

## NODE COVER

- NODE COVER seeks the smallest  $C \subseteq V$  in graph  $G = (V, E)$  such that for each edge in  $E$ , at least one of its endpoints is in  $C$ .
- A heuristic to obtain a good node cover is to iteratively move a node with the *highest degree* to the cover.
- This turns out to produce an approximation ratio of<sup>a</sup>

$$\frac{c(M(x))}{\text{OPT}(x)} = \Theta(\log n).$$

- So it is not an  $\epsilon$ -approximation algorithm for any constant  $\epsilon < 1$  according to Eq. (19).

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<sup>a</sup>Chvátal (1979).

## A 0.5-Approximation Algorithm<sup>a</sup>

- 1:  $C := \emptyset$ ;
- 2: **while**  $E \neq \emptyset$  **do**
- 3:     Delete an arbitrary edge  $\{u, v\}$  from  $E$ ;
- 4:     Add  $u$  and  $v$  to  $C$ ; {Add 2 nodes to  $C$  each time.}
- 5:     Delete edges incident with  $u$  or  $v$  from  $E$ ;
- 6: **end while**
- 7: **return**  $C$ ;

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<sup>a</sup>Johnson (1974).

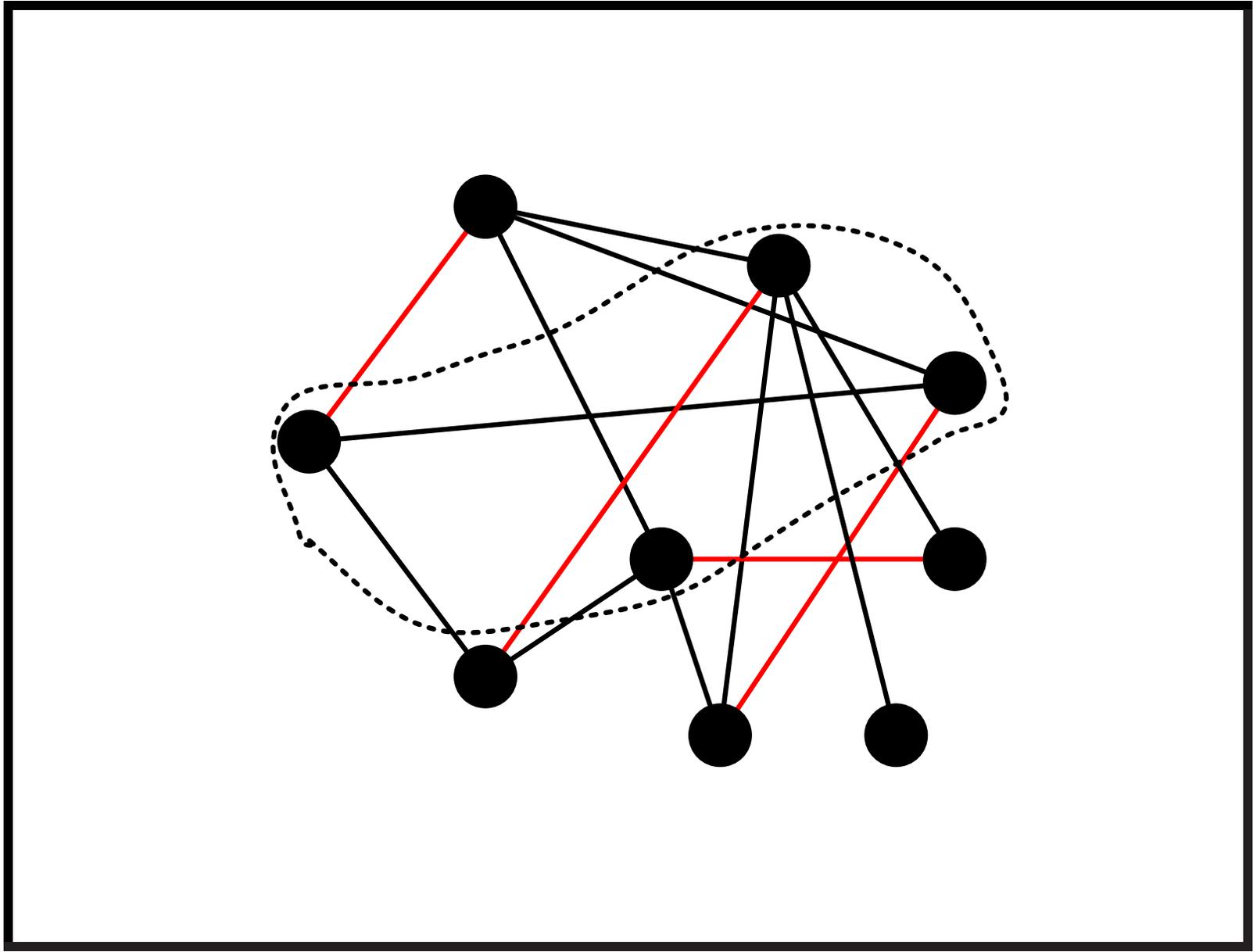
## Analysis

- It is easy to see that  $C$  is a node cover.
- $C$  contains  $|C|/2$  edges.<sup>a</sup>
- No two edges of  $C$  share a node.<sup>b</sup>
- *Any* node cover must contain at least one node from each of these edges.
  - If there is an edge in  $C$  both of whose ends are outside the cover, then that cover will not be valid.

