# Discrete Optimization

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### 1 Introduction

Discrete (combinatorial) optimization is a subfield of mathematical optimization that consists of finding an optimal object from a finite set of objects, where the set of feasible solution is discrete or can be reduced to a discrete set.

However, usually this feasible solution set is very large (due to combinatorial explosion) and it is computationally infeasible to go through all feasible solutions and find the one with opimal objective function value.

**Example 1.1** (Task Assignment). There are n tasks and n workers. Each task has an importance score  $a_i$  and each worker has a skill level  $b_i$ . We need to assign each task to a worker such that the sum of  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i b_{\sigma(i)}$  is maximized.

### 1.1 Models of Computation: Turing Machines

**Definition 1.2** (A Deterministic Turing Machine(DTM)). It consists of an infinitely-long tape (memory) and a deterministic finite automata that controls the head to move along the tape and read/write symbols from/to the tape cells.

**Definition 1.3** (Complexity measure). Running time is the number of steps of Turing machine.

Memory is the number of tape cells used.

Definition 1.4 (Caveat). No random access of memory

- Single-tape DTM requires  $\ge n^2$  steps to detect n bit palindromes.
- EAsy to detect palindromes within  $c_n$  steps on a real computer.

### 1.2 Models of Computation: word RAM

**Definition 1.5.** Each memory location and input/output cell stores a w-bit integer (assume  $w \ge \log_2 \omega$ ).

**Primitive Operations:** 

### 1.3 Polynomial Running Time

**Definition 1.6.** We say that an algorithm is **efficient** if its running time is polynomial of input size n.

**Example 1.7** (Task machine). Polynomial-time algorithm: selection sort/inserting sort/quick sort/merge sort.

Non-polynomial-time algorithm: try all possible matching and output the one with the highest score.

- Definition is relatively insensitive to model of computation.
- The poly-times algorithm that people develop have both small constants and small exponents
- Breaking through the exponential barrier is a major challenge.

#### 1.4 Notation

**Definition 1.8.** f(n) is O(g(n)) if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 \ge 1$  such that  $0 \le f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

$$f(n)$$
 is  $\Omega(g(n))$  is  $g(n) \in O(f(n))$ .

$$f(n)$$
 is  $\Theta(g(n))$  is both  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  and  $g(n) \in O(f(n))$ .

### 1.5 Tentative Syllabus

We will introduce three exact discrete optimization algorithms(6 weeks):

- Greedy algorithms
- Dynamic programming
- Network flows

And some approximation algorithms for intractable discrete optimization problems(9 weeks)

- Definition of approximation algorithms
  - Algorithm techniques: greedy, linear programming relaxation, semidefinite programming relaxation.
- Hardness of approximation
  - Techniques: hardness reductions, Fourier analysis of Boolean functions.
- Problems studied: Set-Cover, facility location, K-center, Multi-Cut, Max-Cut, · · ·

# 2 Greedy Algorithms

### 2.1 Interval Scheduling

**Example 2.1** (Interval Scheduling). Input: n jobs,  $\{(s_i, f_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ . Goal: How to choose jobs with maximized number such that each pair of intervals do not intersect.

**Greedy Framework** Consider jobs in order  $\pi(1), \pi(2), \dots, \pi(n)$ . For each  $\pi(i)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , if  $\pi(i)$  compatible with all selected jobs, then select  $\pi(i)$ .

The choice of  $\pi$ : Earliest-start-time-first, Earliest-finish-time-first, Longest-job-first, Shortest-job-first, etc.

**Theorem 2.2.** Earliest-finish-time-first greedy returns an optimal solution.

*Proof.* Suppose algorithm selects  $i_1, i_2, \dots, i_k$ , opt selects k' > k jobs.

Choose an optimal solution agrees with algorithm in first r jobs so that r maxmized,  $j_1, j_2, \dots, j_{k'}$ .

Obviously, r < k. Then  $f_{i_{r+1}} < f_{j_{r+1}}$ . Therefore, we can replace  $i_{r+1}$  with  $j_{r+1}$  to get another optimal solution, which contradicts to the fact that r maxmized.  $\square$ 

### 2.2 Interval Partitioning

**Example 2.3** (Interval Partitioning). Input: n lectures,  $\{(s_i, f_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ .

Goal: Position lectures into minimum number of classrooms so that in each classroom lectures are compatible.

**Greedy Framework** Lectures in order  $\pi(1), \dots, \pi(n)$ , the number of opening classrooms is zero in the beginning. For each  $\pi(i)$ ,

If  $\exists$  opening classroom j *s.t.* lecture  $\pi(i)$  compatible with lectures in j, then  $\pi(i) \to \text{classroom } j$ .

Else, open a new classroom for  $\pi(i)$ .

*Proof.* Introduce a concept **Depth**: d(t) = Number of lectures active at time t, and  $d = \max_{t} \{d(t)\}.$ 

Claim 2.2.1. OPT  $\geqslant d$ .

Lemma 2.4.  $Alg \leq d$ 

*Proof.* Assume for contradiction.

At some point, Alg opens d + 1 classroom.

Denote the lecture being considered by i. Then it is not compatible with other d lectures. Hence, there should be a time when d+1 lectures are active, which causes contradiction.

### 2.3 Single-Source Shortest Path

**Example 2.5** (Single-Source Shortest Path(SSSP)). Input: Graph G = (V, E, w), V is the set of point and E is the set of edge with direction and  $\omega : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ .

We want to find a path from s to t with minimum total cost.

```
\label{eq:definition} \begin{array}{ll} \textbf{Dijkstra's} & \textbf{Algorithm} & \textbf{Choose} \ \ s \ \ \text{as} \ \ \text{a source.} & d[s] = 0, d[u] = 0,
```

# Algorithm 1 Dijkstra's Algorithm

```
1: while S \neq V do
        Choose u \in \arg\min_{x} \{d[x]\}.
        Update S \leftarrow S \cup \{u\}.
 3:
        for each x \in V - S_{\prime}(u, x) \in E do
 4:
           d[x] \leftarrow \min\{d[x], d[u] + \omega(u, x)\}.
 5:
           if d[u] + \omega(u, x) < d[x] then
 6:
              d[x] \leftarrow d[u] + \omega(u, x)
 7:
              \operatorname{Pred}[x] \leftarrow u
 8:
           end if
 9:
        end for
10:
11: end while
```

**Theorem 2.6** (Invariant).  $\forall u \in S, d[u]$  is the shortest path distance  $s \rightsquigarrow u$ 

*Proof.* Induction on |S|.

For 
$$|S| = 1$$
 true.

**Induction Step:** Every time executing 2 in Algorithm 1, we need to prove d[u] is the shortest distance  $s \rightsquigarrow u$ .

If 
$$v = \text{Pred}[u] \in S$$
, then  $d[u] = d[v] + \omega(v, u)$ .

For any path from s to u, there exists  $(\alpha, \beta) \in E$  such that  $\alpha \in S, \beta \notin S$ . Then

$$length(P) \geqslant length(P[s \to \beta])$$

$$= length(P[s \to \alpha]) + \omega(\alpha, \beta)$$

$$\geqslant d[\alpha] + \omega(\alpha, \beta)$$

$$\geqslant d[\beta] \geqslant d[u]$$

**Remark 2.7.** The straightforward implementation of Dijkstra's Algorithm is of  $O(|v|^2)$ .

If we use priority queue: Q with priority  $Q.\pi()$ . It has some methods:

- ExtractMin: Return  $\underset{x \in Q}{\operatorname{arg}} \{Q.\pi(x)\}$  and remove x from Q.
- DecreaseKey: Update  $Q.\pi(v)$  with newkey.

The time complexity is  $|V| \times \text{ExtractMin} + |E| \times \text{DecreaseKey}$ 

Runtime	ExtractMin	DecreaseKey	Dijkstra
Simple Array	O( V )	O(1)	$O( v ^2)$
Binary Heap	$O(\log  V )$	$O(\log  V )$	$O( E  \cdot \log  V )$
Fibonacci Heap	$O(\log  V )$	O(1) (amorized)	$O( E  +  V  \log  V )$

### 2.4 Minimum Spanning Tree

**Example 2.8** (Minimum Spanning Tree (MST)). Input: Connected, undirected graph  $G = (V, E, \omega)$ .

**Definition 2.9** (Spanning Tree).  $T \subset E$  is a spanning tree if |T| = |V| - 1, G' = (V, T) is connected.

**Goal of MST** Find spanning tree T so that  $\omega(T) = \sum_{e \in T} \omega(e)$  minimized.

**Theorem 2.10** (Cayley Theorem). The number of spanning trees of n-vertex complete graph is  $n^{n-2}$ 

A **cut** 
$$(S, V - S)$$
 has a **cutset** of  $S = \{e = (u, v) : u \in S, v \notin S\}$ .

**Claim 2.4.1.** Any cycle C and cutset D has intersection  $|C \cap D|$  even.

**Fundamental Cycle**: Given G and spanning tree  $T \subset E$ , for each  $e \in E \setminus T$ , the unique cycle in  $T \cup \{e\}$  is called **Fundamental cycle**.

**Claim 2.4.2.** For a fundamental cycle C related with e,  $\forall f \in C \cap T$ ,  $(T \cup \{e\}) \setminus \{f\}$  is also a spanning tree.

