

# CSC373

# Review

# BUT FIRST...

## Course Evaluation

Low response rate

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# Should I expect drumrolls?

## Course Evaluation

### New response rate

# Topics

- Divide and conquer
- Greedy algorithms
- Dynamic programming
- Network flow
- Linear programming
- Complexity
- Approximation algorithms & local search
- Randomized algorithms

# Greedy Algorithms

- Greedy algorithm outline

- We want to find the optimal solution maximizing some objective  $f$  over a large space of feasible solutions
- Solution  $x$  is composed of several parts (e.g. a set)
- Instead of directly computing  $x$ ...
  - Consider one element at a time in some greedy ordering
  - Make a decision about that element before moving on to future elements (and without knowing what will happen for the future elements)

# Greedy Algorithms

- Proof of optimality outline

- Strategy 1:

- $G_i$  = greedy solution after  $i$  steps
- Show that  $\forall i$ , there is some optimal solution  $OPT_i$  s.t.  $G_i \subseteq OPT_i$ 
  - “Greedy solution is promising”
- By induction
- Then the final solution returned by greedy must be optimal

- Strategy 2:

- Same as strategy 1, but more direct
- Consider  $OPT$  that matches greedy solution for as many steps as possible
- If it doesn't match in all steps, find another  $OPT$  which matches for one more step (contradiction)

# Dynamic Programming

- Key steps in designing a DP algorithm
  - “Generalize” the problem first
    - E.g. instead of computing edit distance between strings  $X = x_1, \dots, x_m$  and  $Y = y_1, \dots, y_n$ , we compute  $E[i, j]$  = edit distance between  $i$ -prefix of  $X$  and  $j$ -prefix of  $Y$  for all  $(i, j)$
    - The right generalization is often obtained by looking at the structure of the “subproblem” which must be solved optimally to get an optimal solution to the overall problem
  - Remember the difference between DP and divide-and-conquer
  - Sometimes you can save quite a bit of space by only storing solutions to those subproblems that you need in the future



# Dynamic Programming

- Dynamic programming applies well to problems that have **optimal substructure property**
  - Optimal solution to a problem contains (or can be computed easily given) optimal solution to subproblems.
- **Recall: divide-and-conquer also uses this property**
  - You can think of divide-and-conquer as a special case of dynamic programming, where the two (or more) subproblems you need to solve don't "overlap"
  - So there's no need for memoization
  - In dynamic programming, one of the subproblems may in turn require solution to the other subproblem...

# Dynamic Programming

- **Top-Down may be preferred...**
  - ...when not all sub-solutions need to be computed on some inputs
  - ...because one does not need to think of the “right order” in which to compute sub-solutions
- **Bottom-Up may be preferred...**
  - ...when all sub-solutions will anyway need to be computed
  - ...because it is sometimes faster as it prevents recursive call overheads and unnecessary random memory accesses

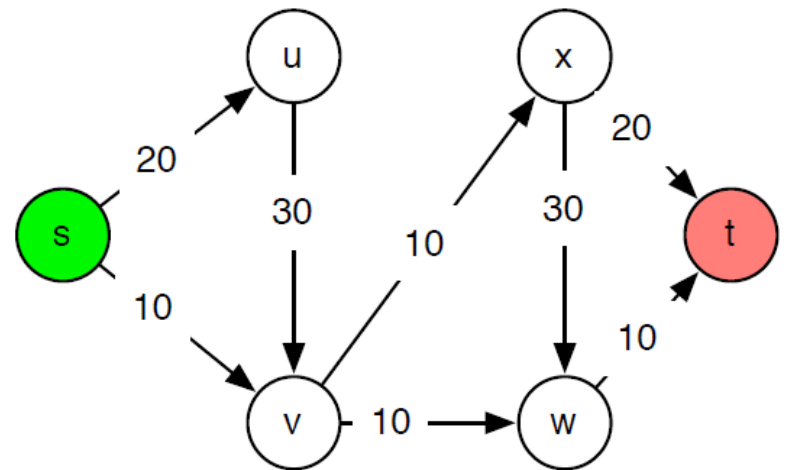
# Network Flow

- **Input**

- A directed graph  $G = (V, E)$
- Edge capacities  $c : E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$
- Source node  $s$ , target node  $t$

