

Resource Allocation in Bounded Degree Trees

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Received: 9 October 2006 / Accepted: 31 October 2007
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Abstract We study the *bandwidth allocation problem* (BAP) in bounded degree trees. In this problem we are given a tree and a set of connection requests. Each request consists of a path in the tree, a bandwidth requirement, and a weight. Our goal is to find a maximum weight subset S of requests such that, for every edge e , the total bandwidth of requests in S whose path contains e is at most 1. We also consider the *storage allocation problem* (SAP), in which it is also required that every request in the solution is given the same contiguous portion of the resource in every edge in its path. We present a deterministic approximation algorithm for BAP in bounded degree trees with ratio $(2\sqrt{e} - 1)/(\sqrt{e} - 1) + \varepsilon < 3.542$. Our algorithm is based on a novel application of the *local ratio technique* in which the available bandwidth is divided into narrow strips and requests with very small bandwidths are allocated in these strips. We also present a randomized $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for BAP in bounded degree trees. The best previously known ratio for BAP in general trees is 5. We present a reduction from SAP to BAP that works for instances where the tree is a line and the bandwidths are very small. It follows that there exists a deterministic

A preliminary version of this paper was presented at the 14th Annual European Symposium on Algorithms (ESA), 2006.

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2.582-approximation algorithm and a randomized $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for SAP in the line. The best previously known ratio for this problem is 7.

Keywords Approximation algorithms · Bandwidth allocation · Bounded degree trees · Scheduling · Storage allocation

1 Introduction

1.1 The Problems

We study the *bandwidth allocation problem* (BAP) in trees. In this problem we are given a tree $T = (V, E)$, where $m = |E|$, and a set J of n connection requests from clients. Each request j is associated with a *path* in the tree that is denoted by P_j (P_j is a set of edges), and a weight $w(j)$ that may be gained by accommodating it. It also has a bandwidth requirement, or *demand*, $d_j \in [0, 1]$. (An example is given in Fig. 1a.) A feasible solution, or a *schedule*, is a subset $S \subseteq J$ of connection requests such that, for every edge e , the total demand of requests whose path contains e is at most 1. That is, S is feasible if $\sum_{j \in S: e \in P_j} d_j \leq 1$, for every edge e . Our goal is to find a schedule with maximum total weight.

When the given tree T is a line (i.e., a tree with two leaves) the problem is usually presented in temporal terms. Namely, the path of a request becomes a time interval, and our goal is to find a maximum weight subset $S \subseteq J$ such that at any given time the total bandwidth is bounded by 1.

In this paper we also consider a more general version of BAP in trees, in which a request j is associated with a subtree of T instead of a path. Hence, in this problem, P_j becomes a set of edges that induce a subtree in T . We refer to this version of the problem as *extended bandwidth allocation problem* (EBAP). (See example in Fig. 1b.)

We consider the *storage allocation problem* (SAP) which is a variation of BAP with two additional constraints: (i) the specific portion of the resource allocated to a request cannot change between edges (or over time), and (ii) the allocation must be contiguous. Hence, given a SAP instance, a solution can be described by a set of requests $S \subseteq J$ and an assignment of every request $j \in S$ to a specific portion of the resource. Formally, a solution consists of the set of requests S and a height function

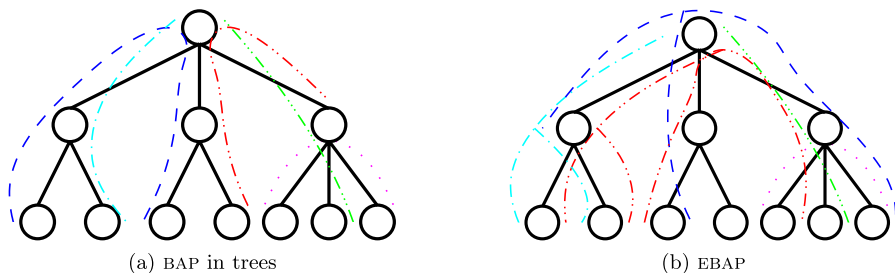


Fig. 1 Instances of BAP and EBAP. The *non-solid lines* represent requests

$h : S \rightarrow [0, 1]$ such that the following constraints are satisfied: (i) $h(j) + d_j \leq 1$ for every $j \in S$, and (ii) for every two requests $j, k \in S$ such that $j \neq k$ and $P_j \cap P_k \neq \emptyset$ either $h(j) + d_j \leq h(k)$ or $h(k) + d_k \leq h(j)$. That is, we require that the portion of the resource assigned to j is within the range $[0, 1]$, and that no two requests occupy the same portion of the resource on the same edge (or at the same time). Observe that a feasible SAP schedule is a feasible BAP schedule, however the converse may not be true (see example in [12]). Hence, the BAP optimum is at least as large as the SAP optimum of a given problem instance.

In the line topology a request j can be represented by an axis-parallel rectangle, whose length is $|P_j|$ (or the duration of the request, in temporal terms), and whose height is d_j . The rectangles are allowed to move vertically but not horizontally. We wish to select a maximum weight subset of rectangles that can be placed within a strip of height 1 such that no two rectangles overlap. A natural application of SAP in the line arises in a multi-threaded environment, where threads require contiguous memory allocations for fixed time intervals.

A closely related problem to SAP in the line topology is the *dynamic storage allocation problem* (DSA). Similarly to SAP, in DSA we are given a set of rectangles J that can only move vertically. The goal is to minimize the total height required to pack all rectangles such that no two rectangles overlap. Formally, a DSA solution is an assignment $h : J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ such that for every $j \neq k$ and $P_j \cap P_k \neq \emptyset$ either $h(j) + d_j \leq h(k)$ or $h(k) + d_k \leq h(j)$. Our goal is to minimize $\max_{j \in J} \{h(j) + d_j\}$.

Finally, Given a parameter $\delta \in (0, 1)$, a request j is called δ -*narrow* (or simply *narrow*) if $d_j \leq \delta$. Otherwise, it is called δ -*wide* (*wide*). A BAP (EBAP or SAP) instance in which all requests are narrow is called a *narrow instance*, and an instance in which all requests are wide is called a *wide instance*.

1.2 Related Work

Both BAP and SAP are NP-hard even in the line since they contain *knapsack* as the special case in which the paths of all requests share an edge. As far as we know, the question of whether BAP (or SAP) in the line is APX-hard is an open question (see, e.g., [3]). The special case of BAP in the line with unit demands is the problem of finding an independent set in a weighted interval graph which is solvable in polynomial time (see, e.g., [15]). BAP in the tree with unit demands is the problem of finding a maximum weight independent set of paths in a tree. This problem is also solvable in polynomial time [20]. Notice that BAP and SAP are equivalent in the case of unit demands.