If *T* is 
$$MST$$
, then  $\omega(e) \ge \omega(f)$ .

**Fundamental Cut**: Spanning tree  $T \subset E$ . For each  $f \in T$ ,  $T \setminus \{f\}$  has two connected components, whose cutset is called **fundamental cut**.

**Claim 2.4.3.**  $\forall e \in D \backslash T$ ,  $(T \cup \{e\}) \backslash \{f\}$  is a spanning tree.

If 
$$T$$
 is MST, then  $\omega(e) \geqslant \omega(f)$ .

**MST Algorithm** There are some rules. **Red rule**:Let C a cycle without red edges. Select an uncolored edge in C with max weight and color it red.

**Blue rule**: Let D be a cutset without blue edges. Select an un colored edge in D with min weight and color it blue.

**Greedy Algorithm**: Apply red or blue rules in any order iteratively until all edges colored.

**Theorem 2.11.** *Greedy algorithm terminates and blue edges from MST.* 

*Proof.* Observed that during the algorithm, blue edges always from a forest.  $\Box$ 

**Invariant**  $\exists$  MST  $T^*$  *s.t.*  $T^*$  contains all blue edges and no red edges.

*Proof.* Proof by induction. If there is a MST  $T^*$  contains all blue edges no red edges now. If we apply blue rule, with cutset D and  $f \in D$  but  $f \notin T^*$ , then for fundamental cycle C of f,  $\forall e \in C \cap T$ ,  $\omega(e) \geqslant \omega(f)$ . Since C has even edges in the cutset by the claim,  $\exists e \in C \cap T$  s.t.  $e \in D$ , which contradicts the fact that f is the edge in cutset D with min weight.

The case that we apply red rule is similar.

#### Algorithm 2 Prim's Algorithm

- 1: Initialize  $S \leftarrow \{s\}$ .
- 2: while n-1 times do
- 3: Choose e be the min weight edge in the cutset  $(S, V \setminus S)$
- 4: add e to T, another endpoint of e to S.
- 5: end while

**Remark 2.12.** It is compatible with the simple idea: Each time chooses the min weight edge. However, it is more powerful since we only need to do this process in the cutset.

It is similar to Dijkstra's Algorithm. So its time complexity is  $O(|E| + |V| \log |V|)$ 

**Remark 2.13.** The first step need time complexity  $O(|E| \log |E|)$ .

The second step need time complexity  $O(|E| \cdot \alpha(|V|))$  using **Union-Find** data structure.

#### Algorithm 3 Kruskal's Algorithm

- 1: Consider edges in weight increasing order.
- 2: Add each edge to *T* if not introducing a cycle.

WLOG we can assume edge weights are distinct.

#### Algorithm 4 Boruvka's Algorithm

- 1: **while** < (n-1) blue edges **do**
- 2: Simultaneously apply blue rule to each blue compunent.
- 3: end while

#### **Claim 2.4.4.** WHILE loop iterates $\leq O(\log |V|)$ .

So time complexity is  $O(|E| \log |V|)$ .

**Remark 2.14.** There is a "contraction View". For each step, we can view each component as a single point with edges to other components.

If the graph is **Planar Graph**, then  $|E| \leq O(V)$ . At the *i*-th WHILE iteration,  $|V_i| \leq \frac{|V|}{2^{i-1}}$ ,  $|E_i| \leq O(|V_i|)$ .

So the time complexity is 
$$\sum_{i} O(|E_i|) \leq \sum_{i} O\left(\frac{|V|}{2^{i-1}}\right) \leq O(|V|)$$
 which is linear!

Using the contraction view, we can get another algorithm:

#### Prim+Boruvka

- Run Boruvka for *k* iterates.
- Run Prim on the contracted graph.

#### Remark 2.15.

For step 1, time complexity is  $k \cdot |E|$ .

For step 2, time complexity is  $|E| + \frac{|V|}{2^k} \cdot \log \frac{|V|}{2^k}$ .

So the total time complexity is  $k|E| + \frac{|V|}{2^k} \cdot \log \frac{|V|}{2^k}$ .

Choose  $k = \log_2 \log_2 |V|$ , it comes to  $(\log \log |V|) \cdot |E| + \frac{|V|}{\log_2 |V|} \cdot \log_2 |V| \le O(|E| \log \log |V| + |V|)$ .

#### 2.5 Minimum Arborescence

**Example 2.16** (Minimum Arborescence). Input: Directed G = (V, E), source  $s \in V$  and weight  $\omega : E \to \mathbb{R}$ .

We want to find an **arborescence** T = (V, E) with root r of minimum total weight.

**Definition 2.17.** Given directed G=(V,E) and  $r \in V$ , n=|V|, m=|E|,  $F \subset E$  is an **arborescence** if

- *F* is a spanning tree if ignoring directions
- $\forall v \in V$ ,  $\exists$  unique path  $r \to v$  in F.

Or equivalently, F has no directed cycles and every node  $v\neg r$  has a unique incoming edge.

For this problem, WLOG we can assuem that the root r has no in-degree and assume  $\omega \geqslant 0$ .

For each  $n \neq r$ , let

$$\operatorname{cheap}(v) = \operatorname{argmin}_{e=(u,v) \in E} \{\omega(e)\}$$

**Claim 2.5.1.** Let  $F = \{\operatorname{cheap}(v) | v \neq r\}$ . F is arborescense  $\Rightarrow F$  is min-cost.

Define  $\omega_r(u,v) = \omega(u,v) - \omega(\operatorname{cheap}(v))$ . Suffices to find the min-cost arborescence under  $\omega_r$ .

If F is not an arborescense, then  $\exists$  a directed cycle C with all edges of weight 0.

Using the contraction view, if we contract "0-cycle" and keep this process recursively. By taking degrees carefully we can easily confirm the legallity of the contraction view. Then suffices to prove it is indeed the min-cost arborescence when we expand after.

**Theorem 2.18.** The min-cost arborescence  $\widetilde{F}$  when we apply contraction to 0-cycle is exactly the min-cost arborescence in the original graph after expanding.

**Lemma 2.19.**  $\exists$  *min-cost*  $F^*$  *s.t. only* 1 *edge in*  $F^*$  *entering* C.

*Proof.* Our goal is to prove  $\omega_r(F) \leq \omega_r(F^*)$ .

Let 
$$F_C^* = F^* \cap (C \times C)$$
. Then  $|F_C^*| = |C| - 1$ .

Apply C-contraction to  $F^*\backslash F_C^*$  we obtain an arborescence of  $\widetilde{G}$ . (Easy to check) So

$$\sum_{e \in F^* \setminus F_C^*} \omega_r(e) \geqslant \sum_{e \in \widetilde{F}} \omega_r(e)$$

So 
$$\omega_r(F^*) \geqslant \omega_r(F)$$

*Proof of Lemma.* Choose any  $v \in C$ .

Let  $(x, y) \in r \to v$  be the first edge entering C.

Delete the edge entering  $C \setminus \{y\}$  and add the edge of circle except the edge entering y.

Then it is an arborescence of less cost.  $\Box$ 

# 3 Dynamic Programming

#### 3.1 Weighted Interval Scheduling

**Example 3.1** (Weighted Interval Scheduling). Input: n jobs,  $\{(s_i, f_i), \omega_i\}_{i=1}^n$ . Want to find  $\sum \omega_{i_k}$  maximum.

To make the structure simpler, we WLOG assume  $s_1 \leq s_2 \leq \cdots \leq s_n$ . We may

### **Algorithm 5** Search(i)

- 1:  $j \leftarrow \min id > i, s_i \ge f_i$ .
- 2: Return  $\max\{\operatorname{Search}(j) + \omega_i, \operatorname{Search}(i+1)\}.$

find that there is a lot of repetitive computation. We can record each Search(i)

#### **Algorithm 6** Search - Memorization(i)

- 1: If i > n, RETURN 0
- 2: If  $i \neq \text{bottom}$ , RETURN F[i].
- 3:  $j(i) \leftarrow \min\{j|s_j \geqslant f_i\}$ .
- 4:  $F[i] \leftarrow \max\{\text{Search} M(j(i)) + \omega_i, \text{Search} M(i+1)\}$
- 5: RETURN F[i]

It can be written as

$$\begin{cases} F[i] = \max\{F[j(i)] + \omega_i, F[i+1]\} \\ F[n+1] = 0 \end{cases}$$

Such an equation is called **Bellman Equation**. So Dynamic Programming is a method to solve the problem by finding the optimal solution of each subproblem. We sometimes need to record the optimal solution of each subproblem to avoid repetition.

#### 3.2 Segmented Least Square

**Example 3.2** (Least Square). We have n points  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ . We want to find a line y = ax + b to minimize

$$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [y_i - (ax_i + b)]^2$$
(3.1)

Actually,

$$\begin{cases} a = \frac{n\sum_{i} x_{i}y_{i} - (\sum_{i} x_{i})(\sum_{i} y_{i})}{n\sum_{i} x_{i}^{2} - (\sum_{i} x_{i})^{2}} \\ b = \frac{\sum_{i} y_{i} - a\sum_{i} x_{i}}{n} \end{cases}$$

**Example 3.3** (Segmented Least Square). Input:  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n, c > 0$ .

Goal: Minimize l = E + cL for piecewise line, where c is the **hyperparameter**, L is the number of the segments.

