1 Approximation Algorithms: Vertex Cover

1.1 Introduction to Approximation Algorithms

There are several optimization problems such as Minimum Spanning Tree (MST), Min-Cut, Maximum-Matching, in which you can solve this exactly and efficiently in polynomial time. But many practical significant optimization problems are NP-Hard, in which we are unlikely to find an algorithm that solve the problem exactly in polynomial time. Examples of the standard NP-Hard problems with some of their brief description are as following:

- Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP) finding a minimum cost tour of all cities
- Vertex Cover find minimum set of vertex that covers all the edges in the graph (we will describe this in more detail)
- Max Clique
- Set Cover find a smallest size cover set that covers every vertex
- Shortest Superstring given a set of string, find a smallest subset of strings that contain specified words

These are NP-Hard problems, i.e., If we could solve any of these problems in polynomial time, then P = NP. An example of problem that is not known to be either NP-Hard: Given 2 graphs of n vertices, are they the same up to permutation of vertices? This is called Graph Isomorphism. As of now, there is no known polynomial exact algorithm for NP-Hard problems. However, it may be possible to find a near-optimal solutions in polynomial time. An algorithm that runs in polynomial time and outputs a solution close to the optimal solution is called an approximation algorithm. We will explore polynomial-time approximation algorithms for several NP-Hard problem.

Definition: Let P be a minimization problem, and I be an instance of P. Let A be an algorithm that finds feasible solution to instances of P. Let A(I) is the cost of the solution returned by A for instance I, and OPT(I) is the cost of the optimal solution (minimum) for I. Then, A is said to be an α -approximation algorithm for P if

$$\forall I, \quad \frac{A(I)}{OPT(I)} \leq \alpha \tag{1}$$

where $\alpha \geq 1$. Notice that since this is a minimum optimization problem $A(I) \geq OPT(I)$. Therefore, 1-approximation algorithm produces an optimal solution, an an approximation algorithm with a large α may return a solution that is much worse than optimal. So the smaller α is, the better quality of the approximation the algorithm produces.

For instance size n, the most common approximation classes are:

- $\alpha = O(n^c)$ for c < 1, e.g. Clique. $\alpha = O(\log n)$, e.g. Set Cover.
- $\alpha = O(1)$, e.g. Vertex Cover.

- $\alpha = 1 + \varepsilon, \forall \varepsilon > 0$, this is called *Polynomial-time Approximation Scheme (PTAS)*, e.g. certain scheduling problems.
- $\alpha = 1 + \varepsilon$ in time that is polynomial in $(n, \frac{1}{\varepsilon})$, this is called *Fully Polynomial-time approximation* Scheme (FPTAS), e.g. Knapsack, Subset Sum.

Now, let us consider an approximation algorithm for NP-Hard problem, Vertex Cover.

1.2 Approximation Algorithm for Vertex Cover

Given a G = (V, E), find a minimum subset $C \subseteq V$, such that C "covers" all edges in E, i.e., every edge $\in E$ is incident to at least one vertex in C.

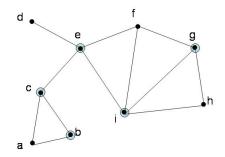


Figure 1: An instance of Vertex Cover problem. An optimal vertex cover is {b, c, e, i, g}.

Algorithm	1:	Approx-Vertex-Cover (G)
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1 $C \leftarrow \emptyset$ 2 while $E \neq \emptyset$

> pick any $\{u, v\} \in E$ $C \leftarrow C \cup \{u, v\}$ delete all eges incident to either u or v

return C

As it turns out, this is the best approximation algorithm known for vertex cover. It is an open problem to either do better or prove that this is a lower bound.

OBSERVATION: The set of edges picked by this algorithm is a matching, no 2 edges touch each other (edges disjoint). In fact, it is a *maximal matching*. We can then have the following alternative description of the algorithm as follows.

