

CSE 6140/ CX 4140 Computational Science and Engineering ALGORITHMS

Coping with NP-completeness - 7

Approximation Algorithms

Empirical analysis

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Based on slides by Prof. Ümit V. Çatalyürek and Bistra Dilkina

Reminder



HW4 (last homework) due Wed. Nov. 18, 11:59pm EST

Project partial report due Friday Nov. 20, 11:59pm EST

Hard deadlines.

Center Selection



- Theorem. Let C* be an optimal set of centers. Then $r(C) \le 2r(C^*)$.
- **Theorem**. Greedy algorithm is a 2-approximation for center selection problem.
- Remark. Greedy algorithm always places centers at sites, but is still within a factor of 2 of best solution that is allowed to place centers anywhere.

e.g., points in the plane

Theorem. There is no better approximation algorithm (show next).

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Center Selection: Hardness of Approximation

- Theorem. Unless P = NP, there is no ρ -approximation algorithm for metric k-center problem for any $\rho < 2$.
- Pf. We show how we could use a (2 ε) approximation algorithm for k-center to solve DOMINATING-SET in poly-time.
 - DOMINATING-SET: Given a graph G, is there a set of vertices U of size at most k such that every other vertex has a neighbor in U
 - Let [G = (V, E), k] be an instance of DOMINATING-SET.
 - Construct instance [G',k'=k,r=1] of k-CENTER with sites V and distances
 - d(u, v) = 1 if $(u, v) \subseteq E$
 - d(u, v) = 2 if (u, v) ∉ E
 - Note that G' satisfies the triangle inequality.
 - Claim:
 G has dominating set of size k iff there exists k centers C* with r(C*) = 1 in
 G'.

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Center Selection: Hardness of Approximation

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 - Let [G = (V, E), k] be an instance of DOMINATING-SET.
 - Construct instance [G',k'=k] of k-CENTER with sites V and distances
 - d(u, v) = 1 if $(u, v) \subseteq E$
 - d(u, v) = 2 if (u, v) ∉ E
 - If DOMINATING-SET is a yes instance, the optimal solution of k-center is $r(C^*)=1$
 - If there exists an approx algo with ρ < 2, then approx provides r(C) < 2 r(C*)
 → approx returns r(C) = 1
 - If DOMINATING-SET is a no instance, the optimal solution of k-center is $r(C^*)=2$, approx provides $r(C)>=r(C^*)=2$

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Center Selection: Hardness of Approximation

- Suppose we have a (2ϵ) -approx. algorithm A for k-CENTER, where $\epsilon > 0$
- $l_1 \sim l_2 (G', k' = k, r = 1)$, run A on l_2
- If the solution of A, r(C), is < 2
 - It means r(C) = 1 (it is 1 or 2 on 12)
 - This solution is a valid solution to DOM-SET
 - ⇒ I1 has a solution
- If $r(C) \ge 2$ $2 \le r(C) \le (2 \epsilon) \cdot r(C^*)$ $\Rightarrow r(C^*) \ge \frac{2}{2 \epsilon} > 1$ $\Rightarrow \text{In has no solution!}$
- ⇒ we can answer DOM-SET in poly-time
- \Rightarrow So unless P=NP, there is no (2ϵ) -approx. algorithm for k-CENTER



CSE 6140 Empirical Analysis of Algorithms

textbook: STOCHASTIC LOCAL SEARCH FOUNDATIONS AND APPLICATIONS

based on slides by Holger Hoos



Theoretical vs. Empirical Analysis

Ideal: Analytically prove properties of a given algorithm (run-time: worst-case / average-case / distribution, error rates).

Reality: Often only possible under substantial simplifications or not at all.