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<sup>a</sup>The edges deleted in Line 3.

<sup>b</sup>In fact,  $C$  as a set of edges is a *maximal* matching.



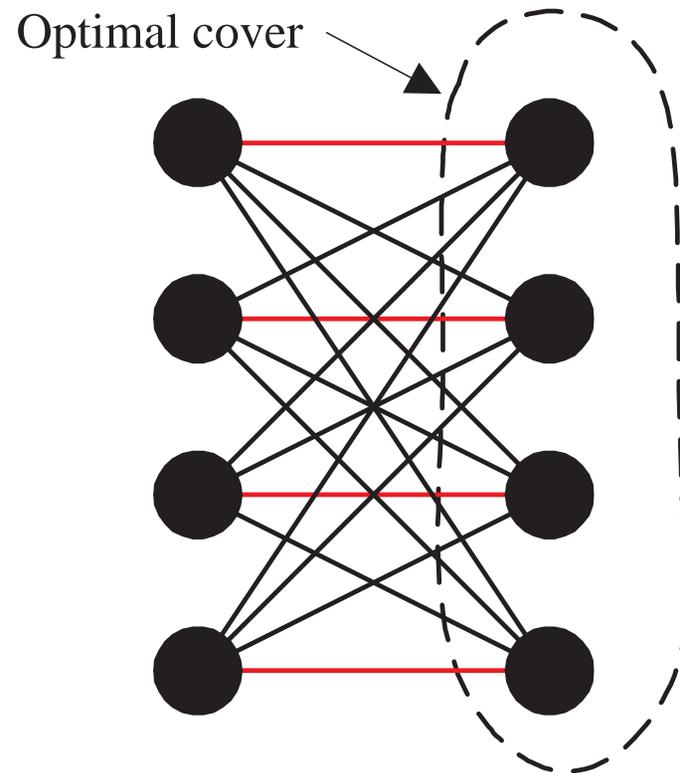
## Analysis (concluded)

- This means that  $\text{OPT}(G) \geq |C|/2$ .
- The approximation ratio is hence

$$\frac{|C|}{\text{OPT}(G)} \leq 2.$$

- So we have a 0.5-approximation algorithm.
- And the approximation threshold is therefore  $\leq 0.5$ .

## The 0.5 Bound Is Tight for the Algorithm<sup>a</sup>



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<sup>a</sup>Contributed by Mr. Jenq-Chung Li (R92922087) on December 20, 2003. Recall that König's theorem says the size of a maximum matching equals that of a minimum node cover in a bipartite graph.

## Remarks

- The approximation threshold is at least<sup>a</sup>

$$1 - \left(10\sqrt{5} - 21\right)^{-1} \approx 0.2651.$$

- The approximation threshold is 0.5 if one assumes the unique games conjecture.<sup>b</sup>
- This ratio 0.5 is also the lower bound for any “greedy” algorithms.<sup>c</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>Dinur and Safra (2002).

<sup>b</sup>Khot and Regev (2008).

<sup>c</sup>Davis and Impagliazzo (2004).

## Maximum Satisfiability

- Given a set of clauses, MAXSAT seeks the truth assignment that satisfies the most.
- MAX2SAT is already NP-complete (p. 347), so MAXSAT is NP-complete.
- Consider the more general  $k$ -MAXGSAT for constant  $k$ .
  - Let  $\Phi = \{\phi_1, \phi_2, \dots, \phi_m\}$  be a set of boolean expressions in  $n$  variables.
  - Each  $\phi_i$  is a *general* expression involving up to  $k$  variables.
  - $k$ -MAXGSAT seeks the truth assignment that satisfies the most expressions.

## A Probabilistic Interpretation of an Algorithm

- Let  $\phi_i$  involve  $k_i \leq k$  variables and be satisfied by  $s_i$  of the  $2^{k_i}$  truth assignments.
- A random truth assignment  $\in \{0, 1\}^n$  satisfies  $\phi_i$  with probability  $p(\phi_i) = s_i/2^{k_i}$ .
  - $p(\phi_i)$  is easy to calculate as  $k$  is a constant.
- Hence a random truth assignment satisfies an average of

$$p(\Phi) = \sum_{i=1}^m p(\phi_i)$$

expressions  $\phi_i$ .

