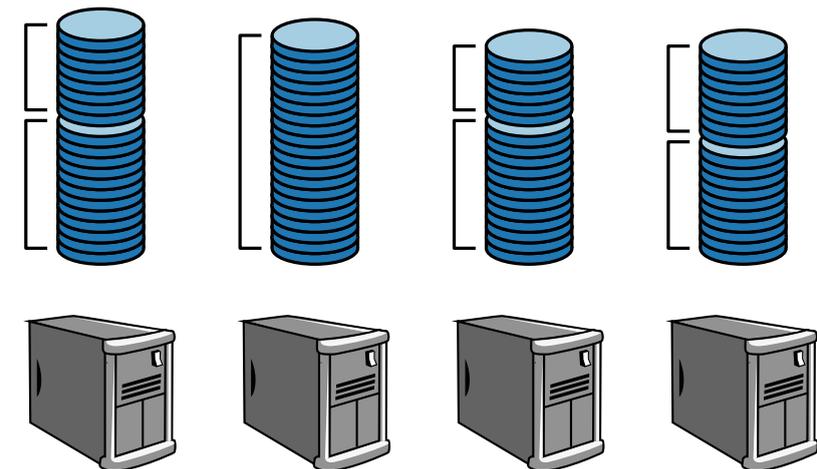
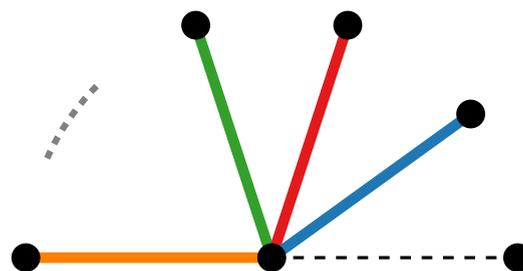
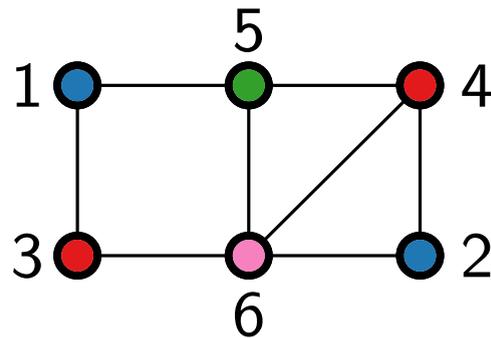


Advanced Algorithms

Approximation algorithms Coloring and scheduling problems

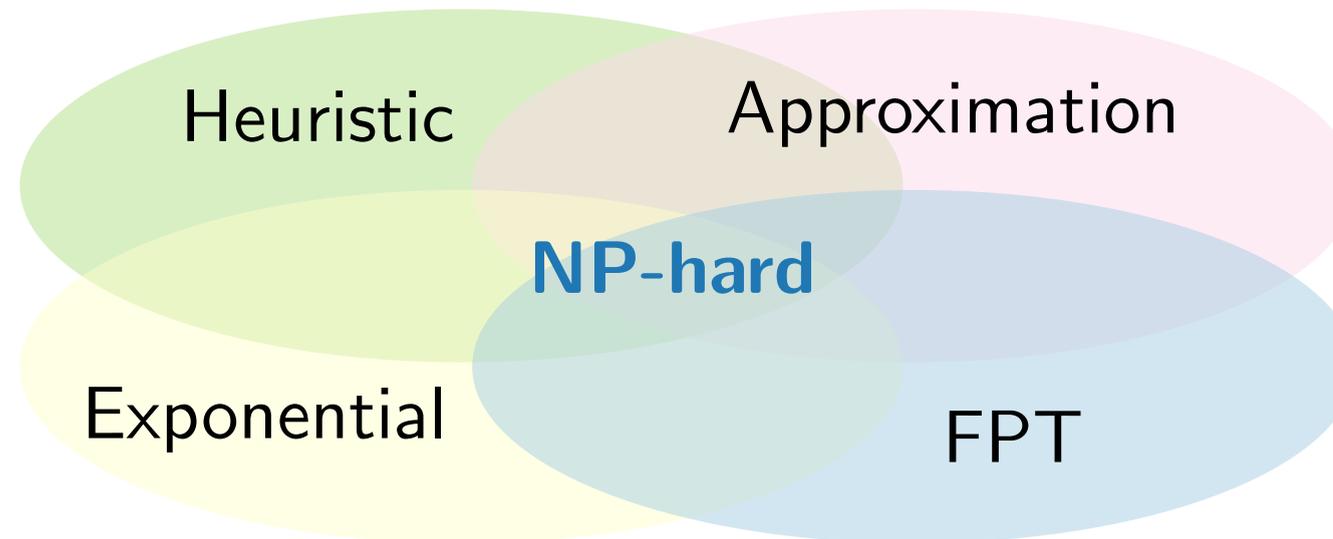
Jonathan Klawitter · WS20



Dealing with NP-hard problems

What should we do?

- Sacrifice optimality for speed
 - Heuristics
 - Approximation Algorithms ← this lecture
- Optimal Solutions
 - Exact exponential-time algorithms
 - Fine-grained analysis – parameterized algorithms



Approximation algorithms

Problem.

- For NP-hard optimisation problems, we cannot compute the optimal solution of each instance efficiently (unless $P = NP$).
- Heuristics offer no guarantee on the quality of their solutions.

Goal.

- Design **approximation algorithms** that
 - run in polynomial time and
 - compute solutions of guaranteed quality.
- Study techniques for the design and analysis of approximation algorithms.

Overview.

- Approximation algorithms that compute solutions with/that are
 - additive guarantee, ■ relative guarantee, ■ “arbitrarily good”.

Approximation with additive guarantee

Definition.

Let Π be an optimisation problem and let \mathcal{A} be a polynomial-time algorithm that computes the value $\mathcal{A}(I)$ for an instance I of Π .

\mathcal{A} is called an **approximation algorithm with additive guarantee δ** if

$$|\text{OPT}(I) - \mathcal{A}(I)| \leq \delta(I)$$

for every instance I of Π .

- Most problems do not admit an approximation algorithm with additive guarantee.

Minimum vertex coloring

Input. A graph $G = (V, E)$. Let Δ be the maximum degree of G .

Output. A **vertex coloring**, that is, an assignment of colors to the vertices of G such that now two adjacent vertices get the same color, with minimum number of colors.

- Min Vertex Coloring is NP-hard.
- Even Vertex 3-Coloring is NP-complete.