The special case of BAP in the line, where all requests have the same length (or duration), was studied by Arkin and Silverberg [1]. (In this case no path, or time interval, is properly contained in another.) Bar-Noy et al. [4] considered an online version of BAP in which the weight of a request is proportional to the area of the rectangle it induces. Phillips et al. [19] developed a 6-approximation algorithm for BAP in the line. Leonardi et al. [17] observed that SAP in the line can be used to model the problem of scheduling requests for remote medical consulting on a shared satellite channel. They obtained a 12-approximation algorithm for SAP in the line. Bar-Noy et al. [5] used the local ratio technique to improve the ratios for BAP and SAP in the line to 3 and 7, respectively.

Chen et al. [12] studied the special cases of BAP and SAP, where all demands are multiples of $1/K$ for some integer K . They developed dynamic programming algorithms for both problems that compute optimal solutions for wide instances. Their algorithm for BAP easily extends to general wide instances of BAP. However, in the case of SAP, the running time of the algorithm depends on K that may be exponential in the input size. They presented an approximation algorithm for BAP with proportional weights. They also presented an approximation algorithm with ratio $\frac{e}{e-1} + \varepsilon$, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, for a special case of SAP in which $d_j = i/K$ for some $i \in \{1, \dots, q\}$ where q is a constant.

Calinescu et al. [9] developed a randomized approximation algorithm for BAP in the line with expected performance ratio of $2 + \varepsilon$, for every $\varepsilon > 0$. They obtained their results by dividing the given instance into a wide instance and a narrow instance. They use dynamic programming to compute an optimal solution for the wide instance, and a randomized LP-based algorithm to obtain a $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximate solution for the narrow instance. They also present a 3-approximation algorithm for BAP that is different from the one from [5].

The more general version of BAP in which the capacities are not uniform is called the *unsplittable flow problem* (UFP). In this problem our goal is to find a maximum weight subset of a given set of flow demands that can be simultaneously routed in a given capacitated network. Chakrabarti et al. [10] presented the first $O(1)$ -approximation algorithm for UFP in the line by extending the approach of [9] to the non-uniform capacity case. However, their 13-approximation algorithm works under the assumption that the maximum demand is not larger than any edge capacity (the *no-bottleneck assumption*). Chekuri et al. [11] used an LP-based deterministic algorithm instead of a randomized algorithm to obtain a $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for UFP in the line and a 48-approximation algorithm for UFP in trees both under the no-bottleneck assumption. Bansal et al. [3] describe a deterministic quasi-polynomial time approximation scheme for instances of UFP in the line, where all values are quasi-polynomial, thereby ruling out an APX-hardness result for UFP unless $\text{NP} \subseteq \text{DTIME}(2^{\text{polylog}(n)})$.

Lewin-Eytan et al. [18] studied the *admission control problem* in the tree topology. The problem instance in this case is similar to a BAP-instance. However, each request is also associated with a time interval. A feasible schedule is a set of connection requests such that at any given time, the total bandwidth requirement on every edge in the tree is at most 1. The goal is to find a feasible schedule with maximum total weight. Clearly, the admission control problem in trees is a generalization of BAP. Lewin-Eytan et al. [18] presented a divide and conquer $(5 \log n)$ -approximation algorithm for admission control in trees. It divides the set of requests using the temporal dimension, and conquers a set of requests whose time intervals overlap using a local ratio 5-approximation algorithm. This is in fact a 5-approximation algorithm for BAP in the general tree topology.

In this paper we consider the special case of BAP in trees in which the given tree has a bounded degree. This special case is interesting, since it encompasses many practical applications. For example, in local area networks packages are routed only on links of some spanning tree in the network, and this spanning tree has a bounded degree since the bridges in the network have a small number of ports. Bounded degree

trees also arise in many applications concerning optical fiber networks (see, e.g., [13, 16]).

Gergov [14] presented an $O(n \log n)$ time algorithm for DSA that computes a solution of cost at most $3 \cdot \text{LOAD}(J)$, where $\text{LOAD}(J)$ is the maximum sum of demands on an edge. Buchsbaum et al. [8] presented a polynomial time algorithm that computes a solution of cost at most $(1 + O((D/\text{LOAD}(J))^{1/7})) \cdot \text{LOAD}(J)$, where D is the maximal demand of a request.

1.3 Our Results

We consider BAP in the tree topology where the maximum degree of a vertex in the given tree is a constant. For wide instances of BAP we provide a polynomial time dynamic programming algorithm that extends the algorithms from [9, 12]. We present an approximation algorithm for narrow instances of BAP in general trees with ratio $\frac{\sqrt{e}}{\sqrt{e-1}} + \varepsilon$, for every $\varepsilon > 0$. This algorithm is based on a novel application of the *local ratio technique* in which the available bandwidth is divided into narrow strips, and requests with very small demands are allocated in these strips. By combining the two algorithms we get an approximation algorithm for BAP in bounded degree trees with ratio $\frac{2\sqrt{e-1}}{\sqrt{e-1}} + \varepsilon < 3.542$.

We also present a randomized $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm, for every $\varepsilon > 0$, for narrow instances of BAP in bounded degree trees that extends the $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for BAP in the line from [9]. This implies a randomized $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for BAP in bounded degree trees.

The approximation algorithms for BAP in trees can be extended to EBAP. First, the approximation ratio of the randomized algorithm remains $2 + \varepsilon$ even for EBAP. The approximation ratio of the deterministic algorithm is $\frac{2\sqrt{\gamma-1}}{\sqrt{\gamma-1}} + \varepsilon$, where $\gamma \triangleq \min\{\Delta - 1, \Delta'\}$, Δ is the maximum degree of a vertex in T , and Δ' is the maximum degree of a vertex in a subtree. Note that $\gamma = 2$ in the case of BAP in bounded degree trees, since $\Delta' = 2$. In the special case of BAP in lines $\gamma = 1$ since $\Delta = 2$, therefore the approximation ratio for BAP in lines is $\frac{2e-1}{e-1} + \varepsilon < 2.582$.

For wide instances of SAP in the line (and even in bounded degree trees) we provide a polynomial time dynamic programming algorithm that extends the algorithm from [12]. We present a reduction from SAP to BAP that works on very narrow instances in the line topology. The reduction is based on an algorithm for the *dynamic storage allocation problem* by Buchsbaum et al. [8]. This reduction implies a deterministic 2.582-approximation algorithm and a randomized $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for SAP in the line.

2 Preliminaries

In this section we present some useful definitions and observations. We also shortly discuss the local ratio technique.

2.1 Definitions and Notation

We denote the optimum of a given problem instance by OPT . Given a schedule S , we denote by $w(S)$ the total weight of S , i.e., $w(S) = \sum_{j \in S} w(j)$.

Throughout the paper we assume that the given tree T is rooted, and we denote the root by r . We also assume that the maximum degree of a vertex in T is a constant. We denote the maximum degree by Δ , i.e., $\Delta = \max_u \deg(u)$. In the case of EBAP we denote the maximum degree of a subtree by Δ' . That is, $\Delta' = \max_j \max_{u \in V(P_j)} \deg_{P_j}(u)$, where $V(P_j)$ is the vertex set of the subtree that is induced by P_j . We also define $\gamma \triangleq \min\{\Delta - 1, \Delta'\}$.

