# Advanced Algorithms

Lecture 11 Approximation Algorithms for NP-Complete Problems

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## ILO of Lecture 11

- Approximation algorithms
  - to understand the concepts of approximation ratio and approximation algorithm;
  - to understand the examples of approximation algorithms for the problems of vertex-cover and traveling-salesman.



#### • P, NP, and NP-complete

- Approximation ratio, approximation algorithm, and approximation scheme
- Approximation algorithm for vertex-cover
- Approximation algorithm for traveling-salesman

## P, NP, NP-complete

#### • *P*

- Problems that are solvable in polynomial time,  $n^{O(1)}$ .
- *NP* 
  - Problems that are verifiable in polynomial time,  $n^{O(1)}$ .
- *NP*-complete
  - A problem is in *NP*, and is as hard as any problem in *NP*.
  - No polynomial-time algorithm has yet been discovered.
  - Nobody has yet been able to determine conclusively whether *NP*-complete problems are in fact solvable in polynomial time
- P = NP or that  $P \neq NP$ .
  - ?

## Example

- Subset sum problem
  - Given a set of *n* integers, is there a non-empty subset whose sum is *x*, e.g., 0?
    - Consider set {-3, -2, 1, 5, 8}
- NP?
  - Yes, given any subset, you can verify if its sum is x in linear time O(n).
    - Is sum of {1, 5, 8} = 10?
- P?
  - No, in the worst case, in order to identify a non-empty subset whose sum is x, we need to enumerate all 2<sup>n</sup> possible subsets, thus having exponential runtime

## Summary

Problems	Verifiable in Polynomial time	Solvable in polynomial time
Р	Yes	Yes
NP	Yes	Yes or Unknown
NP-Complete	Yes	Unknown

## Handling NP-complete problems

- Many interesting and important problems are NP-complete.
  - Knapsack problem
  - Travelling salesman problem
- NO! We have some ways to deal with an NP-complete problem.
  - If the actual inputs are small, an algorithm with exponential running time may be acceptable.
  - Come up approaches to find *near-optimal--* approximation algorithm solutions in polynomial time.
  - Use *heuristics* to speed up exponential running time.

## Agenda

- P, NP, and NP-complete
- Approximation ratio, approximation algorithm, and approximation scheme
- Approximation algorithm for vertex-cover
- Approximation algorithm for traveling-salesman

- Suppose that
  - we are working on an *optimization* problem with input size *n*;
  - each solution has a *cost* value, and we want to identify the optimal solution, i.e., the one with the minimum or maximum possible cost;
  - optimal solution is C\*, returned by an exact algorithm that runs in exponential time;
  - approximate solution is C, returned by an approximation algorithm that runs in polynomial time.
- Maximization problem:
  - $0 < C \le C^*$ ,  $C^*/C$  gives a factor.
  - E.g., *C*\*=100, *C*=90, *C*\*/*C* = 10/9
- Minimization problem:
  - $0 < C^* \le C$ ,  $C/C^*$  gives a factor.
  - E.g., C\*=100, C=110, C/C\* = 11/10

- A  $\rho(n)$ -approximation algorithm has an approximation ratio  $\rho(n)$ , if, for any input size of n, it satisfies  $\max(\frac{c}{c*}, \frac{c*}{c}) \leq \rho(n)$ .
  - C is control by ratio ρ(n).
  - It provides a guarantee on the performance of an approximation algorithm.
    - Consider a 1.2-approximation algorithm with optimal cost C\*=100.
    - For a minimization problem, the algorithm returns a value that is no larger than 100\*1.2=120.
    - For a maximization problem, the algorithm returns a value that is no smaller than 100/1.2=83.3.
- Approximation ratio is never smaller than 1.
- 1-approximation algorithm produces the optimal solution.