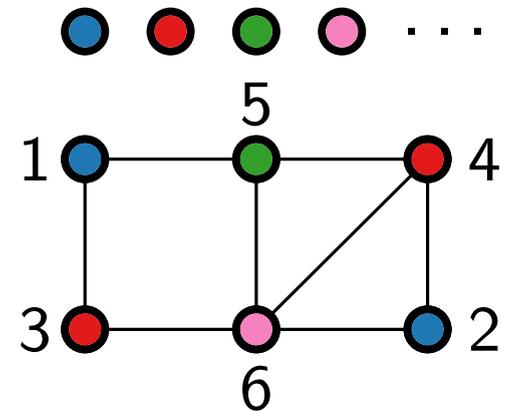
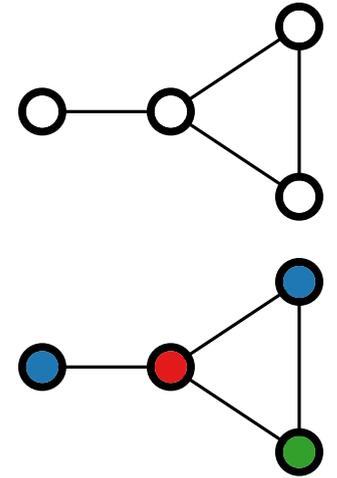
GREEDYVERTEXCOLORING(G)

Color vertices in some order with lowest feasible color.

Theorem 1.

The algorithm GreedyVertexColoring computes a vertex coloring with at most $\Delta + 1$ colors in $\mathcal{O}(n + m)$ time.

Hence, it has an additive approximation gurantee of $\Delta - 1$.

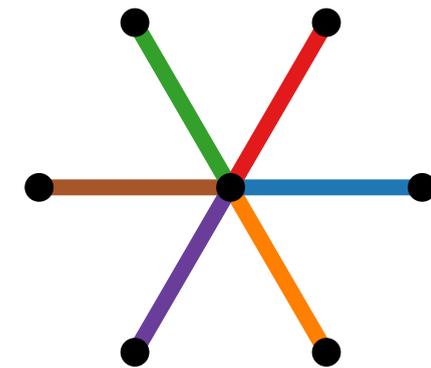
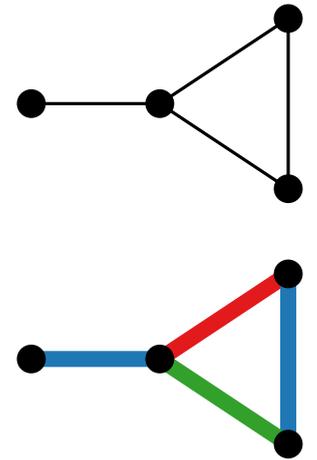


Minimum edge coloring

Input. A graph $G = (V, E)$. Let Δ be the maximum degree of G .

Output. An **edge coloring**, that is, an assignment of colors to the edges of G such that now two incident edges get the same color, with minimum number of colors.

- Min Edge Coloring is NP-hard.
- Even Edge 3-Coloring is NP-complete.
- The minimum number of colors needed for an edge coloring of G is called the **chromatic index** $\chi'(G)$.
- $\chi'(G)$ is lower bounded by Δ .
- We show that $\chi'(G) \leq \Delta + 1$.



Minimum edge coloring – upper bound

Vizing's Theorem.

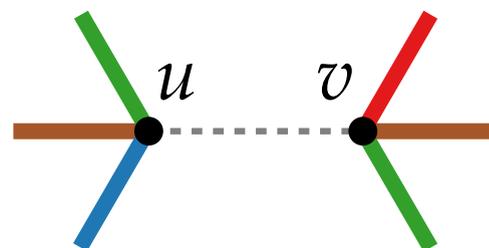
For every graph $G = (V, E)$ with maximum degree Δ holds that $\Delta \leq \chi'(G) \leq \Delta + 1$.

Proof by induction on $m = |E|$.

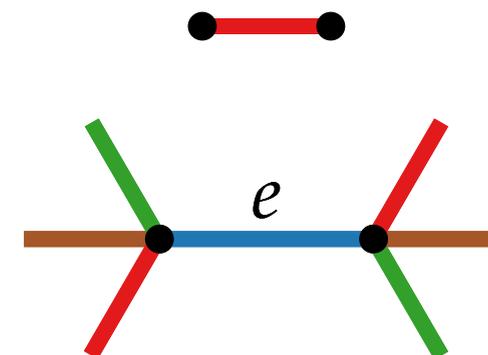
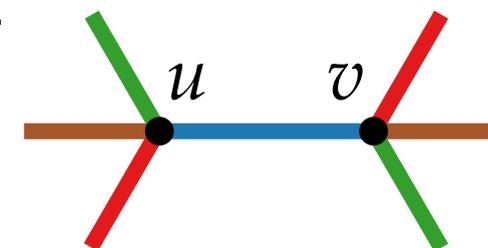
- Base case $m = 1$ is trivial.

Let G be a graph on m edges and e an edge of G .

- By induction, $G - e$ has a $\Delta(G - e) + 1$ edge coloring.
- If $\Delta(G) > \Delta(G - e)$, color e with color $\Delta(G) + 1$.
- If $\Delta(G) = \Delta(G - e)$, change coloring such that u and v (of $e = \{u, v\}$) miss the same color α .
- Then color e with with α .



Lemma 2



Minimum edge coloring – recoloring

Lemma 2.

Let G have a $(\Delta + 1)$ edge coloring c , let u, v be non-adjacent, and $\deg(u), \deg(v) < \Delta$. Then c can be changed such that u and v miss the same color.

Proof. Note, each vertex is **missing** a color.

Let u miss β and v miss α_1 ; apply the following algorithm:

VIZINGRECOLORING($G = (V, E), u, c, \alpha_1$)

$i \leftarrow 1$

while $\exists w \in N(u): c(\{u, w\}) = \alpha_i \wedge$

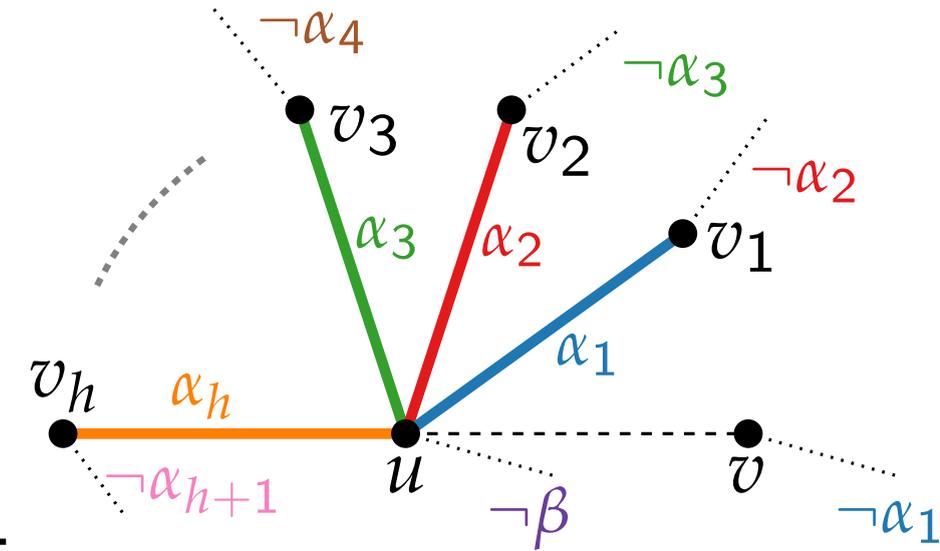
$w \notin \{v_1, \dots, v_{i-1}\}$ **do**