→ Empirical analysis

Empirical Analysis of Algorithms



Goals

- Comparing relative performance of algorithms so as to identify the best ones for a given application
- Characterizing the behavior of algorithms
- Identifying algorithm separators, i.e., families of problem instances for which the performance differ
- Providing new insights in algorithm design

Empirical Analysis of Algorithms



Issues:

- algorithm implementation (fairness)
- selection of problem instances (benchmarks)
- performance criteria (what is measured?)
- experimental protocol
- data analysis & interpretation

Benchmark Selection



Some criteria for constructing/selecting benchmark sets:

- instance hardness (focus on hard instances)
- instance size (provide range, for scaling studies)
- instance type (provide variety):
 - individual application instances
 - hand-crafted instances (realistic, artificial)
 - ensembles of instances from random distributions (random instance generators)
 - encodings of various other types of problems
 (e.g., SAT-encodings of graph coloring problems)

CPU Time vs. Elementary Operations



How to measure run-time?

- Measure CPU time (using OS book-keeping & functions)
- Measure elementary operations of algorithm
 (e.g., local search steps, calls of expensive functions)
 and report cost model (CPU time / elementary operation)

Issues:

- accuracy of measurement
- dependence on run-time environment
- fairness of comparison



Las Vegas Algorithms

SLS algorithms are typically *incomplete*: there is no guarantee that an (optimal) solution for a given problem instance will eventually be found.

But: For decision problems, any solution returned is guaranteed to be correct.

Also: The run-time required for finding a solution (in case one is found) is subject to random variation.

→ These properties define the class of (generalised) Las Vegas algorithms, of which SLS algorithms are a subset.



Definition: (Generalised) Las Vegas Algorithm (LVA)

An algorithm A for a problem class Π is a (generalised) Las Vegas algorithm (LVA) iff it has the following properties:

- (1) If for a given problem instance $\pi \in \Pi$, algorithm A terminates returning a solution s, s is guaranteed to be a correct solution of π .
- (2) For any given instance $\pi \in \Pi$, the run-time of A applied to π is a random variable $RT_{A,\pi}$.

Note: This is a slight generalisation of the definition of a Las Vegas algorithm known from theoretical computing science (our definition includes algorithms that are not guaranteed to return a solution).



Application scenarios and evaluation criteria (1)

Evaluation criteria for LVAs depend on the application context:

- ► Type 1: No time limits given, algorithm can be run until a solution is found (off-line computations, non-realtime environments, e.g., configuration of production facility).
 - → evaluation criterion: expected run-time
- ► Type 2: Hard time limit t_{max} for finding solution; solutions found later are useless (real-time environments with strict deadlines, e.g., dynamic task scheduling or on-line robot control).
 - \rightarrow evaluation criterion: solution probability at time t_{max}

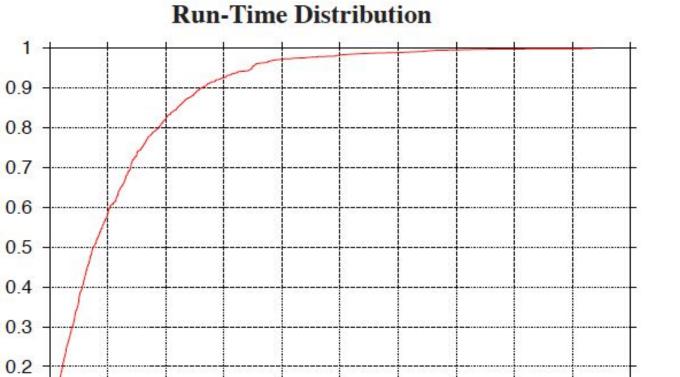


Definition: Run-Time Distribution (1)

Given Las Vegas algorithm A for decision problem Π :

- ► The success probability $P_s(RT_{A,\pi} \le t)$ is the probability that A finds a solution for a soluble instance $\pi \in \Pi$ in time $\le t$.
- ▶ The run-time distribution (RTD) of A on π is the probability distribution of the random variable $RT_{A,\pi}$.
- ► The run-time distribution function rtd : $\mathbb{R}^+ \mapsto [0,1]$, defined as $rtd(t) = P_s(RT_{A,\pi} \le t)$, completely characterises the RTD of A on π .