Find a maximal matching M

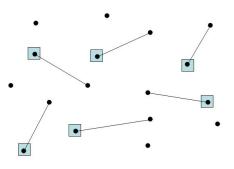
Return the set of end-points of all edges $\in M$.

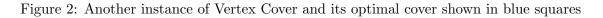
1.3 Analysis of Approximation Algorithm for VC

Claim 1: This algorithm gives a vertex cover

Proof: Every edge $\in M$ is clearly covered. If an edge, $e \notin M$ is not covered, then $M \cup \{e\}$ is a matching, which contradict to maximality of M.

Claim 2: This vertex cover has size $\leq 2 \times \text{minimum size (optimal solution)}$ Proof:





The optimum vertex cover must cover every edge in M. So, it must include at least one of the endpoints of each edge $\in M$, where no 2 edges in M share an endpoint. Hence, optimum vertex cover must have size

 $OPT(I) \ge |M|$

But the algorithm A return a vertex cover of size 2|M|, so $\forall I$ we have

$$A(I) = 2|M| \le 2 \times OPT(I)$$

implying that A is a 2-approximation algorithm. \blacksquare

We know that the optimal solution is intractable (otherwise we can probably come up with an algorithm to find it). Thus, we cannot make a direct comparison between algorithm A's solution and the optimal solution. But we can prove Claim 2 by making indirect comparisons of A's solution and the optimal solution with the size of the maximal matching, |M|. We often use this technique for approximation proofs for NP-Hard problems, as you will see later on.

But is $\alpha = 2$ a tight bound for this algorithm? Is it possible that this algorithm can do better than 2-approximation? We can show that 2-approximation is a tight bound by a tight example:

TIGHT EXAMPLE: Consider a complete bipartite graph of n black nodes on one side and n red nodes on the other side, denoted $K_{n.n}$.

Notice that size of any maximal matching of this graph equals n,

|M| = n

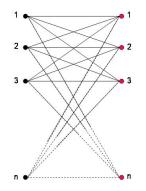


Figure 3: $K_{n,n}$ - complete bipartite graph

so the APPROX-VERTEX-COVER(G) algorithm returns a cover of size 2n.

$$A(K_{n,n}) = 2n$$

But, clearly the optimal solution = n.

$$OPT(K_{n,n}) = n$$

Note that a tight example needs to have arbitrarily large size in order to prove tightness of analysis, otherwise we can just use brute force for small graphs and A for large ones to get an algorithm that avoid that tight bound. Here, it shows that this algorithm gives 2-approximation no matter what size n is.

2 Approximation Algorithms: Traveling Salesman Problem

2.1 Last time: α -approximation algorithms

Definition: For a minimization (or maximization) problem P, A is an α -approximation algorithm if for every instance I of P, $\frac{A(I)}{\text{OPT}(I)} \leq \alpha$ (or $\frac{\text{OPT}(I)}{A(I)} \leq \alpha$).

Last time we saw a 2-approximation for Vertex Cover [CLRS 35.1]. Today we will see a 2-approximation for the Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP) [CLRS 35.2].

2.2 Definition

A salesman wants to visit each of n cities exactly once each, minimizing total distance travelled, and returning to the starting point.

Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP).

Input: a complete, undirected graph G = (V, E), with edge weights (costs) $w : E \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$, and where |V| = n.

Output: a tour (cycle that visits all n vertices exactly once each, and returning to starting vertex) of minimum cost.

2.3 Inapproximability Result for General TSP

Theorem: For any constant k, it is NP-hard to approximate TSP to a factor of k.

Proof: Recall that Hamiltonian Cycle (HC) is NP-complete (Sipser). The definition of HC is as follows.

Input: an undirected (not necessarily complete) graph G = (V, E).

Output: YES if G has a Hamiltonian cycle (or tour, as defined above), NO otherwise. Suppose A is a k-approximation algorithm for TSP. We will use A to solve HC in polynomial time, thus implying P = NP.