- **Output**

- Maximum “flow” from  $s$  to  $t$



# Ford-Fulkerson Algorithm

MaxFlow( $G$ ):

*// initialize:*

Set  $f(e) = 0$  for all  $e$  in  $G$

*// while there is an s-t path in  $G_f$ :*

While  $P = \text{FindPath}(s, t, \text{Residual}(G, f)) \neq \text{None}$ :

$f = \text{Augment}(f, P)$

    UpdateResidual( $G, f$ )

EndWhile

Return  $f$

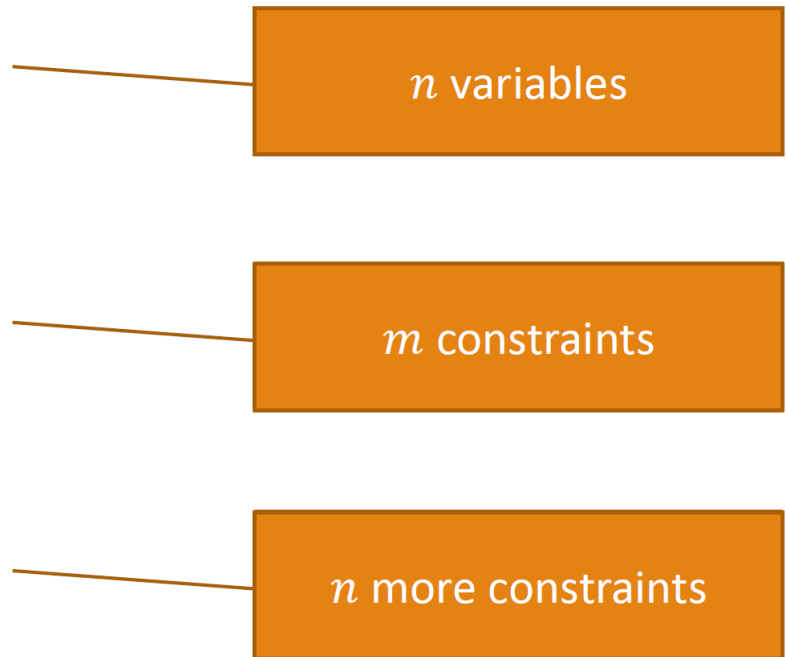
# Max Flow - Min Cut

- **Theorem:** In any graph, the value of the maximum flow is equal to the capacity of the minimum cut.
- **Ford-Fulkerson can be used to find the min cut**
  - Find the max flow  $f^*$
  - Let  $A^*$  = set of all nodes reachable from  $s$  in residual graph  $G_{f^*}$ 
    - Easy to compute using BFS
  - Then  $(A^*, V \setminus A^*)$  is min cut

# LP, Standard Formulation

- **Input:**  $c, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}^n, b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ 
  - There are  $n$  variables and  $m$  constraints
- **Goal:**

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Maximize } c^T x \\ & \text{Subject to } a_1^T x \leq b_1 \\ & \quad \quad \quad a_2^T x \leq b_2 \\ & \quad \quad \quad \vdots \\ & \quad \quad \quad a_m^T x \leq b_m \\ & \quad \quad \quad x \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$