WLOG, assume  $x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n$ .

We can define its subproblem as

when in put is  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_i, y_i)$ .

Find solution OPT[n]. The boundary condition is OPT[1] = OPT[2] = c and the **Bellman Equation** is

$$OPT[i] = \min_{1 \le j \ge i} \{OPT[j-1] + l_{ji} + c\}$$

### 3.3 Knapsack Problem

**Example 3.4** (Knapsack Problem). Input: n items,  $w_i, v_i$  for its weight and value. The capacity of knapsack is w.

If assume integral weight, then denote OPT[i, w] as the optimal total value when in put is first knapsack capacity is w.

#### The **Bellman Equation** is

$$OPT[i, w] = \begin{cases} OPT[i - 1, w] & w < w_i \\ max{OPT[i - 1, w], v_i + OPT[i - 1, w - w_i]}, w \ge w_i \end{cases}$$

It has time complexity O(nw), which is not a polynomial algorithm.

We can find another Value-Based DP: (Also assume integral values)

OPT[i, v]: choose min weight items.

from item  $1, 2, \dots, i$  so that total value  $\geq v$ .

The final solution for maxmial v s.t.  $OPT[n, v] \leq w$ .

$$OPT[i, v] = \min \begin{cases} OPT[i - 1, v] \\ w_i + OPT[i - 1, (v - v_i)^+] \end{cases}$$

$$\mathrm{OPT}[0,v] = \begin{cases} 0 & v=0 \\ & \text{The time complexity is } O(n^2v). \\ +\infty & v>0 \end{cases}$$
 Now we consider a \$\alpha\$-approximation algorithm that ALG \$\geq\$ \$\alpha\$ · OPT for

 $\alpha \in (0,1].$ 

Let  $\varepsilon = 1 - \alpha$ .

### Algorithm 7 Knapsack Problem

- 1: Assume WLOG  $w_i \leq W$  so that  $V \geq OPT$ .
- 2: Set  $K = \frac{\varepsilon V}{n}$ . Let  $v_i' = \left[\frac{v_i}{K}\right]$
- 3: Run value-based DP to find optimal solution T for I'
- 4: Return T as a solution to I.

It is a feasible solution and

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i \in T} v_i' &= \mathrm{OPT}(I') \\ \geqslant v(S; I'), \, \forall \mathrm{feasible} S \\ \geqslant v(T^*, I') \\ &= \sum_{i \in T^*} v_i' \\ &= \sum_{i \in T^*} \left[\frac{v_i}{K}\right] \\ \geqslant \sum_{i \in T^*} \left(\frac{v_i}{K} - 1\right) \\ \geqslant \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in T^*} \sum_{i \in T^*} v_i - n \\ &= \frac{1}{K} \mathrm{OPT}(I) - n \end{split}$$

$$\begin{split} \text{So ALG} \geqslant \sum_{i \in T} K \cdot v_i' \geqslant \text{OPT}(I) - nK \geqslant (1 - \varepsilon) \text{OPT}(I). \\ \text{The time complextity is } O(n^2 V') = O(n^2 \frac{V}{K}) = O(n^3 \varepsilon^{-1}). \end{split}$$

**Remark 3.5.** The time complextity depends on the accuracy  $\varepsilon$  instead of the maximum value V since the accuracy is based on scale.

In other words,  $\varepsilon^{-1}$  in time complexity represents not only accuracy but also the "size" of scale.

Fully Polynomial-Time Approximation Scheme(FPTAS)  $\forall \varepsilon$ ,  $\exists (1 - \varepsilon)$ approximation algorithm with time complexity  $f(n, \varepsilon) = \text{poly}(n, \frac{1}{\varepsilon})$ .

**PTAS** :  $\forall \varepsilon$ ,  $\exists (1 - \varepsilon)$ -approximation in time  $f_{\varepsilon}(n) = \text{poly}(n)$ . For this algorithm, it is  $(n \cdot 2^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}}, n^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}})$ .

#### 3.4 RNA Secondary Structure

**Example 3.6** (RNA Secondary Structure). RNA is a string  $b_1b_2\cdots b_n$  where  $b_i \in \{A, C, G, U\}$ .

The secondary structure is what fold to form "base pairs" including:

$$U \cdots A, A \cdots U, C \cdots G, G \cdots C$$

Mathematically, second structure represented by set of base pairs  $S = \{(i, j)\}\$ ,

\*) 
$$\forall (i, x) \in S, (b_i, b_j) \in \{U \cdots A, A \cdots U, C \cdots G, G \cdots C\}$$

- \*) no sharp turns:  $\forall (i, j) \in S, i < j 4$ ,
- \*) non-crossing:  $\forall (i, j), (k, l) \in S$ , cannot have i < k < j < l.

Goal: Maximize |S|.

A direct idea is to construct those subproblems:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{OPT}[i,j] &= \max_{i \leqslant k < j-4} \begin{cases} \text{OPT}[i,j-1] & b_j \text{ not matched} \\ 1 + \text{OPT}[i,k-1] + \text{OPT}[k+1,j-1] & b_j \text{ matched with } b_k \end{cases} \\ \\ \text{OPT}[i,j] &= 0 \text{ when } i \leqslant j < i+4 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

### 3.5 Sequence Alignment(Edit Distance)

**Example 3.7.** For a wrong-spelled word, what cost do we need to make it right, using the gap and mismatch.

Or what is its edit distance to the correct word.

Mathematically, for string  $(a_1 \cdots a_n), (b_1 \cdots b_m)$ , a matching  $M = \{(i, j)\}$  such that there is no  $(i_1, j_1), (i_2, j_2) \in M$  s.t.  $i_1 < i_2$  but  $j_2 < j_1$ . Define its cost

$$cost(M) = \sum_{(i,j)\in M} \alpha_{a_ib_j} + \sum_{i\in[n], i \text{ not in } M} + \sum_{\substack{j\in[m]\\ j \text{ not in } M}} \delta$$

 $\sum_{i,j)\in M} \alpha_{a_ib_j} \text{ is the mismatch cost and } \sum_{i\in[n],i \text{ not in } M} + \sum_{j\in[m],j \text{ not in } M} \delta \text{ is the gap}$ cost

Define OPT[i, j] is the edit distance between  $a_1 a_2 \cdots a_i$  and  $b_1 b_2 \cdots b_j$ .

$$\mathrm{OPT}[i,j] = \min_{1 \leqslant k \leqslant j} = \begin{cases} \delta + \mathrm{OPT}[i-1,j] & a_i \text{ not matched} \\ \alpha_{a_ib_k} + \delta \cdot (j-k) + \mathrm{OPT}[i-1,k-1] & a_i \text{matched with } b_k \end{cases}$$

However, for each case it can be divided into three cases:

$$OPT[i, j] = \min \begin{cases} OPT[i - 1, j - 1] + \alpha_{a_i b_j} \\ OPT[i - 1, j] + \delta \\ OPT[i, j - 1] + \delta \end{cases}$$

The question is, if we need to trace the matching process, the space complexity is O(nm), too large.

Here we use binary search.

### Algorithm 8 Binary Search

- 1: Compute  $A[j] = d[(0,0) \to (\frac{n}{2},j)]$  and  $B[j] = d[(\frac{n}{2},j) \to (n,m)]$ ,
  2: find  $j^* = \operatorname{argmin}_j A[j] + B[j]$ .
  3: Run the sub-process  $(0,0) \to (\frac{n}{2},j^*)$  and  $(\frac{n}{2},j^*) \to (n,m)$

The complexity is still  $O(nm) + \frac{1}{2}O(nm) + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^k}O(nm) = O(nm)$ .

#### 3.6 Matrix Multiplication

**Example 3.8** (Matrix Multiplication). Consider  $M_1 \cdot M_2 \cdots M_k$  where  $M_i$  is a  $n_{i-1} \times n_i$  matrix.

We want to find the optimal multiplicative order such that the time cost is minimal.

Denote OPT[i, j] is the min from  $M_i$  to  $M_j$ .

Using the binary tree, consider the last multiplication

$$OPT[i, j] = \min_{i \le l < j} \{OPT[i, l] + OPT[l + 1, j] + n_{i-1}n_ln_j\}$$

### 4 Flow Network

#### 4.1 Definition

**Example 4.1.** For directed graph G = (V, E, s, t, c) where s is the source and t is the sink.  $c : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  is the capacity function.

The **st-flow** is  $f: E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  *s.t.* 

- 1)  $\forall e \in E, f(e) \leq c(e)$ .
- 2)  $\forall v \in V \setminus \{s,t\}$ ,  $\sum_{(u,v) \in E} f(u,v) = \sum_{(v,u) \in E} f(v,u)$ , *i.e.* flow conservation.

$$val(f) = \sum_{(s,u)\in E} f(s,u) - \sum_{(u,s)\in E} f(u,s)$$

Our goal is to maximize val(f)

An **st-cut** is a partition (A, B) of V such that  $s \in A, t \in B$ , the capacity

$$c(A, B) = \sum_{\substack{(u,v) \in E \\ u \in A, v \in B}} c(u, v)$$

**Claim 4.1.1.**  $\forall$  feasible flow f and st-cut (A, B),

$$val(f) \leq c(A, B)$$

**Residual Network** Given flow network G, feasible flow f, the residual network  $G_f(v, E_f, s, t, c_f)$  is for each  $e \in E$ 

$$c_f(e) = c(e) - f(e) + f(e^{\text{reverse}})$$

where  $u \rightarrow v$  is on the flow.

