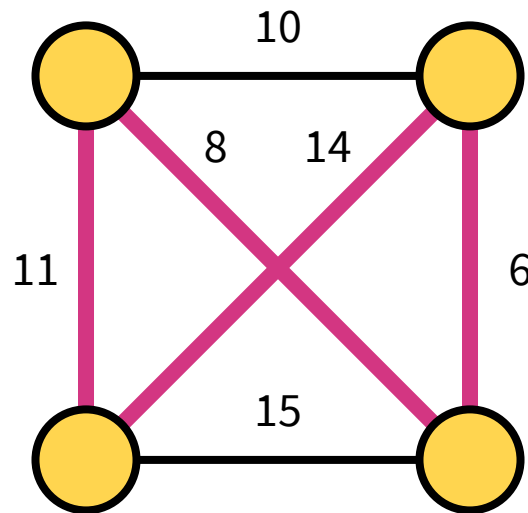
TSP

Given a complete, undirected weighted graph G , the traveling salesman problem is to find a Hamiltonian cycle in G of least total cost.



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TSP

Formally Given a complete, undirected G and a set of positive integer edge weights, the TSP is to find a Hamiltonian cycle in G with least total weight.

Note that since G is complete, there must be at least one Hamiltonian cycle.
The challenge is finding the cycle with least cost.

This problem is known to be **NP**-hard.

TSP

Try all possible Hamiltonian cycles in the graph?

How many Hamiltonian cycles are there? $(n-1)! / 2$

Since each cycle takes $O(n)$ -time, the total time is $O(n!)$.

TSP

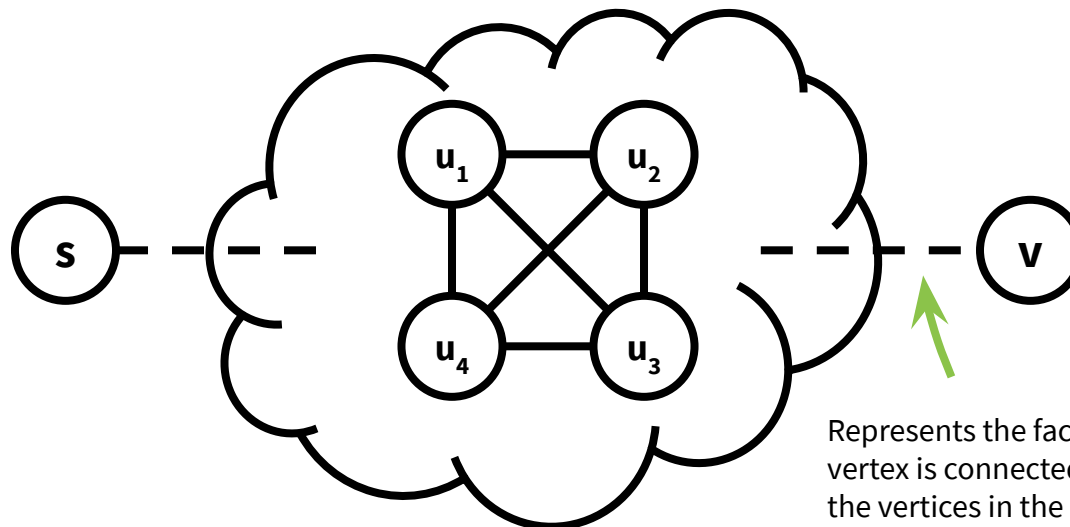
Let $\text{OPT}(v, S)$ be the minimum cost of an $s - v$ path that visits exactly the vertices in S . We assume $v \in S$. Let $w(u, v)$ be the weight of the edge (u, v) .

Claim $\text{OPT}(v, S)$ satisfies the recurrence:

$$\text{OPT}(v, S) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } v = s \text{ and } S = \{s\} \\ \infty & \text{if } s \notin S \\ \min_{\substack{u \in S - \{v\} \\ w(u, v)}} \{ \text{OPT}(u, S - \{v\}) + w(u, v) \} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

TSP

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Represents the fact that this vertex is connected to all of the vertices in the cloud.

TSP

To solve $\text{OPT}(v, S)$, a problem of size $|S|$, we need to solve subproblems of size $|S| - 1$.

Idea Evaluate the recurrence on sets of size 1, 2, 3 ..., n.

There are 2^n possible subsets of a set S , of which 2^{n-1} contain s .

TSP

```
def tsp(G):
    n = |G.V|
    DP = [] # n x 2n-1 table
    s = random vertex from G.V
    DP[s][{s}] = 0
    for k in range(1, n):
        for all sets S ⊆ V where |S| = k and s ∈ S:
            for all v ∈ S - {s}:
                DP[v][S] = minu ∈ S - {v} {DP[u][S - {v}] + w(u, v)}
    return minv ≠ s {DP[v][V] + w(v, s)}
```