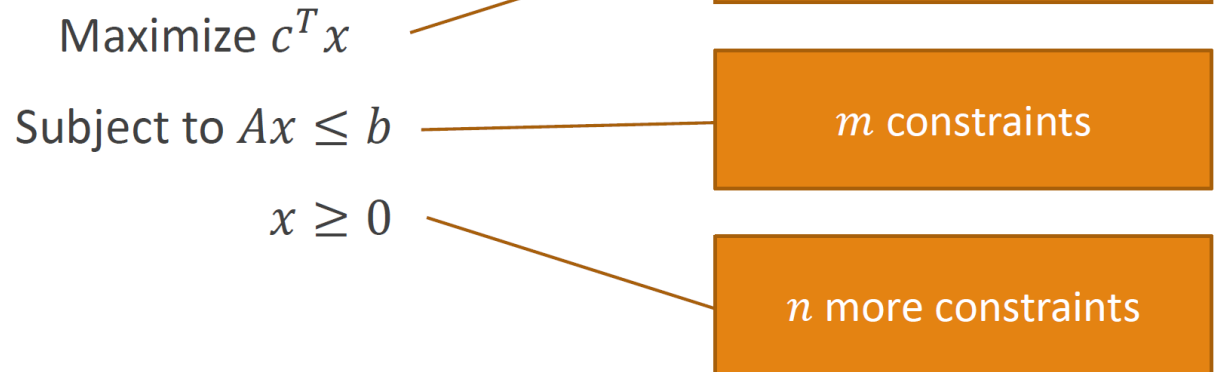
$n$  variables

$m$  constraints

$n$  more constraints

# LP, Standard Matrix Form

- **Input:**  $c, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m \in \mathbb{R}^n, b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ 
  - There are  $n$  variables and  $m$  constraints
- **Goal:**



# Convert to Standard Form

- What if the LP is not in standard form?
  - Constraints that use  $\geq$ 
    - $a^T x \geq b \Leftrightarrow -a^T x \leq -b$
  - Constraints that use equality
    - $a^T x = b \Leftrightarrow a^T x \leq b, a^T x \geq b$
  - Objective function is a minimization
    - Minimize  $c^T x \Leftrightarrow$  Maximize  $-c^T x$
  - Variable is unconstrained
    - $x$  with no constraint  $\Leftrightarrow$  Replace  $x$  by two variables  $x'$  and  $x''$ , replace every occurrence of  $x$  with  $x' - x''$ , and add constraints  $x' \geq 0, x'' \geq 0$



# Duality

## Primal LP

$$\max \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{x} \geq 0$$

## Dual LP

$$\min \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{A} \geq \mathbf{c}^T$$

$$\mathbf{y} \geq 0$$

- **Weak duality theorem:**

- For any primal feasible  $x$  and dual feasible  $y$ ,  $c^T x \leq y^T b$

- **Strong duality theorem:**

- For any primal optimal  $x^*$  and dual optimal  $y^*$ ,  $c^T x^* = (y^*)^T b$

# P

- P (polynomial time)
  - The class of all decision problems computable by a TM in polynomial time

# NP

- NP (nondeterministic polynomial time)
  - The class of all decision problems for which a YES answer can be verified by a TM in polynomial time given polynomial length “advice” or “witness”.
  - There is a polynomial-time verifier TM  $V$  and another polynomial  $p$  such that
    - For all YES inputs  $x$ , there exists  $y$  with  $|y| = p(|x|)$  on which  $V(x, y)$  returns YES
    - For all NO inputs  $x$ ,  $V(x, y)$  returns NO for every  $y$
  - Informally: “Whenever the answer is YES, there’s a short proof of it.”

# co-NP

- co-NP

- Same as NP, except whenever the answer is NO, we want there to be a short proof of it

# Reductions

- Problem  $A$  is **p-reducible** to problem  $B$  if an “oracle” (subrouting) for  $B$  can be used to efficiently solve  $A$ 
  - You can solve  $A$  by making polynomially many calls to the oracle and doing additional polynomial computation

# NP-completeness

- NP-completeness

- A problem  $B$  is NP-complete if it is in NP and every problem  $A$  in NP is p-reducible to  $B$
- Hardest problems in NP
- If one of them can be solved efficiently, every problem in NP can be solved efficiently, implying  $P=NP$

- Observation:

- If  $A$  is in NP, and some NP-complete problem  $B$  is p-reducible to  $A$ , then  $A$  is NP-complete too
  - “If I could solve  $A$ , then I could solve  $B$ , then I could solve any problem in NP”

# Review of Reductions

- If you want to show that problem B is NP-complete
- **Step 1: Show that B is in NP**
  - Some polynomial-size advice should be sufficient to verify a YES instance in polynomial time
  - No advice should work for a NO instance
  - Usually, the solution of the “search version” of the problem works
    - But sometimes, the advice can be non-trivial
    - For example, to **check LP optimality**, one possible advice is the **values of both primal and dual variables**, as we saw in the last lecture

# Review of Reductions

- If you want to show that problem B is NP-complete
- **Step 2: Find a known NP-complete problem A and reduce it to B (i.e. show  $A \leq_p B$ )**
  - This means taking an arbitrary instance of A, and solving it in polynomial time using an oracle for B
    - Caution 1: Remember the direction. You are “reducing known NP-complete problem to your current problem”.
    - Caution 2: The size of the B-instance you construct should be polynomial in the size of the original A-instance
  - This would show that if B can be solved in polynomial time, then A can be as well
  - Some reductions are trivial, some are notoriously tricky...