## The Search Procedure

- Clearly

$$p(\Phi) = \frac{1}{2} \{ p(\Phi[x_1 = \text{true}]) + p(\Phi[x_1 = \text{false}]) \}.$$

- Select the  $t_1 \in \{\text{true}, \text{false}\}$  such that  $p(\Phi[x_1 = t_1])$  is the larger one.
- Note that  $p(\Phi[x_1 = t_1]) \geq p(\Phi)$ .
- Repeat the procedure with expression  $\Phi[x_1 = t_1]$  until all variables  $x_i$  have been given truth values  $t_i$  and all  $\phi_i$  are either true or false.

## The Search Procedure (continued)

- By our hill-climbing procedure,

$$\begin{aligned} & p(\Phi) \\ & \leq p(\Phi[x_1 = t_1]) \\ & \leq p(\Phi[x_1 = t_1, x_2 = t_2]) \\ & \leq \dots \\ & \leq p(\Phi[x_1 = t_1, x_2 = t_2, \dots, x_n = t_n]). \end{aligned}$$

- So at least  $p(\Phi)$  expressions are satisfied by truth assignment  $(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$ .

## The Search Procedure (concluded)

- Note that the algorithm is *deterministic*!
- It is called **the method of conditional expectations**.<sup>a</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>Erdős and Selfridge (1973); Spencer (1987).

## Approximation Analysis

- The optimum is at most the number of satisfiable  $\phi_i$ —i.e., those with  $p(\phi_i) > 0$ .
- Hence the ratio of algorithm's output vs. the optimum is<sup>a</sup>

$$\geq \frac{p(\Phi)}{\sum_{p(\phi_i) > 0} 1} = \frac{\sum_i p(\phi_i)}{\sum_{p(\phi_i) > 0} 1} \geq \min_{p(\phi_i) > 0} p(\phi_i).$$

- So this is a polynomial-time  $\epsilon$ -approximation algorithm with  $\epsilon = 1 - \min_{p(\phi_i) > 0} p(\phi_i)$ .
- Because  $p(\phi_i) \geq 2^{-k}$  for a satisfiable  $\phi_i$ , the heuristic is a polynomial-time  $\epsilon$ -approximation algorithm with  $\epsilon = 1 - 2^{-k}$ .

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<sup>a</sup>Recall that  $\sum_i a_i / \sum_i b_i \geq \min_i (a_i / b_i)$ .

## Back to MAXSAT

- In MAXSAT, the  $\phi_i$ 's are clauses (like  $x \vee y \vee \neg z$ ).
- Hence  $p(\phi_i) \geq 1/2$ , which happens when  $\phi_i$  contains a single literal.
- The heuristic becomes a polynomial-time  $\epsilon$ -approximation algorithm with  $\epsilon = 1/2$ .<sup>a</sup>
- Suppose we set each boolean variable to true with probability  $(\sqrt{5} - 1)/2$ , the golden ratio.
- Then follow through the method of conditional expectations to derandomize it.

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<sup>a</sup>Johnson (1974).

## Back to MAXSAT (concluded)

- We will obtain a  $\lfloor (3 - \sqrt{5}) \rfloor / 2$ -approximation algorithm.<sup>a</sup>
  - Note  $\lfloor (3 - \sqrt{5}) \rfloor / 2 \approx 0.382$ .

- If the clauses have  $k$  *distinct* literals,

$$p(\phi_i) = 1 - 2^{-k}.$$

- The heuristic becomes a polynomial-time  $\epsilon$ -approximation algorithm with  $\epsilon = 2^{-k}$ .
  - This is the best possible for  $k \geq 3$  unless  $P = NP$ .

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<sup>a</sup>Lieberherr and Specker (1981).

## MAX CUT Revisited

- MAX CUT seeks to partition the nodes of graph  $G = (V, E)$  into  $(S, V - S)$  so that there are as many edges as possible between  $S$  and  $V - S$ .
- It is NP-complete.<sup>a</sup>
- **Local search** starts from a feasible solution and performs “local” improvements until none are possible.
- Next we present a local-search algorithm for MAX CUT.

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<sup>a</sup>Recall p. 378.