Runtime: $O(2^n n^2)$

TSP

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            for all  $v \in S - \{s\}$ :  
                 $DP[v][S] = \min_{u \in S - \{v\}} \{DP[u][S - \{v\}] + w(u, v)\}$   
    return  $\min_{v \neq s} \{DP[v][V] + w(v, s)\}$ 
```

Runtime: $O(2^n n^2)$



We'll talk about this in a bit.

TSP

Each subset of V containing s can be mapped to a unique integer in $0, 1, 2, \dots, 2^{n-1} - 1$.

Think of the number as a bitvector where the present elements are 1s and the absent elements are 0s.

Takes $O(n)$ -time to compute the above number and index into the table, the cost per subproblem.

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$O(2^n n^2)$ total time.

$O(2^n n)$ total subproblems (cells in the table).

Solving each subproblem requires us to look at $O(n)$ different subproblems, and $O(1)$ -time for each one.

Map all subsets of V to bitvectors in $O(n)$ -time.

TSP

What's the difference between $n!$ and $2^n n^2$?

Compare $20!$ and $2^{20} 20^2$:

$$20! \approx 2.4 \times 10^{18}$$

$$2^{20} 20^2 \approx 4.2 \times 10^8$$

TSP

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Compare $30!$ and $2^{30} 30^2$:

$$30! \approx 2.6 \times 10^{32}$$

$$2^{30} 30^2 \approx 9.7 \times 10^{11}$$

TSP

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Compare $40!$ and $2^{40} 40^2$:

$$40! \approx 8.2 \times 10^{47}$$

$$2^{40} 40^2 = 1.8 \times 10^{15}$$

TSP

Why this matters?

Improving upon brute-force (e.g. $n!$) increases the size of problems that can be solved with exact answers.

Though there might not exist a poly-time solution, an exponential solution often offers a considerable improvement.

0/1 Knapsack, revisited

Knapsack

0/1 Knapsack

Suppose I only have one copy of each item.

What's the most valuable way to fill the knapsack?

					
weight	6	2	4	3	11
value	20	8	14	13	35



Total weight: 9

Total value: 35



capacity: 10

Task Find the items to put in a 0/1 knapsack.

0/1 Knapsack

What I didn't say is this problem is known to be **NP**-hard.

$O(n2^n)$ Brute-force solution: try all possible subsets of the items and find the feasible set with the largest total value.

$O(nW \log(n))$ Greedy solution: sort items by their “unit value” v_k / w_k .

$O(nW)$ Dynamic programming solution

0/1 Knapsack

Did we just prove $P = NP$?

A poly-time algorithm is one that runs in time polynomial in the total number of bits required to write out the input to the problem.

