

## Network Flows

Suppose that we are given the network in top of Figure 17.1, where the numbers indicate capacities, that is, the amount of flow that can go through the edge in unit time. We wish to find the maximum amount of flow that can go through this network, from  $S$  to  $T$ .

This problem can also be reduced to linear programming. We have a nonnegative variable for each edge, representing the flow through this edge. These variables are denoted  $f_{SA}, f_{SB}, \dots$ . We have two kinds of constraints: capacity constraints such as  $f_{SA} \leq 5$  (a total of 9 such constraints, one for each edge), and flow conservation constraints (one for each node except  $S$  and  $T$ ), such as  $f_{AD} + f_{BD} = f_{DC} + f_{DT}$  (a total of 4 such constraints). We wish to maximize  $f_{SA} + f_{SB}$ , the amount of flow that leaves  $S$ , subject to these constraints. It is easy to see that this linear program is equivalent to the max-flow problem. The simplex method would correctly solve it.

In the case of max-flow, it is very instructive to “simulate” the simplex method, to see what effect its various iterations would have on the given network. Simplex would start with the all-zero flow, and would try to improve it. How can it find a small improvement in the flow? Answer: it finds a path from  $S$  to  $T$  (say, by depth-first search), and moves flow along this path of total value equal to the *minimum* capacity of an edge on the path (it can obviously do no better). This is the first iteration of simplex (see Figure 17.1).

How would simplex continue? It would look for another path from  $S$  to  $T$ . Since this time we already partially (or totally) use some of the edges, we should do depth-first search on the edges that have some *residual capacity*, above and beyond the flow they already carry. Thus, the edge  $CT$  would be ignored, as if it were not there. The depth-first search would now find the path  $S - A - D - T$ , and augment the flow by two more units, as shown in Figure 17.1.

Next, simplex would again try to find a path from  $S$  to  $T$ . The path is now  $S - A - B - D - T$  (the edges  $C - T$  and  $A - D$  are full and are therefore ignored), and we augment the flow as shown in the bottom of Figure 17.1.

Next simplex would again try to find a path. But since edges  $A - D$ ,  $C - T$ , and  $S - B$  are full, they must be ignored, and therefore depth-first search would fail to find a path, after marking the nodes  $S, A, C$  as reachable from  $S$ . *Simplex then returns the flow shown, of value 6, as maximum.*

How can we be sure that it is the maximum? Notice that these reachable nodes define a *cut* (a set of nodes