## A 0.5-Approximation Algorithm for MAX CUT

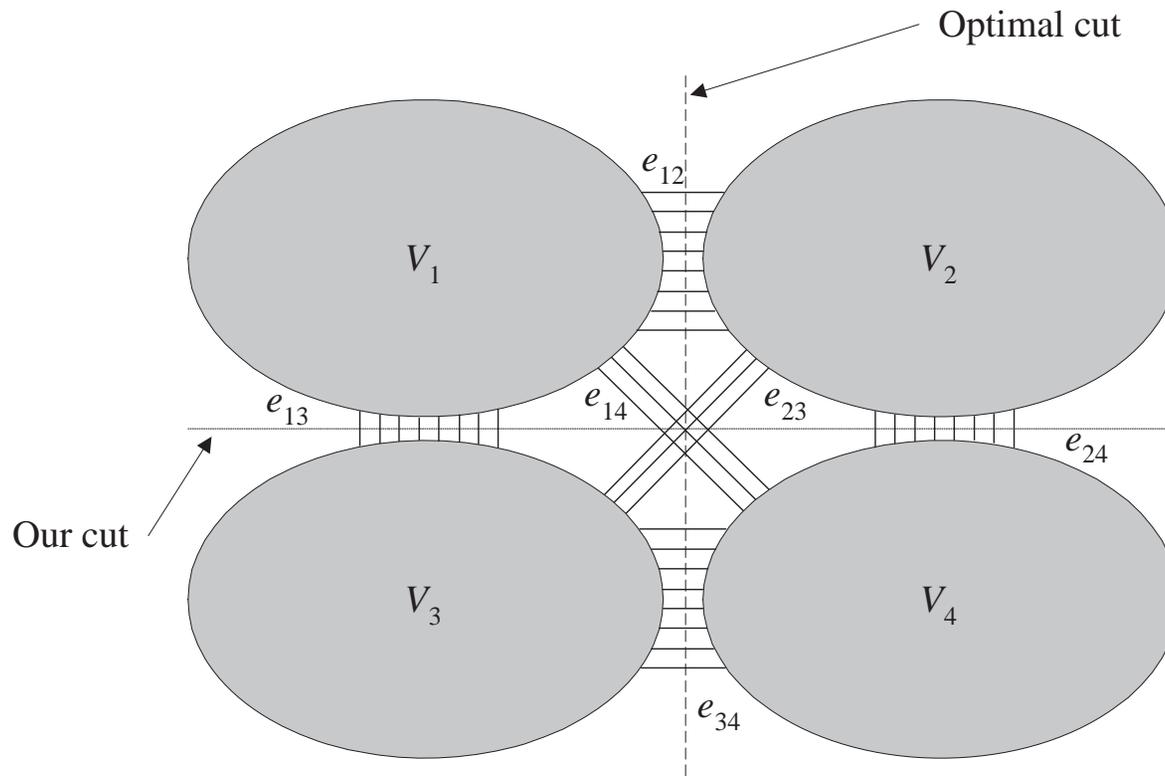
- 1:  $S := \emptyset$ ;
- 2: **while**  $\exists v \in V$  whose switching sides results in a larger cut **do**
- 3:     Switch the side of  $v$ ;
- 4: **end while**
- 5: **return**  $S$ ;

- A 0.12-approximation algorithm exists.<sup>a</sup>
- 0.059-approximation algorithms do not exist unless  $NP = ZPP$ .

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<sup>a</sup>Goemans and Williamson (1995).

# Analysis



## Analysis (continued)

- Partition  $V = V_1 \cup V_2 \cup V_3 \cup V_4$ , where
  - Our algorithm returns  $(V_1 \cup V_2, V_3 \cup V_4)$ .
  - The optimum cut is  $(V_1 \cup V_3, V_2 \cup V_4)$ .
- Let  $e_{ij}$  be the number of edges between  $V_i$  and  $V_j$ .
- Our algorithm returns a cut of size

$$e_{13} + e_{14} + e_{23} + e_{24}.$$

- The optimum cut size is

$$e_{12} + e_{34} + e_{14} + e_{23}.$$

## Analysis (continued)

- For each node  $v \in V_1$ , its edges to  $V_1 \cup V_2$  are outnumbered by those to  $V_3 \cup V_4$ .
  - Otherwise,  $v$  would have been moved to  $V_3 \cup V_4$  to improve the cut.
- Considering all nodes in  $V_1$  together, we have

$$2e_{11} + e_{12} \leq e_{13} + e_{14}.$$

- $2e_{11}$ , because each edge in  $V_1$  is counted twice.
- The above inequality implies

$$e_{12} \leq e_{13} + e_{14}.$$

## Analysis (concluded)

- Similarly,

$$e_{12} \leq e_{23} + e_{24}$$

$$e_{34} \leq e_{23} + e_{13}$$

$$e_{34} \leq e_{14} + e_{24}$$

- Add all four inequalities, divide both sides by 2, and add the inequality  $e_{14} + e_{23} \leq e_{14} + e_{23} + e_{13} + e_{24}$  to obtain

$$e_{12} + e_{34} + e_{14} + e_{23} \leq 2(e_{13} + e_{14} + e_{23} + e_{24}).$$

- The above says our solution is at least half the optimum.