$v_i \leftarrow w$

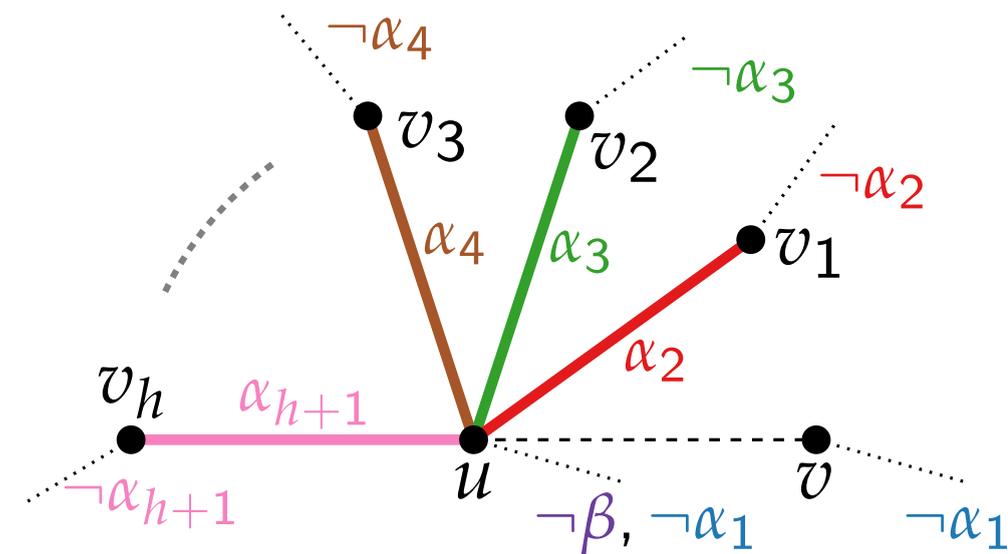
$\alpha_{i+1} \leftarrow$ min color missing at w

$i++$

return $v_1, \dots, v_i; \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{i+1}$



Case 1: u misses α_{h+1} .



Minimum edge coloring – recoloring

Lemma 2.

Let G have a $(\Delta + 1)$ edge coloring c , let u, v be non-adjacent, and $\deg(u), \deg(v) < \Delta$. Then c can be changed such that u and v miss the same color.

Proof. Note, each vertex is **missing** a color.

Let u miss β and v miss α_1 ; apply the following algorithm:

VIZINGRECOLORING($G = (V, E), u, c, \alpha_1$)

$i \leftarrow 1$

while $\exists w \in N(u): c(\{u, w\}) = \alpha_i \wedge$

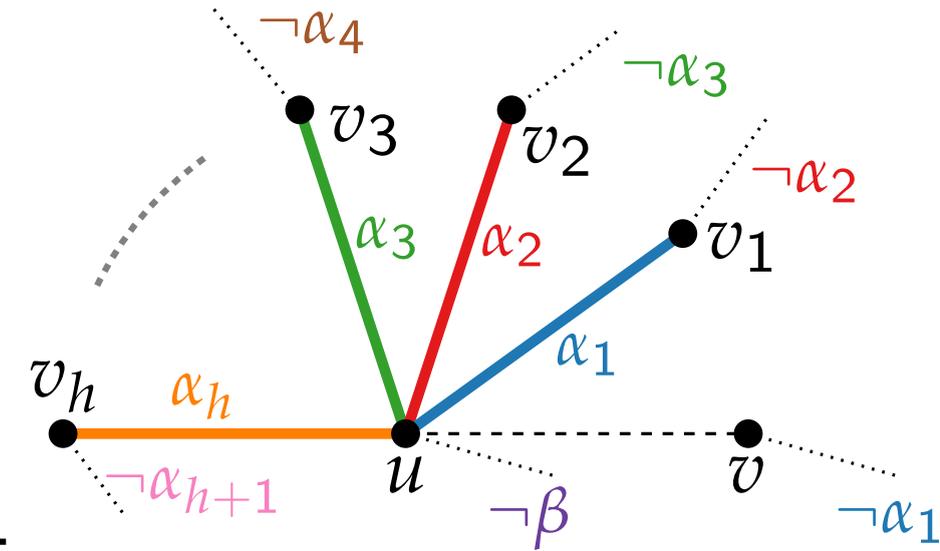
$w \notin \{v_1, \dots, v_{i-1}\}$ **do**

$v_i \leftarrow w$

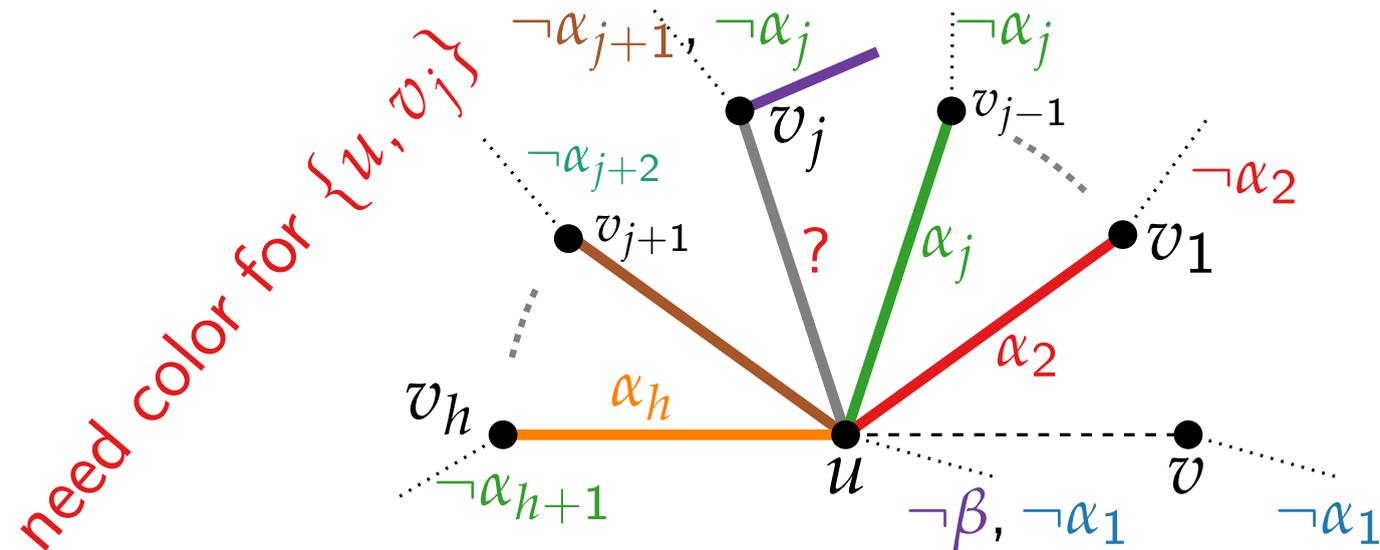
$\alpha_{i+1} \leftarrow$ min color missing at w

$i++$

return $v_1, \dots, v_i; \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{i+1}$



Case 2: $\alpha_{h+1} = \alpha_j, j < h$.