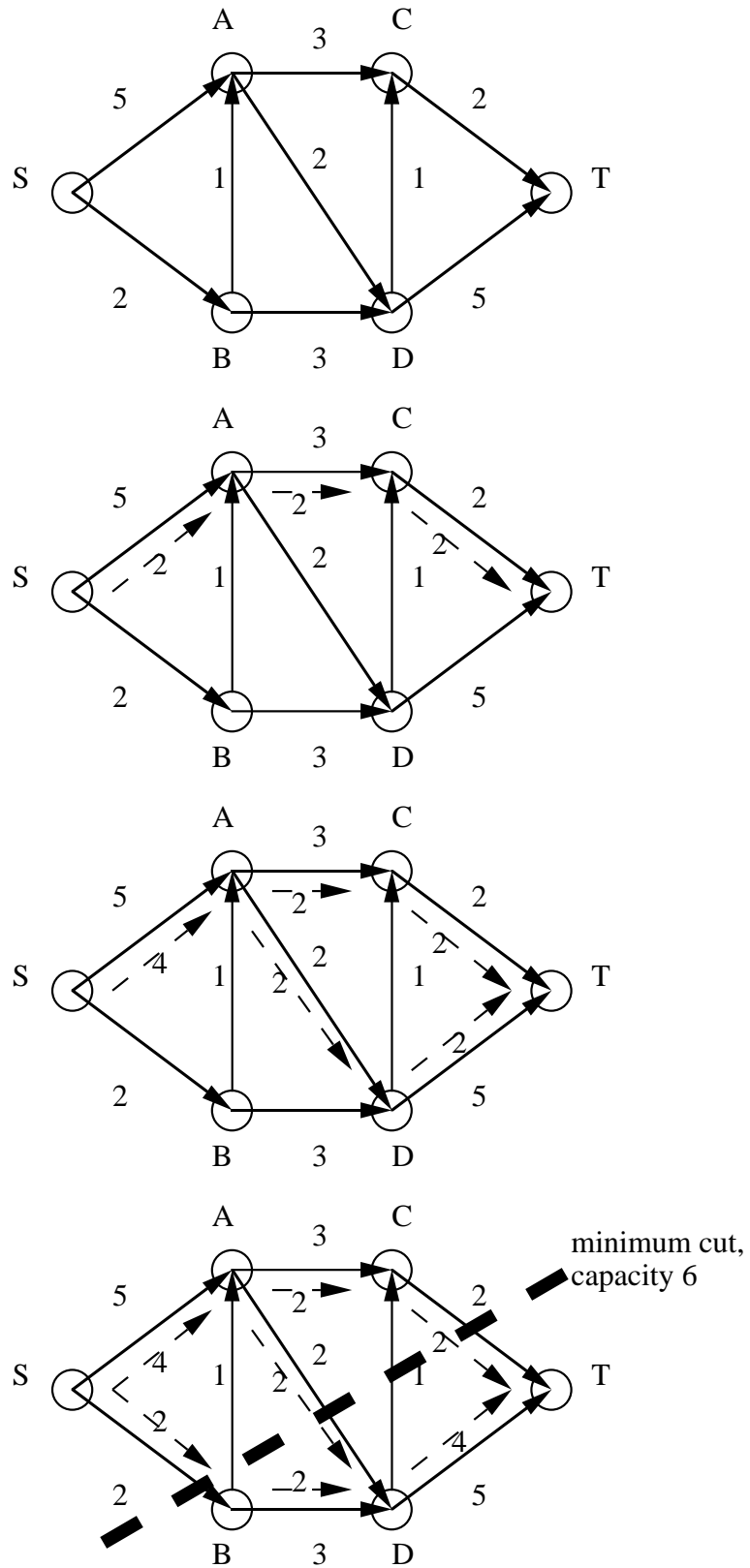


Figure 17.1: Max flow

containing  $S$  but not  $T$ ), and the *capacity* of this cut (the sum of the capacities of the edges going out of this set) is 6, the same as the max-flow value. (It must be the same, since this flow passes through this cut.) The existence of this cut establishes that the flow is optimum!

There is a complication that we have swept under the rug so far: when we do depth-first search looking for a path, we use not only the edges that are not completely full, but we must also traverse *in the opposite direction* all edges that already have some non-zero flow. This would have the effect of canceling some flow; canceling may be necessary to achieve optimality, see Figure 17.2. In this figure the only way to augment the current flow is via the path  $S - B - A - T$ , which traverses the edge  $A - B$  in the reverse direction (a legal traversal, since  $A - B$  is carrying non-zero flow).

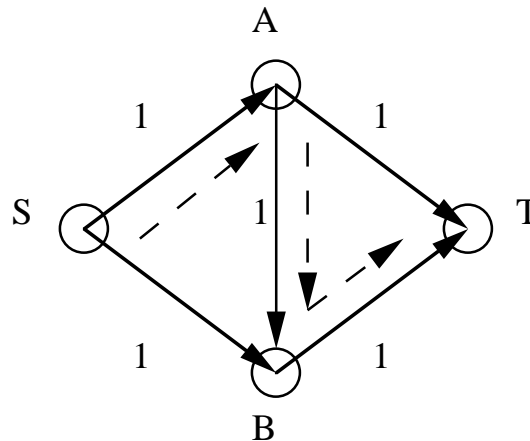


Figure 17.2: Flows may have to be canceled

In general, a path from the source to the sink along which we can increase the flow is called an *augmenting path*. We can look for an augmenting path by doing for example a depth first search along the *residual network*, which we now describe. For an edge  $(u, v)$ , let  $c(u, v)$  be its capacity, and let  $f(u, v)$  be the flow across the edge. Note that we adopt the following convention: if 4 units flow from  $u$  to  $v$ , then  $f(u, v) = 4$ , and  $f(v, u) = -4$ . That is, we interpret the fact that we could reverse the flow across an edge as being equivalent to a “negative flow”. Then the *residual capacity* of an edge  $(u, v)$  is just

$$c(u, v) - f(u, v).$$

The residual network has the same vertices as the original graph; the edges of the residual network consist of all weighted edges with strictly positive residual capacity. The idea is then if we find a path from the source to the sink in the residual network, we have an augmenting path to increase the flow in the original network. As an exercise, you may want to consider the residual network at each step in Figure 17.1.