**Claim 4.1.2** (Weak Duality). f' is a feasible flow in  $G_f$  if and only if  $f \oplus f'$  is feasible in G, where

$$(f \oplus f')(e) = f(e) + f'(e) - f'(e^{\text{reverse}})$$

An **augmenting path** P is an unsaturated  $s \to t$  path in  $G_f$ .

### **Algorithm 9** Augment (f, P)

```
1: Let \delta = \min_{e \in P} c_f(e).

2: for e = (u, v) \in P do

3: if e \in E then

4: f(e) \leftarrow f(e) + \delta

5: else

6: f(v, u) \leftarrow f(v, u) - \delta

7: end if

8: end for
```

Now we give the Ford-Fulkerson Algorithm.

**Theorem 4.2.** *If F-F algorithm terminates, it finds a max flow.* 

#### Algorithm 10 Ford-Fulkerson Algorithm

- 1:  $f \leftarrow 0$
- 2: **while** ∃ augmenting path P in  $G_f$  **do**
- 3: Augment(f, P)
- 4: end while
- 5: **return** *f*

#### **Claim 4.1.3.** $\forall$ st-cut (A, B), st-flow f, we have

$$val(f) = \sum_{\substack{u \in A, v \in B \\ (u,v) \in E}} f(u,v) - \sum_{\substack{u \in E, v \in A \\ (u,v) \in E}} f(u,v)$$

It proves the previous claim weak duality.

Proof.

$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{(s,v)\in E} f(s,v) - \sum_{(u,s)\in E} f(u,s)$$
$$+ \sum_{\omega\in A-\{s\}} \left( \sum_{(u,w)\in W} f(u,w) - \sum_{(w,v)\in E} f(w,v) \right)$$

*Proof of the Theorem 4.2.* Consider the residue graph *G*.

Denote A to be the set of nodes reachable from s.  $B = V \backslash A.$   $t \in B$  since there is no path from s to t.

Then st-cut (A, B) has capacity  $c_f(A, B) = 0$ . So for  $u \in B, v \in A$ , since  $f(u, v) \neq 0 \Rightarrow c_f(v, u) > 0$ , we have  $c_f(v, u) = 0 \Rightarrow f(u, v) = 0$ .

$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{\substack{u \in A, v \in B \\ (u,v) \in E}} f(u,v) - \sum_{\substack{u \in B, v \in A \\ (u,v) \in E}} f(u,v)$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{u \in A, v \in B \\ (u,v) \in E}} c(u,v) - 0$$
$$= c(A,B)$$

Now suffices to proof that the algorithm terminates.

**Lemma 4.3.** If capacities are integral and less than c, then F-F terminates in O(nmC) time and returns an integral max flow.

The lemma implies we should choose some proper path so that it will terminate fast.

Assume the integral capacities  $\leq C$  and  $G_f(\Delta)$  denoted as  $G_f$  with edges of capacites  $\geq \Delta$ .

## Algorithm 11 Capacity-Scaling Algorithm

- 1: Initiate  $f \equiv 0$ ,  $\Delta \leftarrow \text{largest } 2^k \leqslant c$ .
- 2: while  $\Delta \geqslant 1$  do
- 3: **while**  $\exists$  augmenting path P in  $G_f(\Delta)$  **do**
- 4: Augment(f, P)
- 5: **end while**
- 6:  $\Delta \leftarrow \Delta/2$
- 7: end while

**Theorem 4.4.** The C-S runs in time  $O(m^2 \log c)$  since the step 2 runs for O(m) iterations.

**Lemma 4.5.** Every time inner WHILE terminates, max-flow value is less than  $val(f) + m\Delta$ .

**Corollary 4.6.** Each inner WHILE iterates  $\leq 2m$ . The times complexity is  $O(m^2 \log C)$ 

*Proof of Lemma.* We let A be all nodes reachable from s and  $B = S \setminus A$ .

$$\operatorname{val}(f) = \sum_{e \in E \text{ from } A \text{ to } B} f(e) - \sum_{e \in E \text{ from } B \text{ to } A} f(e)$$

$$> \sum_{e \in E \text{ from } A \text{ to } B} (c(e) - \Delta) - \sum_{e \in E \text{ from } B \text{ to } A} (\Delta)$$

$$= c(A, B) - \sum_{e \in E \text{ between } A, B} \Delta$$

$$\ge c(A, B) - m\Delta$$

$$\ge \operatorname{MaxFlow} - m\Delta$$

### Algorithm 12 Shortest Augment Path

Initiate  $f \leftarrow 0$ . **while**  $\exists s \rightarrow t$  path in  $G_f$  **do** Find  $P: s \rightarrow t$  in  $G_f$  using least number of edges. Augment (f, P). **end while** 

**Lemma 4.7.** Length of the shortest augmenting path never decreases.

**Lemma 4.8.** After  $\leq m$  iterations, length of the shortest augmenting path strictly increases. Time complexity is  $O(nm^2)$ 

*Proof.* Assume  $f \xrightarrow{\operatorname{augment}(f,P)} f'$  Denote l(u), l'(u) as the length of the shortest  $s \to u$  path in  $G_f, G_{f'}$  respectively.

Our goal is to prove  $l(u) \leq l'(u)$ .

l(u) determines "distance" to s.

Define the level graph as the set of all  $(u, v) \in E(G_f)$  such that l(u) + 1 = l(v). Call edges not belong to level graph as *back edge*. **Observation** Consider any  $e \in E(G_{f'}) \setminus E(G_f)$ , e must be a back edge in  $G_f$ .

Choose u such that l'(u) < l(u) and l'(u) minimized.

If (v, u) is the edge in the shortest path of  $G_{f'}$ 

$$l(v) \le l'(v) = l'(u) - 1 < l(u) - 1 \le l(u) - 2$$

so (u, v) is not a back edge in  $G_f$ , hence  $(v, u) \notin E(G_{f'})$ , which causes contradiction.

**Lemma 4.9.** After  $\leq m$  augmentation,  $\exists u, l(u)$  strictly increases. It goes on no more  $n^2$  times, so the time complexity is  $O(n^2m^2)$ .

*Proof.* This lemma is much easier than the previous lemma.

Noticed that each augmentation adds back edges and removes at least one edges in level graph.

Proof of Lemma 4.8.

**Claim 4.1.4.** During the period when l(t) doesn't increase, the added edges in residual graph does not appear in shortest augmenting path.

Suppose for contradiction:  $\exists j < i, l_j(t) = l_i(t), \exists (v, u)$  appears in the shortest augmenting path P in  $G_{f_i}$  and  $l_j(v) = l_j(u) + 1$ .

Choose the edge (v, u) with smallest i and then with largest  $l_i(u)$ .

Then 
$$l_i(u) \ge l_j(u) + 2$$
. So

$$l_j(t) \leq l_j(u) + |P[u \to t]|$$

$$\leq l_i(u) + |P[u \to t]| - 2$$

$$\leq l_i(t) - 2$$

**Recent work** [Chen et at al. '2022] we can do in  $O(m^{1+o(1)})$ .

## 4.2 Appllication

#### 4.2.1 Bipartite Matching

**Example 4.10** (Bipartite Matching). For Bipartite graph G = (U, V, E), a matching  $M \subset E$ , we want to find M to maximize |M|.

We can construct two virtual nodes s, t such that  $s \to \text{all nodes in } U$  and  $t \to \text{all nodes in } V$ , with capacity 1.

Then the maximum capacity of flow in the augmented graph is what we need.

So the meaning of capacity can be generalized as the number of one node who can accommonded

Now consider so-called "perfect matching", i.e. |M| = |U| = |V|.

Note that  $\exists$  perfect matching  $s.t. \ \forall S \subset U, |\Gamma(S)| \ge |S|.$ 

**Theorem 4.11** (Hall's Theorem). The inverse still holds. i.e. If  $\forall S \subset U$ ,  $|T(S)| \ge |S|$ , then  $\exists M$  is perfect matching if |M| = n.

*Proof.* It suffices to prove max-flow = n. Or equivalently, to prove min-cut  $\ge n$ .

*i.e.* 
$$\forall$$
 s-t cut  $(A, B)$ ,  $c(A, B) \geqslant n$ .

$$c(A,B) < +\infty \xrightarrow{1} \text{ if } u \in A \text{ then } \Gamma(u) \in A \Rightarrow \Gamma(A \cap U) \subset A \cap V.$$

$$c(A,B) \geqslant |B \cap U| + |A \cap V|$$
 
$$\geqslant n - |A \cap U| + |\Gamma(A \cap U)|$$
 
$$\geqslant n$$

**Remark 4.12.** Here we mark the weight between U and V to be  $\infty$  such that the fact 1 holds.

The duality of max-flow and min-cut is very useful in this problem.

#### 4.2.2 Network Connectivity

**Example 4.13** (Network Connectivity). Directed G = (V, E), source s, sink t. Then Max-flow = the maximum numbered of edge-disjoint  $s \to t$  path. Two paths are called *edge-disjoint* if they have no edge in common.