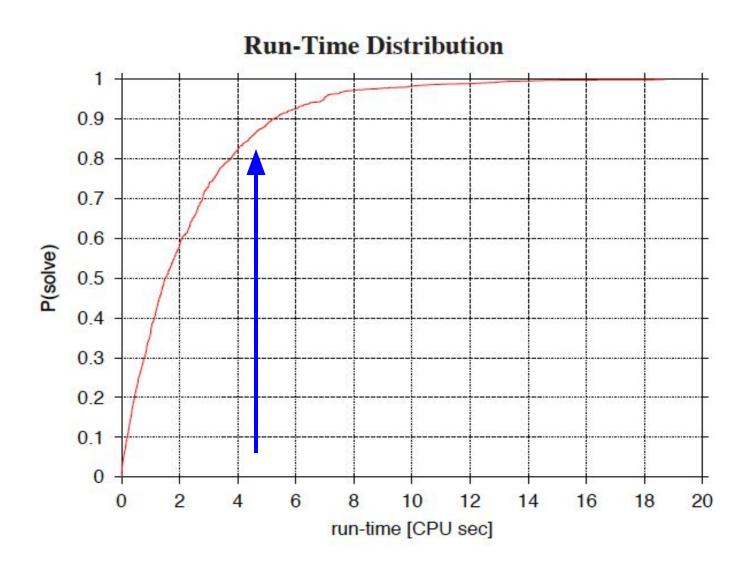


run-time [CPU sec]

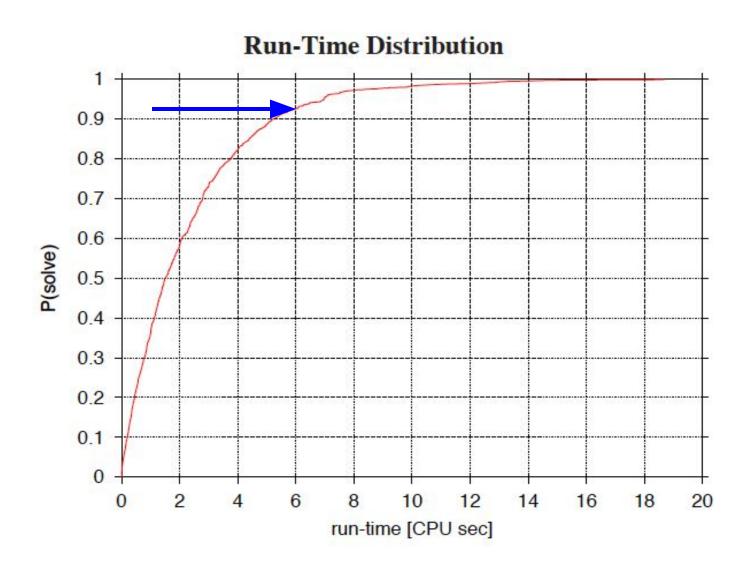
P(solve)

0.1











Empirically measuring RTDs

- Except for very simple algorithms, where they can be derived analytically, RTDs are measured empirically.
- Empirical RTDs are approximations of an algorithm's true RTD.
- Empirical RTDs are determined from a number of independent, successful runs of the algorithm on a given problem instance (samples of theoretical RTD).
- Higher numbers of runs (larger sample sizes) give more accurate approximations of a true RTD.



Protocol for obtaining the empirical RTD for an LVA A applied to a given instance π of a decision problem:

- Perform k independent runs of A on π with cutoff time t'. (For most purposes, k should be at least 50–100, and t' should be high enough to obtain at least a large fraction of successful runs.)
- Record number k' of successful runs, and for each run, record its run-time in a list L.
- Sort L according to increasing run-time; let rt(j) denote the run-time from entry j of the sorted list (j = 1, ..., k').
- ▶ Plot the graph (rt(j), j/k), *i.e.*, the cumulative empirical RTD of A on π .