## Approximability, Unapproximability, and Between

- KNAPSACK, NODE COVER, MAXSAT, and MAX CUT have approximation thresholds less than 1.
  - KNAPSACK has a threshold of 0 (p. 745).
  - But NODE COVER (p. 725) and MAXSAT have a threshold larger than 0.
- The situation is maximally pessimistic for TSP, which cannot be approximated (p. 743).
  - The approximation threshold of TSP is 1.
    - \* The threshold is  $1/3$  if TSP satisfies the triangular inequality.
  - The same holds for INDEPENDENT SET (see the textbook).

## Unapproximability of TSP<sup>a</sup>

**Theorem 85** *The approximation threshold of TSP is 1 unless  $P = NP$ .*

- Suppose there is a polynomial-time  $\epsilon$ -approximation algorithm for TSP for some  $\epsilon < 1$ .
- We shall construct a polynomial-time algorithm to solve the NP-complete HAMILTONIAN CYCLE.
- Given any graph  $G = (V, E)$ , construct a TSP with  $|V|$  cities with distances

$$d_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \{i, j\} \in E \\ \frac{|V|}{1-\epsilon}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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<sup>a</sup>Sahni and Gonzales (1976).

## The Proof (concluded)

- Run the alleged approximation algorithm on this TSP.
- Suppose a tour of cost  $|V|$  is returned.
  - This tour must be a Hamiltonian cycle.
- Suppose a tour that includes an edge of length  $\frac{|V|}{1-\epsilon}$  is returned.
  - The total length of this tour is  $> \frac{|V|}{1-\epsilon}$ .
  - Because the algorithm is  $\epsilon$ -approximate, the optimum is at least  $1 - \epsilon$  times the returned tour's length.
  - The optimum tour has a cost exceeding  $|V|$ .
  - Hence  $G$  has no Hamiltonian cycles.

## KNAPSACK Has an Approximation Threshold of Zero<sup>a</sup>

**Theorem 86** *For any  $\epsilon$ , there is a polynomial-time  $\epsilon$ -approximation algorithm for KNAPSACK.*

- We have  $n$  weights  $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ , a weight limit  $W$ , and  $n$  values  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ .<sup>b</sup>
- We must find an  $I \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  such that  $\sum_{i \in I} w_i \leq W$  and  $\sum_{i \in I} v_i$  is the largest possible.

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<sup>a</sup>Ibarra and Kim (1975).

<sup>b</sup>If the values are fractional, the result is slightly messier, but the main conclusion remains correct. Contributed by Mr. Jr-Ben Tian (B89902011, R93922045) on December 29, 2004.

## The Proof (continued)

- Let

$$V = \max\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}.$$

- Clearly,  $\sum_{i \in I} v_i \leq nV$ .
- Let  $0 \leq i \leq n$  and  $0 \leq v \leq nV$ .
- $W(i, v)$  is the minimum weight attainable by selecting only from the first  $i$  items and with a total value of  $v$ .
  - It is an  $(n + 1) \times (nV + 1)$  table.

## The Proof (continued)

- Set  $W(0, v) = \infty$  for  $v \in \{1, 2, \dots, nV\}$  and  $W(i, 0) = 0$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n$ .<sup>a</sup>
- Then, for  $0 \leq i < n$ ,

$$W(i + 1, v) = \min\{W(i, v), W(i, v - v_{i+1}) + w_{i+1}\}.$$

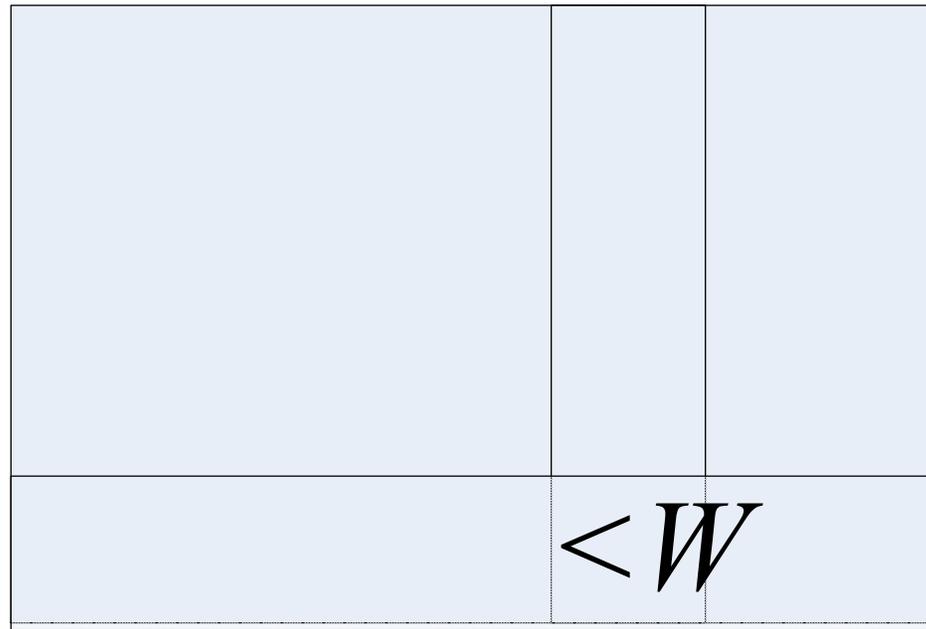
- Finally, pick the largest  $v$  such that  $W(n, v) \leq W$ .<sup>b</sup>
- The running time is  $O(n^2V)$ , not polynomial time.
- Key idea: Limit the number of precision bits.