## Approximation scheme

- An approximation scheme for an optimization problem is an approximation algorithm that takes as input
  - The problem and a value  $\varepsilon > 0$ .
  - Then, the scheme is a  $(1+\varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm.
- Polynomial-time approximation scheme, PTAS
  - Scheme runs in polynomial time of input size *n* for any fixed  $\varepsilon > 0$ , e.g.,  $O(n^{2/\varepsilon})$
- Fully polynomial-time approximation scheme, FPTAS
  - Scheme runs in polynomial time of both input size n and  $1/\epsilon$ , e.g., O(( $1/\epsilon$ )<sup>2</sup>n<sup>3</sup>)

## Exam 2018

5. Take a careful look at the following statements and decide if they are correct.

**5.1** (2 points) Consider an approximation algorithm with approximation ratio 1.1 for solving a NP-complete problem P. Assume that P is a **maximization** problem and its optimal solution is 100. Then, the approximation algorithm may return a value 105.

1) Correct

2) Wrong

**5.2** (2 points) Consider an approximation algorithm with approximation ratio 2 for solving a NP-complete problem P. Assume that P is a **minimization** problem and its optimal solution is 100. Then, the approximation algorithm may return a value 201.

1) Correct

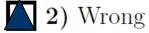
2) Wrong

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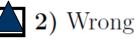
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- Approximation algorithm for vertex-cover
- Approximation algorithm for traveling-salesman

## The vertex-cover problem

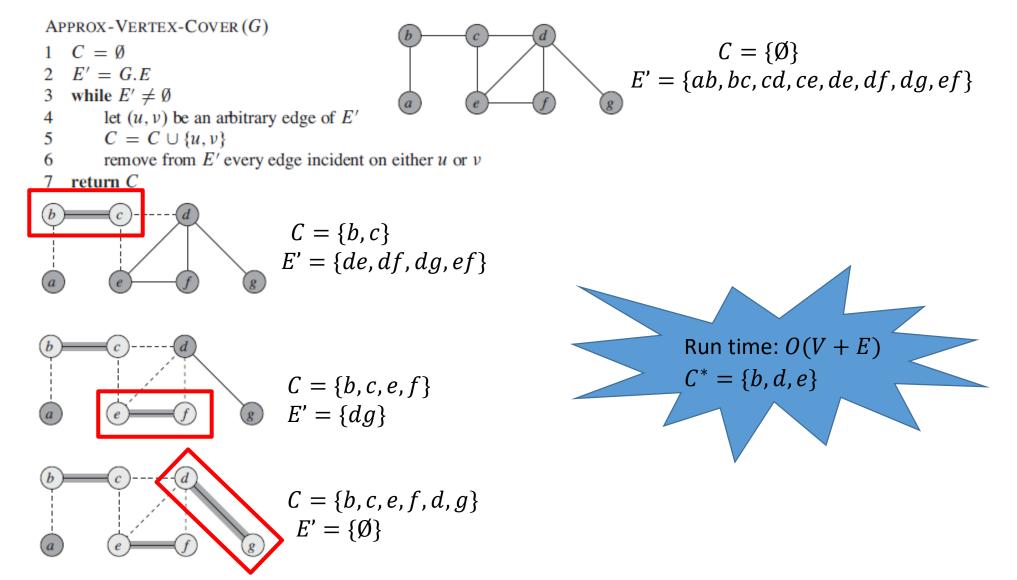
- Given an undirected graph G = (V, E)
- A vertex cover of G is a *subset of vertices*  $V' \subseteq V$ , s.t.
  - For each  $(u, v) \in E$ , we have  $u \in V'$  or  $v \in V'$  or both.
  - $V_1' = \{u, v, w, x, y, z\}$
  - $V_2' = \{w, z\}$

• 
$$V_3' = \{u, v, y, x\}$$

- The size of a vertex cover is the number of vertices in it.
  - Sizes of  $V_1$ ',  $V_2$ ', and  $V_3$ ' are 6, 2, and 4, respectively.
- Vertex-cover problem: find a vertex cover of minimum size.

