

Lecture 13: Semidefinite Programs (SDPs) and  
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Recall that a set of points  $K$  is *convex* if for every two  $x, y \in K$  the line joining  $x, y$ , i.e.,  $\{\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y : \lambda \in [0, 1]\}$  lies entirely inside  $K$ . A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is *convex* if  $f(\frac{x+y}{2}) \leq \frac{1}{2}(f(x) + f(y))$ . It is called *concave* if the previous inequality goes the other way. A linear function is both convex and concave. A *convex program* consists of a convex function  $f$  and a convex body  $K$  and the goal is to minimize  $f(x)$  subject to  $x \in K$ . It is a vast generalization of linear programming and like LP, can be solved in polynomial time under fairly general conditions on  $f, K$ . Today's lecture is about a special type of convex program called *semidefinite programs*.

Recall that a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix  $M$  is *positive semidefinite* (PSD for short) iff it can be written as  $M = AA^T$  for some real-valued matrix  $A$  (need not be square). It is a simple exercise that this happens iff every eigenvalue is nonnegative. Another equivalent characterization is that there are  $n$  vectors  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n$  such that  $M_{ij} = \langle u_i, u_j \rangle$ . Given a PSD matrix  $M$  one can compute such  $n$  vectors in polynomial time using a procedure called *Cholesky decomposition*.

LEMMA 1

The set of all  $n \times n$  PSD matrices is a convex set in  $\mathbb{R}^{n^2}$ .

PROOF: It is easily checked that if  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are PSD then so is  $M_1 + M_2$  and hence so is  $\frac{1}{2}(M_1 + M_2)$ .  $\square$

Now we are ready to define semidefinite programs. These are very useful in a variety of optimization settings as well as control theory. We will use them for combinatorial optimization, specifically to compute approximations to some NP-hard problems. In this respect SDPs are more powerful than LPs.

**View 1:** A linear program in  $n^2$  real valued variables  $Y_{ij}$  where  $1 \leq i, j \leq n$ , with the additional constraint “ $Y$  is a PSD matrix.”

**View 2:** A *vector program* where we are seeking  $n$  vectors  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that their inner products  $\langle u_i, u_j \rangle$  satisfy some set of linear constraints.

Clearly, these views are equivalent.

Exercise: Show that every LP can be rewritten as a (slightly larger) SDP. The idea is that a diagonal matrix, i.e., a matrix whose offdiagonal entries are 0, is PSD iff the entries are nonnegative.

Question: Can the vectors  $u_1, \dots, u_n$  in View 2 be required to be in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  for  $d < n$ ?  
Answer: This is not known and imposing such a constraint makes the program nonconvex. (The reason is that the sum of two matrices of rank  $d$  can have rank higher than  $d$ .)

## 0.1 Geometrization of Combinatorial Problems, and Max Cut

Given an  $n$ -vertex graph  $G = (V, E)$  find a cut  $(S, \bar{S})$  such that you maximise  $E(S, \bar{S})$ .

The exact characterization of this problem is to find  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n \in \{-1, 1\}$  (which thus represent a cut) so as to maximise

$$\sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \frac{1}{4} |x_i - x_j|^2.$$

This works since an edge contributes 1 to the objective iff the endpoints have opposite signs.

The SDP relaxation is to find vectors  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n$  such that  $|u_i|_2^2 = 1$  for all  $i$  and so as to maximise

$$\sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \frac{1}{4} |v_i - v_j|^2.$$

This is a relaxation since every  $\pm 1$  solution to the problem is also a vector solution where every  $u_i$  is  $\pm v_0$  for some fixed unit vector  $v_0$ .

Thus when we solve this SDP we get  $n$  vectors, then the value of the objective  $OPT_{SDP}$  is at least as large as the capacity of the max cut. How do we get a cut out of these vectors? The following is the simplest rounding one can think of. Pick a random vector  $z$ . If  $\langle u_i, z \rangle$  is positive, put it in  $S$  and otherwise in  $\bar{S}$ . Note that this is the same as picking a random hyperplane passing through the origin and partitioning the vertices according to which side of the hyperplane they lie on.