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<sup>a</sup>Contributed by Mr. Ren-Shuo Liu (D98922016) and Mr. Yen-Wei Wu (D98922013) on December 28, 2009.

<sup>b</sup>Lawler (1979).

$0$                        $v$                        $nV$



## The Proof (continued)

- Define

$$v'_i = 2^b \left\lfloor \frac{v_i}{2^b} \right\rfloor.$$

- This is equivalent to zeroing each  $v_i$ 's last  $b$  bits.

- Call the original instance

$$x = (w_1, \dots, w_n, W, v_1, \dots, v_n).$$

- Call the approximate instance

$$x' = (w_1, \dots, w_n, W, v'_1, \dots, v'_n).$$

## The Proof (continued)

- Solving  $x'$  takes time  $O(n^2V/2^b)$ .
  - The algorithm only performs subtractions on the  $v_i$ -related values.
  - So the  $b$  last bits can be *removed* from the calculations.
  - That is, use  $v_i'' = \lfloor \frac{v_i}{2^b} \rfloor$  and  $V'' = \max(v_1'', v_2'', \dots, v_n'')$  in dynamic programming.
  - It is now an  $(n + 1) \times (nV + 1)/2^b$  table.
  - Then multiply the returned value by  $2^b$ .
- The selection  $I'$  is optimal for  $x'$ .

## The Proof (continued)

- The selection  $I'$  is close to the optimal selection  $I$ , for  $x$ :

$$\sum_{i \in I'} v_i \geq \sum_{i \in I'} v'_i \geq \sum_{i \in I} v'_i \geq \sum_{i \in I} (v_i - 2^b) \geq \left( \sum_{i \in I} v_i \right) - n2^b.$$

- Hence

$$\sum_{i \in I'} v_i \geq \left( \sum_{i \in I} v_i \right) - n2^b.$$

- Without loss of generality, assume  $w_i \leq W$  for all  $i$ .
  - Otherwise, item  $i$  is redundant.
- $V$  is a lower bound on OPT.
  - Picking an item with value  $V$  is a legitimate choice.

## The Proof (concluded)

- The relative error from the optimum is:

$$\frac{\sum_{i \in I} v_i - \sum_{i \in I'} v_i}{\sum_{i \in I} v_i} \leq \frac{\sum_{i \in I} v_i - \sum_{i \in I'} v_i}{V} \leq \frac{n2^b}{V}.$$

- Suppose we pick  $b = \lfloor \log_2 \frac{\epsilon V}{n} \rfloor$ .
- The algorithm becomes  $\epsilon$ -approximate.<sup>a</sup>
- The running time is then  $O(n^2 V / 2^b) = O(n^3 / \epsilon)$ , a polynomial in  $n$  and  $1/\epsilon$ .<sup>b</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>See Eq. (17) on p. 715.

<sup>b</sup>It hence depends on the *value* of  $1/\epsilon$ . Thanks to a lively class discussion on December 20, 2006. If we fix  $\epsilon$  and let the problem size increase, then the complexity is cubic. Contributed by Mr. Ren-Shan Luoh (D97922014) on December 23, 2008.

## Comments

- INDEPENDENT SET and NODE COVER are reducible to each other (Corollary 45, p. 371).
- NODE COVER has an approximation threshold at most 0.5 (p. 727).
- But INDEPENDENT SET is unapproximable (see the textbook).
- INDEPENDENT SET limited to graphs with degree  $\leq k$  is called  $k$ -DEGREE INDEPENDENT SET.
- $k$ -DEGREE INDEPENDENT SET is approximable (see the textbook).