Suppose we look for a path in the residual network using depth first search. In the case where the capacities are integers, we will always be able to push an integral amount of flow along an augmenting path. Hence, if the maximum flow is  $f^*$ , the total time to find the maximum flow is  $O(Ef^*)$ , since we may have to do an  $O(E)$  depth first search up to  $f^*$  times. This is not so great.

Note that we do not have to do a depth-first search to find an augmenting path in the residual network. In fact, using a breadth-first search each time yields an algorithm that provably runs in  $O(VE^2)$  time, regardless of whether or not the capacities are integers. We will not prove this here. There are also other algorithms and approaches to the max-flow problem as well that improve on this running time.

To summarize: the max-flow problem can be easily reduced to linear programming and solved by simplex. But it is easier to understand what simplex would do by following its iterations directly on the network. It repeatedly finds a path from  $S$  to  $T$  along edges that are not yet full (have non-zero residual capacity), and also along any reverse edges with non-zero flow. If an  $S - T$  path is found, we augment the flow along this path, and repeat. When a path cannot be found, the set of nodes reachable from  $S$  defines a cut of capacity equal to the max-flow. Thus, *the value of the maximum flow is always equal to the capacity of the minimum cut*. This is the important *max-flow min-cut theorem*. One direction (that  $\text{max-flow} \leq \text{min-cut}$ ) is easy (think about it: *any* cut is larger than *any* flow); the other direction is proved by the algorithm just described.

## Duality

As it turns out, the max-flow min-cut theorem is a special case of a more general phenomenon called *duality*. Basically, duality means that for each maximization problem there is a corresponding minimization problem with the property that any feasible solution of the min problem is greater than or equal any feasible solution of the max problem. Furthermore, and more importantly, *they have the same optimum*.

Consider the network shown in Figure 17.3, and the corresponding max-flow problem. We know that it can be written as a linear program as follows:

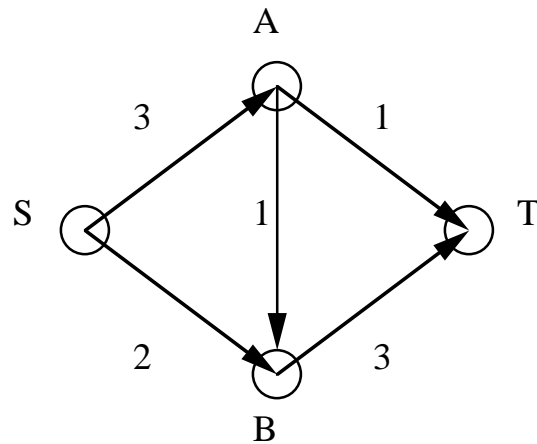


Figure 17.3: A simple max-flow problem

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccl}
 \max & f_{SA} & +f_{SB} & & & & & & & & \\
 & f_{SA} & & & & & & & & & \leq 3 \\
 & & f_{SB} & & & & & & & & \leq 2 \\
 & & & f_{AB} & & & & & & & \leq 1 \\
 & & & & f_{AT} & & & & & & \leq 1 \\
 & & & & & f_{BT} & & & & & \leq 3 \\
 & f_{SA} & & -f_{AB} & -f_{AT} & & & & & & = 0 \\
 & & f_{SA} & +f_{AB} & & -f_{BT} & & & & & = 0 \\
 & & & & & & & & & & f \geq 0
 \end{array} \quad P$$