Connectivity of the graph is defined as the  $\min_{E' \subset E} |E'|$  such that  $s \to t$  disconnected in  $(V, E \setminus E')$ 

**Theorem 4.14** (Menger's Theorem). *Connectivity=min-cut=max-flow=maximum* number of edge-disjoint  $s \rightarrow t$  path.

#### 4.2.3 Circulation

**Example 4.15.** Directed graph G = (V, E) with capacity  $c : E \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  and node demand  $d : V \to \mathbb{R}$ . (d(u) < 0 means the supply node)

We have the flow conservation

$$\sum_{e \text{ into } u} f(e)0 - \sum_{e \text{ out of } u} f(e) = d(u), \forall u$$

Our task is to decide whether there exists a feasible flow *f* satisfies the flow conservation.

Indeed, we can construct two vitual nodes s,t such that s to all nodes with demand d < 0, equipped with capacity d and t has edges from all nodes with demand d > 0, equipped with capacity d.

Then the task is equivalent to check whether the max-flow saturates all edges out of s and in of t.

Moreover, we can use the cut to discuss.

We have:

$$\nexists$$
 feasible circulation  $\Leftrightarrow \exists \operatorname{cut}(A,B) \quad s.t. \ c(A,B) < \sum_{v \in B} \operatorname{d}(v).$ 

**Remark 4.16.** This crieterion, similar as Hall's Theorem 4.11, is so-called "*polynomial proof*", under the meaning that for a specific case, we can give a proof in polynomial time to check.

Flow Lower Bounds If we have a capacity constraint such that

$$l(e) \le f(e) \le c(e), \forall e \in E$$

Then it suffices to add the lower flow at first. For example, for two nodes with demand 0 and edge with amount in [4, 6], we can replace it with

$$4 \xrightarrow{[0,6]} -4$$

### 4.2.4 Survey Design

**Example 4.17** (Survey Design). We ask  $n_1$  customers about  $n_2$  products. Ask customer i the number between  $[c_i, c'_i]$  products and ask the number between  $[p_j, p'_j]$  customers questions about product j.

We want to find if there is a feasible survey design.

It is equivalent to give each edge a weight interval, where  $s \to i$  with  $[c_i, c'_i]$ ,  $i \to j$  with [0, 1] and  $j \to t$  with  $[p_j, p'_j]$ .

#### 4.2.5 Airline Scheduling

**Example 4.18** (Airline Scheduling). Flight i from the origin  $o_i$  at time  $s_i$  to the destination  $d_i$  at time  $f_i$ .

We want to know what is the minimum number of crews in flights that can be scheduled. A feasible schedule for one crew is a set of flights  $\{i_1, i_2, \dots\}$  such that  $f_{i_k} \leq s_{i_{k+1}}$ ,  $d_k = o_{k+1}$ .

We can construct a graph with nodes  $o_i \to d_i$ . The edges  $o_i \to d_i$  with weight [1,1]. If the schedule from flight i to flight j is feasible i.e.  $f_i \le s_j$ , we let edge  $i \to j$  with weight interval [0,1].

Then a feasible flow gives a feasible schedule. To limit the total amount, we can determine the minimum number.

**Remark 4.19.** The weight interval have a broader meaning in this problem. With different view of nodes and edges, we can transform it into different limitations.

#### 4.2.6 Image Segmentation

**Example 4.20** (Image Segmentation). For an image,  $p_{ij} \ge 0$  is the separation penalty if neighbors i, j belongs to different partitions.

 $a_i \geqslant 0$  is the likelihood that  $i \in A$  (foreground)  $b_i \geqslant 0$  is the likelihood that  $i \in B$  (background)

Our goal is to partition pixels into A, B, to maximize

$$\sum_{i \in A} a_i + \sum_{j \in B} - \sum_{\substack{i,j \text{ neighbors} \\ |\{i,j\} \cap A| = 1}}$$

It is equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize} & -\sum_{i \in A} a_i - \sum_{j \in B} b_j + \sum_{\substack{i,j \text{ neighbors} \\ |\{i,j\} \cap A| = 1}} p_{ij} \\ & \Leftrightarrow & \text{minimize} & \sum_{i \in B} a_i \sum_{j \in A} b_j + \sum_{\substack{i,j \text{ neighbors} \\ |\{i,j\} \cap A| = 1}} p_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

Then we can construct a visual source with edges to all pixels with weight  $a_i$  and a visual sink with edges from all pixels with weight  $b_i$ . All neighbors of pixel have edges of weight  $p_{ij}$  from each other

**Remark 4.21.** This example focuses on the optimal sum of net flow. To construct visual source, sink and proper edges, we can optimize some sum of structure with related constraints.

#### 4.2.7 Project Selection

**Example 4.22** (Project Selection).  $v \to w$ , v depends on w. Our goal is to find a feasible set S of projects(if  $v \in S$ , then all prequisites of  $v \in S$ ) to maximize

$$\sum_{v \in S} p(v)$$

- Introduce the virtual source node s and the virtual sink node t.
- Assign a capacity of  $\infty$  to each prerequisite edge.
- Add edge (s, v) with capacity p(v) if p(v) > 0.
- Add edge (v,t) with capacity -p(v) if p(v) < 0

Then the min-cut (A, B) satisfies:

1)  $\forall (u, w) \in E, u \in S \Rightarrow w \in A$ 

2)

$$\begin{split} c(A,B) &= \sum_{\substack{v \in B \\ p(v) > 0}} p(v) + \sum_{\substack{v \in A \\ p(v) < 0}} (-p(v)) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{v : p(v) > 0}} p(v) - \sum_{\substack{v \in A \\ p(v) > 0}} p(v) - \sum_{\substack{v \in A \\ p(v) < 0}} p(v) \\ &= \sum_{\substack{v : p(v) > 0}} p(v) - \sum_{\substack{v \in A \\ p(v) > 0}} p(v) \end{split}$$

So it suffices to compute c(A, B)!

**Remark 4.23.** Use edges of capacity  $\infty$ , we can reduces some situation we do not want.

#### 4.2.8 Baseball Elimination

**Example 4.24.** Given set of team S, distinguished team  $z \in S$ . Team x has won  $w_x$  games already. Team x and y play each other  $r_{xy}$  additional games.

Given the current standings, is there any outcome of the remaining games in which team z finishes with the most (or tied for the most) wins?

Assume team z wins all remaining games.  $M = w_z + \sum_x r_{zx}$ .

We want to arrange the remaining games that do not involve team z so that all other teams have  $\leq M$  wins.

- Construct two virtual nodes s and t.
- Assign a capacity of  $\infty$  to the edge from the match i j to team i and j.
- Assign a capacity of  $M w_i$  to the edge from team i to t.

• Assign a capacity of  $r_{ij}$  to the edge from team s to the match i - j.

Then z can possibly win the most games iff the max-flow saturates for all edges from s.

$$\begin{array}{lll} \textbf{Certificate of Elimination} & T \subset \{2,3,\cdots,n\}, \ \omega(T) & = \sum_{i \in T} \omega_i, r(T) & = \sum_{i < j \in T} r_{ij}, \\ \frac{\omega(T) + r(T)}{|T|} > M. \end{array}$$

Noticed that if the following equation holds, then team z is theoretically eliminated.

$$\frac{\omega(T) + r(T)}{|T|} > M \tag{4.1}$$

**Theorem 4.25.** Team q is theoretically eliminated iff  $\exists T \subset \{2, 3, \dots, n\}$  s.t. (4.1) holds

*Proof.* If 
$$\forall T \subset \{2, 3, \dots, n\}$$
,  $\frac{\omega(T) + r(T)}{|T|} < M$ , then

$$\min - \text{cut} \geqslant \sum_{1 < i < i \leq n} r_{ij} = r(\{2, 3, \dots, n\})$$

That's because, if we consider any s - t cut (A, B) such that  $c(A, B) < +\infty$ .

1) 
$$i \in B \Rightarrow \text{match } i - j \in B, \forall j$$
.

$$c(A,B) \geqslant \sum_{i \in A} (M - w_i) + \sum_{\substack{i \in B \text{ or } j \in B \\ 1 < i < j \leqslant n}} r_{ij}$$

$$= r(\{2,3,\cdots,n\}) + |A \setminus \{s\}| \cdot M - \omega(A \setminus \{s\}) - r(A \setminus \{s\})$$

$$\geqslant r(\{2,3,\cdots,n\})$$

The inverse is trivial.

**Remark 4.26.** Note that we use the duality of max-flow and min-cut in this problem.

# 5 Introduction to Approximation Algorithm

There are plenty of NP-hard optimization problems.

**Example 5.1** (3-CNF). For *n* Boolean variables  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ .

A *literal* is either a value  $x_i$  or negative value  $\bar{x_i}$ .

A *clause* is a disjunction of literals. *e.g.*  $(x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \bar{x_3})$ .

A CNF is the conjunction of clauses. e.g.  $(x_1 \lor x_2 \lor \bar{x_3}) \land (x_1 \lor \bar{x_2} \lor x_3)$ .

A **3-CNF** is a CNF with at most 3 literals in each clause.