The *peak* of a request j is the vertex in j th path (subtree) that is closest to the root r . (Note that the peak of a request can be the root itself.) We denote the peak of j by $\text{peak}(j)$. We denote by $E(j)$ the set of edges in P_j that are incident on $\text{peak}(j)$. In the case of BAP in trees, $E(j)$ contains either two edges or one edge. In the case of EBAP, $E(j)$ may contain up to γ edges. (Observe that we can always choose r do be a vertex whose degree is strictly smaller than Δ , e.g., $\deg(r) = 1$.) We define a partial order on the requests as follows. For requests j and ℓ we write $j < \ell$ if $\text{peak}(j)$ is an ancestor of $\text{peak}(\ell)$. We denote by $A(\ell)$ the set of requests j such that $\text{peak}(j)$ is an ancestor of $\text{peak}(\ell)$, i.e., $A(\ell) = \{j : j < \ell\}$. Henceforth, we assume that the requests are topologically ordered according to the partial order $<$. That is, if $\text{peak}(k)$ is found on the path from $\text{peak}(j)$ to the root r then $k < j$.

Observation 1 *Let ℓ be a request, and let $S \subseteq J$ be a feasible solution such that $\ell \not\prec j$ for every $j \in S$. Then, $S \cup \{\ell\}$ is a feasible solution if the load on e is at most $1 - d_\ell$ for every $e \in E(\ell)$.*

2.2 Narrow and Wide Instances

Given a parameter $\delta \in (0, 1)$, we can divide a given instance into a narrow instance containing the narrow requests and a wide instance containing the wide requests. We denote the corresponding sets of requests by R_N and R_W , respectively.

Lemma 1 *Let S_N and S_W be an r_1 -approximate solution with respect to R_N and a r_2 -approximate solution with respect to R_W , respectively. Then, the solution of greater weight is an $(r_1 + r_2)$ -approximation for the original instance.*

Proof Let S^* be an optimal solution for the original instance. Either $w(S^* \cap R_N) \geq \frac{r_1}{r_1+r_2} w(S^*)$ or $w(S^* \cap R_W) \geq \frac{r_2}{r_1+r_2} \cdot w(S^*)$. Hence, either $w(S_N) \geq \frac{1}{r_1} \cdot \frac{r_1}{r_1+r_2} \cdot w(S^*) = \frac{1}{r_1+r_2} \cdot w(S^*)$ or $w(S_W) \geq \frac{1}{r_2} \cdot \frac{r_2}{r_1+r_2} \cdot w(S^*) = \frac{1}{r_1+r_2} \cdot w(S^*)$. The lemma follows. □

Observe that when $r_1 = 1$ and $r_2 = r$ the approximation ratio obtained by Lemma 1 is $(r + 1)$.

2.3 The Local Ratio Technique

The local ratio technique [2, 5–7] is based on the Local Ratio Theorem, which applies to optimization problems of the following type. The input is a non-negative weight vector $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and a set of feasibility constraints \mathcal{F} . The problem is to find a solution vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that maximizes (or minimizes) the inner product $w \cdot x$ subject to the constraints \mathcal{F} .

Theorem 1 (Local ratio [5]) *Let \mathcal{F} be a set of constraints and let w, w_1 , and w_2 be weight vectors such that $w = w_1 + w_2$. Then, if x is r -approximate both with respect to (\mathcal{F}, w_1) and with respect to (\mathcal{F}, w_2) , for some r , then x is also an r -approximate solution with respect to (\mathcal{F}, w) .*

3 Bandwidth Allocation

In this section we consider the bandwidth allocation problem in bounded degree trees. For the special case of wide instances we present a polynomial time dynamic programming algorithm that computes optimal solutions. For the special case of narrow instances we present a deterministic approximation algorithm whose approximation ratio is $1/(1 - 1/\sqrt{e} - \varepsilon) < 2.542$. By Lemma 1 it follows that there is a 3.542-approximation algorithm for BAP in bounded degree trees. For narrow instances we also present a randomized LP-based $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm that extends the $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm by Calinescu et al. [9] for BAP in the line topology. Using the dynamic programming algorithm from Section 3 it follows from Lemma 1 that there is a randomized $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for BAP on bounded degree trees.

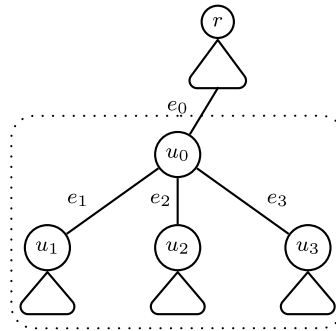
We show that both approximation algorithms extend to EBAP. The approximation ratio of the randomized algorithm remains $2 + \varepsilon$, while the approximation ratio of the deterministic algorithm is $1 + 1/(1 - 1/\sqrt[3]{e} - \varepsilon)$. Note that in the special case of BAP in lines $\gamma = 1$ since $\Delta = 2$, therefore the approximation ratio of the deterministic algorithm in the case of BAP in lines is $1 + 1/(1 - 1/e - \varepsilon) < 2.582$.

3.1 Dynamic Programming Algorithm for Wide Instances

We present a polynomial time dynamic programming algorithm for BAP on wide instances and in bounded degree trees. This algorithm extends the algorithms for BAP in the line topology by Chen et al. [12] and by Calinescu et al. [9]. We note that our algorithm easily extends to the more general case of EBAP. (The only difference is in the fact that the P_j s induce subtrees.)

In order to solve the problem on wide instances we consider a variation of BAP in which we are given a constant L that limits the number of requests per edge. We present a dynamic programming algorithm whose running time is $O(m \cdot n^{\Delta \cdot L})$. Clearly, if S is a feasible solution for a wide instance, then there are at most $1/\delta$ requests in S that go through e for any edge e . Hence, the running time of this algorithm is $O(m \cdot n^{\Delta/\delta})$.

Fig. 2 u_0 and its children; T_0 is marked by the dotted line



We use the following notation. Consider a vertex u_0 in the tree. Let T_0 be the subtree whose root is u_0 , and let e_0 the edge that is going from u_0 to its parent. u_0 's children are denote by u_1, \dots, u_k . Also, let e_i be the edge connecting u_i and u_0 for $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$. See example in Fig. 2. Using this notation, we refer to a set of requests S_i as *proper with respect to a vertex u_i* if (1) $e_i \in P_j$ for every $j \in S_i$, (2) $\sum_{j \in S_i} d_j \leq 1$, and (3) $|S_i| \leq L$. Given a proper set S_0 with respect to u_0 , the sets S_1, \dots, S_k are said to be *compatible with S_0* if (1) S_i is proper with respect to u_i for every i , and (2) for every j and $i, i' \in \{0, \dots, k\}$, if $e_i, e_{i'} \in P_j$, then either $j \in S_i, S_{i'}$ or $j \notin S_i, S_{i'}$.