Consider now the following linear program:

$$\begin{array}{rcccccccl}
 \min & 3y_{SA} & +2y_{SB} & +y_{AB} & +y_{AT} & +3y_{BT} & & & & & \\
 & y_{SA} & & & & & & +u_A & & & \geq 1 \\
 & & y_{SB} & & & & & & +u_B & & \geq 1 \\
 & & & y_{AB} & & & & -u_A & +u_B & & \geq 0 \\
 & & & & y_{AT} & & & -u_A & & & \geq 0 \\
 & & & & & y_{BT} & & & -u_B & & \geq 0 \\
 & & & & & & & & & & y \geq 0
 \end{array} \quad D$$

This LP describes the min-cut problem! To see why, suppose that the  $u_A$  variable is meant to be 1 if  $A$  is in the cut with  $S$ , and 0 otherwise, and similarly for  $B$  (naturally, by the definition of a cut,  $S$  will always be with  $S$  in the cut, and  $T$  will never be with  $S$ ). Each of the  $y$  variables is to be 1 if the corresponding edge contributes to the cut capacity, and 0 otherwise. Then the constraints make sure that these variables behave exactly as they should. For example, the second constraint states that *if  $A$  is not with  $S$ , then  $SA$  must be added to the cut*. The third one states that *if  $A$  is with  $S$  and  $B$  is not (this is the only case in which the sum  $-u_A + u_B$  becomes  $-1$ ), then  $AB$  must contribute*

to the cut. And so on. Although the  $y$  and  $u$ 's are free to take values larger than one, they will be "slammed" by the minimization down to 1 or 0.

Let us now make a remarkable observation: these two programs have strikingly symmetric, *dual*, structure. This structure is most easily seen by putting the linear programs in matrix form. The first program, which we call the primal ( $P$ ), we write as:

max	1	1	0	0	0			
	1	0	0	0	0	$\leq$	3	
	0	1	0	0	0	$\leq$	2	
	0	0	1	0	0	$\leq$	1	
	0	0	0	1	0	$\leq$	1	
	0	0	0	0	1	$\leq$	3	
	1	0	-1	-1	1	$=$	0	
	0	1	1	0	-1	$=$	0	
	$\geq$	$\geq$	$\geq$	$\geq$	$\geq$			

Here we have removed the actual variable names, and we have included an additional row at the bottom denoting that all the variables are non-negative. (An unrestricted variable will be denoted by unr.)

The second program, which we call the dual ( $D$ ), we write as:

min	3	2	1	1	3	0	0	
	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	$\geq$ 1
	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	$\geq$ 1
	0	0	1	0	0	-1	1	$\geq$ 0
	0	0	0	1	0	-1	0	$\geq$ 0
	0	0	0	0	1	0	-1	$\geq$ 0
	$\geq$	$\geq$	$\geq$	$\geq$	$\geq$	unr	unr	

Each variable of  $P$  corresponds to a constraint of  $D$ , and vice-versa. Equality constraints correspond to unrestricted variables (the  $u$ 's), and inequality constraints to restricted variables. Minimization becomes maximization. The matrices are transpose of one another, and the roles of right-hand side and objective function are interchanged.

Such LP's are called *dual* to each other. It is mechanical, given an LP, to form its dual. Suppose we start with a maximization problem. Change all inequality constraints into  $\leq$  constraints, negating both sides of an equation if necessary. Then

- transpose the coefficient matrix
- invert maximization to minimization
- interchange the roles of the right-hand side and the objective function
- introduce a nonnegative variable for each inequality, and an unrestricted one for each equality
- for each nonnegative variable introduce a  $\geq$  constraint, and for each unrestricted variable introduce an equality constraint.

If we start with a minimization problem, we instead begin by turning all inequality constraints into  $\geq$  constraints, we make the dual a maximization, and we change the last step so that each nonnegative variable corresponds to a  $\leq$  constraint. Note that it is easy to show from this description that the dual of the dual is the original primal problem!

By the max-flow min-cut theorem, the two LP's  $P$  and  $D$  above have the same optimum. *In fact, this is true for general dual LP's!* This is the *duality theorem*, which can be stated as follows (we shall not prove it; the best proof comes from the simplex algorithm, very much as the max-flow min-cut theorem comes from the max-flow algorithm):

*If an LP has a bounded optimum, then so does its dual, and the two optimal values coincide.*

## Matching

It is often useful to *compose* reductions. That is, we can reduce a problem A to B, and B to C, and since C we know how to solve, we end up solving A. A good example is the matching problem.