*On P vs. NP*

If 50 million people believe a foolish thing,  
it's still a foolish thing.  
— George Bernard Shaw (1856–1950)

## Density<sup>a</sup>

The **density** of language  $L \subseteq \Sigma^*$  is defined as

$$\text{dens}_L(n) = |\{x \in L : |x| \leq n\}|.$$

- If  $L = \{0, 1\}^*$ , then  $\text{dens}_L(n) = 2^{n+1} - 1$ .
- So the density function grows at most exponentially.
- For a unary language  $L \subseteq \{0\}^*$ ,

$$\text{dens}_L(n) \leq n + 1.$$

– Because  $L \subseteq \{\epsilon, 0, 00, \dots, \overbrace{00 \cdots 0}^n, \dots\}$ .

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<sup>a</sup>Berman and Hartmanis (1977).

## Sparsity

- **Sparse languages** are languages with polynomially bounded density functions.
- **Dense languages** are languages with superpolynomial density functions.

## Self-Reducibility for SAT

- An algorithm exhibits **self-reducibility** if it finds a certificate by exploiting algorithms for the *decision* version of the same problem.
- Let  $\phi$  be a boolean expression in  $n$  variables  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ .
- $t \in \{0, 1\}^j$  is a **partial** truth assignment for  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_j$ .
- $\phi[t]$  denotes the expression after substituting the truth values of  $t$  for  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{|t|}$  in  $\phi$ .

## An Algorithm for SAT with Self-Reduction

We call the algorithm below with empty  $t$ .

```
1: if  $|t| = n$  then  
2:   return  $\phi[t]$ ;  
3: else  
4:   return  $\phi[t_0] \vee \phi[t_1]$ ;  
5: end if
```

The above algorithm runs in exponential time, by visiting all the partial assignments (or nodes on a depth- $n$  binary tree).<sup>a</sup>

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<sup>a</sup>The same idea was used in the proof of Proposition 79 on p. 614.

## NP-Completeness and Density<sup>a</sup>

**Theorem 87** *If a unary language  $U \subseteq \{0\}^*$  is NP-complete, then  $P = NP$ .*

- Suppose there is a reduction  $R$  from SAT to  $U$ .
- We use  $R$  to find a truth assignment that satisfies boolean expression  $\phi$  with  $n$  variables if it is satisfiable.
- Specifically, we use  $R$  to prune the exponential-time exhaustive search on p. 759.
- The trick is to keep the already discovered results  $\phi[t]$  in a table  $H$ .

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<sup>a</sup>Berman (1978).

```
1: if  $|t| = n$  then
2:   return  $\phi[t]$ ;
3: else
4:   if  $(R(\phi[t]), v)$  is in table  $H$  then
5:     return  $v$ ;
6:   else
7:     if  $\phi[t_0] = \text{“satisfiable”}$  or  $\phi[t_1] = \text{“satisfiable”}$  then
8:       Insert  $(R(\phi[t]), \text{“satisfiable”})$  into  $H$ ;
9:       return  $\text{“satisfiable”}$ ;
10:    else
11:      Insert  $(R(\phi[t]), \text{“unsatisfiable”})$  into  $H$ ;
12:      return  $\text{“unsatisfiable”}$ ;
13:    end if
14:  end if
15: end if
```

## The Proof (continued)

- Since  $R$  is a reduction,  $R(\phi[t]) = R(\phi[t'])$  implies that  $\phi[t]$  and  $\phi[t']$  must be both satisfiable or unsatisfiable.
- $R(\phi[t])$  has polynomial length  $\leq p(n)$  because  $R$  runs in log space.
- As  $R$  maps to unary numbers, there are only polynomially many  $p(n)$  values of  $R(\phi[t])$ .
- How many nodes of the complete binary tree (of invocations/truth assignments) need to be visited?

## The Proof (continued)

- A search of the table takes time  $O(p(n))$  in the random-access memory model.
- The running time is  $O(Mp(n))$ , where  $M$  is the total number of invocations of the algorithm.
- If that number is a polynomial, the overall algorithm runs in polynomial time and we are done.
- The invocations of the algorithm form a binary tree of depth at most  $n$ .