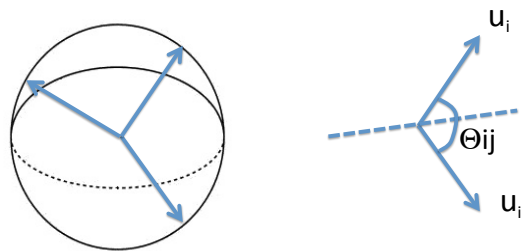


Figure 1: SDP solutions are unit vectors and they are rounded to  $\pm 1$  by using a random hyperplane through the origin. The probability that  $i, j$  end up on opposite sides of the cut is proportional to  $\Theta_{ij}$ , the angle between them.

**THEOREM 2 (GOEMANS-WILLIAMSON'94)**

*The expected number of edges in the cut produced by this rounding is at least  $0.878 \cdot OPT_{SDP}$ .*

**PROOF:** The rounding is essentially picking a random hyperplane through the origin and vertices  $i, j$  fall on opposite sides of the cut iff  $u_i, u_j$  lie on opposite sides of the hyperplane.

Let's estimate the probability they end up on opposite sides. This may seem a difficult  $n$ -dimensional calculation, until we realize that there is a 2-dimensional subspace defined by  $u_i, u_j$ , and all that matters is the intercept of the random hyperplane with this 2-dimensional subspace, which is a random line in this subspace. Specifically  $\theta_{ij}$  be the angle between  $u_i$  and  $u_j$ . Then the probability that they fall on opposite sides of this random line is  $\theta_{ij}/\pi$ . Thus by linearity of expectations,

$$\mathbf{E}[\text{Number of edges in cut}] = \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \frac{\theta_{ij}}{\pi}. \quad (1)$$

How do we relate this to  $OPT_{SDP}$ ? We use the fact that  $\langle u_i, u_j \rangle = \cos \theta_{ij}$  to rewrite the objective as

$$\sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \frac{1}{4} |v_i - v_j|^2 = \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \frac{1}{4} (|v_i|^2 + |v_j|^2 - 2\langle v_i, v_j \rangle) = \sum_{\{i,j\} \in E} \frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos \theta_{ij}). \quad (2)$$

This seems hopeless to analyse for us mortals: we know almost nothing about the graph or the set of vectors. Luckily Goemans and Williamson had the presence of mind to verify the following in Matlab: each term of (1) is at least 0.878.. times the corresponding term of (2)! Specifically, Matlab shows that for all

$$\frac{2\theta}{\pi(1 - \cos \theta)} \geq 0.878 \quad \forall \theta \in [0, \pi]. \quad (3)$$

QED  $\square$

**The saga of 0.878...** The GW paper came on the heels of the PCP Theorem (1992) which established that there is a constant  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $(1 - \epsilon)$ -approximation to MAX-CUT is NP-hard. In the ensuing few years this constant was improved. Meanwhile, most researchers hoped that the GW algorithm could not be optimal. The most trivial relaxation, the most trivial rounding, and an approximation ratio derived by Matlab calculation: it all just didn't smell right. However, in 2005 Khot et al. showed that Khot's unique games conjecture implies that the GW algorithm cannot be improved by any polynomial-time algorithm. (Aside: not all experts believe the unique games conjecture.)

## 0.2 0.878-approximation for MAX-2SAT

We earlier designed approximation algorithms for MAX-2SAT using LP. The SDP relaxation gives much tighter approximation than the 3/4 we achieved back then. Given a 2CNF formula on  $n$  variables with  $m$  clauses, we can express MAX-2SAT as a quadratic optimization problem. We want  $x_i^2 = 1$  for all  $i$  (hence  $x_i$  is  $\pm 1$ ; where  $+1$  corresponds to setting the variable  $y_i$  to true) and we can write a quadratic expression for each clause expressing that it is satisfied. For instance if the clause is  $y_i \vee y_j$  then the expression is  $1 - \frac{1}{4}(1 - x_i)(1 - x_j)$ . It is 1 if either of  $x_i, x_j$  is 1 and 0 else.