Therefore, $O(nW)$ is exponential in the number of bits required to write out the input (e.g. adding one more bit to the end of the representation of W doubles its size and doubles the runtime).

The DP runtime of $O(nW)$ is better than our brute-force runtime of $O(n2^n)$, provided that $W = o(2^n)$.



That's a little-o, not a big-O.

For any fixed W , this algorithm runs in linear time!

Parameterized Complexity

Parameterized complexity is a branch of complexity theory that studies the hardness of problems with respect to different “parameters” of the input.

In the case of 0/1 Knapsack, $O(nW)$ has two parameters: the number of items (n) and capacity (W).

Often, **NP**-hard problems aren't entirely infeasible as long as some parameter of the problem is fixed.

Fixed Parameter Tractability

Suppose that the input to a problem P can be characterized by two parameters, n and k .

P is called fixed-parameter tractable iff there is some algorithm that solves P in time $O(f(k)p(n))$.

$f(k)$ is an arbitrary function and $p(n)$ is a polynomial in n .

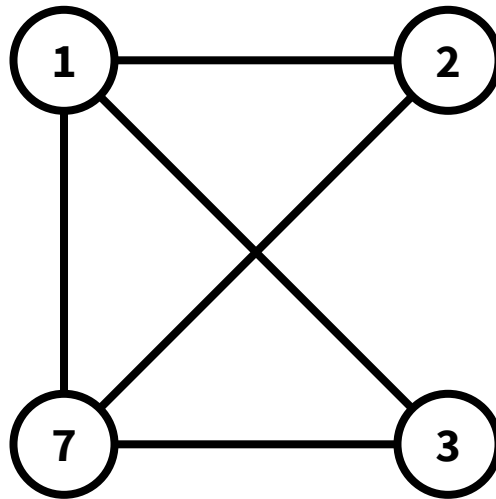
Intuitively, for any fixed k , the algorithm runs in a polynomial in n since that polynomial $p(n)$ does not depend on choice of k .

Vertex Cover

Vertex Cover

Task Given an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$, and a cost function on the vertices, find a minimum cost vertex cover, i.e. a set of $V' \subseteq V$ such that every edge has at least one endpoint incident at V' .

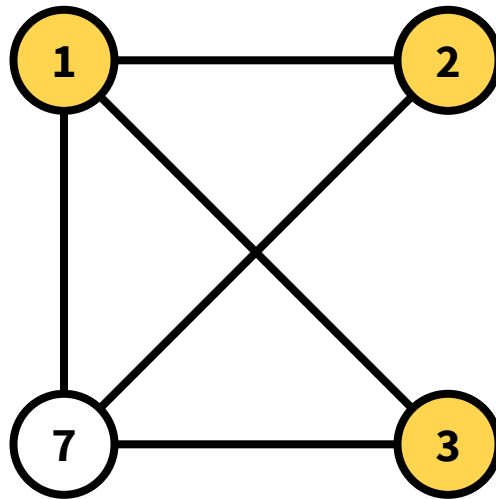
Is this easier or harder than edge cover? 🤔



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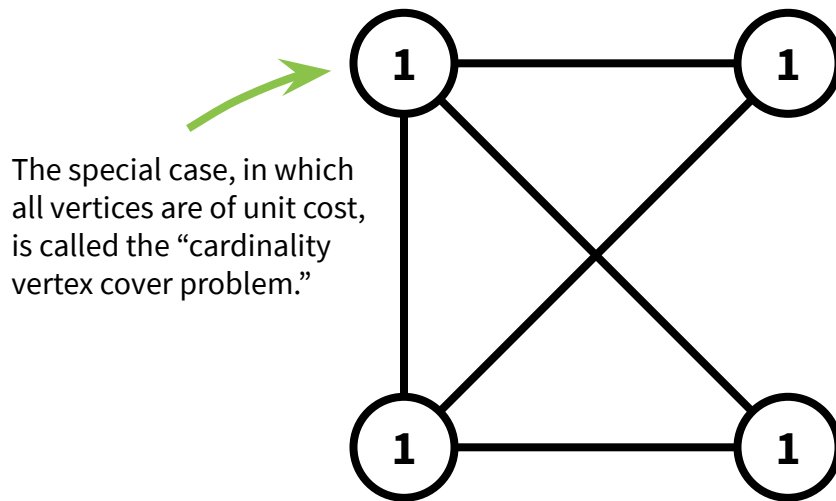
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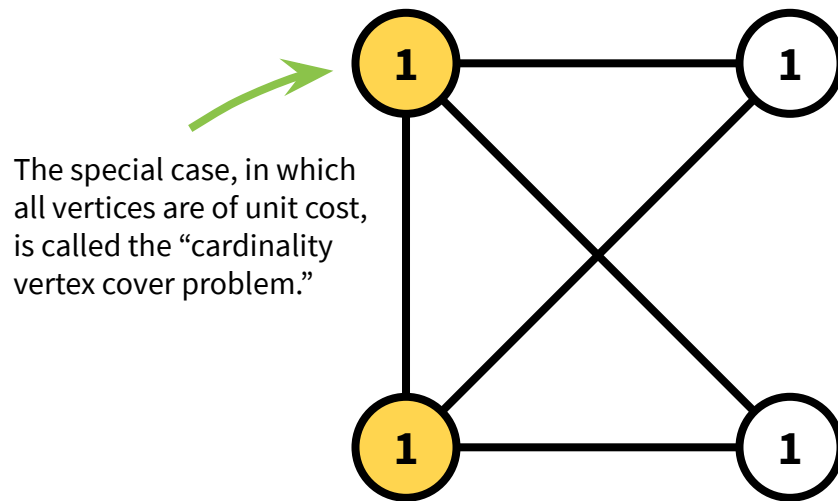
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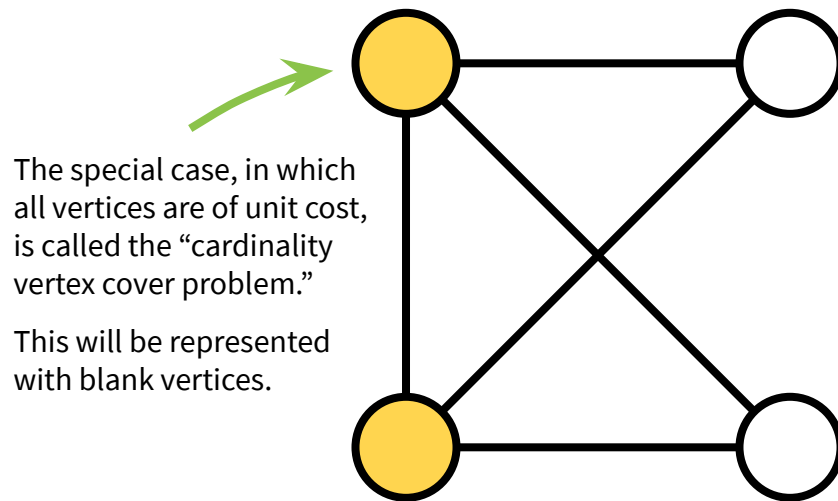
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The cardinality vertex cover problem is **NP**-hard. How might we solve it??

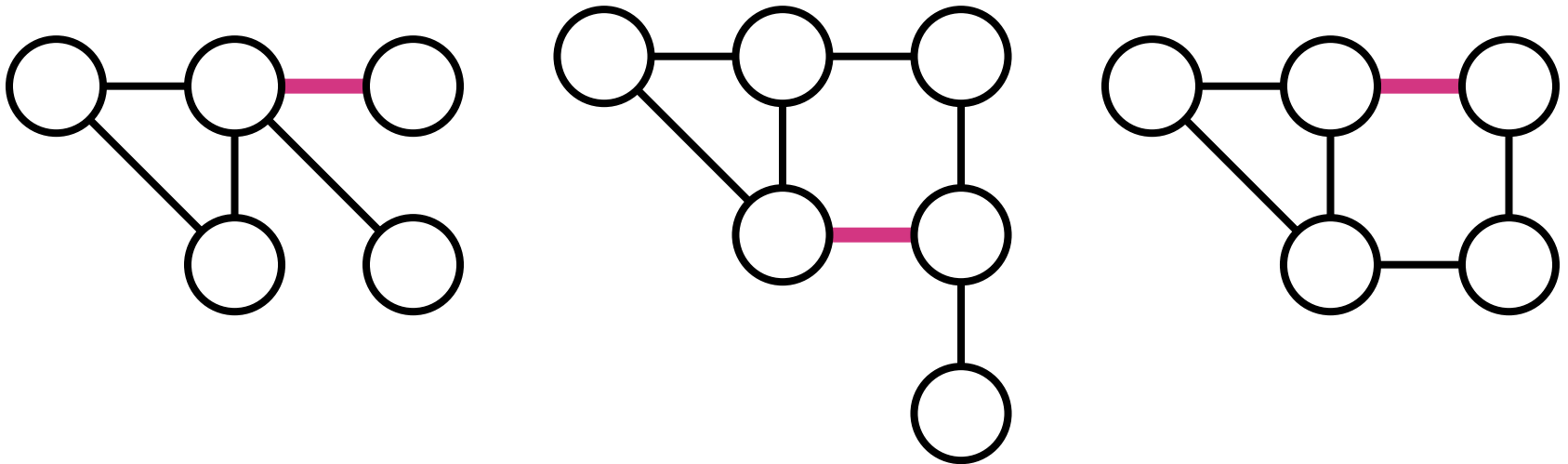
Vertex Cover

Let's introduce some useful terminology ...

A **matching** is a set of edges such that no two edges share a common vertex.

A **maximal matching** is a matching such that if any edge is added to the matching, it's no longer a matching.

A **maximum matching** is a maximal matching that contains the largest possible number of edges.



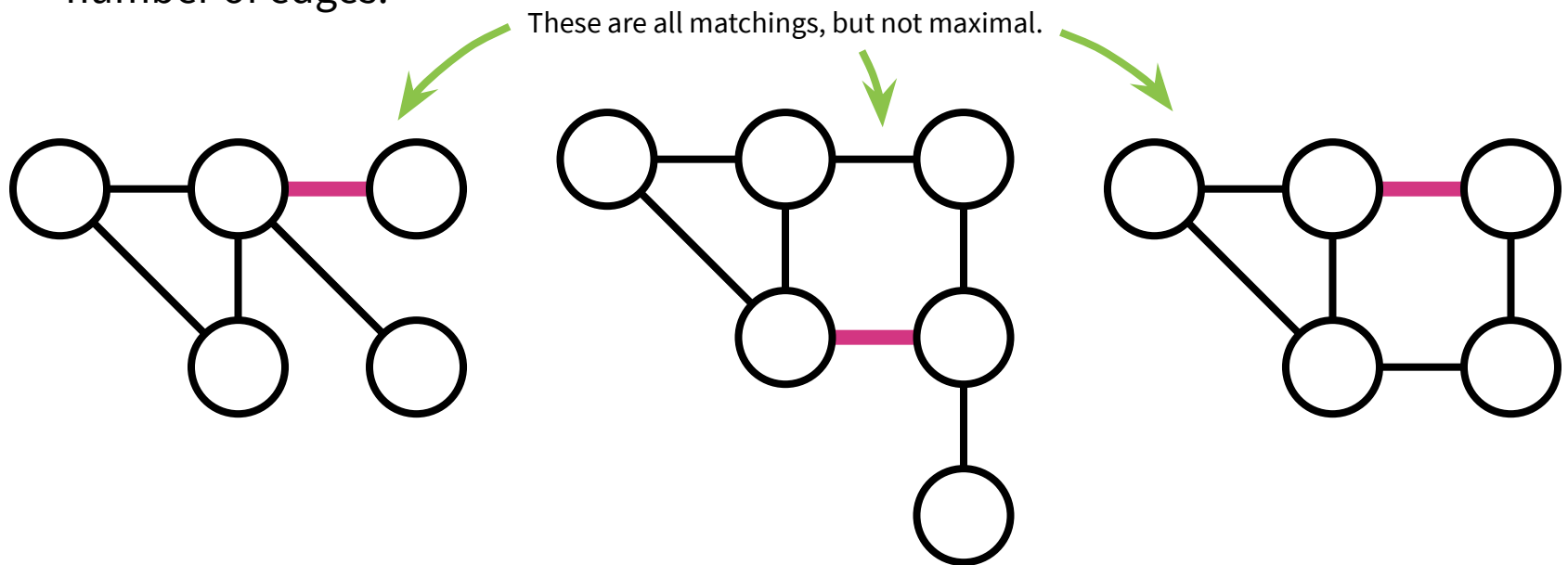