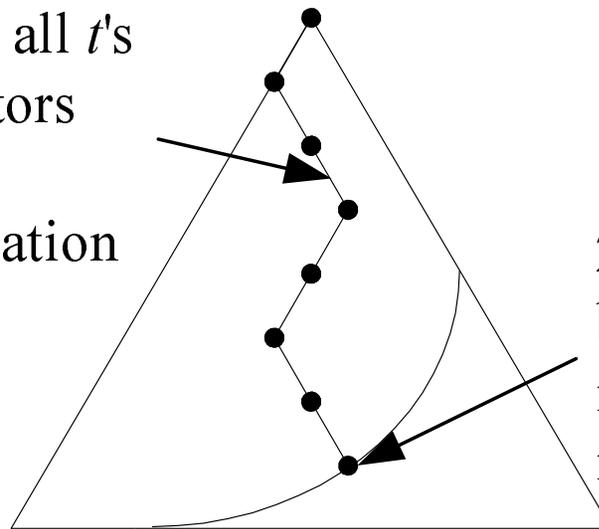
## The Proof (continued)

- There is a set  $T = \{t_1, t_2, \dots\}$  of invocations<sup>a</sup> such that:
  1.  $|T| \geq (M - 1)/(2n)$ .
  2. All invocations in  $T$  are recursive (nonleaves).
  3. None of the elements of  $T$  is a prefix of another.
- To build one such  $T$ , carry out the 1st step and then loop over the 2nd and 3rd steps on the next page.

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<sup>a</sup>Partial truth assignments, i.e.

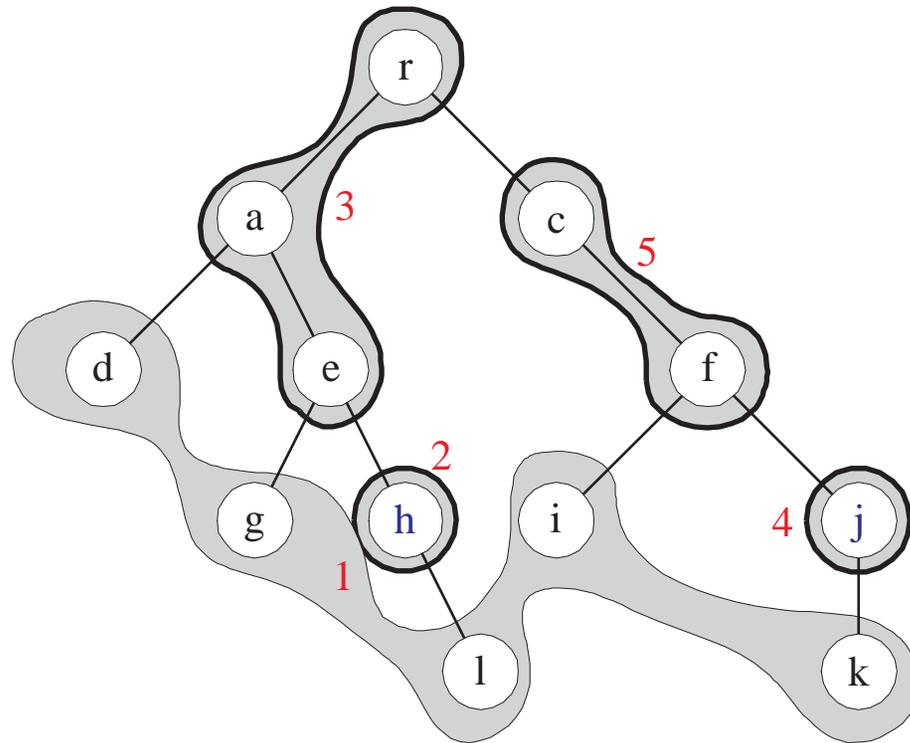
3rd step: Delete all  $t$ 's  
at most  $n$  ancestors  
(prefixes) from  
further consideration



2nd step: Select any  
bottom undeleted  
invocation  $t$  and add  
it to  $T$

1st step: Delete  
leaves;  $(M - 1)/2$   
nonleaves remaining

## An Example



$T = \{h, j\}$ ; none of h and j is a prefix of the other.

## The Proof (continued)

- All invocations  $t \in T$  have different  $R(\phi[t])$  values.
  - The invocation of one started after the invocation of the other had terminated.
  - If they had the same value, the one that was invoked later would have looked it up, and therefore would not be recursive, a contradiction.
- The existence of  $T$  implies that there are at least  $(M - 1)/(2n)$  different  $R(\phi[t])$  values in the table.

## The Proof (concluded)

- We already know that there are at most  $p(n)$  such values.
- Hence  $(M - 1)/(2n) \leq p(n)$ .
- Thus  $M \leq 2np(n) + 1$ .
- The running time is therefore  $O(Mp(n)) = O(np^2(n))$ .

## Other Results for Sparse Languages

**Theorem 88 (Mahaney (1980))** *If a sparse language is NP-complete, then  $P = NP$ .*

**Theorem 89 (Fortung (1979))** *If a unary language  $U \subseteq \{0\}^*$  is coNP-complete, then  $P = NP$ .*

- Suppose there is a reduction  $R$  from SAT COMPLEMENT to  $U$ .
- The rest of the proof is basically identical except that, now, we want to make sure a formula is unsatisfiable.