Representing this expression directly as we did for MAX-CUT is tricky because of the "1" appearing in it. Instead we are going to look for  $n + 1$  vectors  $u_0, u_1, \dots, u_n$ . The first

vector  $u_0$  is a dummy vector that stands for "1". If  $u_i = u_0$  then we think of this variable being set to True and if  $u_i = -u_0$  we think of the variable being set to False. Of course, in general  $\langle u_i, u_0 \rangle$  need not be  $\pm 1$  in the optimum solution.

So the SDP is to find vectors satisfying  $|u_i|^2 = 1$  for all  $i$  so as to maximize  $\sum_{\text{clause } l} v_l$  where  $v_l$  is the expression for  $l$ th clause. For instance if the clause is  $y_i \vee y_j$  then the expression is

$$1 - \frac{1}{4}(u_0 - u_i) \cdot (u_0 - u_j) = \frac{1}{4}(1 + u_0 \cdot u_j) + \frac{1}{4}(1 + u_0 \cdot u_i) + \frac{1}{4}(1 - u_i \cdot u_j).$$

This is a very Goemans-Williamson like expression, except we have expressions like  $1 + u_0 \cdot u_i$  whereas in MAX-CUT we have  $1 - u_i \cdot u_j$ . Now we do Goemans-Williamson rounding. The key insight is that since we round to  $\pm 1$ , each term  $1 + u_i \cdot u_j$  becomes 2 with probability  $1 - \frac{\theta_{ij}}{\pi} = \frac{\pi - \theta_{ij}}{\pi}$  and is 0 otherwise. Similarly,  $1 - u_i \cdot u_j$  becomes 2 with probability  $\theta_{ij}/\pi$  and 0 else.

Now the term-by-term analysis used for MAX-CUT works again once we realize that (3) also implies (by substituting  $\pi - \theta$  for  $\theta$  in the expression) that  $\frac{2(\pi - \theta)}{\pi(1 + \cos \theta)} \geq 0.878$  for  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$ . We conclude that the expected number of satisfied clauses is at least 0.878 times  $OPT_{SDP}$ .

### 0.3 Other uses of SDPs: Matrix design and Control Theory

SDPs can be used as a tool for *design* of appropriate matrices. For instance, suppose we desire an  $n \times n$  matrix  $M$  whose entries satisfy some linear constraints, and at the same time want the smallest eigenvalue of  $M$  to be as large as possible. This is just an SDP since we can just seek to maximise  $\lambda$  such that  $M - \lambda I$  is psd. This works since  $M - \lambda I$  is psd iff  $x^T(M - \lambda I)x \geq 0$  for every vector  $x$ , which means  $\frac{x^T M x}{x^T x} \geq \lambda$ , i.e. the minimum eigenvalue of  $M$  is at least  $\lambda$ .

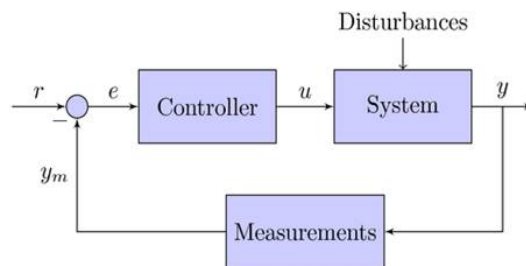


Figure 2: A typical system studied in control theory. The controller tries to maintain the system in some region of possible states, irrespective of disturbances from the environment.

Such matrix design problems arise in *control theory*, a field of applied mathematics concerned with control of a system in presence of environmental perturbation. (Think automatic helicopter control.) In Figure 2, the system state is represented by a vector, and so

is the set of environmental variables at the current time. The controller is a transformation of these variables into the next state of the system.

In full generality this entire picture represents a dynamical system capable of very complicated behavior. The goal in control theory is to design a *well-behaved* controller that makes the behavior predictable and stable. The simplest case is a controller that implements a linear transformation, in other words a matrix. Properties of this matrix —e.g. ratio of largest and smallest eigenvalues is modest, a property called *condition number*— relate to this, and semidefinite programming gives a way to design such matrices.