# Approximation Algorithms

- We focus on **optimization problems**
  - Decision problem: “Is there...where... $\geq k$ ?”
    - E.g. “Is there an assignment which satisfies at least  $k$  clauses of a given formula  $\varphi$ ?”
  - Optimization problem: “Find...which maximizes...”
    - E.g. “Find an assignment which satisfies the maximum possible number of clauses from a given formula  $\varphi$ .”
  - Recall that if the decision problem is hard, then the optimization problem is hard too

# Approximation Algorithms

- There is a function *Profit* we want to maximize or a function *Cost* we want to minimize
- Given input instance  $I$ ...
  - Our algorithm returns a solution  $ALG(I)$
  - An optimal solution maximizing *Profit* or minimizing *Cost* is  $OPT(I)$
  - Then, the approximation ratio of  $ALG$  on instance  $I$  is

$$\frac{Profit(OPT(I))}{Profit(ALG(I))} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{Cost(ALG(I))}{Cost(OPT(I))}$$

# Approximation Algorithms

- Approximation ratio of  $ALG$  on instance  $I$  is

$$\frac{Profit(OPT(I))}{Profit(ALG(I))} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{Cost(ALG(I))}{Cost(OPT(I))}$$

➤ Note: These are defined to be  $\geq 1$  in each case.

- 2-approximation = half the optimal profit / twice the optimal cost

- $ALG$  has worst-case  $c$ -approximation if for each instance  $I$ ...

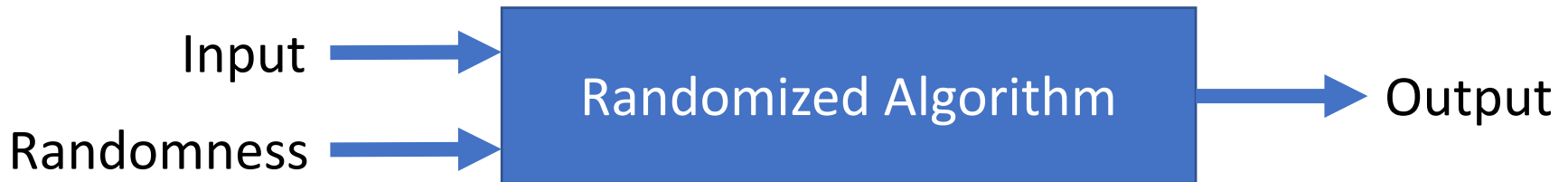
$$Profit(ALG(I)) \geq \frac{1}{c} \cdot Profit(OPT(I)) \quad \text{or}$$

$$Cost(ALG(I)) \leq c \cdot Cost(OPT(I))$$

# Techniques

- Greedy algorithms
- Local search
- LP relaxation  $\Rightarrow$  rounding

# Randomized Algorithms



# Randomized Algorithms

- Running time

- Sometimes, we want the algorithm to *always* take a small amount of time
  - Regardless of both the input and the random coin flips
- Sometimes, we want the algorithm to take a small amount of time *in expectation*
  - Expectation over random coin flips
  - Still regardless of the input

# Randomized Algorithms

- Efficiency

- We want the algorithm to return a solution that is, *in expectation*, close to the optimum according to the objective under consideration
  - Once again, the expectation is over random coin flips
  - We want this to hold for every input

# Derandomization

- For some problems, it is easy to come up with a very simple randomized approximation algorithm
- Later, one can ask whether this algorithm can be “derandomized”
  - Informally, the randomized algorithm is making some random choices, and sometimes they turn out to be good
  - Can we make these “good” choices deterministically?