The dynamic programming table is of size $O(m \cdot n^L)$, and it is defined as follows. For a vertex u_0 and a set of requests S_0 that is proper with respect to u_0 , the state $\Pi(u_0, S_0)$ is the maximum weight of a set $S' \subseteq J(T_0)$, where $J(T_0)$ contains requests j such that P_j is fully contained in T_0 , such that $S_0 \cup S'$ is feasible. We initialize the table by setting $\Pi(u_0, S_0) = 0$ for every leaf u_0 and a proper set S_0 . We compute the rest of the entries by using:

$$\Pi(u_0, S_0) = \max_{S_1, \dots, S_k \text{ are compatible with } S_0} \left\{ w \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^k S_k \setminus S_0 \right) + \sum_{i=1}^k \Pi(u_i, S_i) \right\}$$

when u_0 is an internal node. The weight of an optimal solution is $\Pi(r, \emptyset)$.

We show that the running time of the dynamic programming algorithm is $O(m \cdot n^{L \cdot \Delta})$. To compute each entry $\Pi(u_0, S_0)$ we need to go through all the possibilities of sets S_1, \dots, S_k that are compatible with S_0 . There are no more than $\sum_{i=1}^L \binom{m}{i} = O(n^L)$ possibilities of choosing a proper set S_i that is compatible with S_0, \dots, S_{i-1} . Hence, the number of possibilities is $O(n^{L \cdot (\Delta-1)})$. Hence, the total running time is $O(m \cdot n^L n^{L \cdot (\Delta-1)}) = O(m \cdot n^{L \cdot \Delta})$.

Note that the computation of $\Pi(u_0, S_0)$ can be modified so as to compute a corresponding solution. This can be done by keeping track on which option was taken in the recursive computation. Afterwards an optimal solution can be reconstructed in a top down manner.

3.2 Local Ratio Algorithm for Narrow Instances

In this section we consider the special case of BAP on narrow instances. For this case we present a deterministic approximation algorithm whose ratio is

$1/(1 - 1/\sqrt{e} - \varepsilon) < 2.542$. We also show that this algorithm can be extended to EBAP. The approximation ratio of the extended algorithm is $1/(1 - 1/\sqrt[3]{e} - \varepsilon)$.

3.2.1 Scheduling Requests in Layers

Throughout this section we assume that all the requests in the given instance are δ -narrow for some small constant $\delta > 0$. Let α be a constant such that $\delta < \alpha \leq 1$. We assume that α is significantly larger than δ . In this section we show how to construct an approximate solution that uses at most α of the capacity of every edge in the given tree. Henceforth we refer to a tree whose edges has capacity α as an α -layer, or simply a layer. (Note that, in general, α may be larger than one.) Using these terms, in this section we present an algorithm that computes a solution that resides in an α -layer. We note that the approximation ratio of the algorithm is with respect to the original problem in which the capacity of the edges is 1.

Algorithm **Layer** is a local ratio algorithm that computes a $(1 + 2/(\alpha - \delta))$ -approximate solution S such that the total demand of requests in S on any edge is at most α . Algorithm **Layer** is recursive and works as follows. If there are no requests, then it returns \emptyset . Otherwise, it chooses a request ℓ such that $\ell \not\prec j$ for every $j \neq \ell$. This can be done by choosing a request whose peak is furthest away from the root. It constructs a new weight function w_1 , and solves the problem recursively on $w_2 = w - w_1$ and the set of jobs with positive weight that is denoted by J^+ . Note that $\ell \notin J^+$. Then, it adds ℓ to the solution that was computed recursively only if feasibility is maintained.

Algorithm 1: Layer(J, w)

- 1: **if** $J = \emptyset$ **then** return \emptyset
 - 2: Let $\ell \in J$ be a request such that $\ell \not\prec j$ for every $j \in J \setminus \{\ell\}$
 - 3: Define $w_1(j) = w(\ell) \cdot \begin{cases} 1 & j = \ell, \\ \frac{d_j}{\alpha - \delta} & j \neq \ell, P_j \cap P_\ell \neq \emptyset, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$
and $w_2 = w - w_1$
 - 4: Let J^+ be the set of positive weighted requests
 - 5: $S' \leftarrow \mathbf{Layer}(J^+, w_2)$
 - 6: **if** $\sum_{j \in S': e \in P_j} d_j \leq \alpha - d_\ell$ for every $e \in E(\ell)$ **then** $S \leftarrow S' \cup \{\ell\}$
 - 7: **else** $S \leftarrow S'$
 - 8: Return S
-

Observe that due to Lines 6–7 and Observation 1 the total demand of requests from the computed solution on any edge is at most α . Also, the running time of the algorithm is clearly polynomial, since the number of recursive calls is at most n . In fact, using similar arguments to those used in [5] it can be implemented to run in $O(n \log n)$ time.

Lemma 2 *Given a narrow BAP instance, Algorithm **Layer** computes a $(1 + \frac{2}{\alpha - \delta})$ -approximate solution S that resides within an α -layer.*

Proof The proof is by induction on the number of recursive calls. In the base case ($J = \emptyset$) the computed solution is optimal. For the inductive step, we assume that $w(S')$ is $(1 + \frac{2}{\alpha-\delta})$ -approximate with respect to J^+ and w_2 . If this is the case, then S is also $(1 + \frac{2}{\alpha-\delta})$ -approximate with respect to J and w_2 , since $w_2(\ell) = 0$. We show that S is also $(1 + \frac{2}{\alpha-\delta})$ -approximate with respect to J and w_1 . This completes the proof since by the Local Ratio Theorem we get that S is $(1 + \frac{2}{\alpha-\delta})$ -approximate with respect to J and w as well.

It remains to show that S is $(1 + \frac{2}{\alpha-\delta})$ -approximate with respect to J and w_1 . Due to Lines 6–7 either $\ell \in S$ or $S \cup \{\ell\}$ is infeasible. If $\ell \in S$, then $w_1(S) \geq w(\ell)$. Otherwise, $\sum_{j \in S' : e \in P_j} d_j > \alpha - d_\ell$ for some edge $e \in E(\ell)$, and therefore $w_1(S) \geq w(\ell) \cdot \frac{\alpha - d_\ell}{\alpha - \delta} \geq w(\ell)$. On the other hand, we show that $w_1(T) \leq w(\ell) \cdot (1 + 2/(\alpha - \delta))$, for every feasible solution T . Let $j \in T$ be a request whose path intersects P_ℓ . Since $\ell \not\prec j$ for every $j \in J$ either $\text{peak}(j)$ is an ancestor of $\text{peak}(\ell)$ or $\text{peak}(j) = \text{peak}(\ell)$. Hence, P_j contains at least one edge from $E(\ell)$. It follows that $w_1(T) \leq w(\ell) + \frac{2(1-d_\ell)}{\alpha-\delta} \cdot w(\ell)$, if $\ell \in T$, and $w_1(T) \leq \frac{2}{\alpha-\delta} \cdot w(\ell)$, if $\ell \notin T$. Therefore

$$w_1(T) \leq w(\ell) \cdot \max \left\{ 1 + \frac{2(1-d_\ell)}{\alpha-\delta}, \frac{2}{\alpha-\delta} \right\} \leq w(\ell) \cdot \left(1 + \frac{2}{\alpha-\delta} \right)$$

which means that S is $(1 + \frac{2}{\alpha-\delta})$ -approximate with respect to J and w_1 . The lemma follows. \square

