**Overview of the previous lecture:-** A *language* is a decision problem. DNF is the language of satisfiable formulas in Disjunctive Normal Form. Thus formulas  $\phi(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  in DNF are of the form

$$\phi(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \bigvee_{i=1}^k \left( \bigwedge_{j=1}^{r_i} l_{ij} \right)$$

where every  $l_{ij}$  is one of  $x_1, \ldots, x_n, \bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n$ , where the  $x_i$ s are Boolean variables. Note that the computational complexity of satisfiability for DNF is trivial. This is because unless all the individual conjunctive clauses are individually non-satisfiable (which occurs for clause  $C_i$  if it contains both  $x_j$  and  $\bar{x}_j$  for some j), one can select values for the  $x_i$ 's such that at least one clause evaluates to 1. However, the problem of determining the existence of  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$  such that  $\phi(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0$  is difficult.

This is the complement of the Conjunctive Normal Form (CNF), where the satisfiability problem is difficult, but determining the existence of  $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$  such that  $\phi(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = 0$  is trivial. DNF and CNF can be related to each other by DeMorgan's identities.

The function  $\#DNF : \phi \to \mathbb{N}$  is defined for formulas  $\phi$  in DNF to be the number of inputs  $x = \{x_i\}_{i=1}^n$  satisfying  $\phi$ .

 $#DNF \in #P$ , where #P is the set of functions  $\{0, 1\}^n \to \mathbb{N}$  which which give the number of satisfying leaves in the tree of a nondeterministic poly-time Turing machine. #DNF can be shown to be #P-complete with respect to deterministic poly-time reductions.

## Additive vs. Multiplicative Approximation

Let  $\theta$  be the fraction of assignments satisfying  $\phi$ . Therefore  $\theta = |\{x : \phi(x) = 1\}|/2^n = \#DNF(\phi)/2^n$ .

An *additive approximation* T satisfies  $|T - \theta| < \epsilon$ .

A multiplicative approximation T satisfies  $\theta(1 - \epsilon) < T < \theta(1 + \epsilon)$ .

Note that a multiplicative approximation implies an additive approximation, but not vice versa.

Eg:- Let  $\phi(x) = (x_1 \wedge \ldots \wedge x_{n/3}) \vee (x_{n/3+1} \wedge \ldots \wedge x_{2n/3}) \vee (x_{2n/3+1} \wedge \ldots \wedge x_n)$ . Then  $\theta \approx 2^{-n/3}$ . An additive approximation of no more than 1/poly(n) is useless as a multiplicative approximation.

## Approximation algorithm (Karp, Luby and Madras)

(This will later be useful for network reliability problems, in particular the probability that a network remains connected when links undergo failure with some probability).

Let  $\phi = C_1 \vee C_2 \vee \ldots \vee C_k$ , where the  $C_i$ 's are the clauses. For an assignment  $\tau$  of x, let  $\mu(\tau)$  be the number of clauses that  $\tau$  satisfies. Let  $r_i$  be the number of literals in clause  $C_i$ . Define  $q = \sum_i 2^{-r_i}$ . If k is the number of clauses, then  $\theta \leq q \leq k\theta$ .

## Algorithm:-

- 1. Choose a clause  $C_i$  with probability  $2^{-r_i}/q$ .
- 2. Uniformly and randomly, choose  $\tau$  satisfying  $C_i$ .
- 3. Let *T* , our estimator of  $\theta$ , be  $T = q/\mu(\tau)$

<u>Claim:-</u> *T* is an unbiased estimator of  $\theta$ . (That is,  $E(T) = \theta$ .) <u>Proof:-</u> Examine the following set of equalities.