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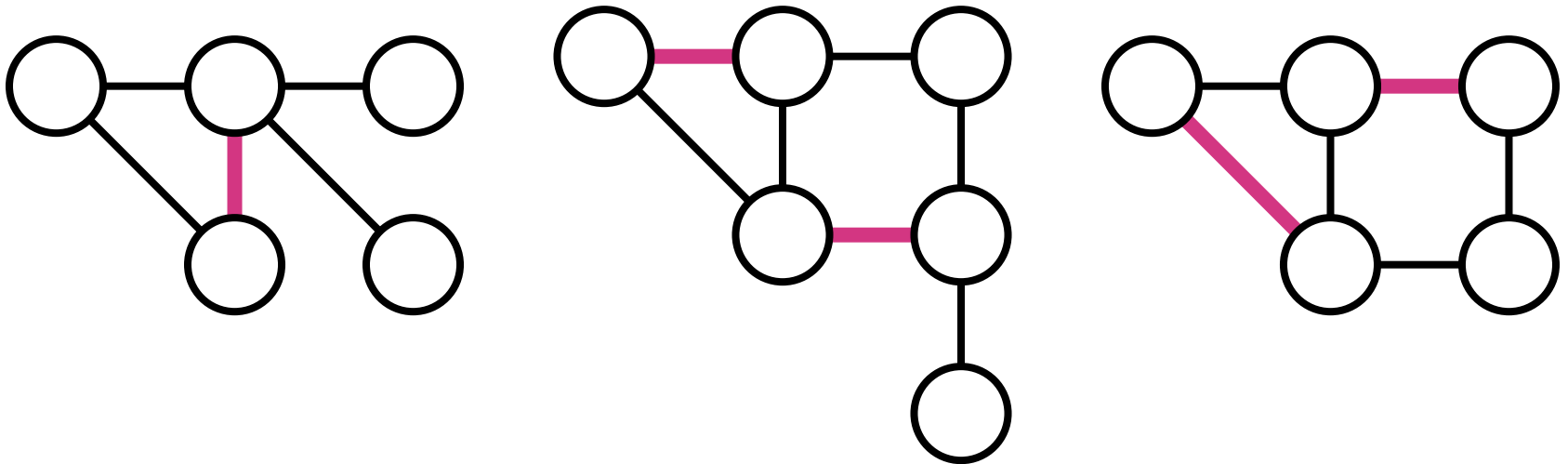
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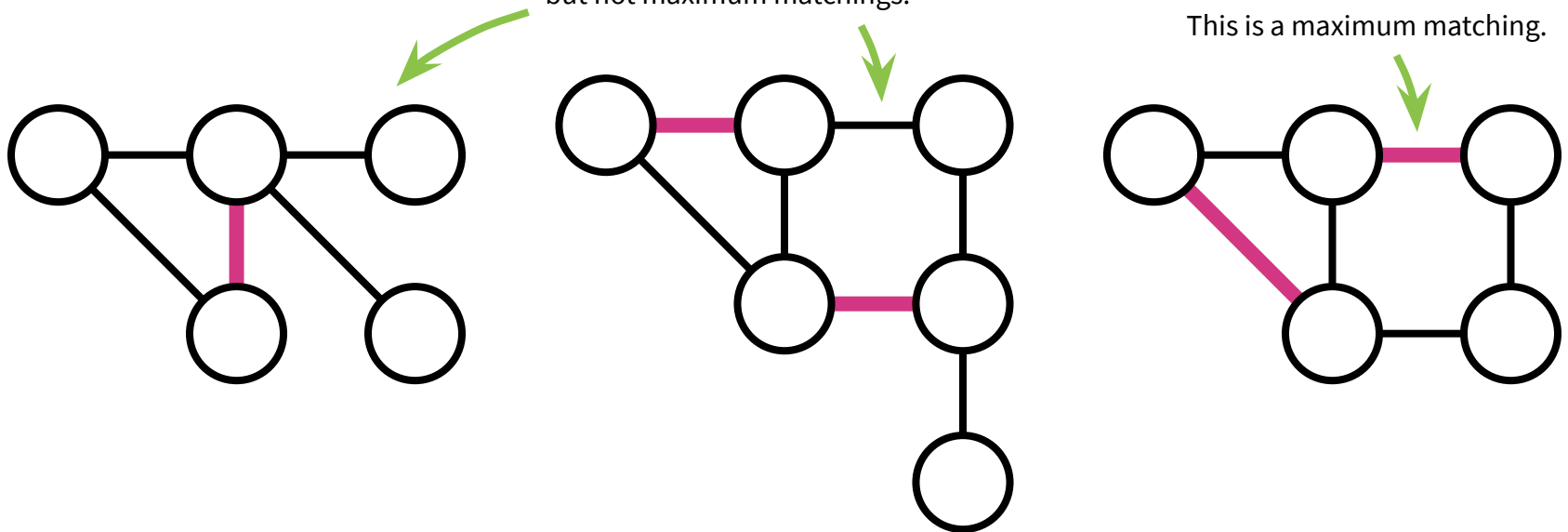
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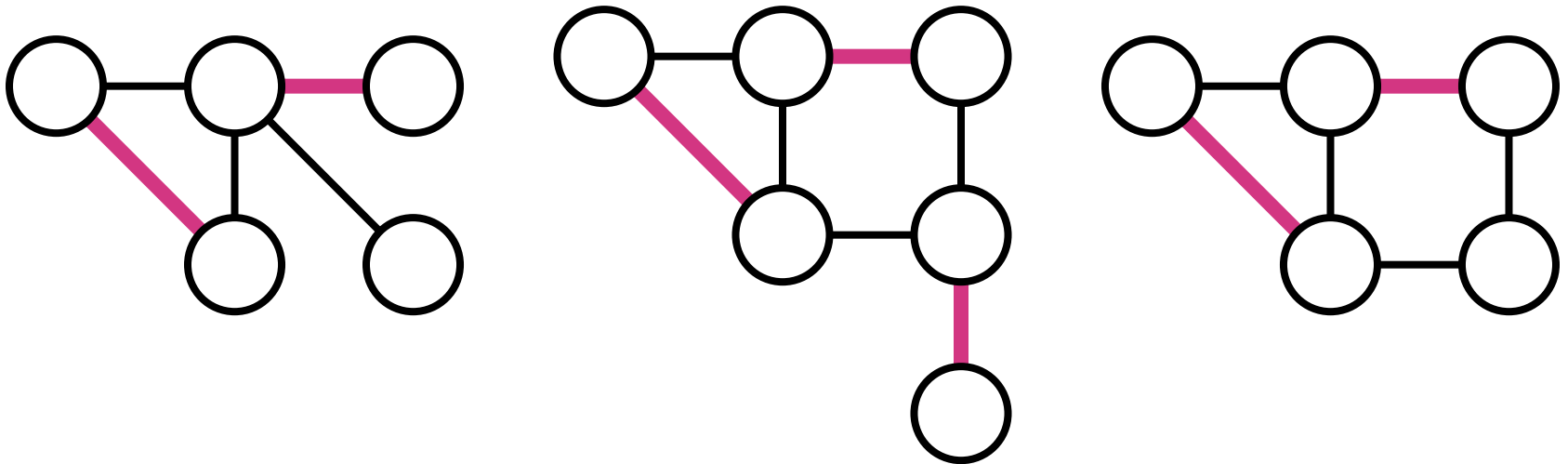
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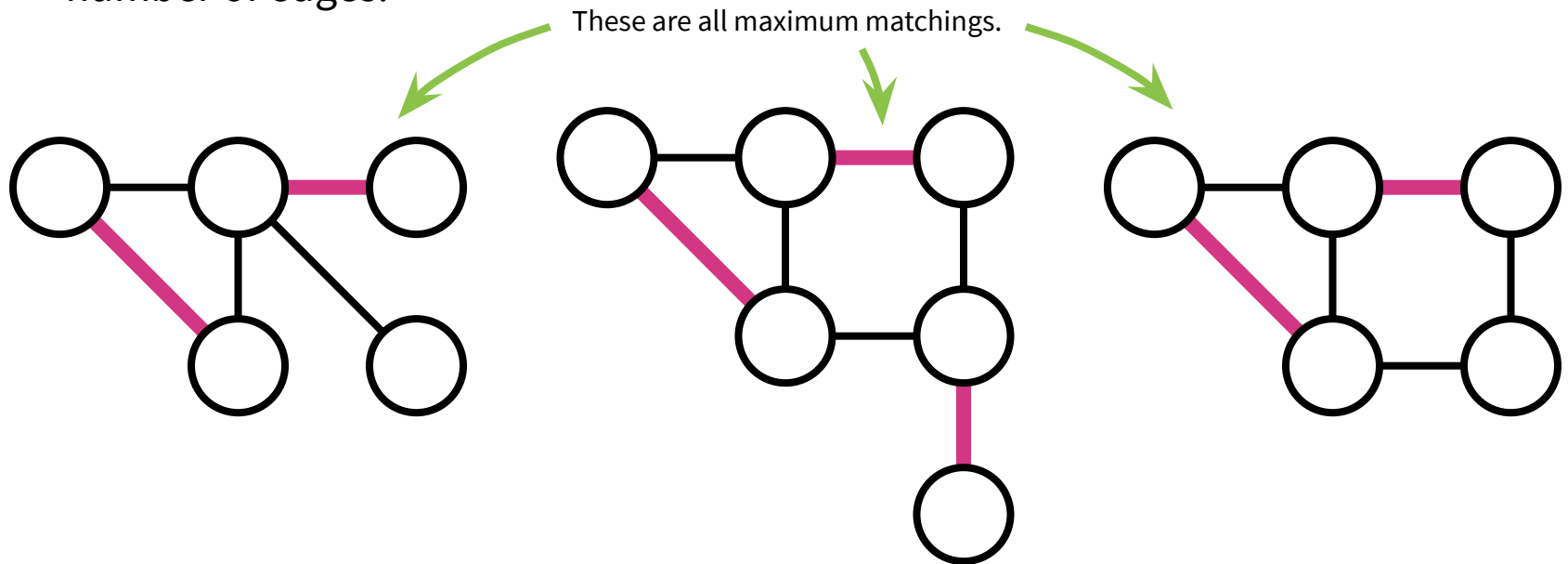
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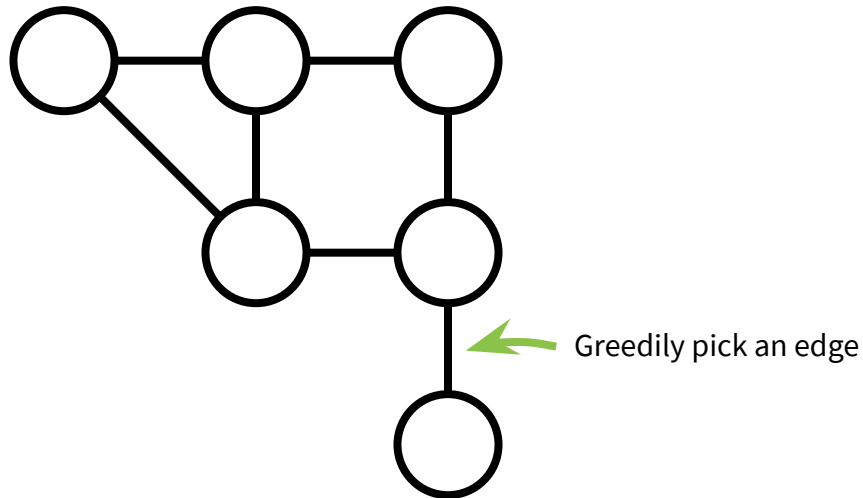
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Let's attempt to design a greedy solution first.

Recall, greedy solutions are often the most natural algorithms to design, but sometimes it's difficult to prove their correctness.

Intuition Greedily pick an edge, add its endpoints to the vertex cover, and remove edges adjacent to the endpoints.

i.e. Find a maximal matching in G and output the set of matched vertices.



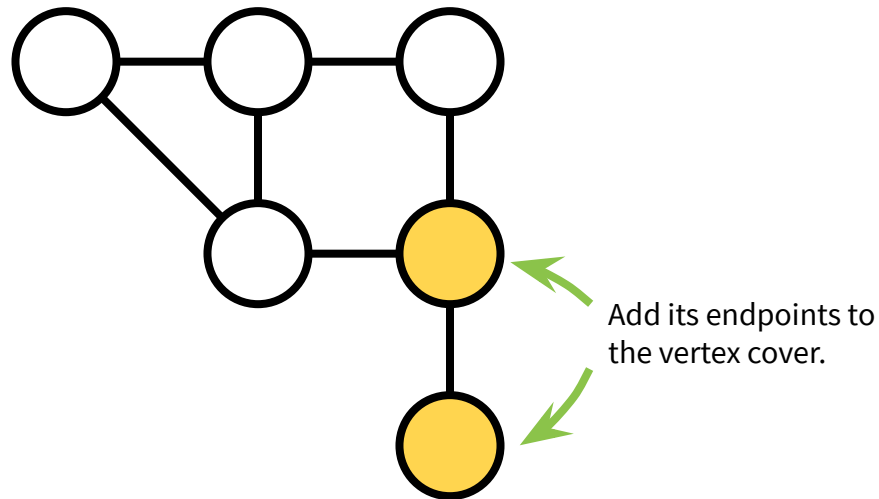
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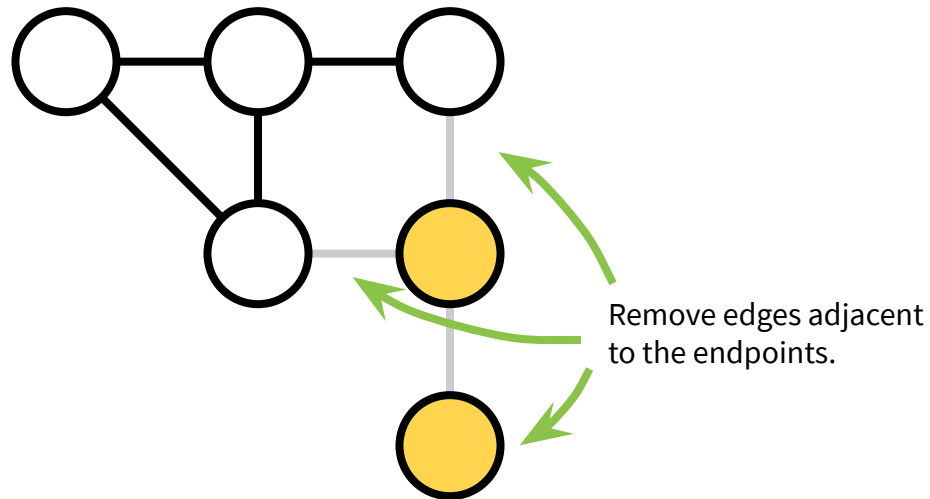
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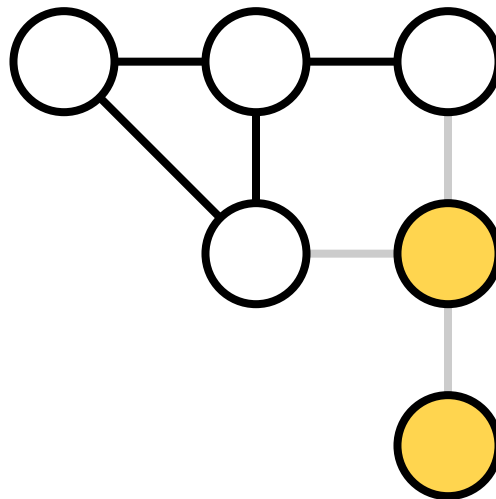
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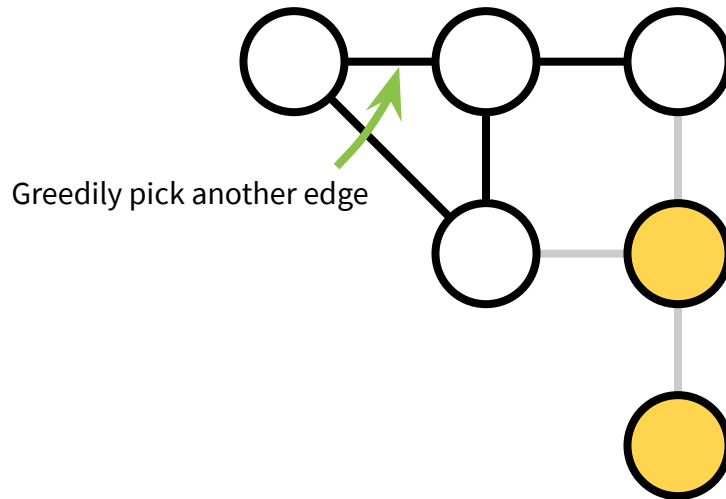
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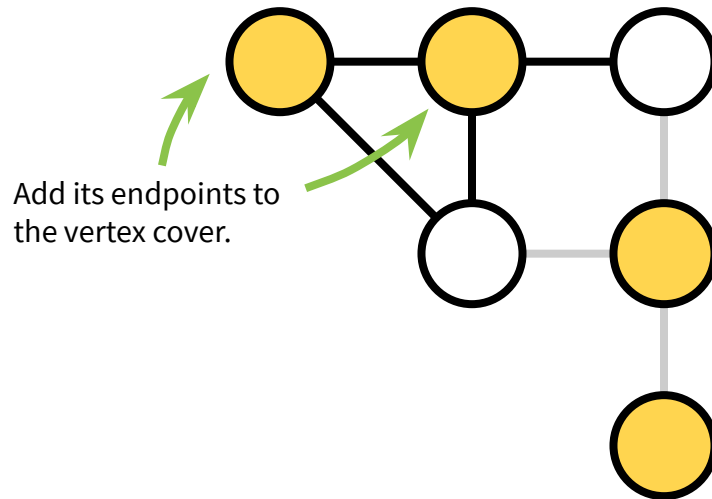
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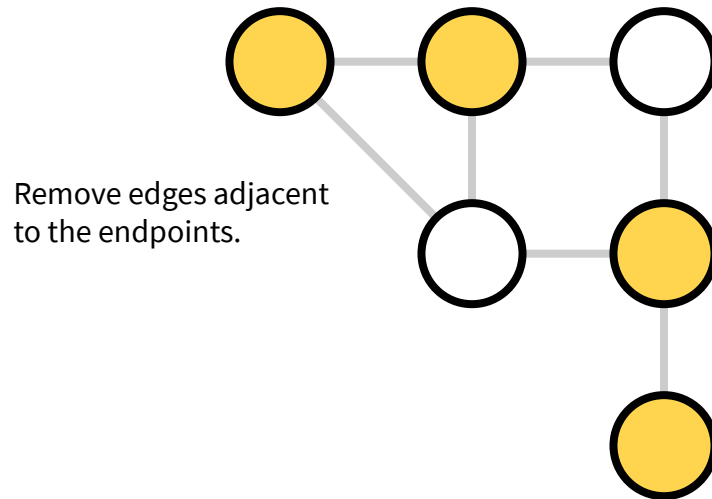
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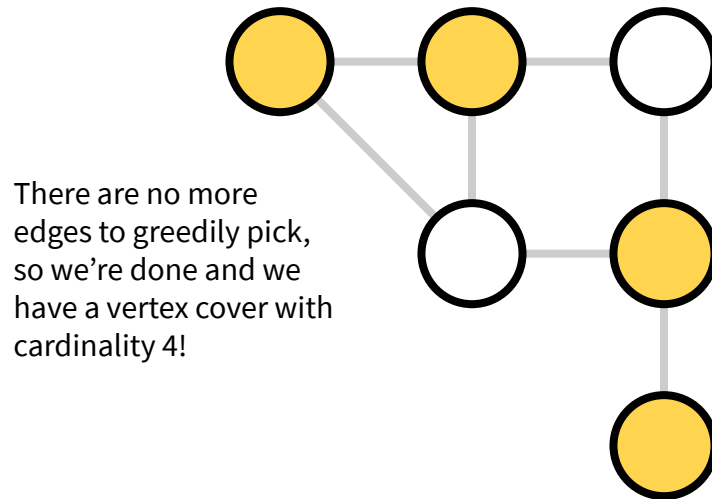
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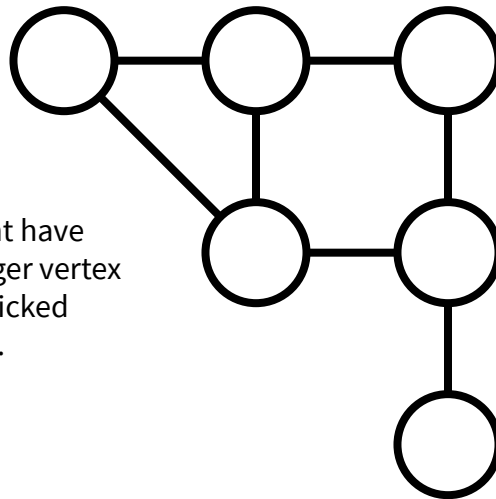
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Obviously, this algorithm might have produced a larger vertex cover had we picked different edges.



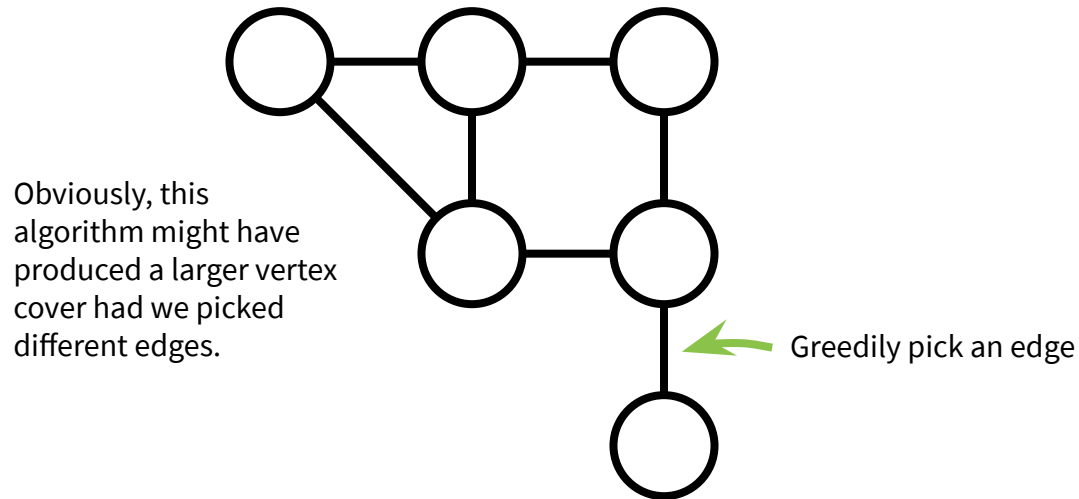
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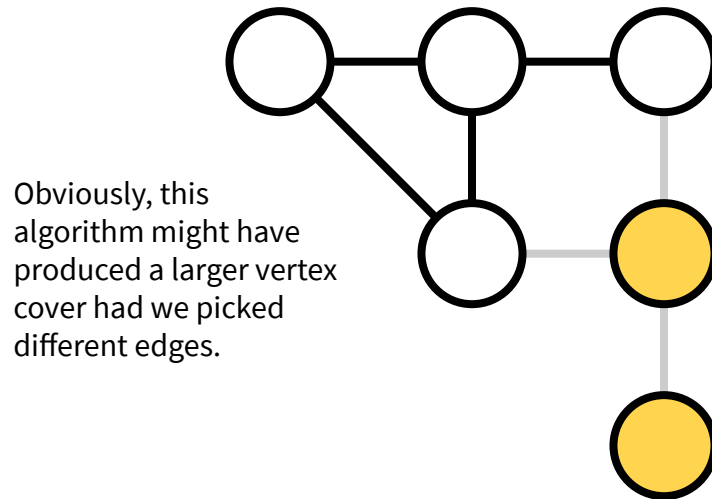
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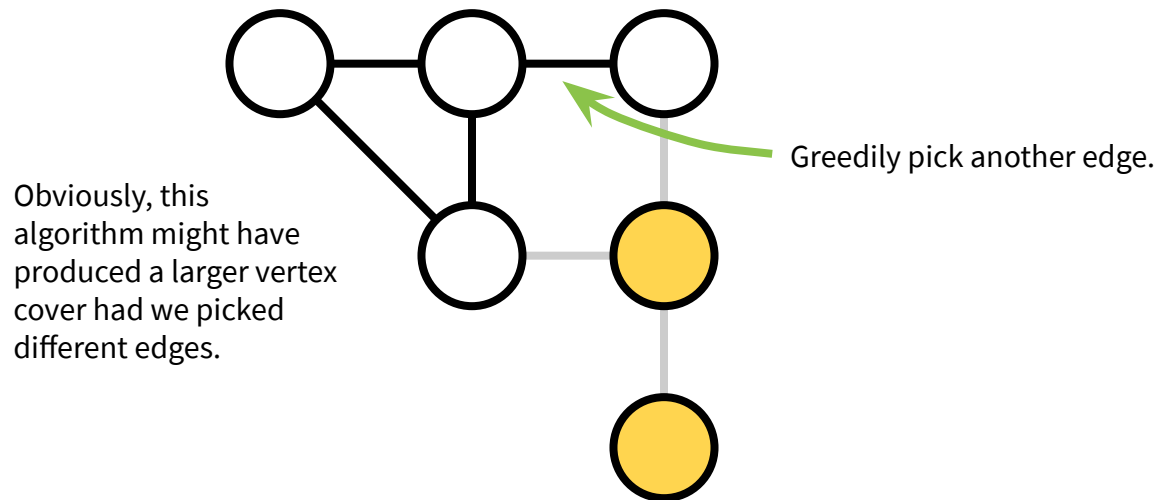
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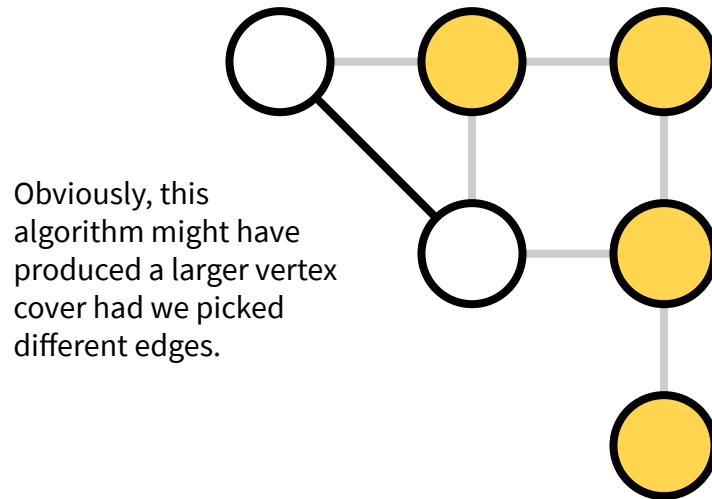
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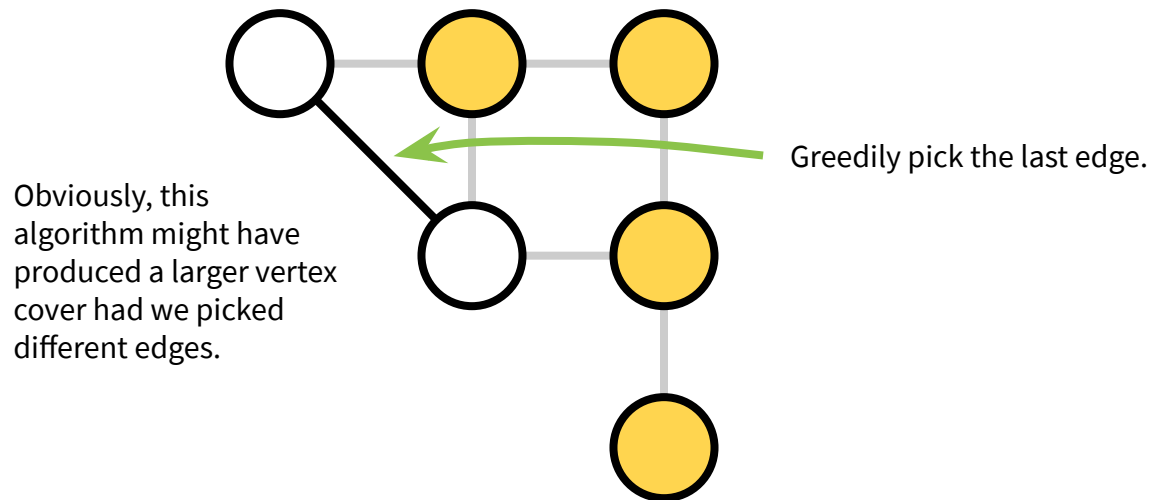
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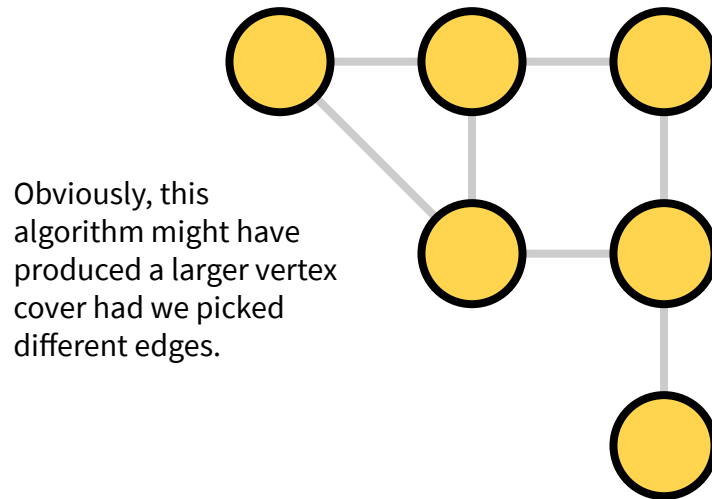
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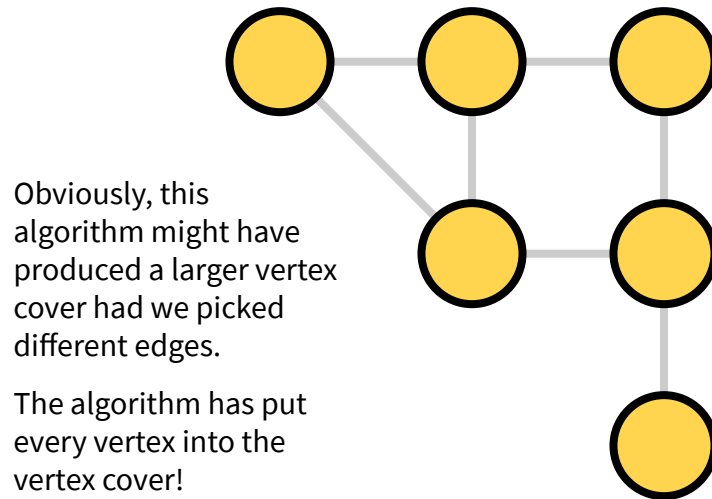
Vertex Cover

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Vertex Cover