Note that in the case of EBAP, $|E(\ell)| \leq \gamma \triangleq \min\{\Delta - 1, \Delta'\}$ for every request ℓ . Hence, given a narrow EBAP instance, Algorithm **Layer** computes a $(1 + \frac{\gamma}{\alpha-\delta})$ -approximate solution S that resides within an α -layer. We also note that when the given tree is a line we may choose one of the leafs to be the root, and in this case $\gamma = 1$. It follows that Algorithm **Layer** computes $(1 + \frac{1}{\alpha-\delta})$ -approximate solutions that reside within an α -layer.

3.2.2 Iterative Approximation in Layers

Algorithm **Multi-Layer** iteratively use Algorithm **Layer** with $\alpha = 1/k$ to schedule requests in $1/k$ -layers for some large constant k , such that δ is significantly smaller than $1/k$.

Algorithm 2: Multi-Layer(J, w)

- 1: $J_1 \leftarrow J$
 - 2: **for** $i = 1$ to k **do**
 - 3: $S_i \leftarrow \mathbf{Layer}(J_i, w)$
 - 4: $J_{i+1} \leftarrow J_i \setminus S_i$
 - 5: **end for**
 - 6: **Return** $\bigcup_{i=1}^k S_i$
-

Algorithm **Multi-Layer** computes feasible solutions, since Algorithm **Layer** computes feasible solutions each residing in a $1/k$ -layer. The running time of the algorithm is polynomial, since Algorithm **Layer** is invoked a constant number of times.

We use the following notation. Let S^* be an optimal solution to the original instance. Let OPT_i denote the optimal value with respect to J_i . We denote $F_i = \bigcup_{l=1}^i S_l$. Hence, F_k is the computed solution. We also define $r \triangleq 1 + \frac{2}{1/k-\delta}$.

Lemma 3 $w(F_k) \geq (1 - (1 - 1/r)^k) \cdot OPT$.

Proof We show that $w(F_i) \geq (1 - (1 - 1/r)^i) \cdot OPT$ for every i . We prove the claim by induction on i . The base case ($i = 0$) is trivial. For the inductive step, we assume that $w(F_{i-1}) \geq (1 - (1 - 1/r)^{i-1}) \cdot OPT$. The set $S^* \setminus F_{i-1}$ is feasible with respect to $J_i = J \setminus F_{i-1}$, and therefore, $OPT_i \geq w(S^* \setminus F_{i-1})$. By Lemma 2 it follows that S_i is r -approximate with respect to J_i . Hence,

$$w(S_i) \geq \frac{OPT_i}{r} \geq \frac{w(S^* \setminus F_{i-1})}{r} \geq \frac{w(S^*) - w(F_{i-1})}{r} = \frac{OPT - w(F_{i-1})}{r}.$$

It follows that $w(F_i) = w(F_{i-1}) + w(S_i) \geq (1 - 1/r) \cdot w(F_{i-1}) + OPT/r$. Putting it together with the induction hypothesis we get that

$$w(F_i) \geq (1 - 1/r) \cdot (1 - (1 - 1/r)^{i-1}) \cdot OPT + OPT/r = OPT \cdot (1 - (1 - 1/r)^i)$$

and the lemma follows. □

If δ is significantly smaller than $\frac{1}{k}$ it follows that $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty, \delta \rightarrow 0} (1 - 1/r(\delta, k))^k = 1/\sqrt{e}$. Hence, we may choose a sufficiently large constant k and then a sufficiently small constant δ such that $(1 - 1/r)^k \leq 1/\sqrt{e} + \varepsilon$. Hence, for every constant $\varepsilon > 0$ there exist $\delta > 0$ and k such that Algorithm **Multi-Layer** computes solutions that are $(1/(1 - 1/\sqrt{e} - \varepsilon))$ -approximate.

Similar arguments can be used in the case of EBAP with $r \triangleq 1 + \frac{\gamma}{1/k-\delta}$. In this case Algorithm **Multi-Layer** computes $(1/(1 - 1/\sqrt[\gamma]{e} - \varepsilon))$ -approximate solutions. In the line we get a ratio of $1/(1 - 1/e - \varepsilon)$ by setting $r \triangleq 1 + \frac{1}{1/k-\delta}$.

3.3 Randomized Algorithm for Narrow Instances

In this section we present a randomized LP-based $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for narrow instances of BAP in bounded degree trees that extends the $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm by Calinescu et al. [9] for BAP in the line topology. We also show that this algorithm extends to EBAP.

First, BAP in trees (and EBAP) can be formalized using the following linear program:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(IP-BAP)} \quad & \max \quad \sum_{j \in J} w(j)x_j \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{j: e \in P_j} d_j x_j \leq 1 \quad \forall e \in E, \\ & x_j \in \{0, 1\} \quad \forall j \in J. \end{aligned}$$

The LP-relaxation of IP-BAP is obtained by replacing the integrality constraints by: $0 \leq x_j \leq 1$ for every $j \in J$, and is denoted by LP-BAP. The integrality gap of LP-BAP is at least 2, since it extends the standard LP for *knapsack*.

Next, we present a randomized approximation algorithm for narrow instances of BAP in bounded degree trees. Specifically, we show that for every $\varepsilon < 1/6$ there exists $\delta > 0$ small enough such that the algorithm computes $1/(1 - 6\varepsilon)$ -approximate solutions. The approximation algorithm is described as follows. First, we solve LP-BAP. Denote by x^* the computed optimal solution, and let $\text{OPT}^* = \sum_{j \in J} w(j)x_j^*$. We choose independently at random the variables $Y_j \in \{0, 1\}$, for $j \in J$, where $\Pr[Y_j = 1] = (1 - \varepsilon)x_j^*$. Next we define the random variables $Z_j \in \{0, 1\}$, $j \in J$. The Z_j s are considered in a top down manner. That is, Z_j is defined only after Z_ℓ was defined for every $\ell \prec j$. The Z_j s are defined as follows:

$$Z_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } Y_j = 1 \text{ and } \sum_{i:Z_i=1 \wedge e \in P_i} d_i \leq 1 - d_j \text{ for every } e \in E(j), \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Notice that the Z_j s are dependent, and they can be computed in the order Z_1, \dots, Z_n since if $i < j$ then $j \notin A(i)$ (or, $j \neq i$).