Suppose that the *bipartite* graph shown in Figure 17.4 records the compatibility relation between four boys and four girls. We seek a maximum matching, that is, a set of edges that is as large as possible, and in which no two edges share a node. For example, in Figure 17.4 there is a *complete* matching (a matching that involves all nodes).

To reduce this problem to max-flow, we create a new source and a new sink, connect the source with all boys and all girls with the sinks, and direct all edges of the original bipartite graph from the boys to the girls. All edges have capacity one. It is easy to see that the maximum flow in this network corresponds to the maximum matching.

Well, the situation is slightly more complicated than was stated above: what is easy to see is that the optimum *integer-valued* flow corresponds to the optimum matching. We would be at a loss interpreting as a matching a flow

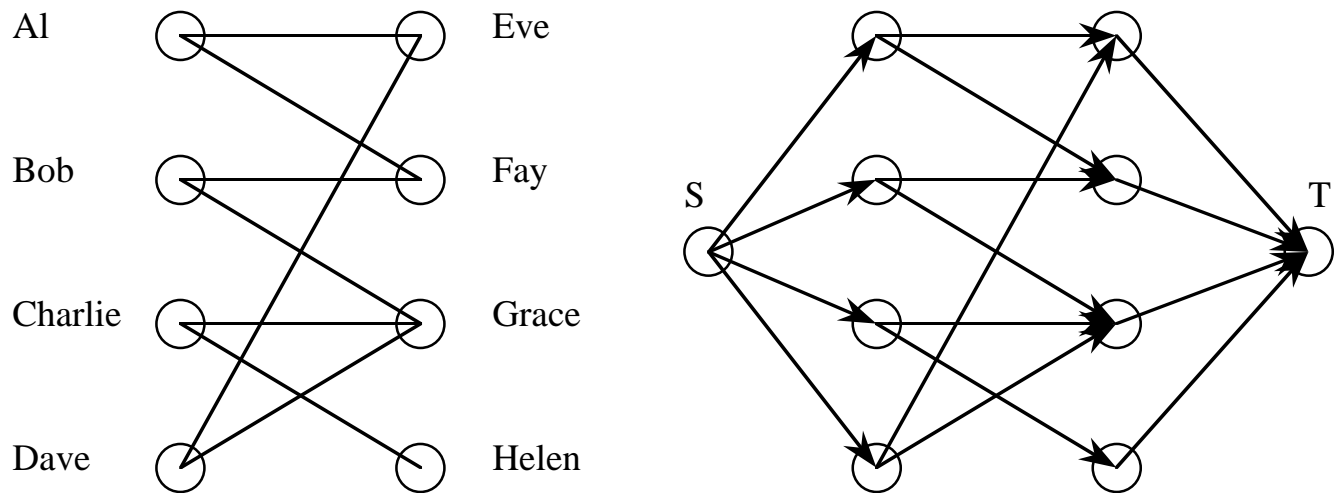


Figure 17.4: Reduction from matching to max-flow (all capacities are 1)

that ships .7 units along the edge Al-Eve! Fortunately, what the algorithm in the previous section establishes is that *if the capacities are integers, then the maximum flow is integer*. This is because we only deal with integers throughout the algorithm. Hence *integrality comes for free in the max-flow problem*.

Unfortunately, max-flow is about the only problem for which integrality comes for free. It is a very difficult problem to find the optimum solution (or *any* solution) of a general linear program with the additional constraint that (some or all of) the variables be integers. We will see why in forthcoming lectures.