**Decision problems** Check whether we can choose  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ 

For maximization problems, A is an  $\alpha$ -approximation algorithm if

$$Val(A(I), I) \ge \alpha \cdot OPT(I), \ \alpha \in (0, 1]$$

For minimization problem, it will be

$$Val(A(I), I) \leq \alpha \cdot OPT(I), \ \alpha \in [1, \infty)$$

Max-cut problem: Find the maximal number of bichromatic edges using 2 colors. We have

$$|\text{edge}(A, B)| = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max\{a_i, b_i\} \ge \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{a_i + b_i}{2} = \frac{1}{2}|E| \ge \frac{1}{2}\text{OPT}$$

So this is a  $\frac{1}{2}$ -approximation algorithm for max-cut problem.

However, if we consider it as a minimization problem, the value can be 0, so the scale can be  $+\infty$ . Hence, it is different if we consider the approximation algorithm of min-uncut or max-cut problems.

Decision Problems	Natural Optimization Problems	
Is there a truth assign-	Maximize the number of clauses sat-	
ment that satisfies the 3-	isfied by a truth assignment.	
CNF formula?	-	
3-coloring (NP-complete)		
	<ul><li> Min-coloring</li><li> Max-3-cut: Max number of</li></ul>	
	bichromatic edges using 3 colors.	
	<ul> <li>Min-3-Uncut: Min number of monochromatic edges using 3 colors.</li> </ul>	
2-colorin (P complete)		
	• Max-cut	
	Min-Uncut	
Vertex Cover: Given $G = (V, F)$ k. Decide whether	Min-vertex-Cover: Given $G = (V, E)$ .	
$(V, E), k$ . Decide whether $\exists$ Vertex-Cover using $\leq$ vertices.	Find $S \subset V$ s.t. $\forall e = (u, v) \in E$ , $ \{u, v\} \cap S  \ge 1$ , $ S $ is minimized.	

Table 1: Comparison of Decision Problems and Natural Optimization Problems

**c vs. s Decision Problem** Decide whether  $OPT(I) \ge c$  or OPT(I) < s. If  $OPT(I) \ge c$ , return YES, else if OPT(I) < s, return NO.

**c vs. s Decision Problem** Given I s.t.  $OPT(I) \ge c$ , find a solution x s.t.  $Val(x;I) \ge s$ .

**Theorem 5.2.** Suppose A solves c vs. s Search problem in poly-time, then  $\exists$  poly-time A' that solves c vs. s decision problem.

The algorithm is as follows:

#### Algorithm 13 Greedy

```
initiate A, B \leftarrow \emptyset

for i from 1 to n do

Let a_i \leftarrow number of edges between A and i.

Let b_i \leftarrow number of edges between B and i.

if a_i < b_i then

A \leftarrow A \cup \{i\}.

else

B \leftarrow B \cup \{i\}

end if

end for
```

#### **Algorithm 14** c vs. s Search

```
    1: x ← A(I)
    2: if Val(x; I) ≥ s then
    3: return YES
    4: else
    5: return NO
    6: end if
```

#### Fact 5.3.

- (1) A is  $\alpha$ -approximation algorithm  $\Rightarrow$  A is c vs.  $\alpha c$  search algorithm  $\forall c$ .
- (2)  $\exists c \text{ vs. } s(c) \text{ search algorithm} \Rightarrow \exists \alpha \text{-approximation algorithm where } \alpha = \inf_{c} \{\frac{s(c)}{c}\}$
- (3) (contrapositive of A) c vs. s decision problem "hard"  $\Rightarrow \frac{s}{c}$ -approximation algorithm "hard".

**Remark 5.4.** The same c vs. s algorithm in max-cut and min-uncut problems might correspond to quite different approximation ratios.

#### 5.1 Set-Cover

**Example 5.5** (Set-Cover). Universe  $U = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ .  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_M \subset U$ .

Our goal is to find  $T \subset \{S_1, \dots, S_M\}$  such that  $\bigcup_{S \in T} S = U$  and |T| minimized.

Of course, it can be represented as **Max-Coverage** problem: Given additional input k. Find  $T \subset \{S_1, \dots, S_M\}$  s.t. |T| = k and  $|\bigcup_{S \in T} S|$  maximized.

It has a greedy algorithm:

#### Algorithm 15 Greedy

- 1:  $T \leftarrow \emptyset$
- 2: repeat
- 3: Let  $S_i$  be the set that covers the most uncovered elements.
- 4:  $T \leftarrow T \cup \{S_i\}$ .
- 5:  $U \leftarrow U \backslash S_i$ .

6: **until** 
$$\begin{cases} \text{All elements covered} & \text{set cover} \\ |T| = k & \text{max-coverage} \end{cases}$$

**Fact 5.6.** Suppose  $\exists m \text{ sets covering } U$ . After t choices,  $T \text{ covers } 1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{m}\right)^t$  fraction of elements.

**Corollary 5.7.** *The greedy algorithm is*  $[\ln n]$  *approximation for set-cover* 

*Proof.* Let m = OPT. After  $t = \lceil \ln n \rceil \cdot m$  choices, number of uncovered elements

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{m}\right)^{\lceil \ln n \rceil \cdot m} \cdot n \geqslant \frac{1}{n} = 1$$

**Corollary 5.8.** *Greedy is*  $1 \text{ vs. } 1 - \frac{1}{e}$  *approximation for Max-coverage.* 

*Proof.* Set m = k. After t = k choices, coverage of T:

$$1 - (1 - \frac{1}{k})^k \geqslant 1 - \frac{1}{e}$$

**Fact 5.9.** 1 vs. 1-  $\gamma$  approximation for ma-coverage  $\Rightarrow \lceil \log_{1-\gamma} \frac{1}{n} \rceil$ -approximation for set-cover.

*Proof.* "Guess"  $k = OPT^{\text{set-cover}}$ .

Repeatly invoke  $A(k) \cdot \lceil \log_{1-\gamma} \frac{1}{n} \rceil$  times. Then number of uncovered elements

$$n \cdot (1 - \gamma)^{\lceil \log_{1-\gamma} \frac{1}{n} \rceil} \geqslant n \cdot \frac{1}{n} = 1$$

In fact, we can construct an extreme case for greedy algorithm:

# Algorithmic Gap of Greedy for Min-Set-Cover (cont'd)

• More refined hard instances. For any integer  $c \ge 2$  and  $n \gg c$ , we construct the sets as below:

 $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_c$  partition U into equal parts.

 $S_{c+1}$  includes the first 1/c fraction elements of  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_c$ ,

 $S_{c+2}$  includes the first 1/c fraction elements of  $S_1 - S_{c+1}$ ,  $S_2 - S_{c+1}$ , ...,  $S_c - S_{c+1}$ 

 $S_{c+3}$  includes the first 1/c fraction elements of  $S_1-S_{c+1}-S_{c+2},\ldots,S_c-S_{c+1}-S_{c+2},\ldots$ 

... till  $S_{c+\alpha}$  where  $\alpha = \log_{1-1/c} \frac{c}{n}$ 

• Analysis. The optimal solution only chooses  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_c$ . Assuming Greedy breaks ties in the worst way,

Greedy may sequentially choose  $S_{c+1}, ..., S_{c+\alpha}, S_1, ..., S_c$ .

Greedy gap ratio for this instance is:

$$\frac{c+\alpha}{c} = 1 + \frac{\ln n/c}{c \ln c/(c-1)} \sim \ln n \text{ (when } c \to \infty\text{)}.$$

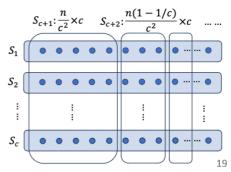


Figure 5.1: Extreme case for greedy algorithm

## 5.2 Weighted Min Set-cover and Randomized Rounding

**Example 5.10** (Weighted Min Set-cover). Given n elements, M sets,  $S_1, \dots, S_M \subset U$ . Each set  $S_i$  has a weight  $w(S_i) > 0$ .

Now select  $T \subset \{S_1, \dots, S_M\}$  such that  $\sum_{S \in T} w(S)$  minimized.

Integer Program: Minimize  $\sum_{i=1}^{M} w(S_i) x_i$ . Subject to  $\sum_{i:j \in S_i} x_i \ge 1$ ,  $\forall j \in U$ , where  $x_i \in \{0,1\}$ ,  $\forall i \in [M]$ .

If we relax the integer constraint, we have an LP relaxation:  $x_i \in [0, 1]$ , which can be solved in poly-time since it is a linear program.

We need "rounding" to transform fractional solution to the integer solution.

#### 5.2.1 Randomized Rounding

If  $\{x_i^*\}$  is the optimal LP solution. For each  $s_i$ , select  $s_i \in T$  independently with probability  $\min\{\alpha x_i^*, 1\}$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}[w(T)] \leqslant \alpha \sum_{i=1}^{M} w(s_i), \ x_i^* = \alpha \cdot LP \leqslant \alpha \cdot OPT$$

Now we want to estimate Pr[T covers U].