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#### Approximation algorithm



• Approximation ratio

• 
$$C^* = \{b, d, e\}, C = \{b, c, e, f, d, g\}$$
  
•  $\frac{C}{C^*} = \frac{6}{3} = 2$ 

APPROX-VERTEX-COVER (G)

- 1  $C = \emptyset$ 2 E' = G.E3 while  $E' \neq \emptyset$ 4 [et (u, v) be an arbitrary edge of E']5  $C = C \cup \{u, v\}$ 6 remove from E' every edge incident on either u or v7 return C
- What if we are lucky (i.e., having a lucky order in line 4), can we get a better solution or even exact solution?
  - Visit (d, e) first. Then  $(b, c) \rightarrow C = \{d, e, b, c\}$
  - $\frac{C}{C^*} = \frac{4}{3}$  better than 2.
- What is the approximation ratio then?
  - Observing from the two examples, it should be at least 2.
  - Then, we need to prove the ratio.

- Let A denote the set of edges that line 4 picked.  $A \subseteq E$
- To cover the edges in *A*, any vertex cover must include at least one endpoint of each edge in *A*.
  - This is due to the definition of a vertex cover: a vertex cover contains at least one vertex of each edge.
  - The optimal vertex cover C<sup>\*</sup> should also include at least one endpoint of each edge in A.
- No two edges in A share an endpoint
  - Once an edge is picked in line 4 and is added into A, all the edges that share the edge's endpoints are deleted from E' in line 6.
- Thus, we have the lower bound  $|C^*| \ge |A|$ .

- When line 4 picks an edge, both endpoints of the edge are added into *C*.
  - We have |C| = 2|A|
- Considering the lower bound  $|C^*| \ge |A|$ , we have
  - $|C| = 2|A| \le 2|C^*|$
  - Approximation ratio:  $\frac{|C|}{|C^*|} \leq 2$
- Conclusion: we have a 2-approximation algorithm.

## Reflection on approximation ratio proof

- How can we possibly prove the approximation ratio without even knowing the size of an optimal solution?
  - Instead of knowing the exact size of an optimal solution, we rely on a lower bound on the size of an optimal solution.
    - Vertex-cover problem:  $|C^*| \ge |A|$
  - Next, we consider the relationship between the result returned by an approximation and the lower bound.
    - |C| = 2|A|
- This is a common *methodology* used in approximation ratio proof.

## Agenda

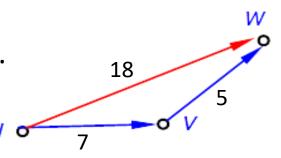
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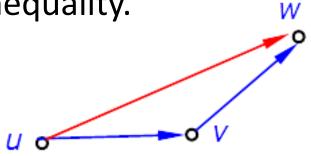
## Traveling-salesman problem (TSP)

- Given
  - A list of cities and the distance between each pair of cities.
- Compute
  - the shortest *path that visits each city exactly once and returns to the origin city* or shortest *simple cycle with all vertices*?
- Given a **complete** undirected graph G = (V, E)
  - Every pair of vertices is connected by an edge.
  - Each vertex has V 1 edges to all remaining vertices.
- For each edge  $(u, v) \in E$ , it has a nonnegative integer cost c(u, v), e.g., the Euclidean distance.
- Identify a Hamiltonian cycle of G with minimum cost.
  - A Hamiltonian cycle is a simple cycle that contains each vertex in V.
  - A simple cycle is a path  $(v_0, v_1, v_2, ..., v_k)$  where  $v_0 = v_k$  and  $v_1, v_2, ..., v_k$  are distinct.

## Simplified TSP

- The cost function c satisfies triangle inequality.
- For all  $u, v, w \in V$ :
  - $c(u,w) \leq c(u,v) + c(v,w)$
- These are natural simplifications
  - Vertices points in the plane.
  - Cost of an edge Euclidean distance between the two vertices of the edge.
- General TSP
  - Without the triangle inequality assumption.