```
def find_vertex_cover(G):  
    matching, vc = find_maximal_matching(G)  
    return vc  
  
def find_maximal_matching(G):  
    matching = {} # a set of edges  
    matched_vertices = {} # a set of vertices  
    ce = {} # stands for "covered edges"  
    while ce  $\neq$  G.E:  
        e = pick an edge from G.E - ce at random  
        add e to matching  
        add e.v1 and e.v2 to matched_vertices  
        add edges adjacent to v1, v2 to ce  
    return matching, matched_vertices
```

Runtime: $O(|V| + |E|)$

Vertex Cover

(1) How do we establish an approximation guarantee for our algorithm?

Theorem: `find_vertex_cover` is a factor 2-approximation algorithm for the cardinality vertex cover problem.

Proof:

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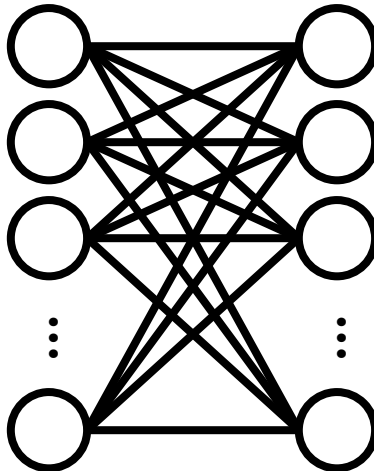
The algorithm picks a cover with cardinality $2 \cdot |M|$, which is at most $2 \cdot OPT$. ■

Vertex Cover

(2) Can the approximation guarantee of `find_vertex_cover` be improved by a better analysis?

No, our analysis is tight. Consider an infinite complete bipartite graph, called a **tight example** since the approximation guarantee is tight

i.e. `find_vertex_cover` produces a solution twice the optimal.



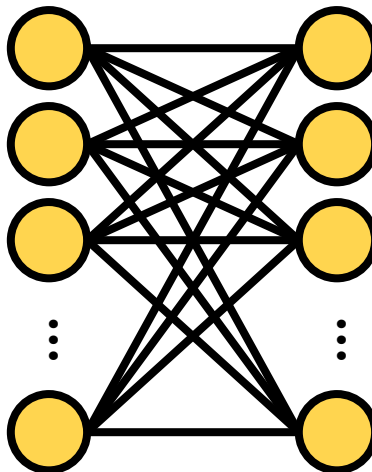
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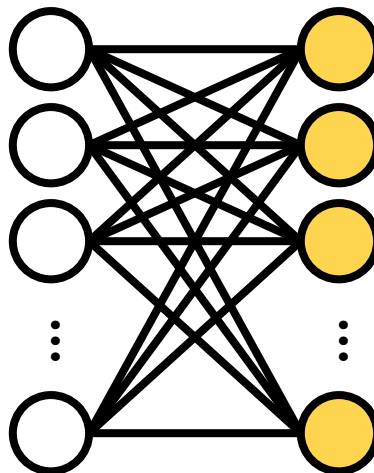
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But picking one side of the bipartition gives a cover of size n .

Vertex Cover

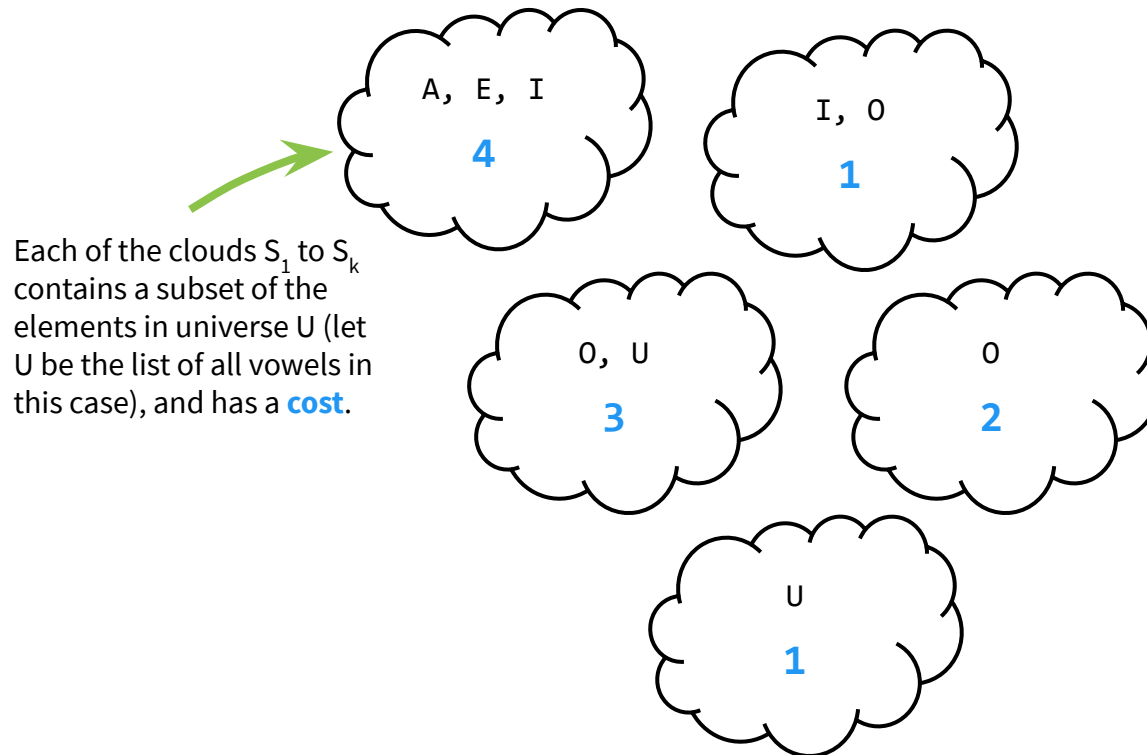
(3) Is there some other lower bounding method that can lead to an improved approximation guarantee for vertex cover?

This is an open problem!

Set Cover

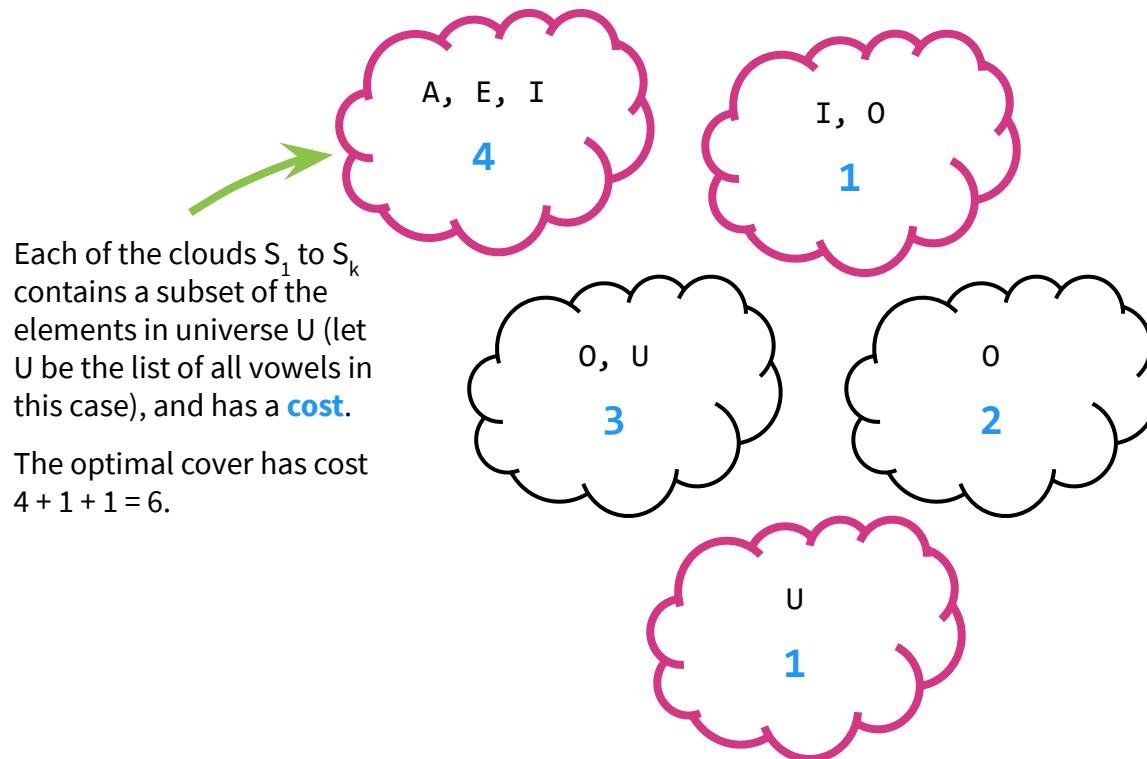
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Task Given a universe U of n elements, a collection of subsets $S = \{S_1, \dots, S_k\}$ of U each of which has a cost, find a min cost subcollection of S that covers all elements of U .



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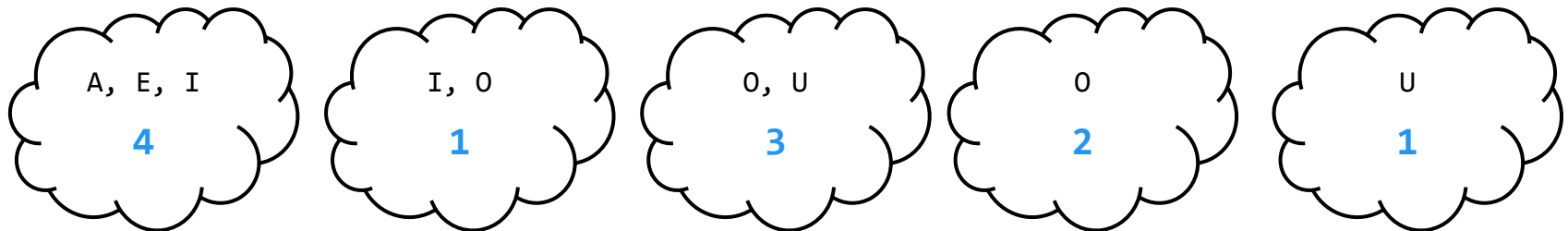
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Let the **cost-effectiveness score** of a set S_i be the average cost at which it covers new elements i.e. $\text{cost}(S_i) / |S_i - C|$ where C is the set of elements covered already.



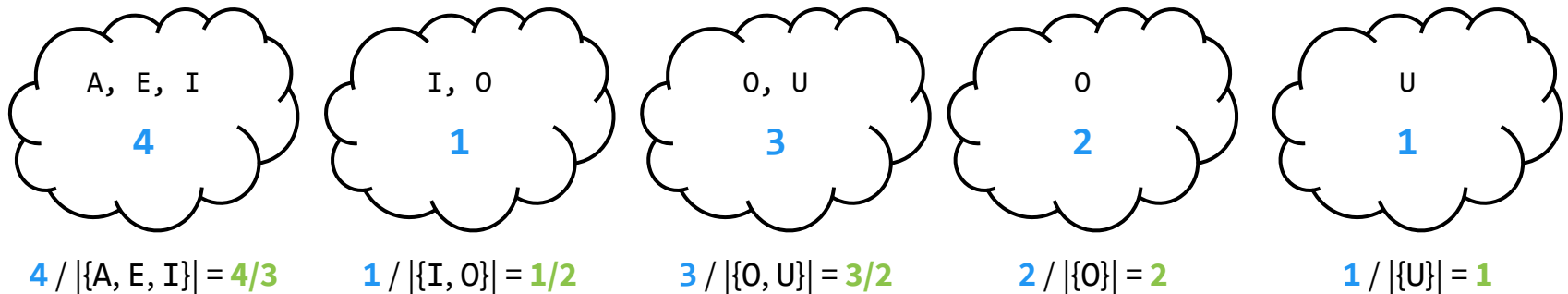
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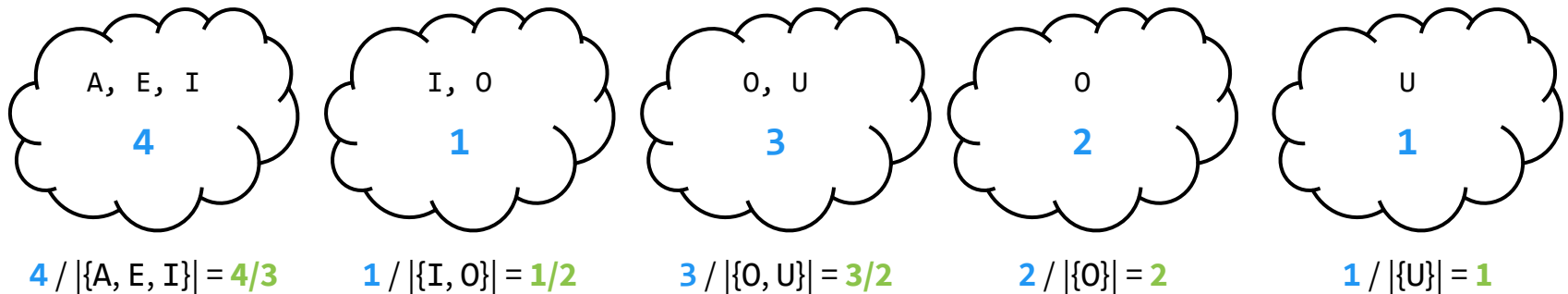
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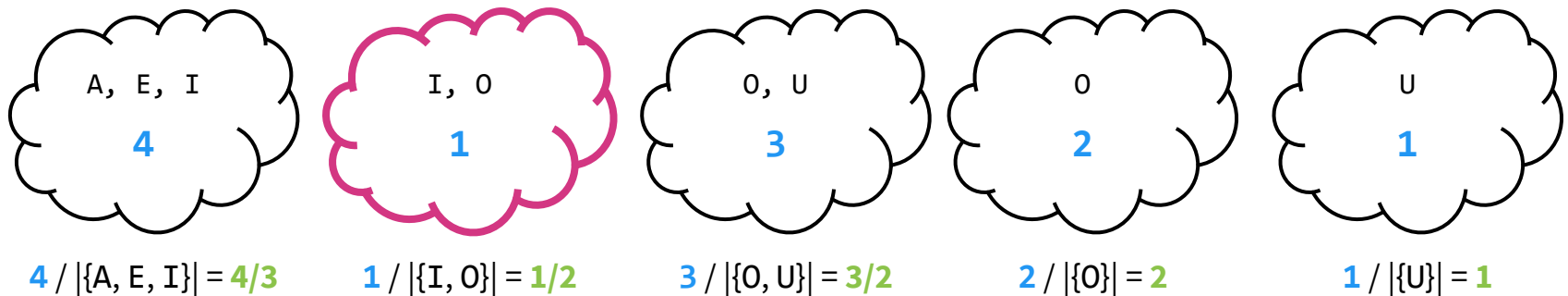
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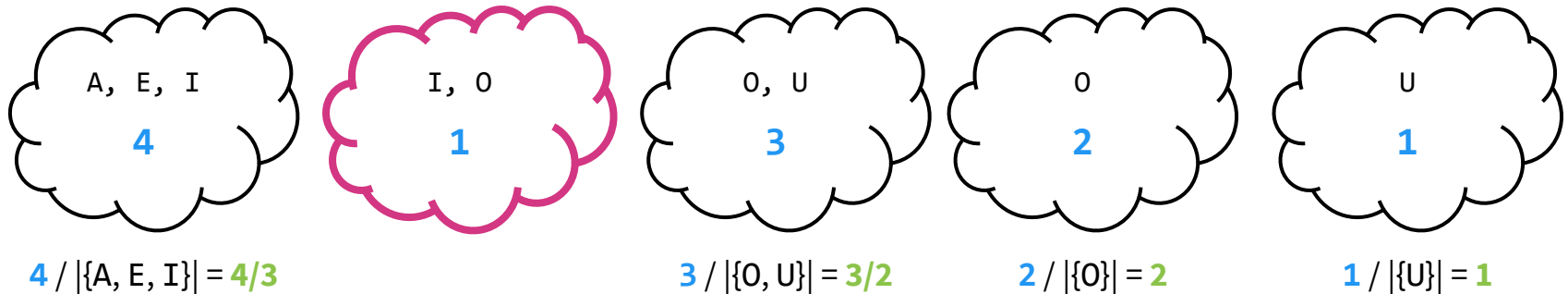
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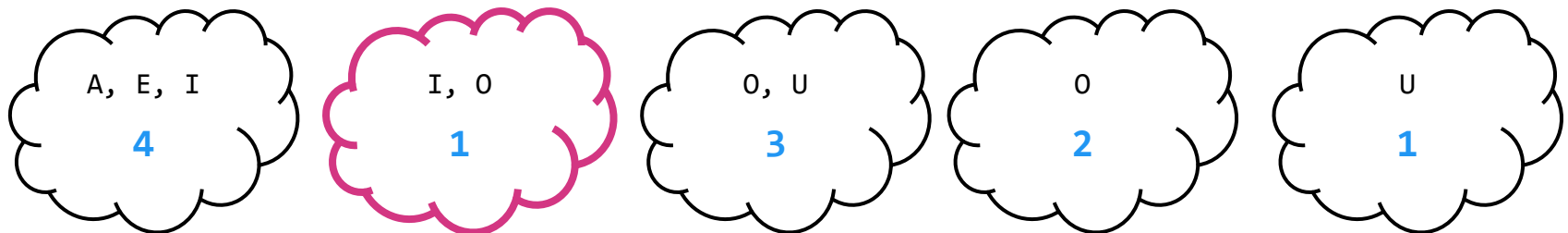
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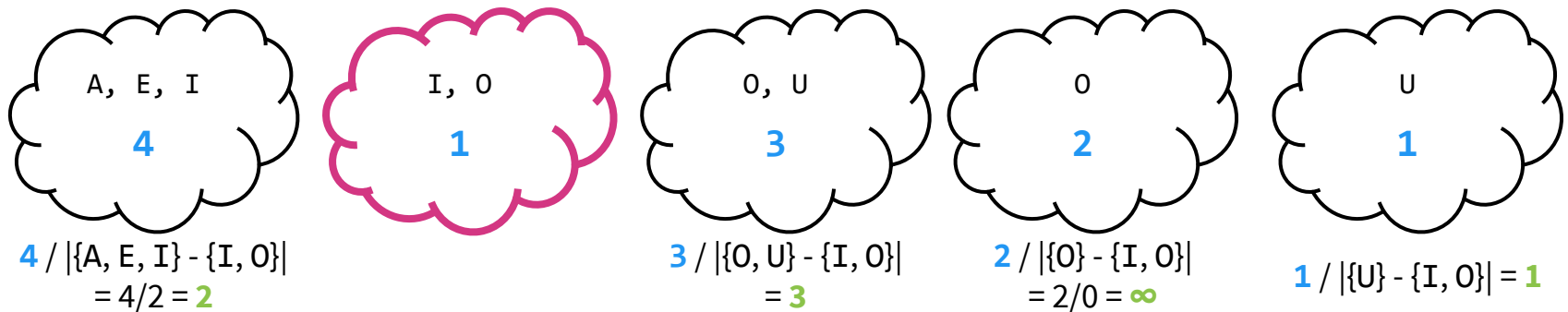
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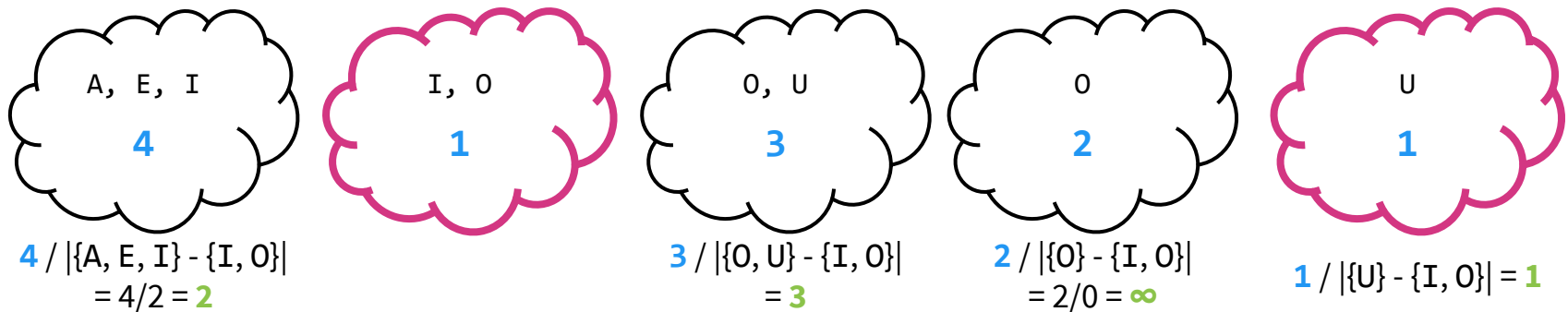
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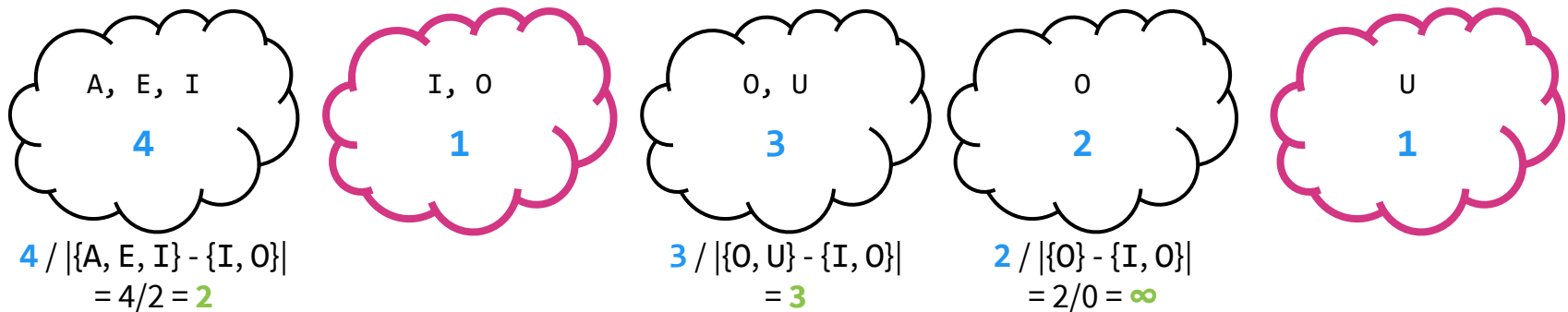
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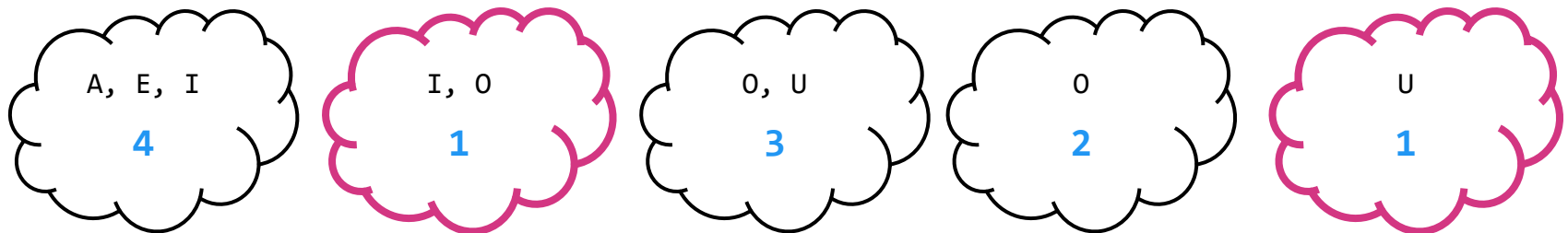
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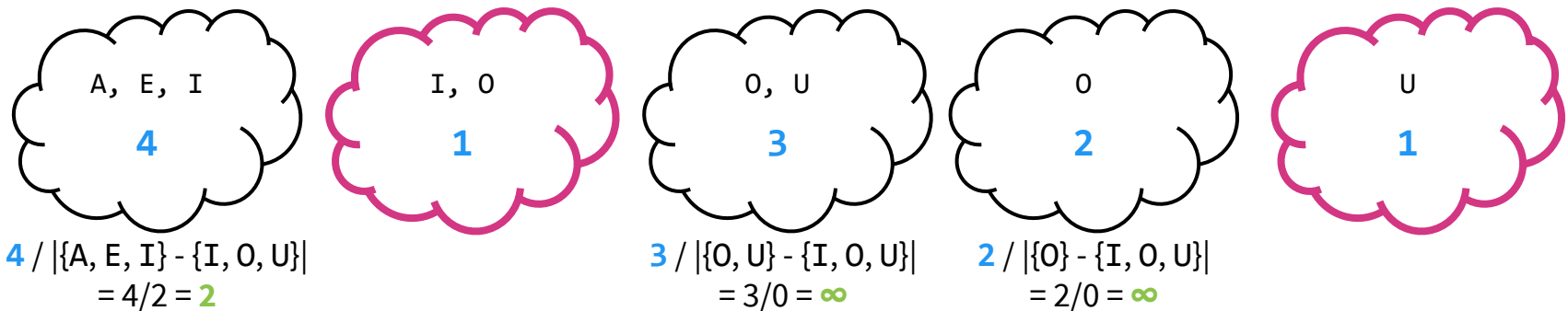
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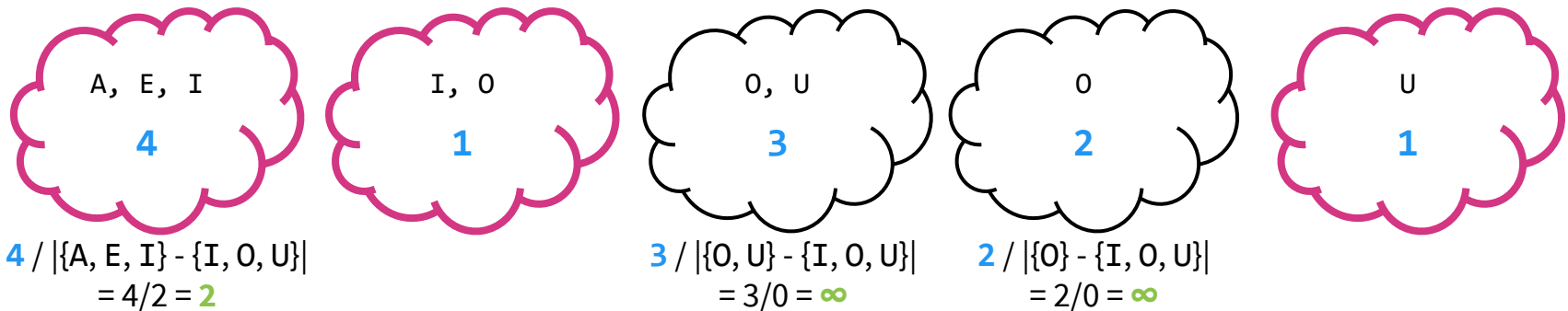
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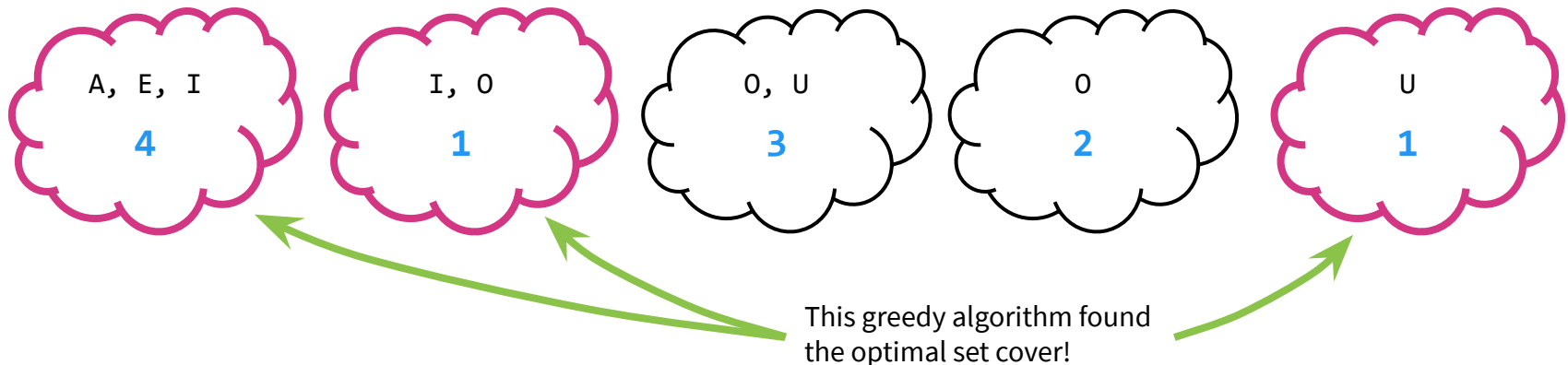
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Set Cover