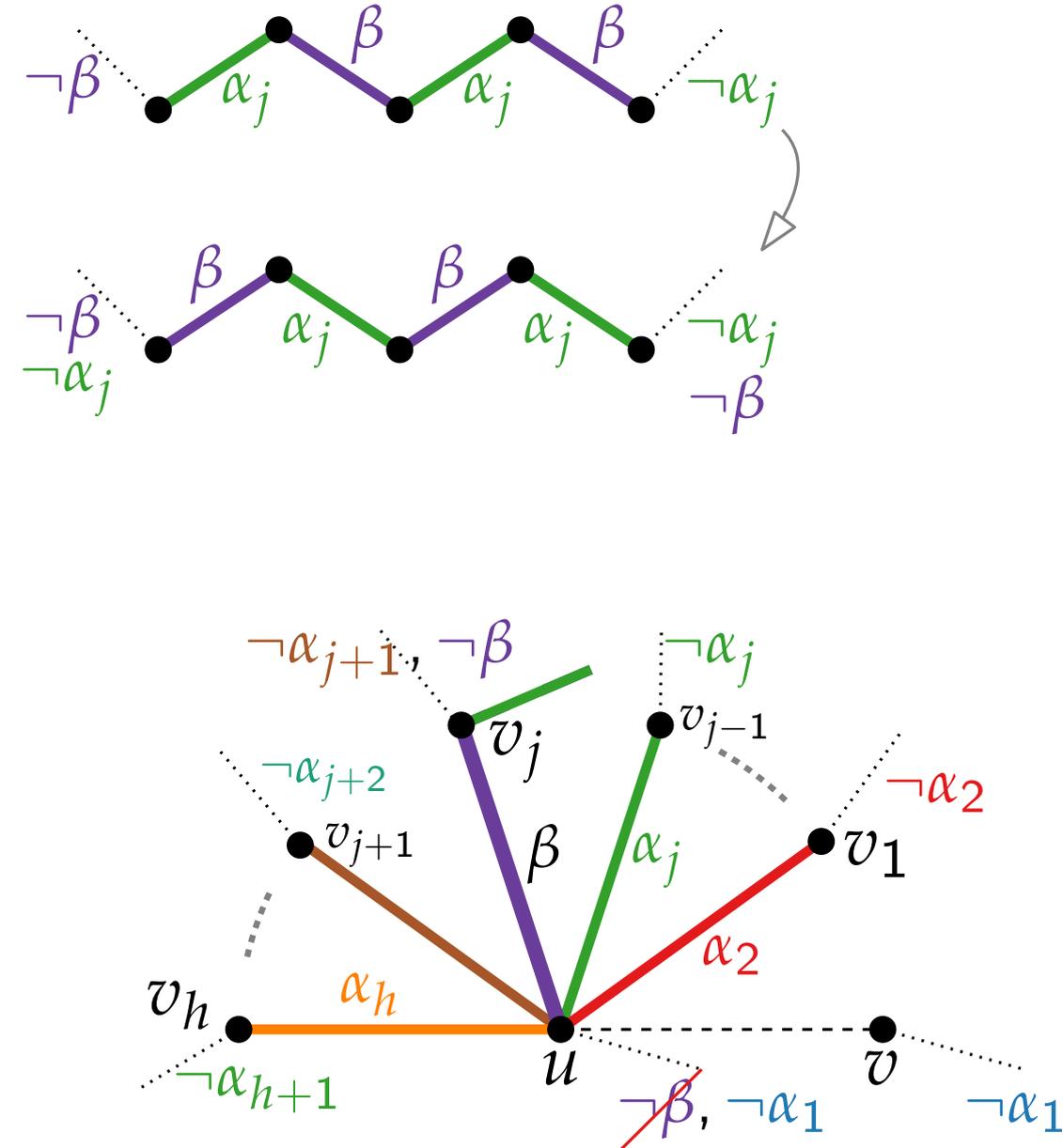


Minimum edge coloring – recoloring

Proof continued for

Case 2: $\alpha_{h+1} = \alpha_j$, $j < h$ and we need to find a color for $\{u, v_j\}$.

- Consider subgraph G' of G induced by edges with color β and α_j .
- Since $\Delta(G') \leq 2$, we can recolor components.
- u, v_j, v_h have degree 1 in G'
 \Rightarrow they are not all in same component
- If v_j and u are not in the same component:
 - Recolor component ending at v_j
 - v_j now misses β
 - Color $\{u, v_j\}$ in β
- What if v_j and u are in the same component?



Minimum edge coloring - algorithm

VIZINGEDGECOLORING($G = (V, E)$)

if $E = \emptyset$ **then**

└ **return** 0

else

┌ $\{u, v\} \leftarrow$ random edge of G

$G' \leftarrow G - e$

VIZINGEDGECOLORING(G')

if $\Delta(G') < \Delta(G)$ **then**

└ Color $\{u, v\}$ with lowest free color

else

┌ Recolor E with Lemma 2

└ Color $\{u, v\}$ with color now missing at u and v

Theorem 4.

VIZINGEDGECOLORING \mathcal{A} is an approximation algorithm with additive approximation guarantee $\mathcal{A}(G) - \text{OPT}(G) \leq 1$.

Approximation with relative factor

- An additive approximation guarantee can seldomly be achieved; but sometimes there is a multiplicative ...

Definition. **maximisation**

Let Π be an minimisation problem and $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}^+$.

A **(factor) α -approximation algorithm** for Π is a polynomial-time algorithm \mathcal{A} , which computes for every instance I of Π a value $\mathcal{A}(I)$ such that

$$\frac{\mathcal{A}(I)}{\text{OPT}(I)} \stackrel{\geq}{\leq} \alpha.$$

We call α the **approximation factor**.

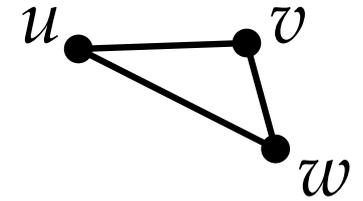
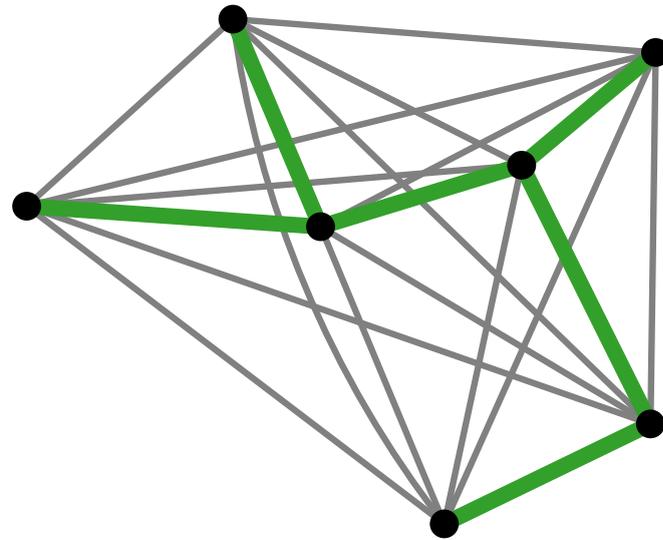
2-approximation for Metric TSP (from AGT)

Input. Complete graph $G = (V, E)$ and distance function $d : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, which satisfies the triangle inequality, i.e. $\forall u, v, w \in V : d(u, w) \leq d(u, v) + d(v, w)$.