## Another simpler TSP

- A spanning tree T for a connected graph G is a tree that includes all the vertices of G. Then we want to find a spanning tree of minimum cost---minimum spanning trees problem.
- Is Hamiltonian cycle a tree?
  - No, because it is a cycle.
- Can we change a Hamiltonian cycle to a tree?
  - Yes, by deleting an edge to break the cycle.

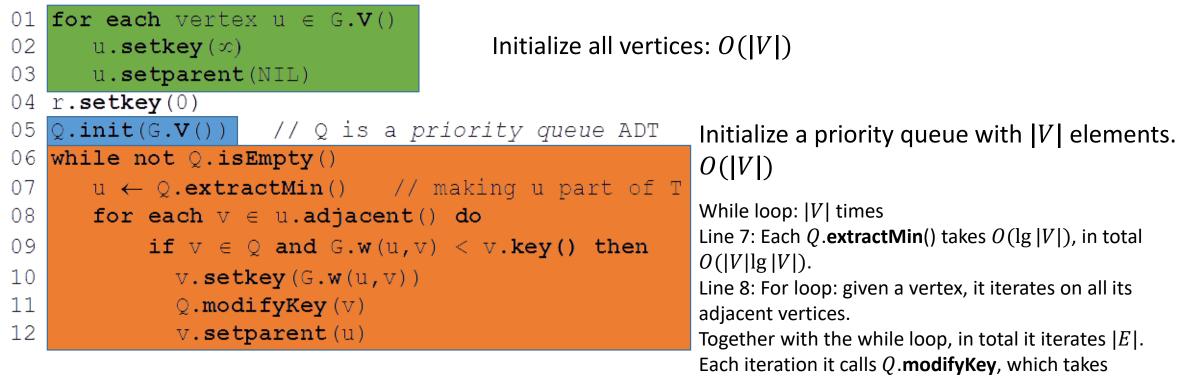
## Approximation algorithm

APPROX-TSP-TOUR(G, c)

- 1 select a vertex  $r \in G.V$  to be a "root" vertex
- 2 compute a minimum spanning tree T for G from root r using MST-PRIM(G, c, r)
- 3 let H be a list of vertices, ordered according to when they are first visited in a preorder tree walk of T
- 4 return the hamiltonian cycle H
- Choose a vertex, say vertex *r*, as root.
- Compute a MST from the chosen root *r*.
- Preorder tree work on the MST.
  - Visits each vertex before visiting its children.