```
def find_set_cover(S):  
    C = {} # stands for "covered"  
    sc = {}  
    prices = dict()  
    while C ≠ U:  
        # α is the cost effectiveness of the most  
        # cost-effective set, S_i  
        S_i, α = get_most_cost_effective(S, C)  
        sc.add(S_i)  
        prices[e] = α for e in S_i - C  
        C = C ∪ S_i  
    return sc
```

i.e. The elements in S_i that haven't been covered by a previous set.

Runtime: $O(|S|^2)$

We can improve this runtime by using fancy data structures.

Set Cover

(1) How do we establish an approximation guarantee for our algorithm?

Number the elements in U in the order in which they were covered by the algorithm, resolving ties arbitrarily. Let e_1, \dots, e_n be this numbering. Note $n = |U|$.

Lemma: For each $k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, $\text{price}[e_k] \leq \text{OPT} / (n - k + 1)$.

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In the iteration in which element e_k was covered, C^C contained at least $n - k + 1$ elements. Since e_k was covered by the most cost-effective set in this iteration, it follows that $\text{price}[e_k] \leq \text{OPT}/|C^C| \leq \text{OPT} / (n - k + 1)$. ■

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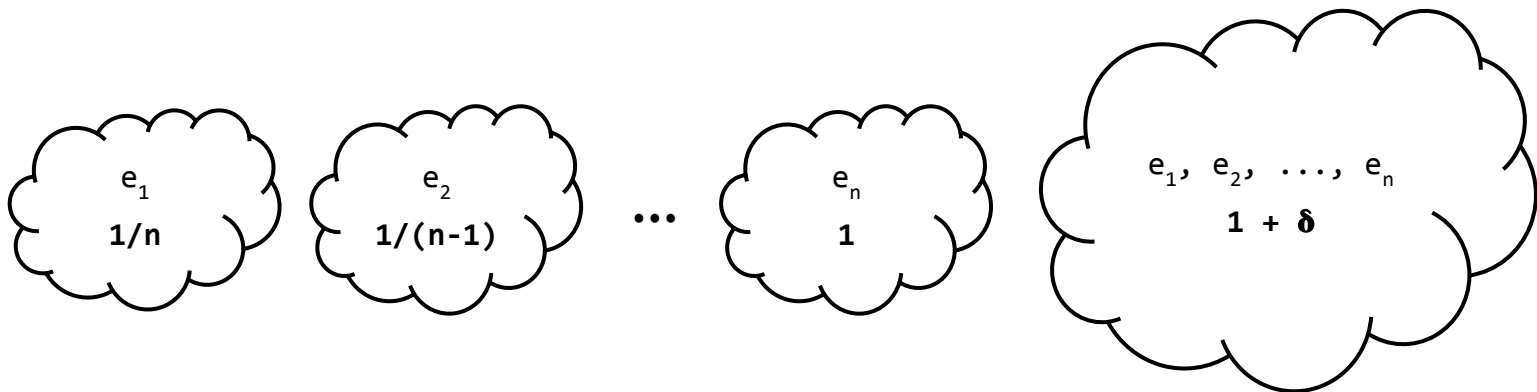
By the lemma, $\sum_k \text{price}[e_k] \leq (1 + 1/2 + \dots + 1/n) \cdot \text{OPT} \leq \log(n) \cdot \text{OPT}$. ■

Set Cover

(2) Can the approximation guarantee of `find_set_cover` be improved by a better analysis?

No. Let's find a **tight example** to convince ourselves that our approximation guarantee is tight i.e. `find_set_cover` produces a solution $\log(n)$ times the optimal.

Consider a set of singleton sets and one exhaustive set, each with specific costs.

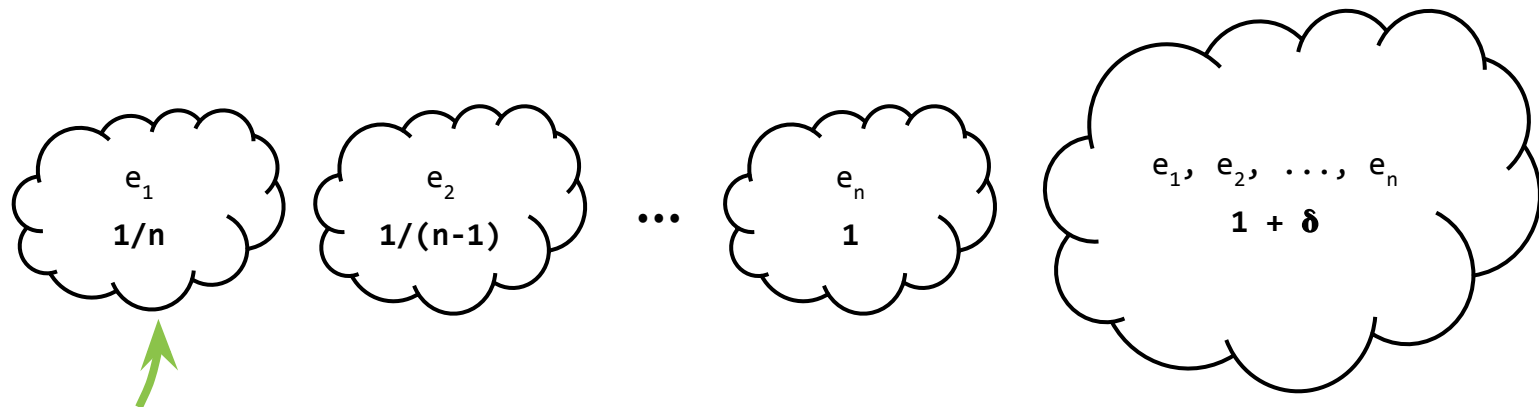


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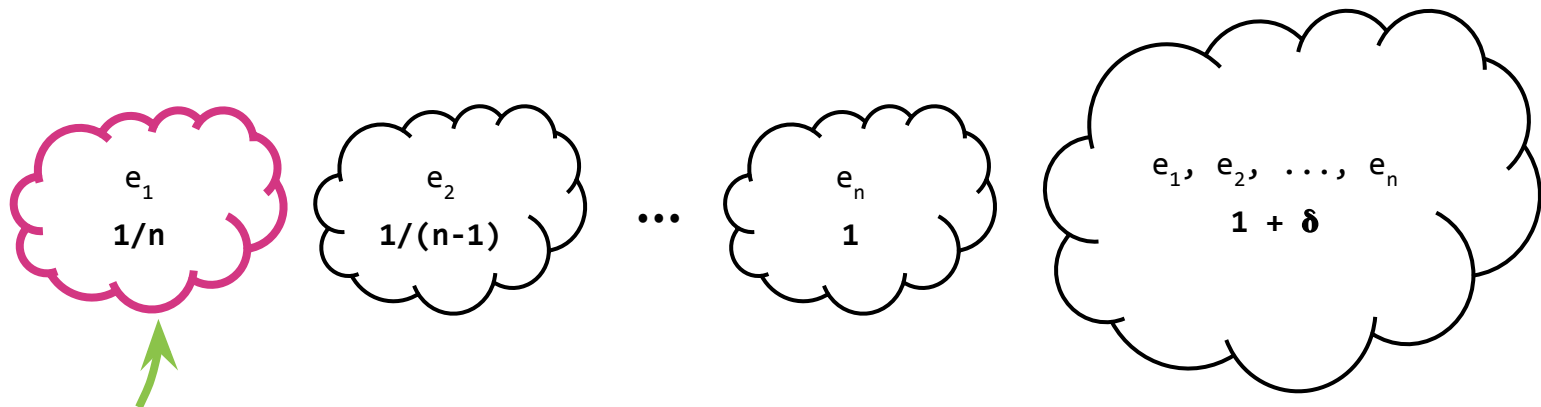
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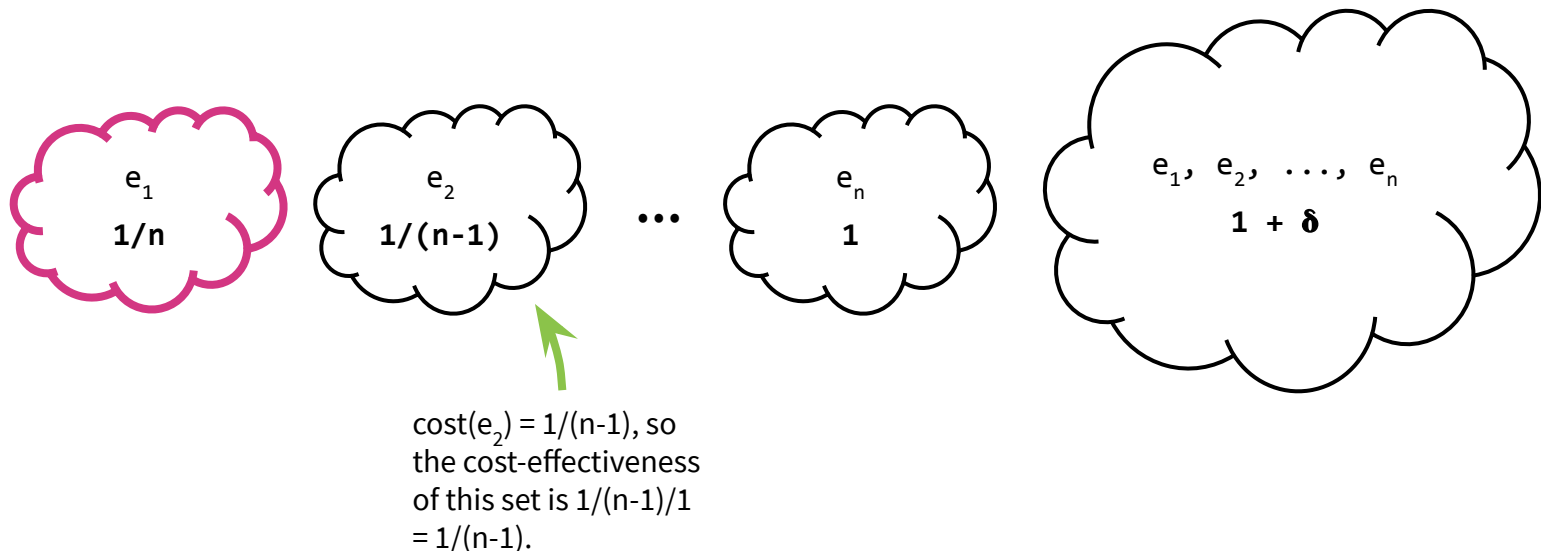
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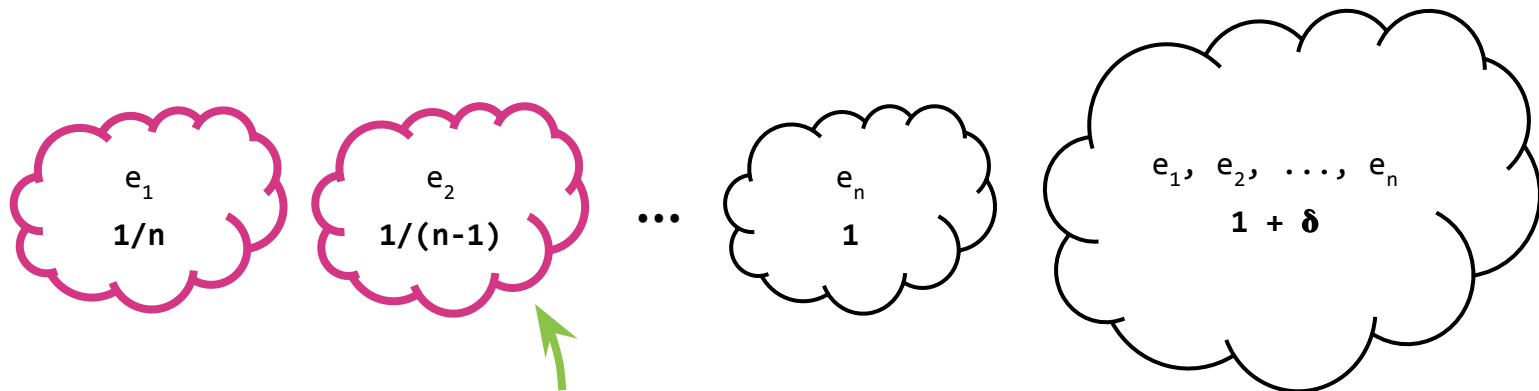


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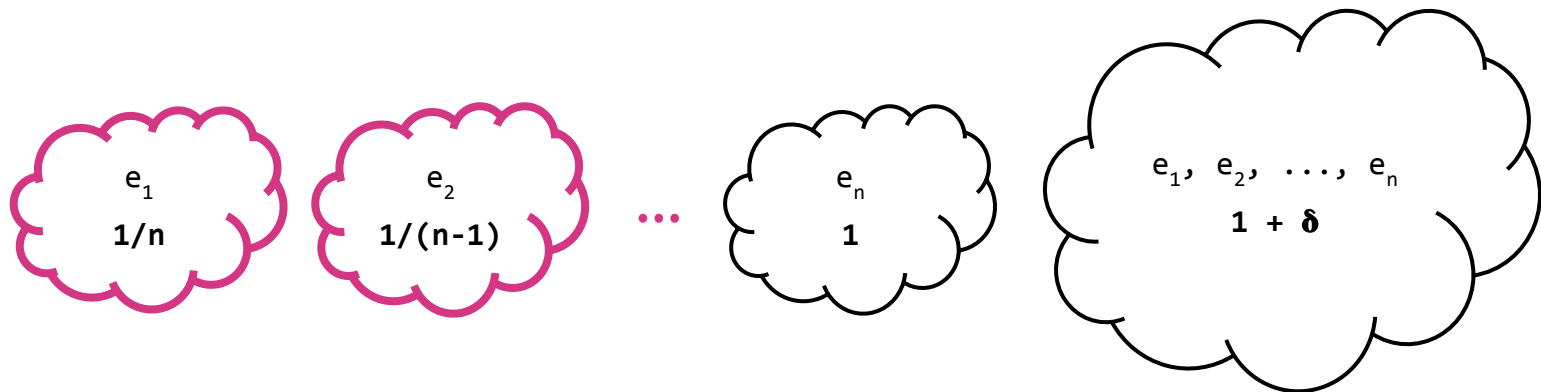
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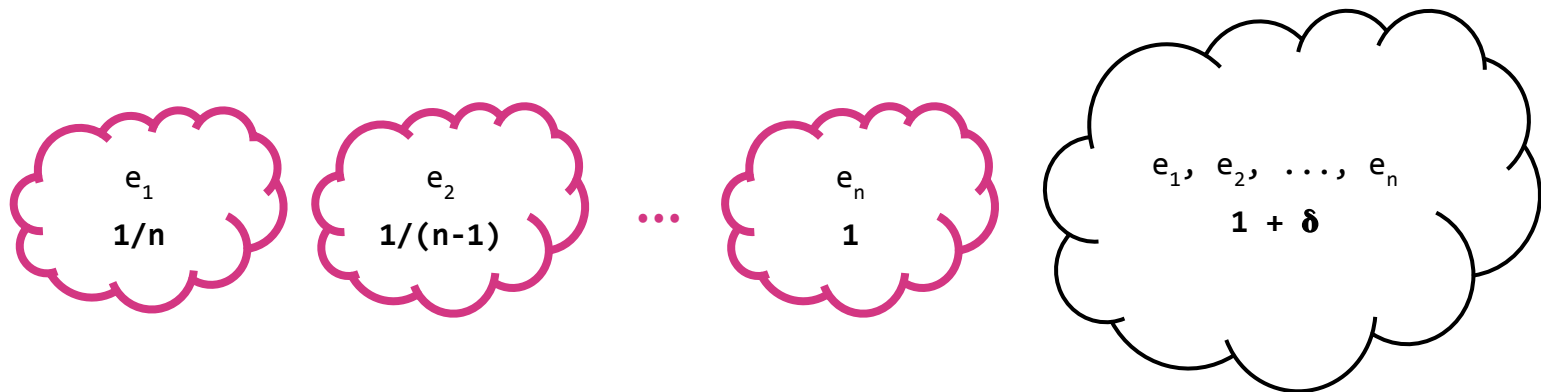


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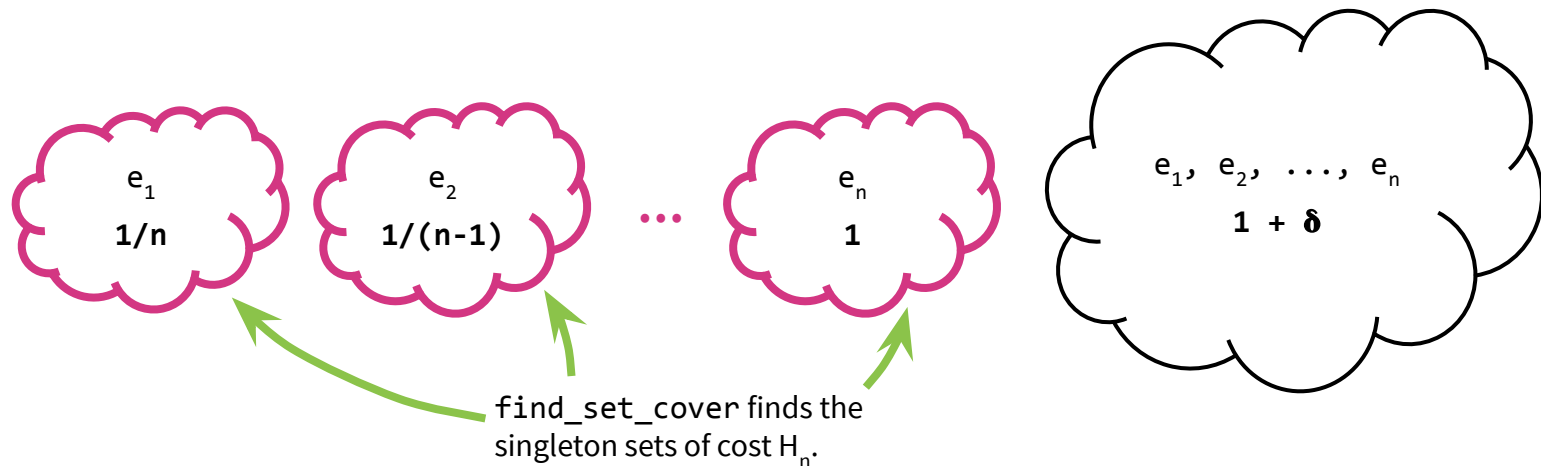


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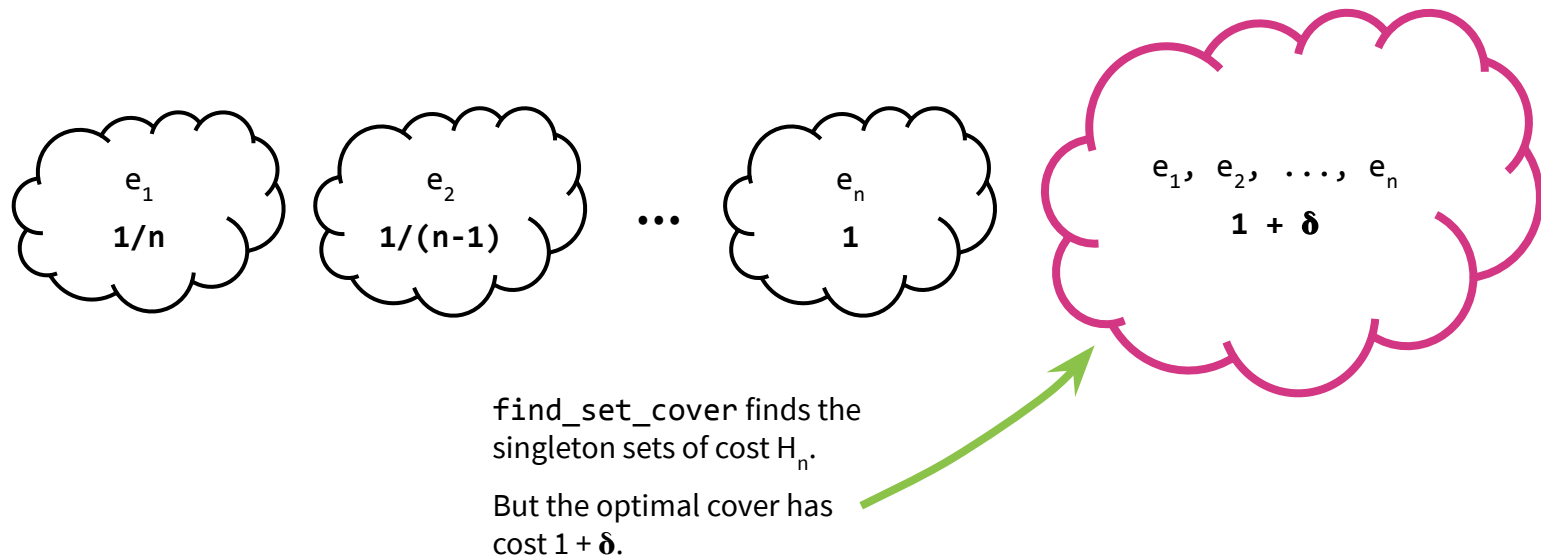


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Set Cover

Study of the **set cover** problem led to the development of fundamental techniques for the entire field of approximation algorithms.

This approximation algorithm is widely (and wildly) useful!

The human DNA can be represented as a very long string over a four-letter Alphabet. Since it's very long, several overlapping short segments of this string get deciphered, but the locations of these segments on the original remains unknown.

We can use set cover to find the shortest string which contains these segments as substrings to approximate the original DNA string.

0/1 Knapsack III

Approximation Schemes

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What is f_p in 0/1 Knapsack? 🤔 The total value derived from the items taken.

Let $A(i, \epsilon)$ be an algorithm, where i is an instance of problem P and $\epsilon > 0$ is an error parameter.

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Let f_p describe the value being optimized

What is f_p in 0/1 Knapsack? 🤔 The total value derived from the items taken.

Let $A(i, \epsilon)$ be an algorithm, where i is an instance of problem P and $\epsilon > 0$ is an error parameter.

A is an **approximation scheme** if it outputs a solution s such that:

$f_p(s) \leq (1 + \epsilon) \cdot \text{OPT}$ if P is a minimization problem

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Approximation Schemes