Output. Shortest Hamilton cycle.

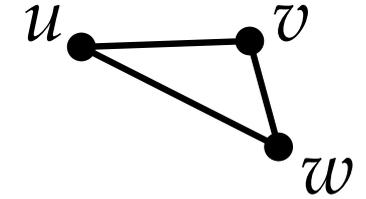
Algorithm.

- Compute MST.



2-approximation for Metric TSP (from AGT)

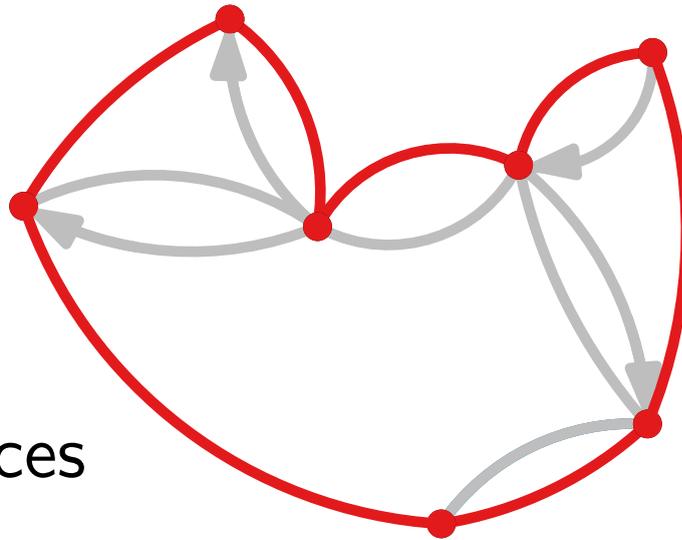
Input. Complete graph $G = (V, E)$ and distance function $d : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$, which satisfies the triangle inequality, i.e. $\forall u, v, w \in V : d(u, w) \leq d(u, v) + d(v, w)$.



Output. Shortest Hamilton cycle.

Algorithm.

- Compute MST.
- Double edges.
- Walk along tree,
- skipping visited vertices
- and adding shortcuts.



Theorem 5.

The MST edge doubling algorithm is a 2-approximation algorithm for metric TSP.

Proof.

$$d(\mathcal{A}) \leq d(\text{cycle}) = 2d(\text{MST}) \leq 2\text{OPT}$$

Nearest addition algorithm for Metric TSP

NEARESTADDITIONALGORITHM($G = (V, E), d$)

Find closest pair, say i and j

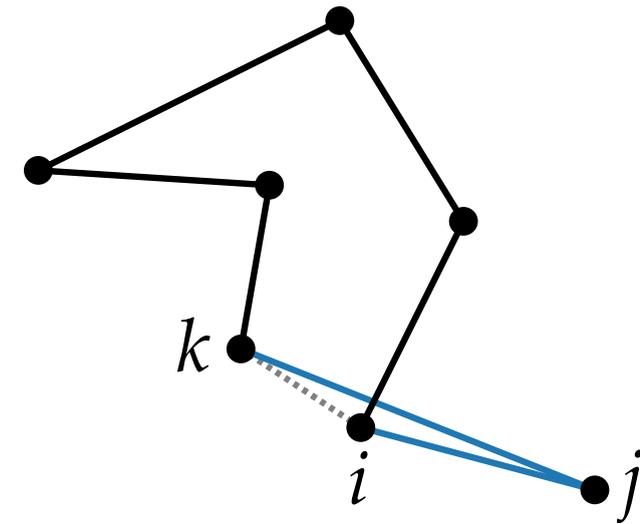
Set tour T to go from i to j to i

for $n - 2$ iterations **do**

 Find pair $i \in T$ and $j \notin T$ with $\min d(i, j)$

 Let k be vertex after i in T

 Add j between i and k



Theorem 6.

The NEARESTADDITIONALGORITHM is a 2-approximation algorithm for metric TSP.

Proof.

- Exercise.
- *Hints:* MST and Prim's algorithm.

Approximation schemes

- In some cases, we can get arbitrarily good approximations.

Definition. **maximisation**

Let Π be a minimisation problem. An algorithm \mathcal{A} is called an **polynomial-time approximation scheme (PTAS)**, if \mathcal{A} computes for every input (I, ε) consisting of an instance I of Π and $\varepsilon > 0$ a value $\mathcal{A}(I)$, such that:

- $\mathcal{A}(I) \geq (1 - \varepsilon) \cdot \text{OPT}$, and
- $\mathcal{A}(I) \leq (1 + \varepsilon) \cdot \text{OPT}$, and
- the runtime of \mathcal{A} is polynomiell in $|I|$ für every $\varepsilon > 0$.

\mathcal{A} is called a **fully polynomial-time approximation scheme (FPTAS)**, if it runs polynomial in $|I|$ and $1/\varepsilon$.

Examples.

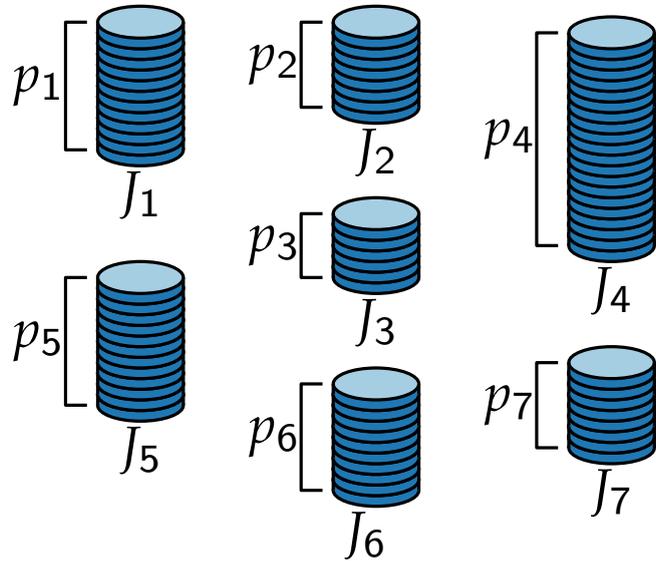
- $\mathcal{O}\left(n^2 + n^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}}\right) \Rightarrow$ PTAS but not FPTAS

- $\mathcal{O}\left(n^2 \cdot 3^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}}\right) \Rightarrow$ PTAS but not FPTAS