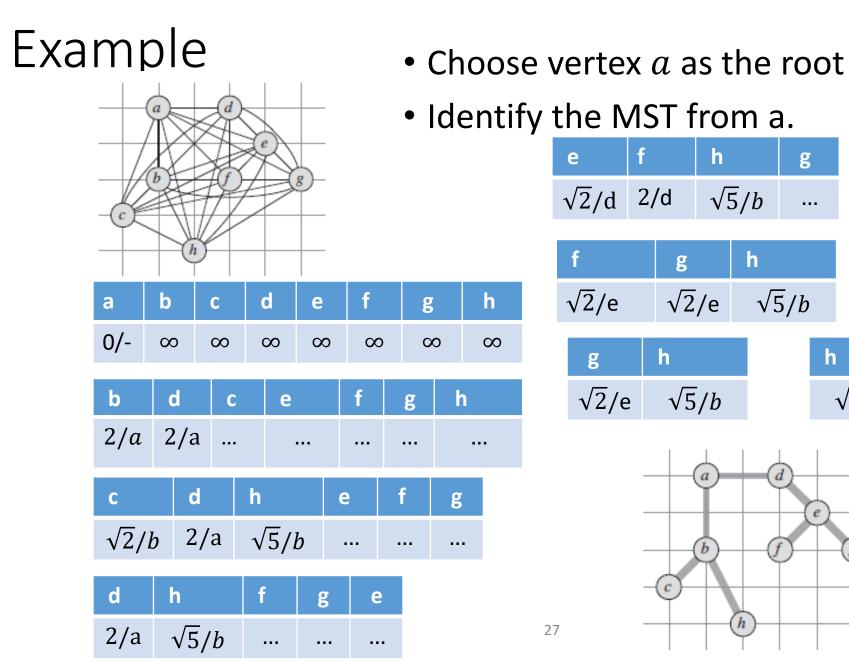
## MST-Prim's algorithm

MST-Prim(G,r)



 $O(\lg |V|).$ 

In total, O(|E||g|V| + |V||g|V|) = O(|E||g|V|).

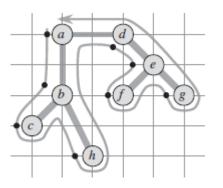


• Identify the MST from a. h g e  $\sqrt{2}/d$  2/d  $\sqrt{5}/b$ • • • h g  $\sqrt{2}/e$  $\sqrt{2}/e$  $\sqrt{5}/b$ h h g  $\sqrt{2}/e$  $\sqrt{5}/b$  $\sqrt{5}/b$ a d

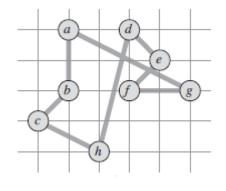
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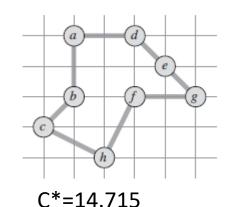
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### Pre-order tree walk on the MST



- $\{a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h\} \rightarrow \{a, b, c, h, d, e, f, g\}$
- Add the root a to the end, so we have  $\langle a, b, c, h, d, e, f, g, a \rangle$