## Games

We can represent various situations of conflict in life in terms of *matrix games*. For example, the game shown below is the *rock-paper-scissors* game. The Row player chooses a row strategy, the Column player chooses a column strategy, and then Column pays to Row the value at the intersection (if it is negative, Row ends up paying Column).

$$\begin{array}{c}
 r \quad p \quad s \\
 r \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\
 p \\
 s
 \end{array}$$

Games do not necessarily have to be symmetric (that is, Row and Column have the same strategies, or, in terms of



matrices,  $A = -A^T$ ). For example, in the following fictitious *Clinton-Dole* game the strategies may be the issues on which a candidate for office may focus (the initials stand for “economy,” “society,” “morality,” and “tax-cut”) and the entries are the number of voters lost by Column.

$$e \begin{matrix} & m & t \\ \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ s \end{matrix}$$

We want to explore how the two players may play “optimally” these games. It is not clear what this means. For example, in the first game there is no such thing as an optimal “pure” strategy (it very much depends on what your opponent does; similarly in the second game). But suppose that you play this game repeatedly. Then it makes sense to *randomize*. That is, consider a game given by an  $m \times n$  matrix  $G_{ij}$ ; define a *mixed strategy* for the row player to be a vector  $(x_1, \dots, x_m)$ , such that  $x_i \geq 0$ , and  $\sum_{i=1}^m x_i = 1$ . Intuitively,  $x_i$  is the probability with which Row plays strategy  $i$ . Similarly, a mixed strategy for Column is a vector  $(y_1, \dots, y_n)$ , such that  $y_j \geq 0$ , and  $\sum_{j=1}^n y_j = 1$ .

Suppose that, in the Clinton-Dole game, Row decides to play the mixed strategy  $(.5, .5)$ . What should Column do? The answer is easy: If the  $x_i$ 's are given, there is a *pure strategy* (that is, a mixed strategy with all  $y_j$ 's zero except for one) that is optimal. It is found by comparing the  $n$  numbers  $\sum_{i=1}^m G_{ij}x_i$ , for  $j = 1, \dots, n$  (in the Clinton-Dole game, Column would compare .5 with 0, and of course choose the smallest —remember, the entries denote what Column pays). That is, if Column knew Row's mixed strategy, s/he would end up paying the smallest among the  $n$  outcomes  $\sum_{i=1}^m G_{ij}x_i$ , for  $j = 1, \dots, n$ . On the other hand, Row will seek the mixed strategy that *maximizes this minimum*; that is,

$$\max_x \min_j \sum_{i=1}^m G_{ij}x_i.$$

This maximum would be the best possible *guarantee* about an expected outcome that Row can have by choosing a mixed strategy. Let us call this guarantee  $z$ ; what Row is trying to do is solve the following LP:

$$\begin{array}{rcll} \max z & & & \\ z & -3x_1 & +2x_2 & \leq 0 \\ z & +x_1 & -x_2 & \leq 0 \\ & x_1 & +x_2 & = 1 \end{array}$$

Symmetrically, it is easy to see that Column would solve the following LP:

$$\begin{array}{rcll} \min w & & & \\ w & -3y_1 & +y_2 & \geq 0 \\ w & +2y_1 & -y_2 & \geq 0 \\ & y_1 & +y_2 & = 1 \end{array}$$

The crucial observation now is that *these LP's are dual to each other*, and hence have the same optimum, call it  $V$ .

Let us summarize: By solving an LP, Row can guarantee an expected income of at least  $V$ , and by solving the dual LP, Column can guarantee an expected loss of at most the same value. It follows that this is the uniquely defined optimal play (it was not *a priori* certain that such a play exists).  $V$  is called *the value of the game*. In this case, the optimum mixed strategy for Row is  $(3/7, 4/7)$ , and for Column  $(2/7, 5/7)$ , with a value of  $1/7$  for the Row player.

The existence of mixed strategies that are optimal for both players and achieve the same value is a fundamental result in Game Theory called *the min-max theorem*. It can be written in equations as follows:

$$\max_x \min_y \sum x_i y_j G_{ij} = \min_y \max_x \sum x_i y_j G_{ij}.$$

It is surprising, because the left-hand side, in which Column optimizes last, and therefore has presumably an advantage, should be intuitively smaller than the right-hand side, in which Column decides first. Duality equalizes the two, as it does in max-flow min-cut.

## Circuit Evaluation

We have seen many interesting and diverse applications of linear programming. In some sense, the next one is the *ultimate* application. Suppose that we are given a *Boolean circuit*, that is, a DAG of gates, each of which is either an input gate (indegree zero, and has a value T or F), or an OR gate (indegree two), or an AND gate (indegree two), or a NOT gate (indegree one). One of them is designated as the output gate. We wish to tell if this circuit evaluates (following the laws of Boolean values bottom-up) to T. This is known as *the circuit value problem*.