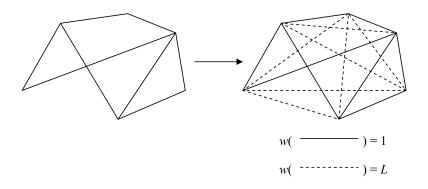


Figure 4: Example of construction of G' from G for HC-to-TSP-approximation reduction.

Given the input G = (V, E) to HC, we modify it to construct the graph G' = (V', E') and weight function w as input to A as follows (Figure 4). Let all edges of G have weight 1. Complete the resulting graph, letting all new edges have weight L for some large constant L. The algorithm for HC is then:

Algorithm 2 : $\operatorname{HC-Reduction}(G)$
1 Construct G' as described above.
2 if $A(G')$ returns a 'small' cost tour $(\leq kn)$ then
3 return YES
4 if $A(G')$ returns a 'large' cost tour $(\geq L)$ then
5 return NO

It then remains to choose our constant $L \ge kn$, to ensure that the 2 cases are clearly differentiated.

2.4 Approximation Algorithm for Metric TSP

Definition. A *metric space* is a pair (S, d), where S is a set and $d : S^2 \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ is a distance function that satisfies, for all $u, v, w \in S$, the following conditions.

- 1. d(u, v) = 0
- 2. d(u, v) = d(v, u)

3. $d(u, v) + d(v, w) \ge d(u, w)$ (triangle inequality)

For a complete graph G = (V, E) with cost $c : E \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$, we say "the costs form a metric space" if (V, \hat{c}) is a metric space, where $\hat{c}(u, v) := c(\{u, v\})$.

Given this restriction (in particular, the addition of the triangle inequality condition), we have the following simple approximation algorithm for TSP.

Algorithm 3: MetricTSPApprox(G)

1 Compute a weighted MST of G.

2 Root MST arbitrarily and traverse in pre-order: v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n .

3 Output tour: $v_1 \rightarrow v_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow v_n \rightarrow v_1$.

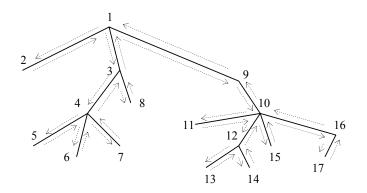


Figure 5: Example MST, where the output tour would be $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow 17 \rightarrow 1$.

2.5 Analysis of Approximation Algorithm for Metric TSP

On an instance I of TSP, let us compare A(I) to OPT(I), via the intermediate value MST(I) (the weight of the MST).

Claim: Comparing A(I) to MST(I): $A(I) \le 2 \times MST(I)$.

Proof: Let σ be a *full walk* along the MST in pre-order (that is, we revisit vertices as we backtrack through them). In Figure 5, σ would be the path along all the arrows, wrapping around the entire MST, namely, $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow 1$. It is clear that $cost(\sigma) = 2 \times MST(I)$. Now, the tout output by A is a subsequence of the full walk σ , so by the triangle inequality:

$$A(I) \le \operatorname{cost}(\sigma) = 2 \times \operatorname{MST}(I)$$

proving our claim. \blacksquare

Claim: Comparing OPT(I) to MST(I): $OPT(I) \ge MST(I)$. **Proof:** Let σ^* be an optimum tour, that is, $cost(\sigma^*) = OPT(I)$. Deleting an edge from σ^* results in a spanning tree T, whose cost by definition is $cost(T) \ge MST(I)$. Hence,

 $OPT(I) = cost(\sigma^*) \ge cost(T) \ge MST(I)$

as required. \blacksquare

Combining these 2 claims, we get:

 $A(I) \le 2 \times MST(I) \le 2 \times OPT(I)$

Hence, A is a 2-approximation algorithm for (Metric) TSP.

2.6 Concluding Remarks

It is possible (and relatively easy) to improve the approximation factor to 3/2 for Metric TSP. Note that in the original wording of the problem, with the salesman touring cities, the cost (distance) function is in fact even more structured than just a metric. Here, we have Euclidean distance, and as it turns out, this further restriction allows us to get a PTAS, although this is a more difficult algorithm.