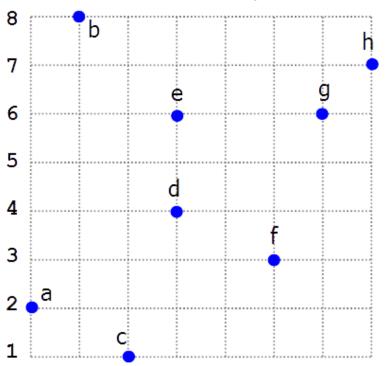


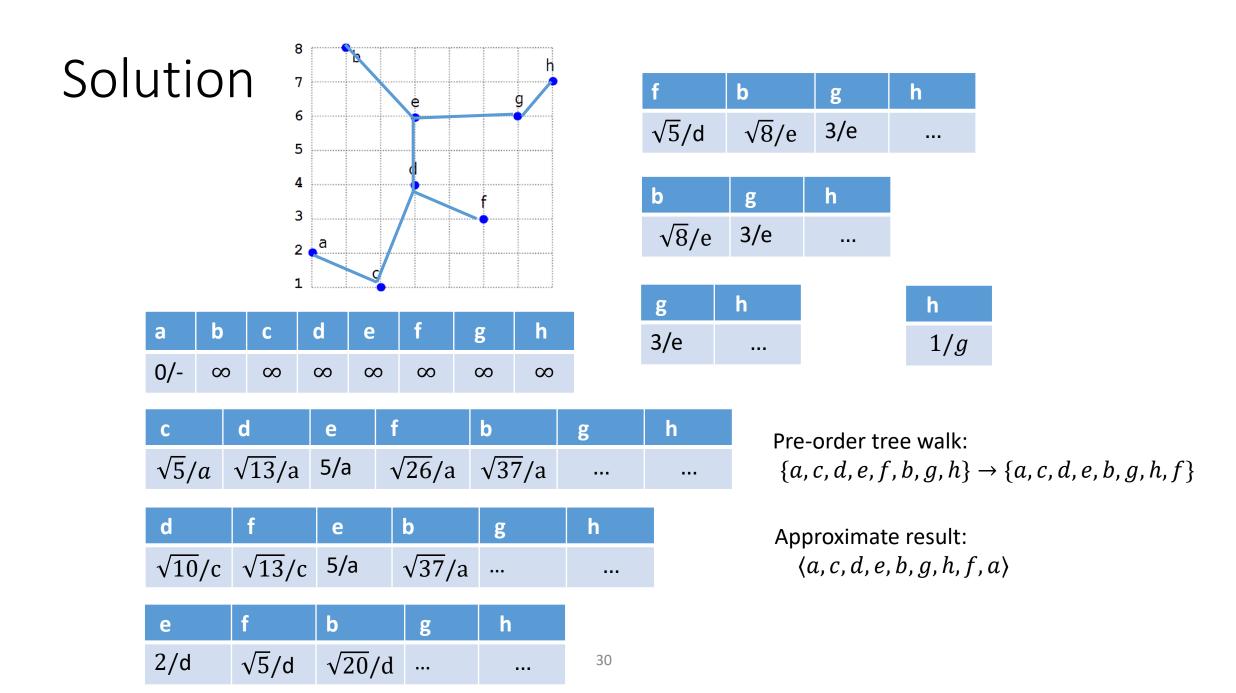


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## Mini quiz (also on Moodle)

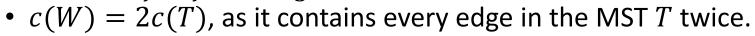
- Compute an approximate TSP tour:
  - Use vertex *a* as the starting vertex
  - When there is a choice (in Prim's and the pre-order tree walk), choose the alphabetically "smaller" vertex.



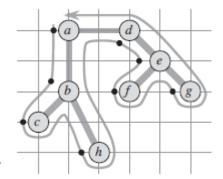


- Let  $H^*$  denote an optimal cycle and H denote the cycle identified by our approximation algorithm. Let T be a minimum spanning tree.
- By deleting any edge from  $H^*$ , we will get a spanning tree.
- Thus, we have  $c(T) \leq c(H^*)$ .
  - This is the lower bound.
- What is the relationship between c(H) and the lower bound c(T)?
  - To this end, we introduce a new concept called full walk.

- A *full walk* of a tree *T* lists the vertices when they are first visited and also whenever they are returned to after a visit to a sub-tree.
- Full walk, denoted as W:
  - [*a*, *b*, *c*, *b*, *h*, *b*, *a*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *e*, *g*, *e*, *d*, *a*].
  - ⟨a, b⟩, ⟨b, c⟩, ⟨c, b⟩, ⟨b, h⟩, ⟨h, b⟩, ⟨b, a⟩, ⟨a, d⟩, ⟨a, d⟩, ⟨d, e⟩, ⟨e, f⟩, ⟨f, e⟩, ⟨e, g⟩, ⟨e, d⟩, ⟨d, a⟩.

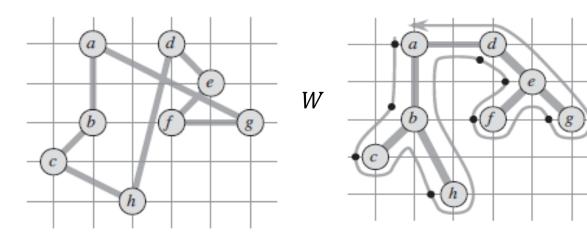


- Consider the lower bound  $c(T) \leq c(H^*)$ , we have
  - $c(W) \leq 2c(H^*)$
- What is the relationship between the full walk *W* and the approximated cycle *H*?
  - c(W) and c(H)?