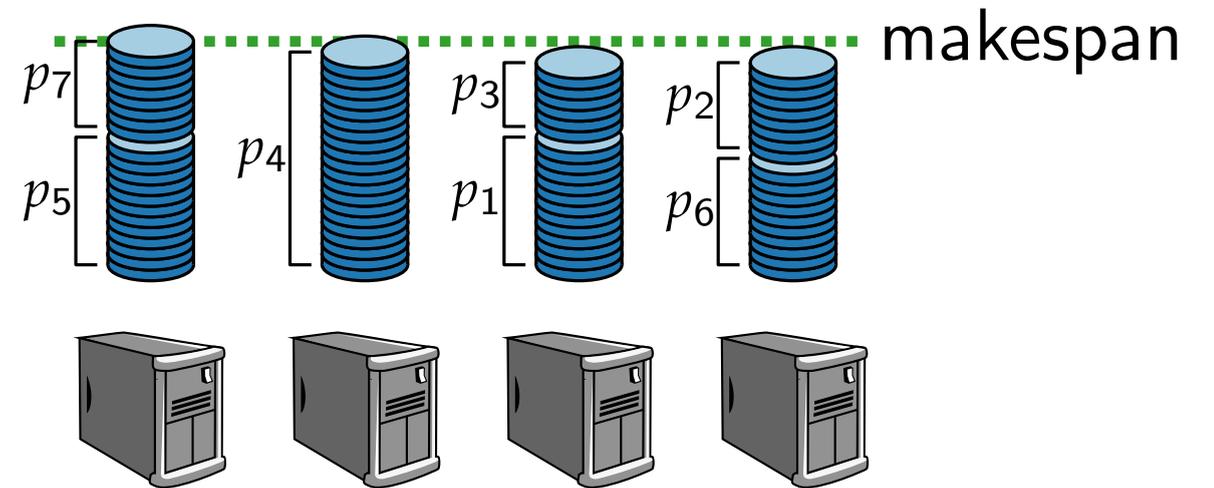
- $\mathcal{O}\left(n^4 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)^2\right) \Rightarrow$ FPTAS

Multiprocessor Scheduling

Input. ■ n jobs J_1, \dots, J_n with durations p_1, \dots, p_n .



■ m identical machines ($m < n$)



Output. Distribution of jobs to machines such that the time when all jobs have been processed is minimal.

This is called the **makespan** of the distribution.

■ Multiprocess scheduling is NP-hard.

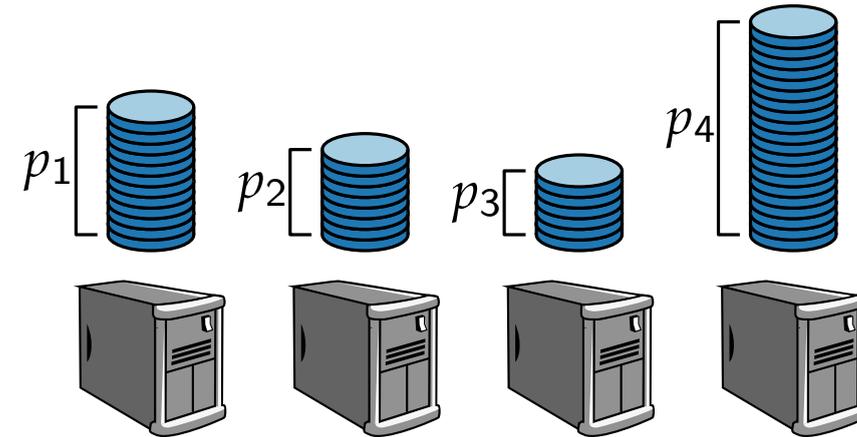
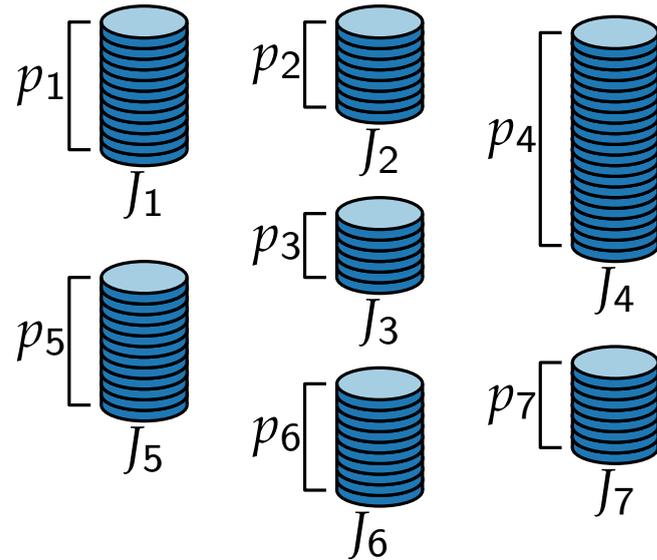
Multiprocessor Scheduling – List scheduling

LISTSCHEDULING(J_1, \dots, J_n, m)

Put the first m jobs on the m machines

Put next job on first free machine

Example.



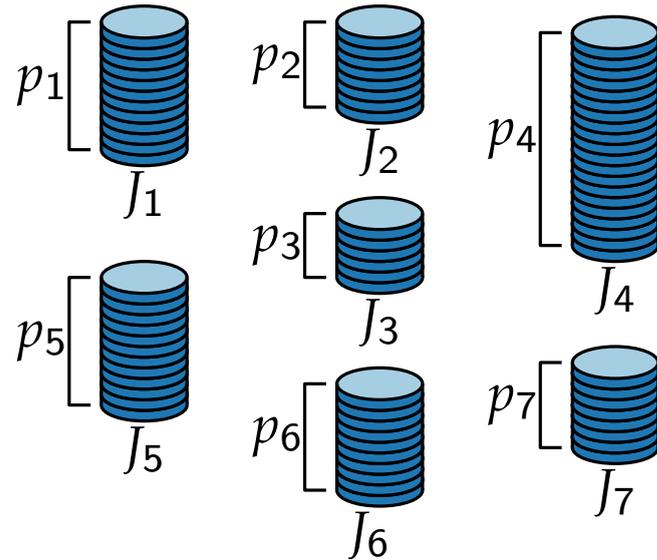
Multiprocessor Scheduling – List scheduling

LISTSCHEDULING(J_1, \dots, J_n, m)

Put the first m jobs on the m machines

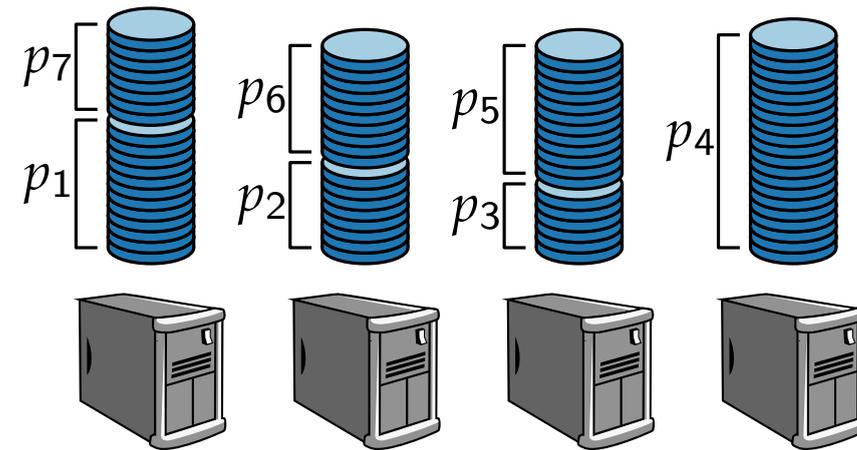
Put next job on first free machine

Example.