$$E\left(\frac{q}{\mu(\tau)}\right) = \sum_{i} \frac{2^{-r_{i}}}{q} E\left(\frac{q}{\mu(\tau)} | \operatorname{pick} C_{i}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i} \frac{2^{-r_{i}}}{q} \sum_{\tau:C_{i}(\tau)=1} 2^{r_{i}-n} \frac{q}{\mu(\tau)}$$
$$= \sum_{i} \sum_{\tau:C_{i}(\tau)=1} \frac{2^{-n}}{\mu(\tau)}$$
$$= 2^{-n} \sum_{\tau:\phi(\tau)=1} \frac{2^{-n}}{\mu(\tau)} \sum_{\tau:C_{i}(\tau)=1} 1$$
$$= 2^{-n} \sum_{\tau:\phi(\tau)=1} 1$$
$$= \theta.$$

Note that even though the estimator obtained by sampling  $\tau$  uniformly and checking for satisfiability is unbiased, the variance is huge. The estimator *T* obtained above, however, doesn't suffer from this problem, as shown below.

Variance of T:-

$$Var(T) = E(T - \theta)^2 = E(T^2) - \theta^2$$

But

$$E(T^{2}) = \sum_{i} \frac{2^{-r_{i}}}{q} \sum_{\tau:C_{i}(\tau)=1} 2^{r_{i}-n} \frac{q^{2}}{\mu^{2}(\tau)}$$
  
$$= 2^{-n}q \sum_{i} \sum_{\tau:C_{i}(\tau)=1} \frac{1}{\mu(\tau)}$$
  
$$= 2^{-n}q \sum_{\tau:\phi(\tau)=1} \frac{1}{\mu(\tau)}$$
(1)

Let  $r = \min_i r_i$ , therefore  $\theta \ge 2^{-r}$ . By the union bound,  $\theta \le k2^{-r}$ , therefore  $q \le k2^{-r}$ , which implies that

$$q \le k\theta. \tag{2}$$

Also, since  $\mu(\tau) \geq 1$ , therefore

$$\sum_{\tau:\phi(\tau)=1} \frac{1}{\mu(\tau)} \le 2^{-n}\theta \tag{3}$$

Substituting (2) and (3) in (1) gives us that  $E(T^2) \le k\theta^2$ , and therefore

$$Var(T) \le (k-1)\theta^2. \tag{4}$$

#### Amplification:-

The resulting variance is reduced in two steps, the second of which is shown in the next lecture.

1. Repeat the K-L-M procedure  $\frac{k-1}{\epsilon^2 \delta}$  times to get estimates  $T_1, \ldots, T_{k-1/\epsilon^2 \delta}$  of  $\theta$ . Evaluate  $\overline{T} = avg(T_i)$ . Since the  $T_i$  are independent real random variables, therefore  $Var(\overline{T}) = \frac{\epsilon^2 \delta}{k-1} Var(T_i) = \frac{\epsilon^2 \delta}{k-1} (k-1)\theta^2 = \epsilon^2 \delta \theta^2$ .

# Interlude:-

Markov Inequality

If *A* is a non-negative random variable, then  $\Pr(A \ge \epsilon) \le \frac{E(A)}{\epsilon}$ . This is because  $E(A) = E(A|A < \epsilon) \Pr(A < \epsilon) + E(A|A \ge \epsilon) \Pr(A \ge \epsilon) \ge E(A|A \ge \epsilon) \Pr(A \ge \epsilon) \ge \epsilon \Pr(A \ge \epsilon)$ .

Chebyshev Inequality

If  $E(T) = \theta$ , then  $\Pr(|T - \theta| \ge c\sqrt{Var(T)} \le \frac{1}{c^2}$ . *Proof:*- Apply Markov inequality to the random variable  $(T - \theta)^2$ .

# Consequence for amplification of the algorithm:-

For  $\overline{T}$  given above and  $\theta = 2^{-n} \# DNF(\phi)$ ,  $P(|\overline{T} - \theta| \ge \epsilon \theta) \le \delta$ .

Next time we'll do another amplification step and show how the K-L-M algorithm gives a "fully polynomial randomised approximation scheme" (FPRAS) for #DNF.