Example for runtime plot



runtime

run1: 10

run2: fail

run3: 5

run4: 4

run5: 12

run6: 14

run7: fail

run8: 15

run9: 8

run10: 11

Sorted runtime:

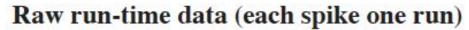
rt = {4, 5, 8, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15}

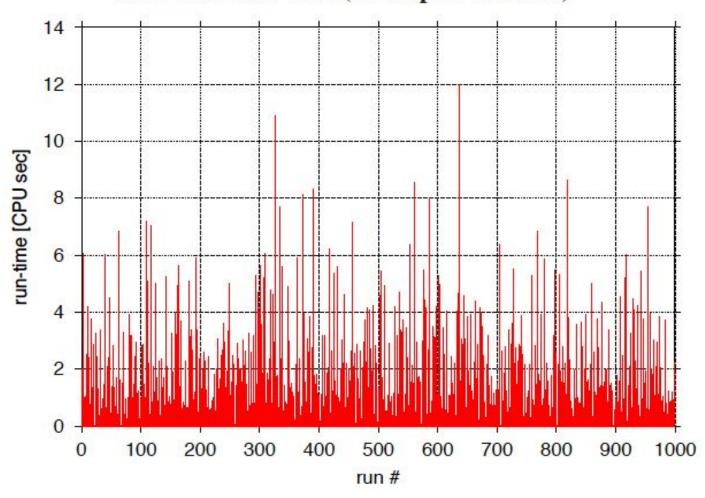
plot:

(4, 0.1), (5, 0.2), (8, 0.3), (10, 0.4), (11, 0.5), (12, 0.6),

(14, 0.7), (15, 0.8)

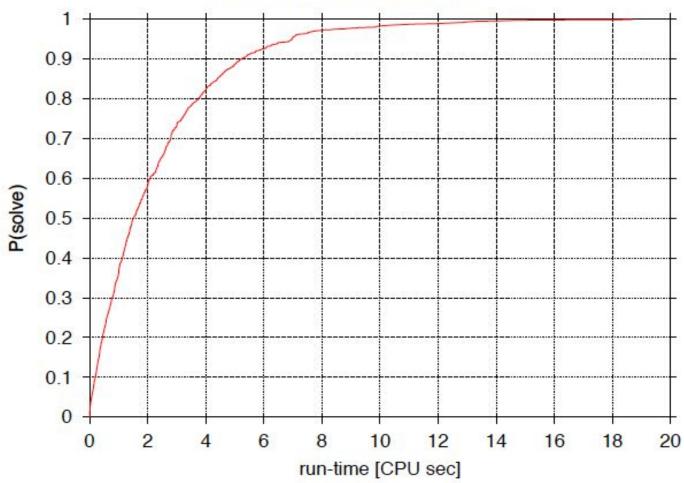












Optimization



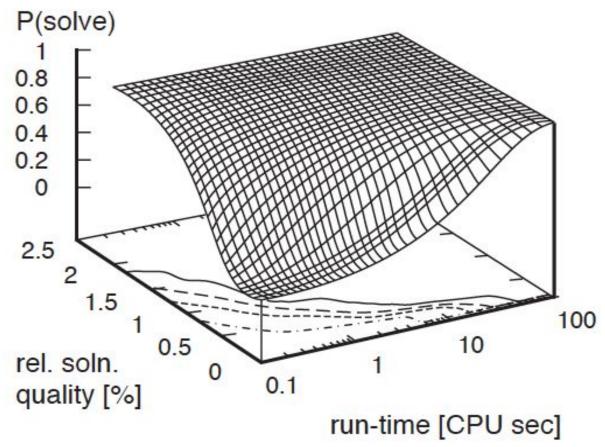
Definition: Run-Time Distribution (2)

Given OLVA A' for optimisation problem Π' :

- ► The success probability $P_s(RT_{A',\pi'} \le t, SQ_{A',\pi'} \le q)$ is the probability that A' finds a solution for a soluble instance $\pi' \in \Pi'$ of quality $\le q$ in time $\le t$.
- ► The run-time distribution (RTD) of A' on π' is the probability distribution of the bivariate random variable $(RT_{A',\pi'}, SQ_{A',\pi'})$.
- ► The run-time distribution function rtd : $\mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+ \mapsto [0, 1]$, defined as $rtd(t, q) = P_s(RT_{A,\pi} \le t, SQ_{A',\pi'} \le q)$, completely characterises the RTD of A' on π' .