Let $Z = \{j : Z_j = 1\}$. Z is a feasible solution due to Observation 1, and $E[w(Z)] = \sum_{j \in J} w(j) \cdot \Pr[Z_j = 1]$. In the Appendix we show that $\Pr[Z_j = 1] \geq (1 - 3\varepsilon)x_j^*$. (The proof is almost identical to the one from [9] for BAP in lines.) It follows that $E[w(Z)] \geq \sum_{j \in J} w(j) \cdot (1 - 3\varepsilon)x_j^* = (1 - 3\varepsilon)\text{OPT}^*$. Furthermore, since $w(Z) \leq \text{OPT}^*$, Markov's inequality implies that $\Pr[w(Z) \geq (1 - 6\varepsilon) \cdot \text{OPT}^*] \geq 1/2$. Hence, we can use repetition in order to amplify the probability of obtaining at least a weight of $(1 - 6\varepsilon) \cdot \text{OPT}^*$.

The above algorithm for BAP also works for EBAP. For this case it is shown in Appendix that $\Pr[Z_j = 1] \geq (1 - \Delta\varepsilon)x_j^*$. Hence, $E[w(Z)] \geq (1 - \Delta\varepsilon)\text{OPT}^*$. It follows that a solution whose weight is at least $(1 - 2\Delta\varepsilon) \cdot \text{OPT}^*$ can be obtained with high probability.

4 Storage Allocation

In this section we consider SAP in the line. For the special case of wide instances we present a polynomial time dynamic programming algorithm that computes optimal solutions. (We actually present an algorithm for the more general case of SAP in bounded degree trees.) For narrow instances we present a general reduction from SAP to BAP. That is, given a narrow SAP instance in the line we show how to find an approximate solution using an algorithm for BAP. Thus, using the algorithm for BAP on narrow instances from Sect. 3.2 we obtain a deterministic approximation algorithm for narrow instances of SAP whose ratio is $1/(1 - 1/e - \varepsilon) < 1.582$. Using the randomized $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for narrow instances of BAP in the line from [9] we also obtain a randomized $(1 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm for narrow instances of SAP. By Lemma 1, we obtain a deterministic 2.582-approximation algorithm and a randomized $(2 + \varepsilon)$ -approximation algorithm, for any $\varepsilon > 0$, for SAP.

4.1 Storage Allocation on Wide Instances

We show how to extend the dynamic programming algorithm from Sect. 3.1 to solve wide instances of SAP in bounded degree trees. The running time of the modified algorithm is $O(m \cdot n^{\Delta \cdot (L+L^2)})$, where L is an upper bound on the number of requests per edge. If S is a feasible solution for a wide instance of SAP, then there are at most $1/\delta$ requests in S that go through e for any edge e . Hence, the running time of this algorithm in the line topology is $O(m \cdot n^{2/\delta+2/\delta^2})$, where m is the number of edges in the line.

Our algorithm is based on the following simple observation.

Observation 2 *There exists an optimal solution (S, h) such that, for every request j , either $h(j) = 0$ or there exists a request $j' \neq j$ such that $P_j \cap P_{j'} \neq \emptyset$ and $h(j) = h(j') + d_{j'}$.*

Proof Given an optimal solution (S^*, h^*) , simply apply “gravity” on S^* . (See example in Fig. 3.) □

Let (S, h) be an optimal solution. By Observation 2 we may assume that the height $h(j)$ of every request j is the sum of demands of some (possibly empty) subset of requests. Since the maximal number of requests assigned to an edge is at most L , the number of possible heights is bounded by $\sum_{i=0}^L \binom{n}{i} = O(n^L)$. We denote the set of possible heights by H . It follows that the definition of a proper set (from Sect. 3.1) can be extended to a *proper pair* (S_i, h_i) , where h_i is a height function. Since H is of polynomial size, the number of possible proper pairs with respect to some vertex is polynomial as well.

Consider a vertex u_0 and its children u_1, \dots, u_k as in the case of BAP. We refer to a set of requests $S_i \subseteq J$ and a height function $h_i : S_i \rightarrow H$ as *proper with respect to a vertex u_i* if (i) S is proper in the BAP sense, (ii) $h_i(j) + d_j \leq 1$ for every $j \in S_i$, and (iii) for every $j, j' \in S_i$ such that $j \neq j'$ either $h_i(j) + d_j \leq h_i(j')$ or $h_i(j') + d_{j'} \leq h_i(j)$. Observe that there are $O(n^L)$ possibilities for choosing S_i , and that given S_i there are $O((n^L)^L) = O(n^{L^2})$ possibilities for choosing h_i . The pairs $(S_1, h_1), \dots, (S_k, h_k)$ are said to be *compatible* with the proper pair (S_0, h_0) if (i) S_1, \dots, S_k are compatible with the S_0 in the BAP sense, and (ii) $h_i(j) = h_{i'}(j)$ for every $i \neq i'$ and $j \in S_i, S_{i'}$.

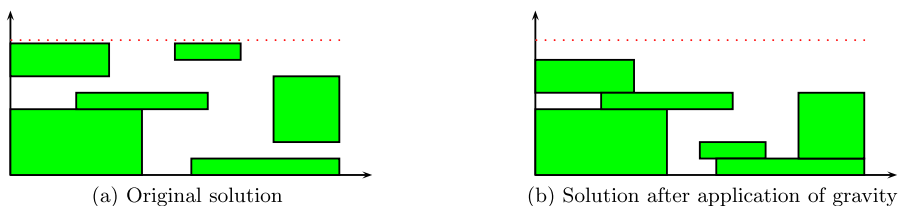


Fig. 3 Solution (b) is obtained by applying gravity on Solution (a)

The dynamic programming table is of size $O(m \cdot n^{L+L^2})$, and it is defined as follows. For a vertex u_0 and a pair (S_0, h_0) that is proper with respect to u_0 the state $\Pi(u_0, S_0, h_0)$ is the maximum weight of a pair (S', h') such that $S' \subseteq J(T_0)$, where $J(T_0)$ contains requests j such that P_j is fully contained in T_0 , and $(S_0 \cup S', h_0 \cup h')$ is feasible, where

$$(h_0 \cup h')(j) = \begin{cases} h_0(j) & j \in S_0, \\ h'(j) & j \in S'. \end{cases}$$

We initialize the table by setting $\Pi(u_0, S_0, h_0) = 0$ for every leaf u_0 and a proper pair (S_0, h_0) . We compute the rest of the entries by using:

$$\Pi(u_0, S_0, h_0) = \max_{\substack{(S_1, h_1), \dots, (S_k, h_k) \text{ are} \\ \text{compatible with } (S_0, h_0)}} \left\{ w \left(\bigcup_{i=1}^k S_k \setminus S_0 \right) + \sum_{i=1}^k \Pi(u_i, S_i, h_i) \right\}$$

when u_0 is an internal node. The weight of an optimal solution is $\Pi(r, \emptyset, f)$ where f is a function whose domain is the empty set.