Theorem 7.

LISTSCHEDULING is a $\left(2 - \frac{1}{m}\right)$ -approximation algorithm.



- LISTSCHEDULING runs in $\mathcal{O}(n)$ time.

Multiprocessor Scheduling – List scheduling (proof)

LISTSCHEDULING(J_1, \dots, J_n, m)

Put the first m jobs on the m machines
Put next job on first free machine

Theorem 7.

LISTSCHEDULING is a $(2 - \frac{1}{m})$ -approximation algorithm.

Proof. Let J_k be the last job with start time S_k and finish time $T_k = \text{MAKESPAN}$

- No machine idles at time S_k .

$$S_k \leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i \neq k} p_i \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{weight of all jobs but } J_k \\ \text{evenly distributed on } m \text{ machines} \end{array}$$

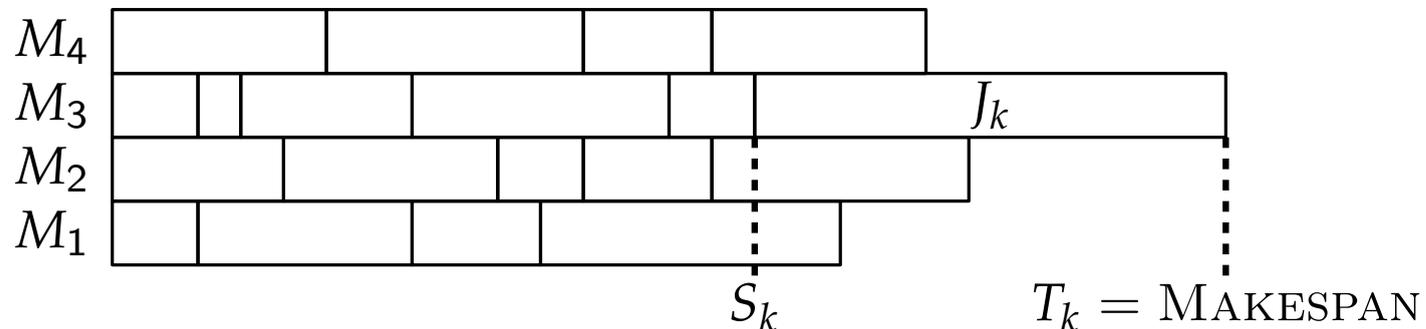
- For an optimal MAKESPAN T_{OPT} , we have:

- $T_{\text{OPT}} \geq p_k$

- $T_{\text{OPT}} \geq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^n p_i$ weight of all jobs evenly distributed

- Hence:

$$\begin{aligned} T_k &= S_k + p_k \\ &\leq \frac{1}{m} \cdot \sum_{i \neq k} p_i + p_k \\ &= \frac{1}{m} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n p_i + \left(1 - \frac{1}{m}\right) \cdot p_k \\ &\leq T_{\text{OPT}} + \left(1 - \frac{1}{m}\right) \cdot T_{\text{OPT}} \\ &= \left(2 - \frac{1}{m}\right) \cdot T_{\text{OPT}} \end{aligned}$$



Multiprocessor Scheduling – PTAS

For a constant ℓ ($1 \leq \ell \leq n$) define the algorithm \mathcal{A}_ℓ as follows.

$\mathcal{A}_\ell(J_1, \dots, J_n, m)$

Sort jobs in descending order of runtime

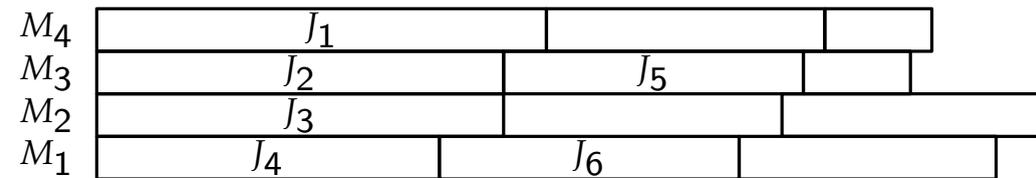
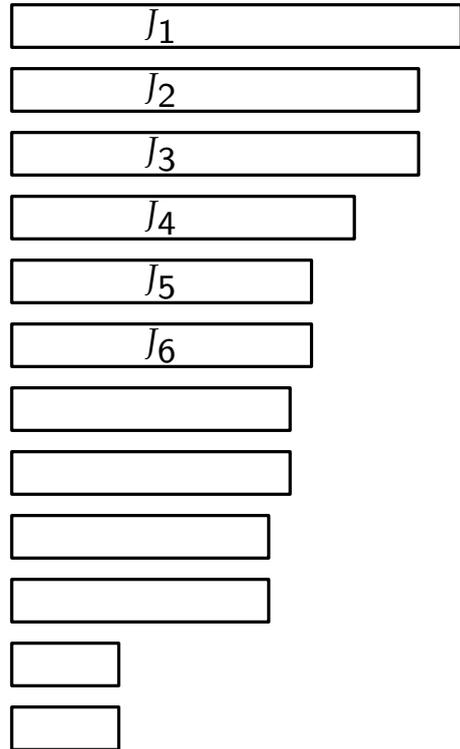
Schedule the ℓ longest jobs J_1, \dots, J_ℓ optimally

Use LISTSCHEDULING for the remaining jobs $J_{\ell+1}, \dots, J_n$

Example.

$\ell = 6$

sorted jobs



Multiprocessor Scheduling – PTAS

For a constant ℓ ($1 \leq \ell \leq n$) define the algorithm \mathcal{A}_ℓ as follows.

$\mathcal{A}_\ell(J_1, \dots, J_n, m)$

Sort jobs in descending order of runtime

$\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$

Schedule the ℓ longest jobs J_1, \dots, J_ℓ optimally

$\mathcal{O}(m^\ell)$

Use `LISTSCHEDULING` for the remaining jobs $J_{\ell+1}, \dots, J_n$

$\mathcal{O}(n)$

- Polynomial time for constant ℓ :
 $\mathcal{O}(m^\ell + n \log n)$

Theorem 8.

For constant $1 \leq \ell \leq n$, the algorithm \mathcal{A}_ℓ

is a $1 + \frac{1 - \frac{1}{m}}{1 + \lfloor \frac{\ell}{m} \rfloor}$ -approximation algorithm.