- Pre-order walk: {*a*, *b*, *c*, *h*, *d*, *e*, *f*, *g*}
  - $H = \langle a, b \rangle, \langle b, c \rangle, \langle c, h \rangle, \langle h, d \rangle, \langle d, e \rangle, \langle e, f \rangle, \langle f, g \rangle, \langle g, a \rangle$
  - $W = \langle a, b \rangle, \langle b, c \rangle, \langle c, b \rangle, \langle b, h \rangle, \langle h, b \rangle, \langle b, a \rangle, \langle a, d \rangle, \langle d, e \rangle, \langle e, f \rangle, \langle f, e \rangle, \langle e, g \rangle, \langle g, e \rangle, \langle e, d \rangle, \langle d, a \rangle.$

Н	W	
$\langle a,b \rangle$	$\langle a, b \rangle$	
$\langle b, c \rangle$	$\langle b, c \rangle$	
$\langle c,h \rangle$	$\langle c, b \rangle, \langle b, h \rangle$	Н
$\langle h, d \rangle$	$\langle h, b \rangle, \langle b, a \rangle, \langle a, d \rangle$	11
$\langle d, e \rangle$	$\langle d, e \rangle$	
$\langle e, f \rangle$	$\langle e, f \rangle$	
$\langle f,g \rangle$	$\langle f, e \rangle, \langle e, g \rangle$	
$\langle g,a \rangle$	$\langle g, e \rangle, \langle e, d \rangle, \langle d, a \rangle$	



Due to triangle inequality, we have  $c(H) \le c(W)$ . Thus,  $c(H) \le c(W) \le 2c(H^*)$  33

- From  $c(H) \le c(W) \le 2c(H^*)$ , we have
  - $\frac{c(H)}{c(H^*)} \leq 2 \rightarrow$  Thus, approximation ratio is 2.
- This means that the approximate cycle will never have more than twice distance of the optimal cycle.

## No efficient $\rho$ -approximation

• Do all NP-complete problems have polynomial  $\rho$ -approximation algorithms (where  $\rho$  is a constant)?

• No!

- Next, we will prove that the general TSP problem cannot have a polynomial  $\rho$ -approximation algorithm, unless P = NP.
- In the general TSP problem, we drop the assumption that the cost function c satisfies the triangle inequality.
  - E.g., use travel times as costs, but not Euclidean distances.

## Proof sketch

- Given a graph G = (V, E), a *Hamiltonian cycle* of G is a simple cycle that contains each vertex in V.
- What is the Hamiltonian-cycle problem?
  - A decision problem: does a graph *G* have a Hamiltonian cycle?
  - It is a *NP*-complete problem, Theorem 34.13.
  - Solving it in polynomial time implies P = NP, Theorem 34.4.
- Proof by *contradiction*:
  - Since the Hamiltonian cycle problem is NP-complete, no polynomial time algorithms exist unless P = NP.
    - If there exists a *polynomial*  $\rho$ -approximation algorithm A for solving general TSP, we are also able to use A to solve the Hamiltonian-cycle problem.
    - Recall that *A* is polynomial. This means that we use *A* to solve the Hamiltonian cycle problem in *polynomial* time.
    - This is a contradiction, unless P = NP. In other words, if  $P \neq NP$ , this is a contradiction.

#### Hamiltonian cycle problem to General TSP

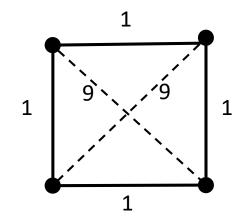
- Suppose we have a polynomial time, approximation algorithm A with approximation ratio  $\rho$  for general TSP.
  - Assume  $\rho$  is an integer.
- We now show how to use A to solve the Hamiltonian cycle problem.
  - Given a graph G = (V, E), whether or not there is a Hamiltonian cycle in G.
- We turn G into a **complete** graph G' = (V, E')
  - Assign an integer cost to each edge in E'.

 $c(u, v) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (u, v) \in E \\ \rho |V| + 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ 

- For example, assuming that we have  $\rho = 2$ , then we have the edge weights of 2|V| + 1 for all newly added edges in E'.
- Now we consider a general TSP on G' with cost function c.