If there is some  $\alpha x_i^{\geqslant} 1$ , then  $\Pr(T \text{ covers } U) = 1$ . If  $\forall i, x_i^* < 1$ , then

$$\begin{split} \Pr[T \text{ covers } U] &= 1 - \Pr[\exists j \in U, j \notin T] \\ &\geqslant 1 - \sum_{j \in U} \Pr[j \notin T] \\ &= 1 - \sum_{j \in U} \prod_{i: j \in S_i} (1 - \min\{\alpha x_i^*, 1\}) \\ &\geqslant 1 - \sum_{j \in U} \prod_{i: j \in S_i} \exp(-\alpha x_i^*) \qquad \text{(If some } x_i^* < 1 \text{, the probability will be 0)} \\ &= 1 - \sum_{j \in U} \exp(-\sum_{j \in S_i} \alpha x_i^*) \\ &= 1 - \sum_{i \in U} \exp(-\alpha) \end{split}$$

Therefore, we obtain

#### Claim 5.2.1.

$$\Pr(\text{every element covered}) \ge 1 - n \cdot e^{-\alpha}$$

If we set  $\alpha = \ln n + \ln \ln n$ , then

$$\Pr[\varepsilon_1]\Pr[\text{every element covered}] \geqslant 1 - n \cdot e^{-\ln n - \ln \ln n}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{n \ln n}$$

$$\geqslant 1 - \frac{1}{\ln n}$$

We should also focus on  $\mathbb{E}(w(T)) \leq \alpha \cdot \text{OPT}$ . Here we use the **Markov Inquality**:

**Theorem 5.11** (Markov Inequality). For Random Variable  $X \ge 0$ ,  $\Pr(X \ge t\mathbb{E}X) \le \frac{1}{t}$  *Proof.* 

$$\mathbb{E}X = \mathbb{E}[X|X \ge \alpha] \cdot \Pr(X \ge \alpha) + \mathbb{E}[X|X < \alpha] \cdot \Pr(X < \alpha)$$
$$\ge \alpha \cdot \Pr[X \ge \alpha]$$

Therefore, 
$$\Pr[X \geqslant \alpha] \leqslant \frac{\mathbb{E}X}{\alpha}$$

So

$$\Pr[\varepsilon_2]\Pr\left[\sum_i w(S_i)y_i \geqslant (\ln n + 2\ln \ln n)\text{OPT}\right] \leqslant \frac{\ln n + \ln \ln n}{\ln n + 2\ln \ln n}$$
$$= 1 - \frac{\ln \ln n}{\ln n + 2\ln \ln n}$$

So the union probablity

$$\begin{split} \Pr \big[ \varepsilon \wedge \bar{\varepsilon}_2 \big] &\geqslant \Pr \big[ \varepsilon_1 \big] - \Pr \big[ \varepsilon_2 \big] \\ &\geqslant \frac{\ln \ln n}{\ln n + 2 \ln \ln n} - \frac{1}{\ln n} \\ &\geqslant \Omega \big( \frac{\ln \ln n}{\ln n} \big) \xrightarrow{\text{boost}} 1 - \frac{1}{n^{100}} \end{split}$$

**Theorem 5.12.** With probability  $\Omega(\frac{\ln \ln n}{\ln n})$ , LP+randomized rounding returns a  $(\ln n + 2 \ln \ln n)$ -approximation solution.

The question is how to boost the probability. Indeed, if we independently round N times,

$$\Pr[\exists 1 \text{ trial succeeds}] \ge 1 - \left[1 - \Omega\left(\frac{\ln \ln n}{\ln n}\right)\right]^{N}$$
$$\ge 1 - \exp\left(-\Omega\left(\frac{\ln \ln n}{\ln n} \cdot N\right)\right)$$
$$\ge 1 - \exp\left(-\Omega(n \cdot \ln n)\right) \ge 1 - e^{-n}$$

if we set  $N \leftarrow (\ln n) \cdot n$  in the last step.

Apply the method to Max-coverage problem, Integer Problem is to  $\max \sum_{j=1}^n$  such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{M} x_i \leqslant k$$

$$y_j \leqslant \sum_{j \in S_i} x_i, \forall j \in [n]$$

$$y_j \leqslant 1, \forall j \in [n]$$

$$x_i \in \{0, 1\}, \forall i \in [M]$$

So the LP relaxation is to relax  $x_i \in [0, 1]$ .

Repeat k times and select set i with probability  $\frac{x_i^*}{k}$ .

$$\mathbb{E}[\text{coverges}] = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \Pr[j \text{ covered}]$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left( 1 - \left( 1 - \sum_{j \in S_i} \frac{x_i^*}{k} \right)^k \right)$$

$$\geqslant \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left( 1 - \exp(-\sum_{j \in S_i} x_i^*) \right)$$

$$\geqslant \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left( 1 - \exp(-y_i^*) \right)$$

$$\geqslant \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_j^* = \alpha \cdot \text{LP} \geqslant \alpha \cdot \text{OPT}$$

where  $\alpha = 1 - \frac{1}{e}$ 

The estimation is tight for this rounding if we consider the set  $\mathcal{U} = \{0,1\}^k$  and  $S_{i,0} = \{a \in U | a_i = 0\}, S_{i,1} = \{a \in U | a_i = 1\}.$ 

#### 5.2.2 Integrality Gap

Instance I is a c vs. s-Integrality Gap (IG) instance if  $LP(I) \ge c$  and  $OPT(I) \le s$ . The gap ratio is  $\frac{c}{s}$ .

- 1. Large  $IG \Rightarrow Inaccurate estimation of LP$ .
- 2. The estimation of rounding algorithm is usually

rounding 
$$\geqslant \cdots \geqslant \alpha \cdot LP \geqslant \alpha \cdot OPT$$

Since rounding  $\leq$  OPT in maximization problem, if IG is large,  $\alpha$  can be very large and hence the approximation ratio is very bad.

For instance, consider the set-cover problem that is to minimize  $\sum_{i=1}^{M} x_i$  s.t.

$$\sum_{j \in S_i} x_i \geqslant 1, \forall j \in U, \quad x_i \in \big[\{0,1\}, \forall i \in [M]\big]$$

relax the condition  $x_i \in [0,1]$  and consider the set  $\mathcal{U} = \{0,1\}^q \setminus \{0\}$  and  $S_{\vec{\alpha}} = \{l \in U : l^T \alpha = 1 \pmod{2}\}$  for  $\alpha \in \{0,1\}^q$  with the size  $M = 2^q, n = 2^q - 1$ .

$$|S_{\vec{\alpha}}| = \begin{cases} 2^{q-1} & \alpha \neq 0 \\ 0 & \alpha = 0 \end{cases}$$

#### Claim 5.2.2. LP=2

*Proof.* Take  $x_{\vec{\alpha}} = \frac{2}{2^q}$ . Then  $\sum_{\vec{\alpha}} S_{\vec{\alpha}} = 2$ . And the LP constraint met where

$$\forall \vec{e} \in U, \sum_{\vec{e} \in S_{\vec{\alpha}}} \frac{2}{2^q} = 2 \operatorname{Pr}_{\vec{\alpha} \in \{0,1\}^q} [\vec{e} \in S_{\vec{\alpha}}] = 2 \times \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

Certainly  $LP \ge 2$ , so LP = 2.

But we also have a claim about OPT:

Claim 5.2.3. OPT  $\geqslant q$ . So the instance is a 2 vs. q IG with ratio  $\frac{q}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \log_2(n+1) = \frac{\ln(n+1)}{2 \ln 2}$ .

*Proof.* For any  $S_{\vec{\alpha}_1}, \cdots, S_{\vec{\alpha}_{q-1}}$ , suppose  $S_{\vec{\alpha}_1} \cup \cdots \cup S_{\vec{\alpha}_{q-1}}$  is a cover of U. Then

$$\Leftrightarrow \bar{S}_{\vec{\alpha}_1} \cap \dots \cap \bar{S}_{\vec{\alpha}_{q-1}} = \{\vec{0}\}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \{\vec{e} \in \{0, 1\}^q : e^T \vec{\alpha}_i = 0 \forall i \in [q-1]\} = \{\vec{0}\}$$

which is impossible!

*I* is an  $\alpha$ -Integrality Gap instance if

$$LP(I) \leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \cdot OPT(I)$$

Then we indeed prove that  $\alpha$  can be  $\frac{1}{2}\log_2(n+1)<\ln(n+1)$  in Min-Set-Cover problem.

Take  $U=\{1,2,\cdots,n\}$ . M are  $C\cdot k\ln n$  sets, each of which  $s_i$  includes each  $j\in U$  independently with probability  $\frac{1}{k}$ 

**Claim 5.2.4.** When  $C \geqslant \frac{4}{\varepsilon^2}$ , the probability

$$\Pr[LP \leq \frac{k}{1-\varepsilon}]1 - \frac{1}{n}$$

Proof. Consider  $x_i = \frac{k}{\langle (1-\varepsilon) \rangle}$ . Fix  $j \in [n]$ .

$$\Pr\left[\sum_{j \in S_i} x_i \geqslant 1\right] = \Pr\left[\sum_{i=1}^M \mathbf{1}[j \in S_i] \geqslant \frac{(1-\varepsilon)M}{k}\right]$$

$$\geqslant 1 - \left[\frac{e^{-\varepsilon}}{(1-\varepsilon)^{1-\varepsilon}}\right]^{\frac{M}{k}}$$

$$= 1 - \exp\left(\left(-\varepsilon - (1-\varepsilon)\ln(1-\varepsilon)\right) \cdot \frac{M}{k}\right)$$

$$\geqslant 1 - \exp\left(-\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2} \cdot \frac{M}{k}\right)$$

$$\geqslant 1 - \exp(-2\ln n)$$

Here we use the Chernoff bound with a high relation of central limit theorem.