There is a very simple and automatic way of translating the circuit value problem into an LP: for each gate  $g$  we have a variable  $x_g$ . For all gates we have  $0 \leq x_g \leq 1$ . If  $g$  is a T input gate, we have the equation  $x_g = 1$ ; if it is F,  $x_g = 0$ . If it is an OR gate, say of the gates  $h$  and  $h'$ , then we have the inequality  $x_g \leq x_h + x_{h'}$ . If it is an AND gate of  $h$  and  $h'$ , we have the inequalities  $x_g \leq x_h$ ,  $x_g \leq x_{h'}$  (notice the difference). For a NOT gate we say  $x_g = 1 - x_h$ . Finally, we want to  $\max x_o$ , where  $o$  is the output gate. It is easy to see that the optimum value of  $x_o$  will be 1 if the circuit value is T, and 0 if it is F.

This is a rather straight-forward reduction to LP, from a problem that may not seem very interesting or hard at first. However, the circuit value problem is in some sense the most general problem solvable in polynomial time! Here is a justification of this statement: after all, a polynomial time algorithm runs on a computer, and the computer is ultimately a Boolean combinational circuit implemented on a chip. Since the algorithm runs in polynomial time, it can be rendered as a circuit consisting of polynomially many superpositions of the computer's circuit. Hence, the fact that circuit value problem reduces to LP means that *all polynomially solvable problems do!*

In our next topic, *Complexity and NP-completeness*, we shall see that a class that contains many hard problems

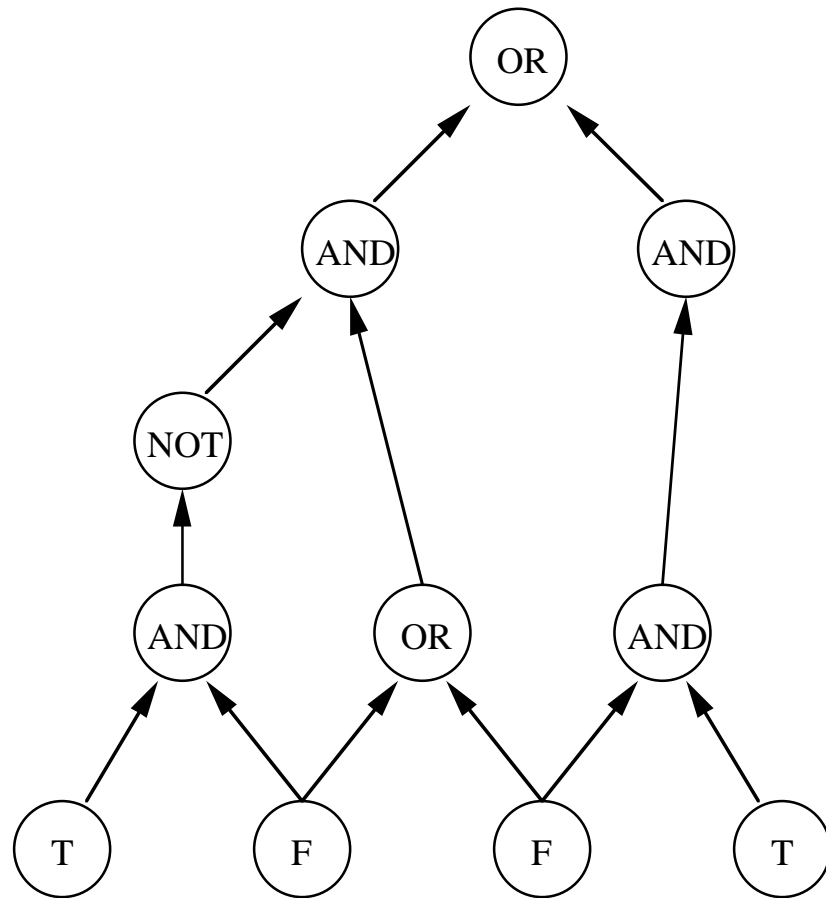


Figure 17.5: A Boolean circuit

reduces, much the same way, to *integer programming*.