To compute each entry $\Pi(u_0, S_0, h_0)$ we need to go through all the possibilities of pairs $(S_1, h_1), \dots, (S_k, h_k)$ that are compatible with (S_0, h_0) . There are no more than $O(n^{L+L^2})$ possibilities of choosing a proper pair (S_i, h_i) that is compatible with $(S_0, h_0), \dots, (S_{i-1}, h_{i-1})$. Therefore, the number of possibilities is $O(n^{(L+L^2) \cdot (\Delta-1)})$. Hence, the total running time is $O(m \cdot n^{L+L^2} \cdot n^{(L+L^2) \cdot (\Delta-1)}) = O(m \cdot n^{(L+L^2)\Delta})$.

4.2 Reduction for Narrow Instances

Our reduction relies on a closely related problem to SAP called the *dynamic storage allocation problem* (DSA). Similarly to SAP in the line, in DSA we are given a set of rectangles J that can only move vertically. The goal is to minimize the total height required to pack all rectangles such that no two rectangles overlap. Formally, a DSA solution is an assignment $h : J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ such that for every $j \neq k$ and $P_j \cap P_k \neq \emptyset$ either $h(j) + d_j \leq h(k)$ or $h(k) + d_k \leq h(j)$. Our goal is to minimize $\max_{j \in J} \{h(j) + d_j\}$.

We use the following result for DSA. Buchsbaum et al. [8] presented a polynomial time algorithm that computes a solution whose cost is at most $(1 + O((\frac{D}{\text{LOAD}(J)})^{1/7})) \cdot \text{LOAD}(J)$, where $D = \max_j \{d_j\}$, and $\text{LOAD}(J)$ is the maximum load on an edge, i.e., $\text{LOAD}(J) = \max_e \{\sum_{j \in J: e \in P_j} d_j\}$. Observe that the height of a DSA solution must be at least $\text{LOAD}(J)$. Also observe that when $D = o(\text{LOAD}(J))$ the cost of the solution is $(1 + o(1)) \cdot \text{LOAD}(J)$.

Lemma 4 *For every constant $\beta > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that if S is a feasible BAP solution to some δ -narrow instance, then S can be transformed into a SAP solution that fits into a $(1 + \beta)$ -layer in polynomial time.*

Proof Let S' be the solution computed by the algorithm of Buchsbaum et al. [8] when given S as an input. It follows that $\text{LOAD}(S') \leq \text{LOAD}(S) + C \cdot D^{1/7} \cdot \text{LOAD}(S)^{6/7}$ for some constant C . Since $\text{LOAD}(S) \leq 1$, there exists δ small enough such that $\text{LOAD}(S') \leq 1 + \beta$. □

Our reduction uses the notion of an α -layer. Recall that an α -layer is a line in which the capacity of the edges is α . In the case of BAP, this means that if a solution fits into an α -layer then the total demand on every edge is at most α . In the case of SAP, such a solution S must satisfy the following constraints: (i) $h(j) + d_j \leq \alpha$ for every $j \in S$, and (ii) for every two requests $j, k \in S$ such that $j \neq k$ and $P_j \cap P_k \neq \emptyset$ either $h(j) + d_j \leq h(k)$ or $h(k) + d_k \leq h(j)$.

Let Algorithm **BAP** be an approximation algorithm for BAP in the line such that for every $\varepsilon' > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that the algorithm computes $r/(1 - \varepsilon')$ -approximate solutions for δ -narrow instances. Algorithm **SAP** is our approximation algorithm for narrow SAP instances in the line that uses Algorithm **BAP**. We show that for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that it computes $r/(1 - \varepsilon)$ -approximate solutions for δ -narrow instances. We assume that δ is small enough such that (i) Algorithm **BAP** computes $r/(1 - \varepsilon/4)$ -approximate solutions on δ -narrow instances, and (ii) the conditions of Lemma 4 are satisfied with $\beta = \varepsilon/4$. We also assume that $\delta < \varepsilon/4$. Algorithm **SAP** starts by calling Algorithm **BAP** in order to obtain a BAP solution. Using Lemma 4, it transforms this solution into a SAP solution that fits into a $(1 + \beta)$ -layer, where $\beta = \varepsilon/4$. Then, it removes a small part of it in order to obtain a feasible solution for SAP.

Algorithm 3: SAP(J, w)

- 1: $S \leftarrow \mathbf{BAP}(J, w)$
 - 2: Compute an assignment h for S in a $(1 + \beta)$ -layer using Lemma 4
 - 3: Divide the $(1 + \beta)$ -layer into β -layers
 Let S_i be the requests that intersect the i th layer
 - 4: $k \leftarrow \operatorname{argmin}_i w(S_i)$
 - 5: $S' \leftarrow S \setminus S_k$
 - 6: Define $h'(j) = \begin{cases} h(j) & h(j) < (k - 1)\beta, \\ h(j) - \beta & h(j) \geq k\beta, \end{cases}$
 for $j \in S'$
 - 7: Return (S', h')
-

The computed solution is feasible since the removal of S_k leaves one β -layer empty, and this allows us to condense the assignment h such that the remaining requests fit in a layer of height 1. Furthermore, since $\delta < \varepsilon/4$ each request j can be contained in at most two β -layers. Hence, $\sum_i w(S_i) \leq 2w(S)$. It follows that

$$w(S_k) \leq \frac{2w(S)}{\lceil 1/\beta \rceil} = \frac{2w(S)}{\lceil 4/\varepsilon \rceil} < 3\varepsilon \cdot \frac{w(S)}{4}$$

and therefore $w(S') > (1 - 3\varepsilon/4) \cdot w(S)$. Since $w(S) \geq \text{OPT} \cdot (1 - \varepsilon/4)/r$, it follows that

$$w(S') > \frac{(1 - 3\varepsilon/4)(1 - \varepsilon/4)}{r} \cdot \text{OPT} \geq \frac{1 - \varepsilon}{r} \cdot \text{OPT}$$

as required. (Recall that the BAP optimum is at least as large as the SAP optimum.) Finally, the running time is polynomial, because given ε all parameters except n are constants.

Appendix: Randomized Algorithm for Narrow Instances

Given a constant δ , our randomized algorithm for δ -narrow instances of BAP computes $1/(1 - 6\varepsilon)$ -approximate solutions, where

$$\varepsilon = \sqrt{(8/3) \cdot \delta \ln(1/\delta)}. \tag{1}$$

Clearly, this statement is meaningful only when $\varepsilon < 1/6$. In [9] it was shown that the function $f(\delta) = \sqrt{(8/3) \cdot \delta \ln(1/\delta)}$ is increasing on $(0, 1/e)$. Hence, for every $\varepsilon \in (0, 1/6)$, there exists some $\delta < \delta_0$ such that (1) is satisfied, where $f(\delta_0) = 1/6$. ($\delta_0 \in (0.001, 0.002)$ since $f(0.001) < 0.136$ and $f(0.002) > 0.182$.)