**Theorem 5.13** (Chernoff Bound).  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n \in [0, 1]$  a.s. and  $\mathbb{E}X_i = p_i$ . Let

 $X = X_1 + \cdots + X_n$ ,  $\mathbb{E}X = \mu$ . For any  $\delta > 0$ 

$$\begin{cases} \Pr[X \geqslant (1+\delta)\mu] \leqslant \left[\frac{e^{\delta}}{(1+\delta)^{1+\delta}}\right]^{\mu} \\ \Pr[X \leqslant (1-\delta)\mu] \leqslant \left[\frac{e^{-\delta}}{(1-\delta)^{1-\delta}}\right]^{\mu} \end{cases}$$

**Claim 5.2.5.** For  $k \geqslant \frac{2}{\varepsilon}$  and  $n = n(k, \varepsilon, C)$  large enough, we have

$$\Pr[OPT \ge (1 - \varepsilon)k \ln n] \ge 0.99$$

*Proof.* Let  $z = (1 - \varepsilon)k \ln n$ .

 $\mathrm{OPT} > z \leftarrow \forall \mathcal{S} \in {[M] \choose z}$ ,  $\mathcal{S}$  doesn't cover U. We consider probability of the latter case.

Now fix  $S \in \binom{[M]}{z}$ ,  $\Pr[S \text{ cover } U]$  is actually

$$\Pr[\mathcal{S} \text{ cover } U] = \Pr[\forall j \in U, \exists S_i \in \mathcal{S}, j \in S_i]$$

$$= \Pr[\exists S_i \in \mathcal{S}, 1 \in S_i]^n$$

$$= \left(1 - \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)^z\right)^n$$

$$\leqslant \exp(-n\left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)^z)$$

$$\stackrel{k \geqslant 2}{\leqslant} \exp(-n\exp(-(1 - \varepsilon)\left(1 + \frac{1}{k}\right)\ln n\right))$$

$$\stackrel{k \geqslant \frac{2}{\varepsilon}}{\leqslant} \exp(-n\exp(-(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2})\ln n))$$

$$= \exp(-n \cdot n^{-(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2})})$$

$$= \exp(-n \cdot n^{-(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2})})$$

$$= \exp(-n \cdot n^{-(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2})})$$

So

$$\begin{split} \Pr[\exists \mathcal{S} \in \binom{[M]}{z}, \mathcal{S} \operatorname{cover} U] & \leqslant \binom{M}{z} \cdot \exp(-n^{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}}) \\ & \leqslant \left(\frac{C \cdot e}{1 - \varepsilon}\right)^{(1 - \varepsilon)k \ln n} \cdot \exp(-n^{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}}) \\ & < \exp(-n^{\frac{\varepsilon}{4}}) \\ & < 0.01 \end{split}$$

as n large enough. Here we end the proof

So using Randomized construction,  $\alpha$  can approach  $(1 - \varepsilon) \ln n$  for any  $\varepsilon$ .

### 5.3 Hardness of Approximation

#### 5.3.1 P,NP classes

For  $\mathcal{L} \in \{0,1\}^*$  is the 0-1 encoding, a problem is the set of some 0-1 encoding and a decision problem is to decide whether  $\mathcal{L}$  belongs to it.

For instance,  $\mathcal{L}_k$  is the set of all (0-1 encoding) of set cover instances where U can be covered by k sets. We define

 $P = \{\mathcal{L} : \mathcal{L} \text{ can be poly-time decided by a (deterministic) Turing machine}\}$ 

 $NP = \{\mathcal{L} : \mathcal{L} \text{ can be poly-time decided by a non-deterministic Turing machine}\}$ 

NP problems are all problems that can be "verified" in poly-time. Explicitly, for input instance  $x \in \{0,1\}^*$ , the prover is based on x, providing a "proof"  $y \in \{0,1\}^*$  that  $|y| \leq \operatorname{poly}(|x|)$ , however, the verifier is a poly-time algorithm that accepts x,y and outputs YES/NO.

In other words,  $\mathcal{L} \in NP \Leftrightarrow \exists$  a prover-verifier system such that

- Completeness:  $\forall x \in \mathcal{L}$ ,  $\exists$  proof y s.t. verifier returns YES in poly-time.
- Soundness:  $\forall x \notin \mathcal{L}$ ,  $\forall$  proof y, verifier returns NO in poly-time.

The equivalence is because we actually can "guess" the proof y in a non-deterministic TM.

If P=NP, then if we can verify proof in poly-time, we can also construct it in poly-time. There isn't innovation anymore!

**NP-complete**:  $\mathcal{L}$  is NPC if

- 1)  $\mathcal{L} \in NP$
- 2)  $\forall \mathcal{L}' \in NP$ ,  $\mathcal{L}' \geqslant_p \mathcal{L}$  *i.e.*  $\mathcal{L}'$  can be reduced to  $\mathcal{L}$  in poly-time.

Equivalently, if some NPC problems can be solved in poly-time, then P=NP.

If only 2) in the definition of NPC holds, then it is a NP-hard problem.

We define the **polynomial reduction**  $M \leq_p L$  if

 $\exists$  poly-time algorithm A such that  $\forall x \in \{0,1\}^*$ ,

- (completeness)  $x \in M \Rightarrow A(x) \in L$ .
- (soundness)  $x \notin M \Rightarrow A(x) \notin L$

Observed that if M is NP-Complete and  $M \leq_p \mathcal{L}$ , then L is NP-Hard.

Theorem 5.14 (Cock-Levin). 3-SAT is NP-Complete.

*Proof.*  $\forall$ *L* ∈ *NP*, need to show *L*  $\leq$ *<sub>p</sub>* 3-SAT.

Let A be the poly-time verifier (DTM) for L.

Now we consider the original DFA, which needs start, process and after, denoted as  $(s,p,\alpha)$ 

For time *t*, the tape can be

$$t_{-M}^{(t)}, \cdots, t_{M}^{(t)}, \alpha^{(t)}, S^{(t)}, p^{(t)}$$

where the transition function is

$$t_i^{(\tau)} = g_i(t_i^{(\tau-1)}, \alpha^{(\tau-1)}, s^{(\tau-1)}, p^{(\tau-1)})$$

$$s^{(\tau)} = h(\alpha^{(\tau-1)}, s^{(\tau-1)}, p^{(\tau-1)})$$

$$p^{(\tau)} = \cdots$$

$$\alpha^{(\tau)} = \cdots$$

which is a compose of bool function. So any DFA process can be converted to a 3-SAT instance.

**Theorem 5.15** (Max-Coverage). *Deciding whether Max-Coverage*=100% is NP-Complete.

*Proof.* We divide it into two parts:

- 1. Max-coverage=1 is NP.
- 2. 3-SAT  $\leq_p$  Max-coverage=1.

Consider any 3-SAT instance I. We have variables  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  and clauses  $c_1, \dots, c_m$ .

Denote  $U = \{x_1, \dots, x_n, c_1, \dots, c_m\}$  and sets  $S_1, S_2, \dots, S_n, S_{n+1}, \dots, S_{2n}$ . For  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ,

$$S_i = \{x_i\} \cup \{c_j : c_j \text{ contains } x_i\}$$

$$S_{n+i} = \{x_i\} \cup \{c_j : c_j \text{contains} \bar{x}_i\}$$

Let k = n.

Completeness: If I satisfiable, then  $\exists \sigma : \{x_i\} \rightarrow \{0,1\}$ , choose

$$\begin{cases} S_i & \text{if } \sigma(x_i) = 1 \\ S_{n+i} & \text{if } \sigma(x_i) = 0 \end{cases}$$

Soundness: If 
$$J$$
 is YES, for  $I$ , let  $\sigma(x_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } S_i \text{ chosen} \\ 0 & \text{if } S_{i+n} \text{ chosen} \end{cases}$ 

Now we want to consider the approximation problem.

1 vs. 1 Max-Coverage is NP-H but what if decide the gap-version s vs. c.

**Observation** If we could prove c vs. s M-C is NP-H for c > s. Then  $\frac{s}{c}$  approximation M-C problem is NP-H.

**Theorem 5.16** (PCP theorem).  $\exists \varepsilon \ s.t. \ \mathrm{Max} - 3 - \mathrm{SAT}_{1,1-\varepsilon} \ is \ NP-Hard.$ 

We give an introduction for PCPs.

**Definition 5.17** (Probability Checkable Proofs). Verifier: input instance x and proof y.

Reads x, compute a (joint) distribution D over the locations in y, and a Boolean function.

Sample  $i, j, k, f \sim D$ . output YES iff  $f(y_i, y_j, y_k) = 1$ .

- (completeness) If x is YES, then  $\exists y \ s.t. \Pr[\text{Verifier accepts}] \ge c.$
- (soundness) If x is NO, then  $\forall y$ ,  $4 \Pr[\text{Verifier accepts}] \leq s$ .

Then PCP theorem is equivalent to

**Theorem 5.18** (PCP theorem).  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  *s.t. every NP problem has a PCP system with* c = 1,  $s = 1 - \varepsilon$ .

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