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FPTAS is the best you can get for an **NP**-hard optimization problem, assuming $P \neq \text{NP}$. In other words, it's the holy grail solution for **NP**-hard problems!



Fixed Parameter Tractability

Suppose that the input to a problem P can be characterized by two parameters, n and k .

P is called fixed-parameter tractable iff there is some algorithm that solves P in time $O(f(k)p(n))$.

$f(k)$ is an arbitrary function and $p(n)$ is a polynomial in n .

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Which parameter gets “fixed” depends on your perspective.

If you’re the robber designing an algorithm to help you steal items, you’ll fix the capacity of the knapsack and reason about variable sets of items.

If you’re the victim designing an algorithm to predict which items the robbers with variable size knapsacks will steal, you’ll fix the value of the items.

Pseudo-Polynomial Time

Recall that to be considered efficient, an algorithm must have runtime polynomial in the size of its input.

An instance of 0/1 Knapsack requires $\log(n)$ bits to represent a number n in binary (e.g. adding one more bit to the end of the representation of W doubles its size and doubles the runtime).

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To be considered weakly efficient, an algorithm must have runtime pseudo-polynomial in the of its input.

What is polynomial vs. pseudo-polynomial runtime? Polynomial runtime assumes inputs represented in binary. Pseudo-polynomial runtime assumes inputs represented in unary.

An instance of 0/1 Knapsack requires n bits to represent a number n in unary (e.g. adding one more bit to the end of the representation of W doesn't really affect its size or its runtime).

$$6 = 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1$$

0/1 Knapsack

First DP alg Previously, we described a fixed-parameter polynomial time algorithm for 0/1 Knapsack.

Our original solution from Lecture 11 answers “What is the maximum value that fits in X capacity given just the first k items?” and fills this table.

First solve the
problem for few
items



Then more items



Then more items



First solve the
problem for small
knapsacks



Then larger
knapsacks



Then larger
knapsacks



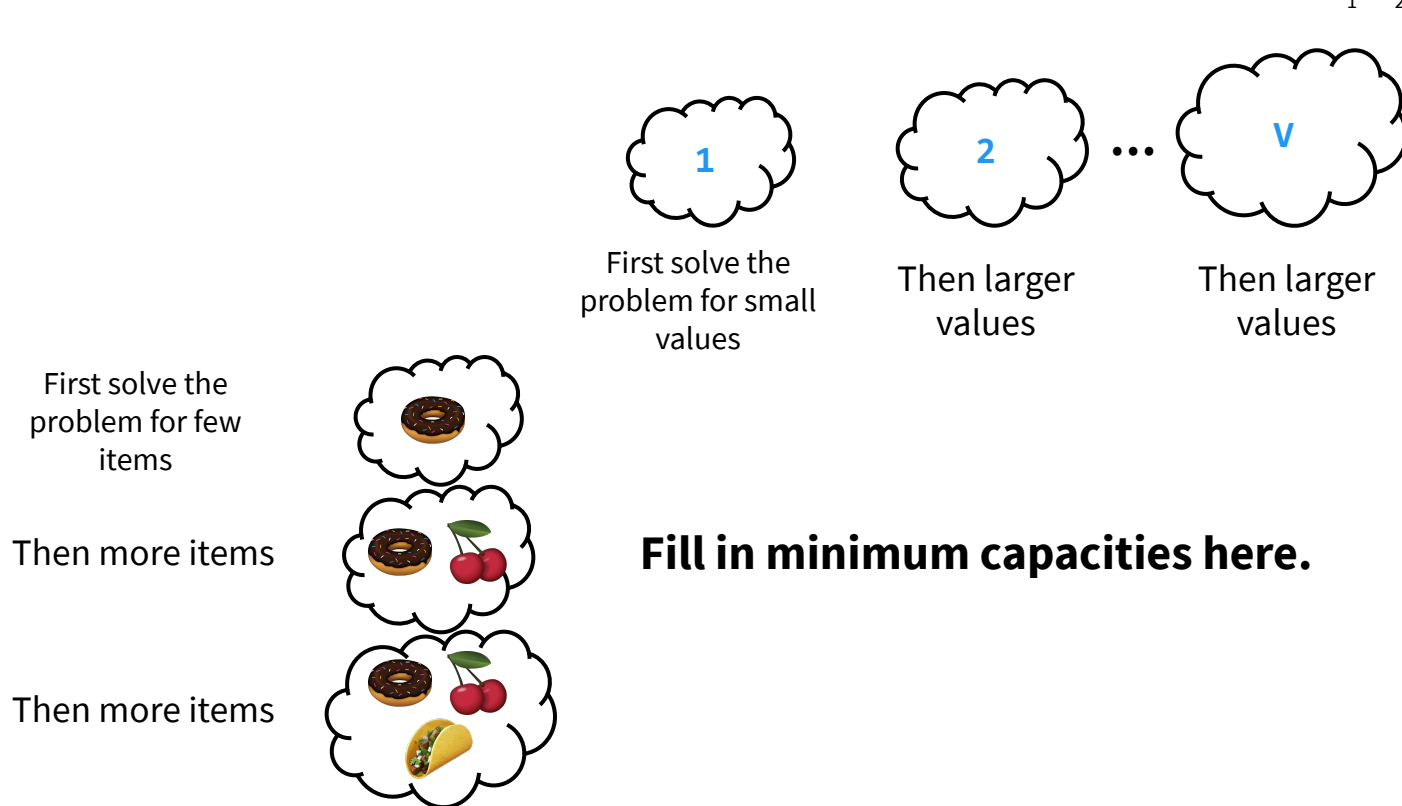
Fill in maximum values here.

0/1 Knapsack

New DP alg Here, we'll describe a pseudo-polynomial time algorithm for 0/1 Knapsack.

Our new solution answers “What is the min capacity needed to make X value with the first k items?” and fills this table.

Let V be the maximum possible value obtainable:
 $V = v_1 + v_2 + \dots + v_n$.



0/1 Knapsack

First DP alg

Let $\text{OPT}[c, i]$ be the optimal (max) value for capacity c with i items.

$$\text{OPT}[c, i] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } c \text{ or } i \text{ are } 0 \\ \max\{\text{OPT}[c, i-1], \text{OPT}[c-w_i, i-1] + v_i\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$O(nW)$ Dynamic programming solution

New DP alg

Let $\text{OPT}[i, v]$ be the optimal (min) capacity for value v with i items.

$$\text{OPT}[i, v] = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \text{ and } v \text{ are } 0 \\ \infty & \text{if } i \text{ is } 0, v > 0 \\ \text{OPT}[i-1, v] & \text{if } v_i > v \\ \min\{\text{OPT}[i-1, v], \text{OPT}[i-1, v-v_i] + w_i\} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$O(nV)$ Dynamic programming solution

0/1 Knapsack

	Brute-force	First DP solution	New DP solution
Runtime	$O(n2^n)$ worst-case	$O(nW)$ worst-case	$O(nV)$ worst-case
Usage	Don't do it.	You're the robber! Capacity is fixed and the number of items might grow large.	You're the victim! Total value is fixed and the number of items might grow large.
Analysis	Exponential, anyway you look at it.	Fixed-parameter polynomial.	Pseudo-polynomial.

0/1 Knapsack

Let's extend on our idea!

Intuition If the values of objects were small numbers bounded by a polynomial in n , then **New DP alg** would be a regular polynomial-time algorithm, so let's coerce the values of the items to be small.

0/1 Knapsack