For the case of EBAP the algorithm computes $1/(1 - 2\Delta\varepsilon)$ -approximate solutions. Again, since the function $f(\delta)$ is increasing on $(0, 1/e)$ it follows that for every $\varepsilon < \frac{1}{2\Delta}$ there exists a δ such that (1) is satisfied.

It remains to prove that $\Pr[Z_j = 1] \geq (1 - \Delta\varepsilon)x_j^*$, but to do so we need the following observation and lemma that were given by Calinescu et al. [9].

Observation 3 ([9]) *Let $\varepsilon = \sqrt{\frac{8}{3} \cdot \delta \ln(1/\delta)}$ where $\varepsilon < 1/4$ and $\delta < 0.0044$. Then, $\varepsilon > 57\delta$.*

Lemma 5 ([9]) *Let X_1, \dots, X_m be independent random variables and let $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_m \in [0, 1]$, where $\Pr[X_i = \beta_i] = p_i$ and $\Pr[X_i = 0] = 1 - p_i$, for every i . Let $X = \sum_{i=1}^m X_i$ and $\mu = E[X]$. Then,*

1. $\sigma(X) \leq \sqrt{\mu}$.
2. $\Pr[X > \mu + \lambda\sqrt{\mu}] < \exp(-\frac{\lambda^2}{2} + \frac{\lambda^3}{2\sqrt{\mu}})$ for any λ such that $0 < \lambda < \sqrt{\mu}$.

The following lemma is a direct extension of Lemma 3.6 from [9].

Lemma 6 $\Pr[Z_j = 1] \geq (1 - \Delta\varepsilon) \cdot x_j^*$ for every $j \in J$.

Proof Consider some $j \in J$. We first observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Z_j = 1] &= \Pr[Y_j = 0] \cdot \Pr[Z_j = 1|Y_j = 0] + \Pr[Y_j = 1] \cdot \Pr[Z_j = 1|Y_j = 1] \\ &= \Pr[Y_j = 1] \cdot \Pr[Z_j = 1|Y_j = 1] \end{aligned}$$

since $\Pr[Z_j = 1|Y_j = 0] = 0$. Hence, we try to estimate the probability $\Pr[Z_j = 1|Y_j = 1]$. Let $\pi_j(e)$ for $e \in E(j)$ be the probability that j was blocked in the edge e .

$$\pi_j(e) = \Pr\left[\sum_{i \in A(j): e \in P_i} d_i Z_i > 1 - d_j \right] \leq \Pr\left[\sum_{i \in A(j): e \in P_i} \frac{d_i Y_i}{\delta} > \frac{1 - \delta}{\delta} \right]$$

since $Z_i \leq Y_i$ and $d_i \leq \delta$. Now we can define a new random variable $X_i = \frac{d_i Y_i}{\delta}$ for every $i \in A(j)$ such that $e \in P_i$. Also, let $X = \sum_i X_i$, $\mu = E[X]$. Observe that the

new variables satisfy the conditions of Lemma 5 with $\beta_i = d_i/\delta$ and $p_i = (1 - \varepsilon)x_i^*$. Later on, we use Lemma 5 and the following bound on μ :

$$\mu = \sum_{i \in A(j): e \in P_i} \frac{d_i}{\delta} \cdot (1 - \varepsilon)x_i^* = \frac{1 - \varepsilon}{\delta} \sum_{i \in A(j): e \in P_i} d_i x_i^* \leq \frac{1 - \varepsilon}{\delta}, \tag{2}$$

where the inequality is due to the fact that x^* is a feasible solution of LP-BAP.

We consider two cases:

Case 1: $\mu < \frac{7}{8} \cdot \frac{1 - \delta}{\delta}$

In this case,

$$\pi_j(e) \leq \Pr\left[X > \frac{1 - \delta}{\delta}\right] \leq \Pr\left[|X - \mu| > \frac{1 - \delta}{8\delta\sqrt{\mu}} \cdot \sigma(X)\right] \leq \frac{64\delta^2\mu}{(1 - \delta)^2},$$

where the second inequality is due to Lemma 5 and the third follows from Chebyshev’s inequality. Since $\mu < \frac{7}{8} \cdot \frac{1 - \delta}{\delta}$ and $\delta < \delta_0 \leq 0.002$, we get that $\pi_j(e) < \frac{56\delta}{1 - \delta} < 57\delta$.

Case 2: $\mu \geq \frac{7}{8} \cdot \frac{1 - \delta}{\delta}$

Set λ such that $\mu + \lambda\sqrt{\mu} = \frac{1 - \delta}{\delta}$. Observe that λ is a decreasing function of μ . Hence, from (2) and Observation 3 it follows that

$$\lambda = \frac{(1 - \delta)/\delta - \mu}{\sqrt{\mu}} \geq \frac{(1 - \delta)/\delta - (1 - \varepsilon)/\delta}{\sqrt{(1 - \varepsilon)/\delta}} = \frac{\varepsilon - \delta}{\sqrt{\delta(1 - \varepsilon)}} \geq \frac{\varepsilon - \delta}{\sqrt{\delta}} \geq \frac{56\varepsilon}{57\sqrt{\delta}}.$$

Also, since $\mu \geq \frac{7}{8} \cdot \frac{1 - \delta}{\delta}$, it follows that $1 - \lambda/\sqrt{\mu} = 2 - \frac{1 - \delta}{\delta\mu} \geq 2 - 8/7 = 6/7$. Which means that $\lambda \leq \sqrt{\mu}/7$. By (2) and Lemma 5 we get that

$$\begin{aligned} \pi_j(e) &\leq \Pr[X > (1 - \delta)/\delta] = \Pr[X > \mu + \lambda\sqrt{\mu}] \\ &< \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda^2}{2}(1 - \lambda/\sqrt{\mu})\right) < \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{56}{57}\right)^2 \frac{\varepsilon^2}{\delta} \frac{6}{7}\right) \\ &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{56}{57}\right)^2 \frac{8}{3} \ln(1/\delta) \frac{6}{7}\right) = \delta^{8 \cdot 56^2 / 7 \cdot 57^2} < \delta. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, in both cases $\pi_j(e) \leq 57\delta$. By union bound and Observation 3 it follows that

$$\Pr[Z_j = 0 | Y_j = 1] \leq \sum_{e \in E(j)} \pi_j(e) \leq 57\delta \cdot |E(j)| < \varepsilon \cdot |E(j)|$$

and therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \Pr[Z_j = 1] &> (1 - \varepsilon \cdot |E(j)|) \cdot \Pr[Y_j = 1] \\ &= (1 - \varepsilon \cdot |E(j)|) \cdot (1 - \varepsilon) \cdot x_j^* \\ &\geq (1 - \varepsilon \cdot (|E(j)| + 1)) \cdot x_j^* \\ &= (1 - \varepsilon \cdot (\gamma + 1)) \cdot x_j^* \\ &\geq (1 - \varepsilon \cdot \Delta) \cdot x_j^* \end{aligned}$$

and the lemma follows. □

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