- For $\varepsilon > 0$, choose ℓ such that $\mathcal{A}_\varepsilon = \mathcal{A}_{\ell(\varepsilon)}$ is a $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm.
- $\{\mathcal{A}_\varepsilon \mid \varepsilon > 0\}$ isn't a FPTAS, since the running time is not polynomial in $\frac{1}{\varepsilon}$.

Corollary 9.

For a constant number of machines, $\{\mathcal{A}_\varepsilon \mid \varepsilon > 0\}$ is a PTAS.

Multiprocessor Scheduling – PTAS (proof)

Theorem 8.

For constant $1 \leq \ell \leq n$, the algorithm \mathcal{A}_ℓ is a $1 + \frac{1 - \frac{1}{m}}{1 + \lfloor \frac{\ell}{m} \rfloor}$ -approximation algorithm.

$\mathcal{A}_\ell(J_1, \dots, J_n, m)$

Sort jobs in descending order of runtime

Schedule the ℓ longest jobs J_1, \dots, J_ℓ optimally

Use LISTSCHEDULING for the remaining jobs $J_{\ell+1}, \dots, J_n$

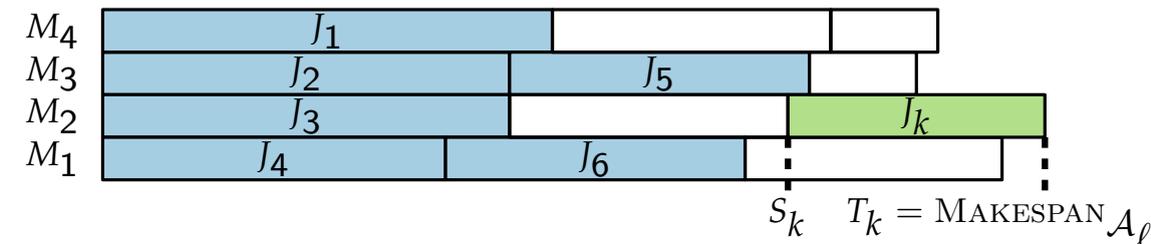
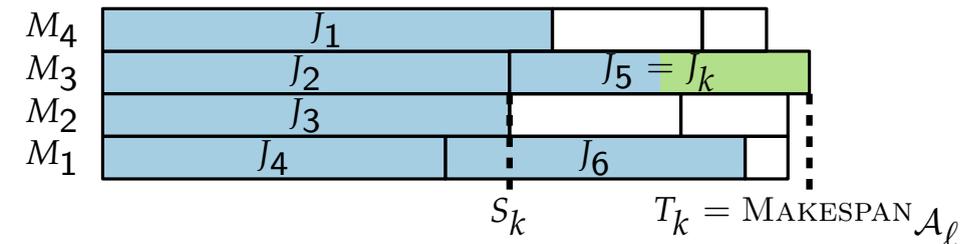
Proof. Let J_k be the last job with start time S_k and finish time $T_k = \text{MAKESPAN}$

Case 1. J_k is one of the longest ℓ jobs J_1, \dots, J_ℓ .

- Solution is optimal for J_1, \dots, J_k
- Hence, solution is optimal for J_1, \dots, J_n

Case 2. J_k is not one of the longest ℓ jobs J_1, \dots, J_ℓ .

- Similar analysis to LISTSCHEDULING
- Use that there are $\ell + 1$ jobs that are at least as long as J_k (including J_k).



Multiprocessor Scheduling – PTAS (proof)

Theorem 8.

For constant $1 \leq \ell \leq n$, the algorithm \mathcal{A}_ℓ is a $1 + \frac{1 - \frac{1}{m}}{1 + \lfloor \frac{\ell}{m} \rfloor}$ -approximation algorithm.

$\mathcal{A}_\ell(J_1, \dots, J_n, m)$

Sort jobs in descending order of runtime

Schedule the ℓ longest jobs J_1, \dots, J_ℓ optimally

Use LISTSCHEDULING for the remaining jobs $J_{\ell+1}, \dots, J_n$

Proof of Case 2.

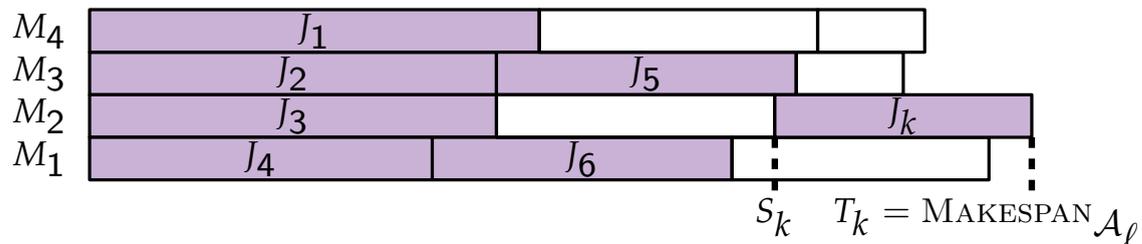
$$\blacksquare S_k \leq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i \neq k} p_i \quad \blacksquare T_{\text{OPT}} \geq \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^n p_i$$

■ Consider only J_1, \dots, J_ℓ, J_k :

■ $T_{\text{OPT}} \geq p_k \cdot \left(1 + \lfloor \frac{\ell}{m} \rfloor\right)$ one machine has this many jobs* each has length $\geq p_k$

■ * on average, each machine has more than $\frac{\ell}{m}$ of the $\ell + 1$ jobs

■ at least one machine achieves the average



$$T_k = S_k + p_k$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{m} \cdot \sum_{i \neq k} p_i + p_k$$

$$= \frac{1}{m} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^m p_i + \left(1 - \frac{1}{m}\right) \cdot p_k$$

$$\leq T_{\text{OPT}} + \frac{1 - \frac{1}{m}}{1 + \lfloor \frac{\ell}{m} \rfloor} \cdot T_{\text{OPT}}$$

Discussion

- Only “easy” NP-hard problems admit FPTAS (PTAS).
- Not all problems can be approximated (Max Clique).
- Study of approximability of NP-hard problems yields a more fine-grained classification of the difficulty.
- Approximation algorithms exist also for non-NP-hard problems
- Approximation algorithms can be of various types: greedy, local search, geometric, DP, ...
- One important technique is LP-relaxation (next lecture).
- Min Vertex Coloring on planar graphs can be approximated with an additive approximation guarantee of 2.
- Christofides’ approximation algorithm for Metric TSP has approximation factor 1.5.

Literature

Main references

- [Jansen, Margraf Ch3] “Approximative Algorithmen und Nichtapproximierbarkeit”
- [Williamson, Shmoys Ch3] “The Design of Approximation Algorithms”

Another book recommendation:

- [Vazirani] “Approximation Algorithms”

and don't forget our lecture

- **Approximation Algorithms.**

For more precise definitions see

- <https://go.uniwue.de/approxdef>