```
def zero_one_knapsack(capacity, weights, values):  
    k =  $\epsilon v_{\max} / n$   
     $v_i' = \lfloor v_i / k \rfloor$  for  $v_i$  in values  
    S', value = use the value-based DP algorithm to find the  
                most valuable items using values  $v_i'$  and weights.  
    return S', value * k
```

Runtime: $O(nV)$

0/1 Knapsack

(1) How do we establish an approximation guarantee for our algorithm?

Let A be the set output by `zero_one_knapsack`.

Lemma: $\text{value}(A) \geq (1 - \epsilon) \cdot \text{OPT}$

Proof:

Let O be the optimal set. For any object a , because of rounding down, $k \cdot v_a'$ can be smaller than v_a but by not more than k . Thus,

$$\text{value}(O) - k \cdot \text{value}'(O) \leq nk$$

The DP step must return a set at least as good as O under the new values. Therefore,

$$\text{value}(S') \geq k \cdot \text{value}'(O) \geq \text{value}(O) - nk = \text{OPT} - \epsilon v_{\max} \geq (1 - \epsilon) \cdot \text{OPT}$$

where the last inequality follows from the fact that $\text{OPT} \geq v_{\max}$. ■

0/1 Knapsack

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Theorem: `zero_one_knapsack` is a FPTAS for Knapsack.

Proof:

By the lemma, the solution found is within $(1 - \epsilon)$ factor of OPT . Since the running time of the algorithm is $O(n^2 L v_{\max} / k \epsilon) = O(n^2 L n / \epsilon)$, which is polynomial in n and $1/\epsilon$, the theorem follows. ■

We have the holy grail of approximation algorithms!

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Conclusion

	Vertex Cover	Set Cover	0/1 Knapsack
Runtime	$O(V + E)$ worst-case	$O(S ^2)$ worst-case	$O(nV)$ worst-case
Approximation	2	$\log(U)$	$1 - \epsilon$
Analysis	-	-	FPTAS.