#### Hamiltonian cycle problem to General TSP

• Assume 
$$\rho = 2. |V| = 4.$$



$$c(u, v) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (u, v) \in E \\ \rho |V| + 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The weights do not satisfy triangle-inequality anymore.

- If the original graph G has a Hamiltonian cycle  $H^*$ 
  - Each edge should have cost 1 and in total |V| edges. Thus,  $H^*$ 's cost is |V|, i.e.,  $c(H^*) = |V|$ .
    - This example:  $c(H^*) = 4$ .
  - If we use the  $\rho$ -approximation algorithm A, it will return a cycle H with cost at most  $\rho|V|$ , i.e.,  $c(H) \leq \rho(H^*) = \rho|V|$ .
    - This example:  $c(H) \leq 8$ .

# Hamiltonian cycle problem to General TSP $c(u,v) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (u,v) \in E \\ \rho |V|+1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

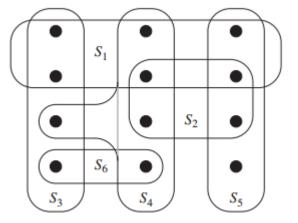
- If the original graph G does not have a Hamiltonian cycle
  - Then any Hamiltonian cycle in G' must use some (at least one) edges that are not in E, i.e., some newly added edges.
    - In the best case, we use only one newly added edge, we have  $(\rho|V| + 1) + (|V| 1) = \rho|V| + |V| > \rho|V|$
    - This example:  $1 + 1 + 1 + 9 = 12 > \rho |V| = 8$

#### Hamiltonian cycle problem to General TSP

- So this means that, if the  $\rho\text{-approximation}$  algorithm A returns
  - A cycle whose cost is at most  $\rho |V|$ , G has a Hamiltonian cycle.
  - A cycle whose cost is more than  $\rho|V|$ , G has no Hamiltonian cycle.
- Therefore, we can use A to solve the Hamiltonian-cycle in polynomial time because A is a polynomial approximation algorithm.
- Since the Hamiltonian-cycle problem is NP-complete, there does not exist a polynomial time algorithm unless P = NP.
- This is a contradiction unless P = NP.

## Set-covering problem

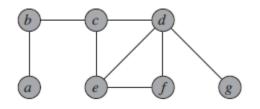
- The set-covering problem
- Given a finite set X and a family F of subsets of X. The problem is to find a minimum-size subset  $C \subseteq F$  whose members cover all of X.
  - Black dots are the elements in X.
  - $F = \{S_1, S_2, S_3, S_4, S_5, S_6\}$  each  $S_i$  contains some elements in X (black dots).
  - $C^* = \{S_3, S_4, S_5\}$
- A greedy approximation algorithm
  - At each stage, picking up the set S that covers the greatest number of remaining uncovered elements.
  - $C = \{S_1, S_4, S_5, S_3\}$
  - $(\ln |X| + 1)$ -approximation algorithm
    - Approximation ratio is not a constant anymore.



#### Set-covering vs. vertex cover

**2** In Lecture 11, we have seen a 2-approximation algorithm (denoted as ALG1) for solving the **vertex cover** problem. We also briefly talked about a  $(\ln |X| + 1)$ -approximation algorithm (denoted as ALG2) for solving the **set cover** problem.

- (10 points) Actually, the **set cover** problem can be regarded as a generalization of the vertex cover problem. Show how can you transform a vertex cover problem into a set cover problem.
- X represents all edges.
- Each vertex is a subset of *X*, which contains the edges that are incident to the vertex.



X = {ab, bc, cd, ce, de, df, dg, ef}
S<sub>c</sub> = {bc, cd, ce}

## ILO of Lecture 11

- Approximation algorithms
  - to understand the concepts of approximation ratio, approximation scheme, approximation algorithm;
  - to understand the examples of approximation algorithms for the problems of vertex-cover and traveling-salesman.