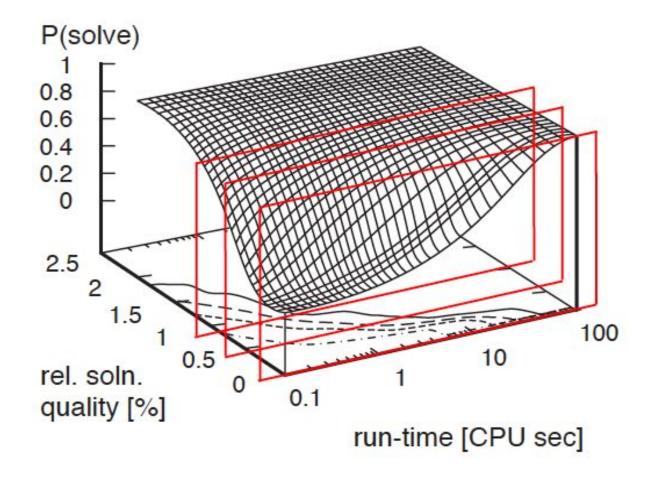
Typical run-time distribution for SLS algorithm applied to hard instance of combinatorial optimisation problem:



Solution quality: Relative error (Alg - OPT)/OPT

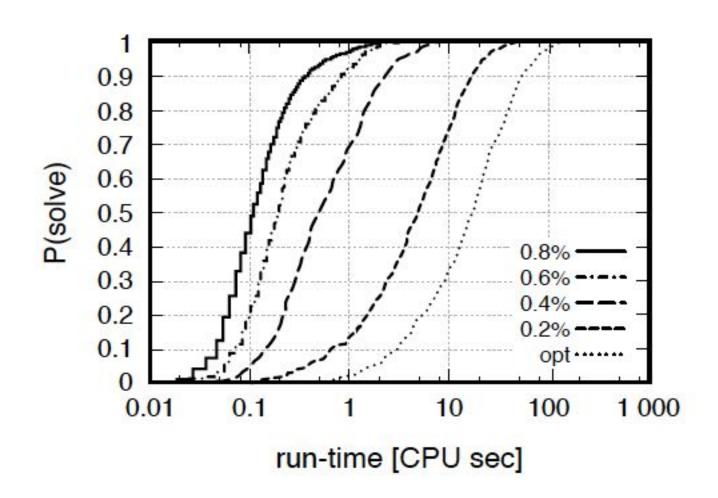


Typical run-time distribution for SLS algorithm applied to hard instance of combinatorial optimisation problem:





Qualified RTDs for various solution qualities:





Qualified run-time distributions (QRTDs)

A qualified run-time distribution (QRTD) of an OLVA A' applied to a given problem instance π' for solution quality q' is a marginal distribution of the bivariate RTD rtd(t, q) defined by:

$$qrtd_{q'}(t) := rtd(t, q') = P_s(RT_{A',\pi'} \leq t, SQ_{A',\pi'} \leq q').$$



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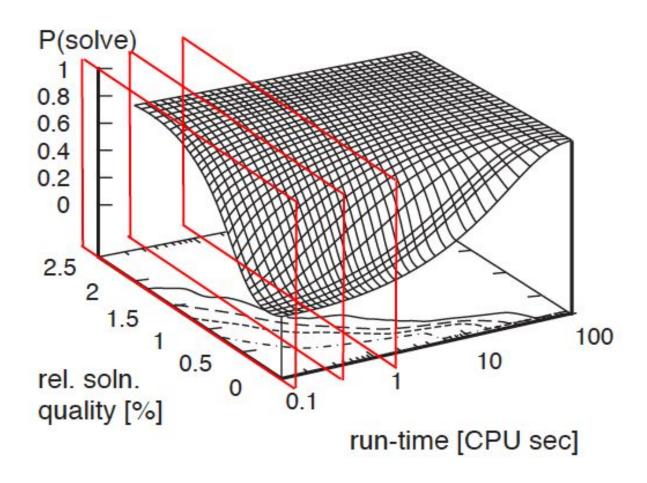
$$qrtd_{q'}(t) := rtd(t, q') = P_s(RT_{A', \pi'} \le t, SQ_{A', \pi'} \le q').$$

- QRTDs correspond to cross-sections of the two-dimensional bivariate RTD graph.
- QRTDs characterise the ability of a given SLS algorithm for a combinatorial optimisation problem to solve the associated decision problems.

Note: Solution qualities q are often expressed as relative solution qualities $q/q^* - 1$, where $q^* =$ optimal solution quality for given problem instance.

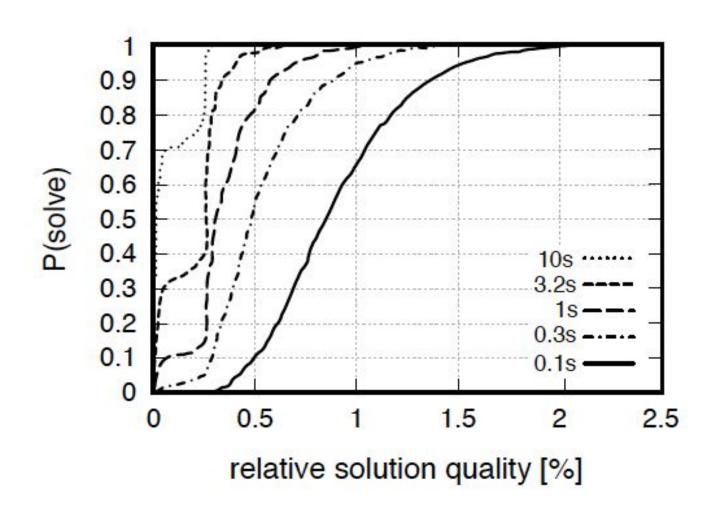


Typical solution quality distributions for SLS algorithm applied to hard instance of combinatorial optimisation problem:





Solution quality distributions for various run-times:





Solution quality distributions (SQDs)

A solution quality distribution (SQD) of an OLVA A' applied to a given problem instance π' for run-time t' is a marginal distribution of the bivariate RTD rtd(t, q) defined by:

$$sqd_{t'}(q) := rtd(t', q) = P_s(RT_{A', \pi'} \le t', SQ_{A', \pi'} \le q).$$

- SQDs correspond to cross-sections of the two-dimensional bivariate RTD graph.
- SQDs characterise the solution qualities achieved by a given SLS algorithm for a combinatorial optimisation problem within a given run-time bound (useful for type 2 application scenarios).



Protocol for obtaining the empirical RTD for an OLVA A' applied to a given instance π' of an optimisation problem:

- ▶ Perform k independent runs of A' on π' with cutoff time t'.
- During each run, whenever the incumbent solution is improved, record the quality of the improved incumbent solution and the time at which the improvement was achieved in a solution quality trace.
- Let sq(t',j) denote the best solution quality encountered in run j up to time t'. The cumulative empirical RTD of A' on π' is defined by $\widehat{P}_s(RT \le t', SQ \le q') := \#\{j \mid sq(t',j) \le q'\}/k$.

Note: Qualified RTDs, SQDs and SQT curves can be easily derived from the same solution quality traces.

Qualified RunTime Distribution



Solution quality: Relative error (Alg - OPT)/OPT

Qualified RTDs for various solution qualities:

