Polynomially solvable cases of the constant rank unconstrained quadratic 0-1 programming problem *

Eranda Çela † Bettina Klinz ‡ Christophe Meyer §

Abstract

In this paper we consider the constant rank unconstrained quadratic 0-1 optimization problem, CR-QP01 for short. This problem consists in minimizing the quadratic function $\langle x, Ax\rangle + \langle c, x\rangle$ over the set $\{0,1\}^n$ where c is a vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$ and A is a symmetric real $n \times n$ matrix of constant rank r.

We first present a pseudo-polynomial algorithm for solving the problem CR-QP01, which is known to be NP-hard already for $r = 1$. We then derive two new classes of special cases of the CR-QP01 which can be solved in polynomial time. These classes result from further restrictions on the matrix A. Finally we compare our algorithm with the recent algorithm of Allemand et al. [1] for the CR-QP01 with negative semidefinite A and extend the range of applicability of the latter algorithm. It turns out that neither of the two algorithms dominates the other with respect to the class of instances which can be solved in polynomial time.

Keywords: quadratic 0-1 programming, special case, computational complexity, local minima, constant rank matrix.

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†Institut für Mathematik B, Technische Universität Graz, Steyrergasse 30, A-8010 Graz, Austria. cela@opt.math.tu-graz.ac.at

‡Institut für Mathematik B, Technische Universität Graz, Steyrergasse 30, A-8010 Graz, Austria. klinz@opt.math.tu-graz.ac.at

§Université de Montréal, Département d'Informatique et de Recherche Opérationnelle, C. P. 6128, succ. Centre-ville, Montréal (Québec) Canada H3C 3J7. christop@crt.umontreal.ca

Résumé

Dans cet article nous considérons le problème de minimisation quadratique $0-1$ non-contraint avec une matrice de rang constant, noté CR-QP01. Ce problème consiste à minimiser la fonction quadratique $\langle x, Ax\rangle + \langle c, x\rangle$ sur l'ensemble $\{0,1\}^n$ où c est un vecteur de $\mathbb{R}^n$ et A est une matrice symétrique réélle de dimension $n \times n$ et de rang constant r.

Nous présentons d'abord un algorithme pseudo-polynomial pour résoudre le problème CR-QP01, qui est connu pour être NP-difficile déjà pour $r = 1$. Nous dérivons ensuite deux nouvelles classes de cas spéciaux de CR-QP01 qui peuvent être résolues en temps polynomial. Ces classes s'obtiennent en ajoutant des restrictions supplémentaires sur la matrice A. Finalement nous comparons notre algorithme avec le récent algorithme de Allemand et al. [1] pour CR-QP01 lorsque A est une matrice semi-définie négative et nous étendons le domaine d'application de ce dernier algorithme. Nous montrons qu'aucun des deux algorithmes ne domine l'autre par rapport aux classes d'instances qui peuvent être résolues en temps polynomial.

Mots Clés: programmation quadratique 0-1, cas spécial, complexité, minimum local, matrice de rang constant.

1 Introduction

Problem statement. In this paper we consider a special case of the unconstrained 0-1 quadratic programming problem, QP01 for short. The QP01 can be stated as follows:

$$\min_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \langle x, Ax \rangle + \langle c, x \rangle \tag{1}$$

where c is a vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$, A is a symmetric real $n \times n$ matrix and $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ denotes the Euclidean inner product in $\mathbb{R}^n$. Note that since $x_i^2 = x_i$ for $x_i \in \{0, 1\}$, one could assume in problem (1) that there is no linear term, i.e., that $c = 0$. Applying this transformation, however, changes the diagonal elements of A. Since this paper is concerned with special cases of the QP01 which result from specially structured matrices, we prefer to work with the representation (1). Problem QP01 has been investigated in numerous papers and has many applications, see e.g. Boros and Hammer [4] and the references cited therein.

It is well-known that QP01 is strongly NP-hard; for example, it is equivalent to the maximum cut problem (MC) which is well-known to belong to the class of strongly NP-hard problems (for the equivalence see Hammer [14], for the complexity of the MC problem see Garey and Johnson [13]).

The topic of this paper is the *constant rank unconstrained quadratic 0-1 programming problem*, CR-QP01 for short, which arises as special case of the QP01 by restricting the matrix A to the class of matrices with constant rank r. This restriction remains NP-hard even for the special case of rank 1 matrices (for details, see Section 2).

Related results. In the literature mainly two types of special cases of the QP01 have been investigated. The first type typically results from putting restrictions on the graph $G(A)$ which results by introducing an edge $\{i, j\}$ for $a_{ij} \neq 0$. There is a close relationship between this class of special cases of the QP01 and special cases of the maximum cut problem for special graph classes. An example of this first type of special cases is the case which results from graphs $G(A)$ with bounded tree-width. This special case can be solved in polynomial time (see Crama, Hansen and Jaumard [7] for a treatment in the more general setting of pseudo-Boolean programs), and subsumes the special cases where the graph $G(A)$ is series-parallel (Barahona [2]) or where $G(A)$ is a binary tree (Pardalos and Jha [20]). There exist quite a number of other polynomially solvable special cases of the QP01 which result from restrictions

on the graph $G(A)$. As this paper deals with a different class of special cases, we refrain from giving further details.

The second class of special cases arises from putting restrictions on the matrix $A = (a_{ij})$. The best known example of this type is the case of nonpositive matrices A, i.e., more precisely, $a_{ij} \leq 0$ for $1 \leq i < j \leq n$. This case can be solved by reduction to a maximum flow problem in a network with $O(n^2)$ nodes (see Picard and Ratcliff [21]). The CR-QP01 belongs to this second class of special cases. The following special cases of the CR-QP01 have been treated in the literature.

- A is of rank $r = 1$ and there is no linear term, i.e., $c = 0$. This case can be solved in a straightforward way by inspection.
- A has at most one positive and at most one negative eigenvalue and the matrix (A, c) is of rank 2. In this case, the objective function f in (1) can be written as product of two linear functions. This special case of the CR-QP01 is still NP-hard, see Hammer et al. [15]. In [15] an $O(n \log n)$ algorithm is proposed for solving the continuous relaxation, and then cases are characterized where the optimal solution of the relaxation is 0-1, i.e., constitutes an optimal solution of the CR-QP01.
- A is negative semidefinite and there is no linear term, i.e., $c = 0$. For this case Allemand, Fukuda, Liebling and Steiner [1] proposed an algorithm of complexity $O(n^{r-1})$ for the case $r \geq 3$ and $O(n^2)$ for $r = 2$. At the end of this paper we will show that their algorithm actually solves a broader class of problems, namely all quadratic 0-1 problems with a matrix of rank r that have the property that all optimal solutions of the continuous relaxation are integral.

Our results. Our main result is the identification of the following two new classes of polynomially solvable cases of the CR-QP01:

(C1) This class results from a hypergraph $H = (V_H, E_H)$ with bounded edge size. We require that $\sum_{i,j \in F} a_{ij} < 0$ holds for all edges $F \in E_H$ and that the stable sets of H can be enumerated in polynomial time (for details see Section 4).

(C2) This class results from an undirected graph $G = (V, E)$, the edges of which are partitioned into two classes $E^-(G)$ and $E^+(G)$. We require that

$$\begin{cases} a_{ii} + a_{jj} - 2a_{ij} < 0 & \text{for all } \{i,j\} \in E^-(G) \\ a_{ii} + a_{jj} + 2a_{ij} < 0 & \text{for all } \{i,j\} \in E^+(G) \end{cases}$$

holds. Moreover, the following two properties have to be fulfilled: (i) The number of maximal stable sets in the graph $(V, E^+(G))$ is polynomial in n, and (ii) for each maximal stable set S and for each possible orientation $\mathcal{O}$ of the edges in the set $E^-(G[S]) = \{\{i,j\} \in E^-(G) \text{ and } i,j \in S\}$, the number of extensions of the partial order on S induced by $\mathcal{O}$ to a total order on S is polynomial in n (for further details and definitions see Sections 3.7 and 5).

Organization of the paper. The paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we discuss the complexity of problem CR-QP01 and present a pseudopolynomial algorithm for its solution. In Section 3, we present the general framework of our approach. Section 4 deals with the special case C1 and Section 5 with the special case C2. In Section 6, we compare our approach with the approach of Allemand, Fukuda, Liebling and Steiner [1]. More specifically, we show that the range of applicability of the approach of [1] can be extended. We furthermore provide examples which show that neither of the two approaches dominates the other in terms of the classes of instances of the CR-QP01 that can be solved in polynomial time. The paper is closed with a short conclusion in Section 7.

2 Complexity aspects of the CR-QP01

In this section, we are going to investigate the complexity of the CR-QP01 in some more detail. In particular, we will present a pseudopolynomial time algorithm for CR-QP01. This shows that, in contrast to the general QP01, the special case CR-QP01 with a matrix A of constant rank is not NP-hard in the strong sense.

For the rest of the paper we will make use of the following alternative representation of problem CR-QP01:

$$\min_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} f(x) = \langle \widetilde{c}, x \rangle + \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \lambda_\ell \left(\beta_\ell + \langle u^\ell, x \rangle \right)^2 \tag{2}$$

where d is a constant, $\widetilde{c}$ and $u^1, \ldots, u^d$ are given vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$, and $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_d$, $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_d$ are given reals. Note that we could always set $\beta_\ell = 0$ for $\ell = 1, \ldots, d$, because all linear terms can be collected in the term $\langle \widetilde{c}, x \rangle$ and additive constants do not play a role in the minimization of f. The reason why we, nevertheless, use the more general formulation is that the choice of the vector $\widetilde{c}$ and of the numbers β_ℓ might have an influence on the running times of our algorithms (for further details see the comments below).

From linear algebra it is known that any quadratic function can be always represented in the form (2). One method to arrive at such a representation is to determine a spectral decomposition of A, i.e., to use the non-zero eigenvalues of A as values λ_j and the eigenvectors as vectors u^j, $j = 1, \ldots, d$ where $d = r$ (recall that r denotes the rank of A). Moreover, all β_ℓ are set to zero. This approach has the disadvantage that it might lead to irrational numbers in the representation (2), even in the case where all entries of A and c are rational. If a rational representation is needed, one can compute a so-called LDU decomposition of A which leads in the symmetric case to a decomposition of A as product LDL^T where L is a lower triangular matrix and D is a diagonal matrix with rank $d = r$ (see text books on linear algebra, e.g. [12], for details).

Since the representation of a quadratic function in the form (2) is not unique, this poses the question of finding the best such representation. Different representations can have different values for d and $\widetilde{c}$, which will influence the running time of our algorithms. For example, by choosing the numbers β_ℓ in a clever way, it might be possible to arrive at $\widetilde{c} = 0$, which, as we will see later, leads to algorithms with lower complexity for the classes considered in this paper. Similarly, a clever choice of $\widetilde{c}$ might allow to arrive at a quadratic part with rank $d < r$. We will not deal with the question of finding the representation which results in the smallest running times of our algorithms in this paper. This is a problem in its own right.

It is well-known and easy to see that problem CR-QP01 is NP-hard already for matrices of rank 1. If the representation (2) is used, one can even moreover assume that $\widetilde{c} = 0$. To see this, consider the well-known SUBSET SUM problem, see [13], which, given nonnegative integers $s_1, \ldots, s_n$ and an integral target value B, asks for the existence of a subset $I \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that $\sum_{i \in I} s_i = B$. This question has the answer yes if and only if the optimal value of the instance of the CR-QP01 given by $\min_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n s_i x_i - B\right)^2$ is 0.

The following result shows that problem CR-QP01 can be solved in pseudo-polynomial time for rational data.

Proposition 1 *Let an instance of problem (2) be given with $\widetilde{c}, u^1, \ldots, u^d \in \mathbb{Z}^n$, $\beta_1, \ldots, \beta_d \in \mathbb{Z}$ and $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_d \in \mathbb{Q}$. Let $U = 2 \max_{i=1,\ldots,n;\ell=1,\ldots,d}\{|u_i^\ell|, |\widetilde{c}_i|\}$. Then the given instance can be solved in $O\left(dU^{2d+2}n^{2d+3}\right)$ time.*

To prove Proposition 1, we need the following lemma.

Lemma 1 *Let $K = \{k_{ij}\}$ be a $m \times n$ integral matrix, and b an integer vector of dimension m. The problem of deciding whether there exists a vector $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ such that $Kx = b$ can be solved in $O\left(mn^{m+1}\kappa^m\right)$ time where $\kappa = 2 \max_{i,j=1,\ldots,n} \{|k_{ij}|\}$.*

Proof. The proof of this lemma is based on a modification of the dynamic programming approach of Papadimitriou [19] for the integer linear feasibility problem. Let $k^{(i)}$ denote the i-th column of the matrix K, $i = 1, \ldots, n$. At the j-th stage of the dynamic program, we compute the set W_j of vectors w that can be written as $w = \sum_{i=1}^{j} x_i k^{(i)}$ with $x_i \in \{0,1\}$, $i = 1, \ldots, j$. The cardinality of the set W_j is bounded from above by $(j\kappa + 1)^m$. Hence the set W_n can be computed in $O\left(m \sum_{j=1}^{n-1} (j\kappa+1)^m\right) = O\left(mn^{m+1}\kappa^m\right)$ time. To answer the feasibility question, it suffices to check if the set W_n contains the vector b, which can also be done in $O\left(mn^{m+1}\kappa^m\right)$ time. ∎

Proof of Proposition 1. For notational convenience, set $u^0 = \widetilde{c}$. Due to the definition of U we have, $-\frac{nU}{2} \leq \langle u^\ell, x\rangle \leq \frac{nU}{2}$ for all $\ell = 0, \ldots, d$ and $x \in \{0,1\}^n$. Let $v = (v_0, \ldots, v_d)$ be an integral vector in the box $\left[-\frac{nU}{2}, \frac{nU}{2}\right]^{d+1}$. We associate with v the following parametrized minimization problem

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & g_{v_0,\ldots,v_d}(x) = v_0 + \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \lambda_\ell \left(\beta_\ell + v_\ell\right)^2 \\ \text{s.t.} & \begin{cases} \langle u^\ell, x\rangle = v_\ell & \ell = 0, \ldots, d \\ x_i \in \{0,1\} & i = 1, \ldots, n. \end{cases} \end{array} \tag{3}$$

For each choice of v, the set of constraints of the corresponding problem (3) defines a feasibility problem which can be solved in $O\left(dn^{d+2}U^{d+1}\right)$ time applying the approach from Lemma 1. The optimal value of problem (2) is the minimum of $v_0 + \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \lambda_\ell \left(\beta_\ell + v_\ell\right)^2$ over all vectors $v = (v_0, \ldots, v_d)$ which correspond to a feasible problem. There are $(nU+1)^{d+1} = O\left((nU)^{d+1}\right)$ vectors $(v_0, \ldots, v_d)$ to test, hence the claimed result follows. ∎

3 General algorithmic framework

In this section we present the general framework of our approach. In the two subsequent sections we will discuss how polynomial time algorithms can be obtained for

the special cases C1 and C2 introduced in the introduction.

In Section 3.1 we introduce some key notations for the generic algorithmic approach which will be sketched in Section 3.2. The generic algorithm consists of three steps. We propose two variants for performing the first step, which are are presented in Sections 3.3 and 3.4, respectively. The second and third steps of the algorithm are addressed in Sections 3.5 and 3.6, respectively. In Section 3.7, we introduce some graph theoretical definitions that will be needed in the remainder of this paper.

3.1 Neighborhoods and local minima

A key notion needed in this section is the notion of a neighborhood. The function $\mathcal{N}$ which maps $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ to the set $\mathcal{N}(x) \subseteq \{0,1\}^n \setminus \{x\}$ is called a *neighborhood function*, or *neighborhood* for short. The members of the set $\mathcal{N}(x)$ are called *neighbors* of x. Note that we allow $\mathcal{N}(x) = \emptyset$, i.e., x has no neighbors.

$\tilde{x} \in \{0,1\}^n$ is said to be a *local minimum* of (2) with respect to the neighborhood function $\mathcal{N}$ if $f(\tilde{x}) \leq f(x)$ holds for all $x \in \mathcal{N}(\tilde{x})$. $\tilde{x} \in \{0,1\}^n$ is said to be a *global minimum* of (2) if $f(\tilde{x}) \leq f(x)$ holds for all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$.

In the sequel it will be more convenient to use the following alternative representation of neighborhood functions: For $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ and a subset F of $\{1,\ldots,n\}$, let x^F denote the vector which results from x by flipping the values of the components of x corresponding to indices in F, i.e.,

$$x_i^F = \begin{cases} 1 - x_i & \text{if } i \in F \\ x_i & \text{if } i \notin F \end{cases} \qquad i = 1,\ldots,n.$$

Clearly, to each neighborhood function $\mathcal{N}$, we can associate a function $\mathcal{F}$ such that $\mathcal{N}(x) = \{x^F : F \in \mathcal{F}(x)\}$ holds for all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$. By a slight abuse of notation, we will in the following also refer to $\mathcal{F}$ as a neighborhood function. We denote by $\mathcal{G}$ the union of the sets $\mathcal{F}(x)$ over all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$, i.e., $\mathcal{G} = \bigcup_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \mathcal{F}(x)$. We assume that the sets in $\mathcal{G}$ are ordered in some arbitrary way, say $\mathcal{G} = \{F_1, F_2, \ldots, F_g\}$ where $g = |\mathcal{G}|$.

Both specific neighborhood functions which will be used in this paper (in Sections 4 and 5, respectively) are symmetric, i.e. fulfill the property $x \in \mathcal{N}(x') \Leftrightarrow x' \in \mathcal{N}(x)$. Moreover we assume that there exists a constant p such that $|F| \leq p$ for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$.

We are now going to characterize local minima with respect to a given neighborhood function $\mathcal{F}$.

Proposition 2 *x is a local minimum with respect to the neighborhood function $\mathcal{F}$ if and only if the following property holds for all $F \in \mathcal{F}(x)$:*

$$\sum_{j\in F}(2x_j-1)\left(\widetilde{c}_j + 2\sum_{\ell=1}^{d}\lambda_\ell u_j^\ell(\beta_\ell + \langle u^\ell, x\rangle)\right) - \sum_{i,j\in F}(2x_i-1)(2x_j-1)a_{ij} \le 0 \quad (4)$$

Proof. Compute the difference $\Delta = f(x) - f(x^F)$ and note that $\sum_{\ell=1}^{d}\lambda_\ell u_i^\ell u_j^\ell = a_{ij}$ for all $i, j = 1, \ldots, n$. It is then easy to see that the condition $\Delta \le 0$ is equivalent to the condition (4). ∎

We are now going to reformulate the conditions (4). Our goal is to arrive at a polyhedral description. For each set $F \in \mathcal{G}$ we choose a value δ_F such that

$$\sum_{i,j\in F}(2x_i-1)(2x_j-1)a_{ij} \le \delta_F \qquad \text{for all } x \in \{0,1\}^n. \quad (5)$$

Let $\delta = (\delta_{F_1}, \delta_{F_2}, \ldots, \delta_{F_g})$. To each $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ we associate a polyhedron $P_{x,\delta} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ which contains all $y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that

$$2\sum_{\ell=1}^{d}\lambda_\ell\left(\sum_{j\in F}(2x_j-1)u_j^\ell\right)y_\ell \;\le\; \delta_F - \sum_{j\in F}(2x_j-1)\widetilde{c}_j \quad \text{for all } F \in \mathcal{F}(x). \quad (6)$$

Proposition 2 implies that for all local minima x with the property $\mathcal{F}(x) \neq \emptyset$ (i.e. x has at least one neighbor) the polyhedron $P_{x,\delta} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ is nonempty (to see that, set $y_\ell := \beta_\ell + \langle u^\ell, x\rangle$ for $\ell = 1, \ldots, d$). In order to write the inequalities defining the polyhedron $P_{x,\delta}$ in a more succinct way, we introduce the terms $r_j(y)$ defined by

$$r_j(y) = \widetilde{c}_j + 2\sum_{\ell=1}^{d}\lambda_\ell u_j^\ell y_\ell \qquad j = 1, \ldots, n. \quad (7)$$

Then $P_{x,\delta}$ can be defined as the set of all $y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that for all $F \in \mathcal{F}(x)$ we have

$$\sum_{j\in F}(2x_j-1)r_j(y) \le \delta_F. \quad (8)$$

3.2 A generic algorithm

In this section we are going to propose a high-level description of a generic algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ to solve the CR-QP01, stated in the form (2). In subsequent parts of Section 3 we will give more details on how the different steps of the generic algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ can be performed. Further specializations result from the choice of specific neighborhood functions $\mathcal{F}$ in Sections 4 and 5, where the special cases C1 and C2 are treated. We note that algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ is inefficient for the general case of CR-QP01. In Sections 4 and 5, respectively, we will show how $\mathcal{A}$ turns into a polynomial time algorithm for the special cases C1 and C2, respectively.

Generic algorithm $\mathcal{A}$

1. Construct a set Y with the property that Y contains at least one point $y \in P_{x,\delta}$ for all local minima x with $\mathcal{F}(x) \neq \emptyset$.
2. For each $y \in Y$, construct the set $X(y) = \{x \in \{0,1\}^n : y \in P_{x,\delta}\}$.
3. Compute $f(x)$ for all $x \in X(Y) = \bigcup_{y \in Y} X(y)$ and for all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ such that $\mathcal{F}(x) = \emptyset$. Let x^* be a point with minimal objective function value among the tested points. Then x^* constitutes an optimal solution of problem CR-QP01.

Clearly the choice of δ has a strong influence on the effectiveness of algorithm $\mathcal{A}$. If δ is badly chosen, then the cardinality of the sets $X(y)$ will be too large to allow an efficient algorithm (recall that in the final step of $\mathcal{A}$ an exhaustive search is done over the union of all sets $X(y)$ for $y \in Y$). Observe that $\sum_{j \in F}(2x_j - 1)r_j(y) = -\sum_{j \in F}(2x_j^F - 1)r_j(y)$ holds for $F \in \mathcal{F}(x)$. This motivates to choose δ_F such that, if possible, not both x and its corresponding neighbor x^F fulfill the inequality (8). This will help in achieving our goal to keep the cardinalities of the sets $X(y)$ sufficiently small. In the following we will make use of the following two different strategies to reach this goal:

S1 Choose $\delta_F < 0$ for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$.

S2 In the case $\widetilde{c} = 0$, there exists the following alternative choice: Set $\delta_F = 0$ for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$. This choice leads to an algorithm with improved running time as we will see later on, but it makes only sense to apply it when $\sum_{j \in F}(2x_j - 1)r_j(y) \neq 0$ holds for a sufficiently large number of sets $F \in \mathcal{G}$ (for details see Section 3.4).

In Section 3.3, we show how to construct the set Y when strategy S1 is used. In Section 3.4, we show how to perturb the problem so that $\sum_{j\in F}(2x_j - 1)r_j(y) \neq 0$ holds for all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ and a sufficiently large number of sets $F \in \mathcal{G}$. This enables the use of strategy S2. The construction of the set $X(y)$ is discussed in Section 3.5.

3.3 Construction of the set Y using strategy S1 to choose δ

In this section strategy S1 will be applied to choose δ. Let Γ be the set of all constraints of type (8). Note that a constraint in (8) is defined by a subset $F \in \mathcal{G}$ and a choice for the values x_j, $j \in F$. Thus, we have $|\Gamma| \leq \sum_{j=1}^{p} \binom{n}{j} 2^j = O(n^p)$ (recall that we assume throughout that $|F| \leq p$ for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$). Suppose that the constraints in Γ are ordered, i.e., $\Gamma = \{\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \ldots, \gamma_{|\Gamma|}\}$.

We now construct a tree $\mathcal{T}$ as follows: A node of $\mathcal{T}$ at level h is characterized by h linearly independent constraints of type (8), say $\gamma_{i_1}, \ldots, \gamma_{i_h}$ where $i_1 < i_2 < \ldots < i_h$. The root of the tree (level 0) corresponds to an empty set of constraints. Given a node $N(\gamma_{i_1}, \ldots, \gamma_{i_h})$ at level h, its sons are the nodes $N(\gamma_{i_1}, \ldots, \gamma_{i_h}, \gamma_i)$ for all possible choices of i such that the following three properties are fulfilled: (i) $i > i_h$, (ii) the $h+1$ constraints $\gamma_{i_1}, \ldots, \gamma_{i_h}, \gamma_i$ are linearly independent and (iii) constraint γ_i is compatible with the constraints $\gamma_{i_1}, \ldots, \gamma_{i_h}$ with respect to the choice of the values of the variables x_j involved in these constraints. Clearly the maximal depth of the tree $\mathcal{T}$ is d. For each leaf of the tree, we compute a point of the system of equations associated to the leaf (these equations result if we require that the inequalities characterizing the leaf are all fulfilled with equality). Note that, if a leaf is at level d, this system of equations has a unique solution, which is not the case if the leaf is at a level $< d$. In the latter case we simply choose one solution of the system of equations corresponding to the leaf under consideration. The points computed in this way constitute the set Y.

It remains to be argued that the set Y constructed above contains at least one point of each polyhedron $P_{x,\delta}$. Let x be fixed and consider a face f of the polyhedron $P_{x,\delta}$ with smallest dimension $d - k$ (if $P_{x,\delta}$ has extreme points, f will be an extreme point). This face f is characterized by k linearly independent constraints of type (8) which are satisfied at equality, say, $\gamma_{j_1}, \ldots, \gamma_{j_k}$ with $j_1 < j_2 < \ldots j_k$. By definition, the tree $\mathcal{T}$ contains the node $N(\gamma_{j_1}, \ldots, \gamma_{j_k})$. If $N(\gamma_{j_1}, \ldots, \gamma_{j_k})$ is a leaf, then by construction of the algorithm, a point of the face f has been computed. If $N(\gamma_{j_1}, \ldots, \gamma_{j_k})$ is not a leaf, then it has a descendent $N(\gamma_{j_1}, \ldots, \gamma_{j_k}, \gamma_{j_{k+1}}, \ldots, \gamma_{j_t})$ which is a leaf: the point that was computed for this leaf is a point of our face f.

The number of leaves in the tree, and hence the cardinality of Y, is bounded by $\binom{|\Gamma|}{d}$ (observe that the number of leaves is largest if there are no leaves at levels

$< d$). The amount of work that has to be done at each node (i.e., either checking that the inequalities of that node are linearly independent, or finding a point of the system) can be bounded by $O(d^3)$, hence the time complexity of computing Y is given by $O\left(\sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \binom{|\Gamma|}{\ell} d^3\right) = O\left(d^3 \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} |\Gamma|^\ell\right) = O\left(d^3 \frac{|\Gamma|^{d+1}-1}{|\Gamma|-1}\right) = O(|\Gamma|^d d^3) = O(d^3 n^{pd})$.

3.4 Implicit construction of the set Y using strategy S2 to choose δ

Strategy S2 will be applied when $\widetilde{c} = 0$. Recall that this means that we set $\delta_F = 0$ for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$. In that case $P_{x,\delta}$ is a polyhedral cone with origin $\Omega = (0, \ldots, 0)$ for all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$. Note that the point Ω itself is not a useful point for inclusion into the set Y because it belongs to all $P_{x,\delta}$. ($\Omega \in Y$ would result in $X(Y) = \{0,1\}^n$, i.e., in an exhaustive search over all feasible solutions of CR-QP01). Instead we consider points that are close to Ω. These points are on extreme rays (or faces of greater dimension, if no extreme rays exist). Since these faces are of dimension ≥ 1, their number is $O(|\Gamma|^{d-1}) = O(n^{p(d-1)})$. This allows us to decrease the time complexity of the procedure for computing Y in comparison to the case of strategy S1 where $O(|\Gamma|^d)$ points had to be investigated. The price we have to pay for this improvement is that we have to cope with problems which result from degeneracy.

Each point $y \in Y$ results from a set of constraints of type (8) which have to be fulfilled at equality. If for a point y and for sets $F \in \mathcal{G}$ that were not used to define y, we have $\sum_{j \in F}(2x_j - 1)r_j(y) = 0$, the point y might not be much more useful than Ω. This means that we have to take care of degeneracy. To that end, a symbolic perturbation method, which is described next, will be applied.

3.4.1 A perturbation method

The perturbation method which we are going to propose is inspired by an approach described in the book by Edelsbrunner [9, p. 185–191]. Let q be the first prime greater than $d+1$ and set $\psi(j,\ell) = q^{d(j+1)-\ell}$. Consider the perturbed vectors $\widehat{u}^\ell$ defined by

$$\widehat{u}_j^\ell = u_j^\ell + \varepsilon^{\psi(j,\ell)} \quad \ell = 1, \ldots, d, \quad j = 1, \ldots, n$$

where ε is a small positive number. Note that this perturbation also affects the problem in (2). We are actually solving a perturbed version which is obtained by

replacing the vectors u^ℓ by their perturbed versions $\widehat{u}^\ell$, $\ell = 1, \ldots, d$. Let $\widehat{P}_{x,0}$ be the perturbed version of $P_{x,0}$. The polyhedron $\widehat{P}_{x,0}$ contains all $y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ which fulfill

$$\sum_{j \in F} (2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y) \leq 0 \qquad \text{for all } F \in \mathcal{F}(x) \tag{9}$$

where $\widehat{r}_j(y) = 2\sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \lambda_\ell \widehat{u}_j^\ell y_\ell$ for $j = 1, \ldots, n$.

If we had to give a specific value to ε, this value would probably have to be exponentially small, which would threaten the polynomiality of our algorithm. It turns out, however, that we can perform Step 1 of algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ in a modified way such that it is not necessary to explicitly compute the candidate points $y \in Y$. This allows us to refrain from choosing a specific value for ε. The key observation is that it suffices to be able to determine the sign of the expressions on the left hand side of the inequalities (9) defining the perturbed polyhedron $\widehat{P}_{x,0}$. In Section 3.4.2, we explain how to construct the systems defining the candidate points $y \in Y$. In Section 3.4.3, we characterize the sets $F \in \mathcal{G}$ for which the expressions $\sum_{j \in F}(2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y)$ are non-zero. Section 3.4.4 explains how to determine the sign of the expressions $\sum_{j \in F}(2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y)$. Section 3.4.5 discusses when the perturbation method should be used.

3.4.2 Implicit construction of the set Y

Consider again the tree $\mathcal{T}$ introduced in Section 3.3. In the rest of Section 3 we will work with the perturbed problem. A given node of tree $\mathcal{T}$ at level h is thus characterized by a system of equations

$$\sum_{j \in F_{t_\mu}} (2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y) = 0 \qquad \mu = 1, \ldots, h \tag{10}$$

where $F_{t_\mu} \in \mathcal{G}$ for $\mu = 1, \ldots, h$ and the values x_j, $j \in \bigcup_{\mu=1,\ldots,h} F_{t_\mu}$, are given.

Recall that in the process of constructing the tree $\mathcal{T}$ described in Section 3.3 we repeatedly need to test a given set of inequalities of type (8) for linear independency. Moreover, the explicit construction of the set Y requires that a system of equations is solved. This approach cannot be followed if perturbation is used and no specific value of ε is chosen. In the following we will demonstrate how these difficulties can be circumvented.

Suppose we are given the system of equations (10). We associate with this system the following simplified system of equations in the new variables z_j:

$$\sum_{j \in F_{t_\mu}} z_j = 0 \qquad \mu = 1, \ldots, h. \tag{11}$$

Obviously, the linear dependency of these equations implies the linear dependency of the equations (10).

One of the problems with degeneracy is that there will be leaves of the tree $\mathcal{T}$ at levels $< d$, which means that there does not exist a unique solution to the set of equations which define the respective leaf. We are now going to demonstrate that by adding ≥ 1 suitably chosen additional constraints, the resulting system of equations will always have a unique solution.

We start with discussing the case of a leaf at level $h = d - 1$. We augment the system (11) by a normalization constraint of the form

$$\sum_{j \in F_{t_0}} \alpha_j z_j = 1 \tag{12}$$

where the set $F_{t_0} \subseteq \{1, \ldots, n\}$ and the coefficients $\alpha_j, j \in F_{t_0}$ are chosen such that the equations given by (11)–(12) are linearly independent (F_{t_0} does not need to belong to $\mathcal{G}$; a possible choice is $F_{t_0} = \{j_0\}$ where $j_0 \notin \bigcup_{\mu=1,\ldots,h} F_{t_\mu}$ and $\alpha_{j_0} = 1$, although this has the disadvantage to require the fixation of an additional variable x_{j_0}). Consider the system in the variables y_ℓ obtained by replacing z_j by $(2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y)$. We show now that for ε sufficiently small, this system has always a unique solution.

The practical importance of the subsequent proposition is that the linear independency of the system (11)–(12) does not depend on ε and can thus be checked without choosing a specific value for ε.

Proposition 3 *Assume that the d equations in the variables z_j given by (11)–(12) are linearly independent. Then for any choice of the values $x_j, j \in \bigcup_{\mu=0,\ldots,d-1} F_{t_\mu}$, and for ε sufficiently small, the system in the variables y_ℓ given by*

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j \in F_{t_\mu}} (2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y) &= 0 \qquad \mu = 1, \ldots, d-1 \\ \sum_{j \in F_{t_0}} \alpha_j (2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y) &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

has an unique solution.

Proof. Since the equations given by (11)–(12) in the variables z_j are linearly independent, this system of equations can be put in a triangular form, i.e., there exist numbers ν_{ik} for $i = 1, \ldots, d$, and $k = 1, \ldots, n$, satisfying $\nu_{ii} = 1$ for $i = 1, \ldots, d$ and numbers $b_i, i = 1, \ldots, d$, such that the system (11)–(12) is equivalent to $\sum_{k=i}^{n} \nu_{ik} z_{j_k} = b_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, d$. The corresponding system in the variables y_ℓ has then the following form:

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \lambda_\ell \left(\sum_{k=i}^{n} \nu_{ik} (2x_{j_k} - 1) \left(u_{j_k}^{\ell} + \varepsilon^{\psi(j_k,\ell)} \right) \right) y_\ell = b_i, \qquad i = 1, \ldots, d.$$

Clearly the determinant of the coefficient matrix of this system is a polynomial in ε. This polynomial contains the term $\left(\prod_{i=1}^{d} \lambda_i \nu_{ii} (2x_{j_i} - 1) \right) \varepsilon^{\sum_{i=1}^{d} \psi(j_i,i)}$ (observe that a cancellation of this term is not possible since due to the construction of the perturbation there cannot be another term with the same power of ε). Hence the polynomial contains at least one non-zero term. Consequently, the determinant will be non-zero for ε sufficiently small, which implies the claim about the unique solvability. ∎

The case where the level of the leaf under consideration is $h < d-1$ is reduced to the case $h = d-1$ by adding $d-1-h$ additional equations of the form (10), but with F_{t_μ}, $\mu = h+1, \ldots, d-1$, possibly chosen outside $\mathcal{G}$, such that the equations $\sum_{j \in F_{t_\mu}} z_j = 0$, $\mu = 1, \ldots, d-1$ are linearly independent.

We are now prepared to summarize the procedure to construct the set Y implicitly. We again build up the tree $\mathcal{T}$ described in Section 3.3, but there are two essential differences. The first one relates to the fact that instead of computing the members of the set Y explicitly, we will work with systems of equations which define the points in Y. The second difference concerns the fact that the leaves of the tree have a depth of $\leq d-1$ (in contrast to $\leq d$ in Section 3.3). In the following we distinguish two cases: leaves at level $d-1$ and leaves at levels $< d-1$.

We start with the first case. A leaf at level $d-1$ is characterized by $d-1$ equalities of type (10). These equalities define a line L passing through the origin Ω, where Ω partitions L into two halflines. The addition of the normalization constraint $\sum_{j \in F_{t_0}} \alpha_j (2x_j - 1) \widehat{r}_j(y) = 1$ has the effect of selecting a point lying on one of these two halflines. Since the line L is not necessarily lying completely inside the polyhedron $\widehat{P}_{x,0}$ (Ω might be an extreme point of $\widehat{P}_{x,0}$), we also need to select a point which is

lying on the other halfline of L originating at Ω. Such a point is obtained by adding the normalization constraint $\sum_{j\in F_{t_0}} \alpha_j(2x_j-1)\widehat{r}_j(y) = -1$ to the system of equations defining the line L. We end up with two systems of equations, representing two points y_1^L and y_2^L, one of which is guaranteed to belong to $\widehat{P}_{x,0}$. By including both points into the set Y we are on the safe side.

The second case concerns leaves at levels $h < d-1$. In such a case, we first add $d-1-h$ artificial constraints as explained above. We end up with $d-1$ equations which are linearly independent. These equations again define a line L through the origin, but in that case it is guaranteed that the line L lies completely inside of the polyhedron $\widehat{P}_{x,0}$ (which has no extreme points in this case). Thus it suffices to choose arbitrarily one of the two halflines of L originating at Ω and to select a point on that halfline. Such a point is defined by taking the $d-1$ constraints defining the line L and adding the normalization constraint $\sum_{j\in F_{t_0}} \alpha_j(2x_j-1)\widehat{r}_j(y) = 1$.

¿From the discussion above it follows that the set Y, with which we end up, will indeed have cardinality $O(|\Gamma|^{d-1})$, in contrast to $O(|\Gamma|^d)$ in the case handled in Section 3.3.

3.4.3 Characterizations of sets F with $\sum_{\mathbf{j}\in\mathbf{F}}(\mathbf{2x_j-1})\widehat{\mathbf{r}}_\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{y}) \neq 0$

In this section we show that the proposed perturbation method eliminates the problems caused by degeneracy. Specifically, the perturbation guarantees that the number of sets $F \in \mathcal{G}$ for which $\sum_{j\in F}(2x_j-1)\widehat{r}_j(y) = 0$ holds is sufficiently small. (Recall that this property is required to end up with a set $X(Y)$ of manageable size.)

The following two results characterize the sets F with the desired property $\sum_{j\in F}(2x_j-1)\widehat{r}_j(y) \neq 0$.

Proposition 4 *Let $\tilde{y}$ be a point of Y which is implicitly defined by the system of equations $\sum_{j\in F_{t_\mu}}(2x_j-1)\widehat{r}_j(y) = 0$ for $\mu = 1,\ldots,d-1$ augmented by a normalization constraint which is not listed here. Let $F_{t_d} \subseteq \{1,\ldots,n\}$ (not necessarily in $\mathcal{G}$). If the equations $\sum_{j\in F_{t_\mu}} z_j = 0$, $\mu = 1,\ldots,d$, are linearly independent, then we have $\sum\limits_{j\in F_{t_d}} (2x_j-1)\widehat{r}_j(\tilde{y}) \neq 0$.*

Proof. The proof is similar to that of Proposition 3. We first write the system $\sum_{j\in F_{t_\mu}} z_j = 0$, $\mu = 1,\ldots,d$, as a triangular system, then replace the variables z_j by $(2x_j-1)\sum_{\ell=1}^{d}\lambda_\ell\left(u_j^\ell + \varepsilon^{\psi(j,\ell)}\right)y_\ell$ and consider the determinant of the resulting system

in the variables y_ℓ. This determinant is again a polynomial in ε with at least one non-zero term, hence the determinant is non-zero for ε sufficiently small. Therefore the only solution of the system of d equations is the point $\Omega = (0, \ldots, 0)$. Since $\tilde{y}$ is not equal to Ω and satisfies the first $d-1$ equations, $\tilde{y}$ cannot satisfy the last equation given by $\sum_{j \in F_{t_d}} (2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(\tilde{y}) = 0$ which proves the claim. ∎

Recall that when determining a point y, we had to fix the values of some of the x_j. Denote by J_y the set of indices $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ with the property that the values x_j have not been used to define y.

Corollary 1 *For all $F \subseteq J_y$ and all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$, we have $\sum_{j \in F} (2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y) \neq 0$.*

Proof. The assumption $F \subseteq J_y$ implies that the equation $\sum_{j \in F} z_j = 0$ only involves variables z_j with indices j which are not appearing in the equations used to determine y. Consequently Proposition 4 can be applied which yields the desired result. ∎

3.4.4 Determination of the sign of $\sum_{\mathbf{j \in F}} \mathbf{(2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y)}$

Assume that the point $y \in Y$ is implicitly defined by the system

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \lambda_\ell \left(\sum_{j \in F_{t_\mu}} (2x_j - 1) \left(u_j^\ell + \varepsilon^{\psi(j,\ell)} \right) \right) y_\ell = 0 \qquad \mu = 1, \ldots, d-1 \tag{13}$$

$$\sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \lambda_\ell \left(\sum_{j \in F_{t_0}} \alpha_j (2x_j - 1) \left(u_j^\ell + \varepsilon^{\psi(j,\ell)} \right) \right) y_\ell = 1 \tag{14}$$

Let $F \subseteq J_y$. We now explain how to determine the sign of $\sum_{j \in F} (2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y)$.

To simplify the notation, we set $F_{t_d} = F$ (recall, however, that F does not necessarily belong to $\mathcal{G}$). By Cramer's Rule, we have $y_\ell = \frac{\det M_\ell(\varepsilon)}{\det M(\varepsilon)}$ for $\ell = 1, \ldots, d$, where $M(\varepsilon)$ denotes the coefficient matrix of the system of equations given by (13)–(14) and $M_\ell(\varepsilon)$ denotes the matrix obtained from $M(\varepsilon)$ by replacing the ℓ-th column of $M(\varepsilon)$ by the column vector $(0, \ldots, 0, 1)^t$. Note that $\det M(\varepsilon)$ is non-zero by Proposition 3. Let $\eta'_{k\ell} = \lambda_\ell \left(\sum_{j \in F_{t_k}} (2x_j - 1) \left(u_j^\ell + \varepsilon^{\psi(j,\ell)} \right) \right)$ for $k = 0, \ldots, d$ and $\ell = 1, \ldots, d$.

We are interested in the sign of the expression $\sum_{j \in F_{t_d}} (2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y)$. This

expression is equal to

$$\Psi = \sum_{j \in F_{t_d}} (2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y) = \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \eta'_{d\ell} y_\ell = \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \eta'_{d\ell} \frac{\det M_\ell(\varepsilon)}{\det M(\varepsilon)}.$$

We now develop the determinant of the matrix $M_\ell(\varepsilon)$ with respect to its ℓ-th column. This leads to $\det M_\ell(\varepsilon) = (-1)^{d+\ell} \det M''_\ell(\varepsilon)$ where $M''_\ell(\varepsilon)$ is the matrix obtained from $M_\ell(\varepsilon)$ by deleting the ℓ-th column and the last row. Hence

$$\Psi = \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} (-1)^{d+\ell} \eta'_{d\ell} \frac{\det M''_\ell(\varepsilon)}{\det M(\varepsilon)} = \frac{\det M''(\varepsilon)}{\det M(\varepsilon)}$$

where $M''(\varepsilon)$ is the matrix with elements $\eta'_{k\ell}$, $k, \ell = 1, \ldots, d$. Proceeding in a similar way as in the proof of Proposition 3, it can be shown $\det M''(\varepsilon)$ is non-zero for ε sufficiently small. Since both $\det M(\varepsilon)$ and $\det M''(\varepsilon)$ are polynomials in ε, their sign is determined by the sign of their first non-zero coefficient, starting with the terms of smallest exponent. We explain in the following how to determine the sign of $\det M''(\varepsilon)$. The case of $\det M(\varepsilon)$ is handled analogously. The exponents of ε in $\det M''(\varepsilon)$ are of the form $\sum_{(j,\ell)\in S} \phi(j,\ell) = \sum_{(j,\ell)\in S} q^{jd+d-\ell}$ for all subsets S of $\left(\bigcup_{\mu=1,\ldots,d} F_{t_\mu}\right) \times \{1, \ldots, d\}$ with cardinality $\leq d$. Since p is an upper bound on $|F|$ for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$, it follows that j can take at most pd distinct values which implies that the expression $\psi(j,\ell) = (j+1)d - \ell$, $(j,\ell) \in S$, can take at most $pd^2 + d$ distinct values. The number of possible values for the exponents of ε is therefore bounded by $\sum_{k=1}^{d} \binom{pd^2+d}{k}$. For each possible exponent ω of ε, the coefficient of ε^ω is the sum of at most d subdeterminants of $M''(\varepsilon)$, and can thus be computed in $O(d^4)$ time. Since d is a constant, the sign of $\sum_{j\in F}(2x_j - 1)\widehat{r}_j(y)$ can therefore be computed in $O(1)$ time (note, however, that the constants hidden in this asymptotic notation increase rapidly with d and p).

3.4.5 Applicability of the perturbation method

In order to be able to apply the perturbation method, we must have

$$\sum_{i,j\in F} \widehat{a}_{ij} \leq 0 \qquad \text{for all } F \in \mathcal{G} \tag{15}$$

for ε sufficiently small, where $\widehat{A}$ is the perturbed matrix defined by $\widehat{a}_{ij} = \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \lambda_\ell \widehat{u}_i^\ell \widehat{u}_j^\ell$ for all i, j. (Note that if an inequality in (15) were violated, it would not be possible

to choose $\delta = 0$.) The condition (15) is guaranteed to hold for small values of ε, only when $\sum_{i,j \in F} a_{ij} < 0$ holds for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$.

We close the discussion of the perturbation approach by the remark that in principle this approach can also be applied in the general case, i.e., $\widetilde{c} \neq 0$. The candidate set Y can be computed in $O(|\Gamma|^{d-1})$ time in the case when $\widetilde{c} \neq 0$, but the number of indices i such that $\widetilde{c}_i \neq 0$ is bounded by a constant. In that case, we distinguish between polyhedra $P_{x,\delta}$ that contain the origin Ω, and polyhedra that do not contain Ω. For polyhedra that contain Ω, we compute (implicitly) points on faces of dimension ≥ 1. For polyhedra that do not contain Ω, we compute candidate extreme points, but by restricting our attention to points that satisfy at equality at least one inequality separating Ω. Since the number of these inequalities is bounded by a constant, these candidate extreme points can also be computed in $O(|\Gamma|^{d-1})$ time.

Although the perturbation method can also be applied in the case $\widetilde{c} \neq 0$, it is not recommendable to apply it for at least 3 reasons: removing the degeneracy results in an increase of the cardinality of Y; the hidden constants in the complexity bound increase when perturbation is used; and finally, perturbation may destroy a possible symmetry in the objective function, implying that algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ cannot any longer be used to obtain the set of *all* optimal solutions.

In the remaining part of this paper, we generally assume that the perturbation method is used when $\widetilde{c} = 0$, and not used when $\widetilde{c} \neq 0$.

3.5 Construction of the set $\mathbf{X}(y)$

In order to be able to handle the cases with and without application of the perturbation method in a unified way, we introduce the expressions $\rho_j(y)$ for $j = 1, \ldots, n$ and $y \in Y$, where $\rho_j(y)$ equals $\widehat{r}_j(y)$ if perturbation is used and equals $r_j(y)$ otherwise.

Let $y \in Y$ be given explicitly or implicitly (by its set of defining equations). In order to construct the set $X(y)$ we need to compute the set of all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ such that $y \in P_{x,\delta}$ (or its perturbed version $\widehat{P}_{x,0}$). This task amounts to finding all points $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ which satisfy

$$\sum_{j \in F} (2x_j - 1)\rho_j(y) \leq \delta_F \qquad \text{for all } F \in \mathcal{F}(x)$$

where $\delta_F = 0$ for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$ in the perturbed case.

Our method for solving this task is largely dependent on the choice of the neighborhood function $\mathcal{F}$. We therefore postpone the further discussion of the computation of the sets $X(y)$ to Sections 4 and 5, where specific neighborhoods functions for the cases C1 and C2 will be introduced.

3.6 Construction of the set of optimal solutions

Let $X(Y) = \left(\bigcup_{y \in Y} X(y) \right)$ and $X = X(Y) \cup \{x : \mathcal{F}(x) = \emptyset\}$: the optimal solutions to problem (2) are obtained by evaluating the objective function f for all points of X, and keeping the points of smallest value. The complexity of this phase is $O(|X|nd)$.

Note that we can also construct the set of all local minima for the neighborhood function $\mathcal{F}$ under consideration by testing all points in X and listing those which are local minima. The running time of this approach is $|X|$ times the time needed to check if a given point is a local minimum with respect to $\mathcal{F}$.

A word of caution is in order when perturbations are used. We then have no guarantee to obtain all global optima, or all local minima, and will in general have to be satisfied with a single global optimum.

3.7 Some graph theoretical definitions

The following definitions will be needed in the remainder of the paper (for further details see e.g. Berge [3]).

A *hypergraph* $H = (V_H, E_H)$ is defined by a set V_H of vertices and a collection E_H of subsets of V_H called *edges*. For notational convenience assume $V_H = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. The *size* of an edge $F \in E_H$ is the cardinality of F, i.e., $|F|$. An edge of size 1 is called a *loop*. Observe that a hypergraph H becomes a graph if all edges are of size 1 or 2. A hypergraph is said to be *of bounded edge size* if there exists a constant k such that $|F| \leq k$ for all $F \in E_H$.

Let $H = (V_H, E_H)$ be a hypergraph and let $W \subseteq V_H$. The set W induces a subhypergraph of H, the so-called *induced subhypergraph* $H[W] = (W, E_{H[W]})$ with vertex set W and edge set $E_{H[W]}$ which only contains those edges $F \in E_H$ which are subsets of W. As a special case the notion of a *induced subgraph* arises. Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph and $W \subseteq V$, then $G[W] = (W, E_W)$ with $E_W = \{\{i, j\} \in E : i, j \in W\}$ is called the subgraph of G induced by the vertex set W.

A *stable set* or *independent set* of $H = (V_H, E_H)$ is a subset W of V_H such that no subset of W belongs to E_H. Note that a subset of a stable set is still a stable set.

Given a directed graph $D = (V, E_D)$, we define the partial order $\preceq$ which is induced by D on V as follows: $i \preceq j$, $i, j \in V$ if and only if $(i, j) \in E_D$.

4 A polynomial time algorithm for special case C1

In this section, we consider the special case C1 of problem CR-QP01 (cf. Section 1). This case arises for matrices A of rank d which additionally satisfy the following property

$$\sum_{i,j \in F} a_{ij} < 0 \qquad \text{for all } F \in E_H \tag{16}$$

where $H = (V_H, E_H)$ is a hypergraph with $|V_H| = n$. Our main result is the following:

Theorem 1 *Assume that the following conditions are satisfied:*

(a) H is a hypergraph of bounded edge size.

(b) The largest stable set in H is of size $O(\log n)$

(c) The number of maximal stable sets in H is polynomial in n.

Then the CR-QP01 stated in the form (2) can be solved in polynomial time when restricted to the class of matrices fulfilling property (16).

Theorem 1 will be proved in the course of this section.

4.1 Definition of the neighborhood function used for case C1

For dealing with case C1, we need a neighborhood function $\mathcal{F}$. To define $\mathcal{F}$ we proceed as follows. Let $H = (V_H, E_H)$ be a hypergraph and let $x \in \{0, 1\}$. Let $H_0^x = H[V_0^x]$ and $H_1^x = H[V_1^x]$, respectively, denote the subhypergraphs of H which are induced by the vertex sets V_0^x and V_1^x, respectively, where $V_0^x = \{i \in V_H : x_i = 0\}$ and $V_1^x = \{i \in V_H : x_i = 1\}$. To each $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ we now associate the set $\mathcal{F}(x)$

which defines the neighbors of x by taking $\mathcal{F}(x)$ to be the union of the edges of the subhypergraphs H_0^x and H_1^x. In other words, $x' \in \{0,1\}^n$ is a neighbor of x if it can be obtained from x by selecting an edge $F \in E_H$ such that the components x_i, $i \in F$, have the same value and then flipping the value of these components. Observe that $\mathcal{G} = \bigcup_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \mathcal{F}(x) = E_H$.

Let δ be chosen either according to strategy S1, i.e., such that $\sum_{i,j \in F} a_{ij} \leq \delta_F < 0$ holds for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$, or according to strategy S2, i.e., $\delta_F = 0$ for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$ (this strategy is applied for $\widetilde{c} = 0$).

Using the neighborhood function $\mathcal{F}$ introduced above, the defining inequalities (8) of the polyhedron $P_{x,\delta}$ (or the inequalities (9) defining its perturbed version) simplify to

$$\sum_{j \in F} \rho_j(y) \leq \delta_F \qquad \text{for all } F \in \mathcal{F}(x) \text{ such that } \; x_i = 1 \text{ for all } i \in F \tag{17}$$

$$-\sum_{j \in F} \rho_j(y) \leq \delta_F \qquad \text{for all } F \in \mathcal{F}(x) \text{ such that } \; x_i = 0 \text{ for all } i \in F \tag{18}$$

where again $\rho_j(y)$ equals $\widehat{r}_j(y)$ or $r_j(y)$ depending on whether or not perturbation has been applied (cf. Section 3.5).

4.2 Construction of the set $\mathbf{X}(y)$ for case C1

We assume that the set Y has already been computed (either explicitly or implicitly, see Sections 3.3 and 3.4, respectively). In order to compute the set $X(y)$ for a given $y \in Y$, we need to find all points $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ such that $y \in P_{x,\delta}$ (cf. Section 3.2), which in our case means the set of all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ such that the system of inequalities given by (17)–(18) is satisfied. Recall that in the course of computing y, the values of some x_j have already been fixed to either 0 or 1. Let J_y again denote the set of the indices $j \in \{1,\ldots,n\}$ for which the value of x_j has not yet been fixed. For $j \in \{1,\ldots,n\} \setminus J_y$, let x_j^y denote the already fixed value of the j-th component of x. Clearly, we do not have any freedom in choosing the values x_j^y. Thus the task of computing the set $X(y)$ amounts to finding all possibilities for choosing the values of x_j for $j \in J_y$ such that y belongs to $P_{x,\delta}$.

Let $H[J_y]$ denote the subhypergraph of H which is induced by the vertex set $J_y \subseteq V_H$. If $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ satisfies the system of inequalities (17)–(18), then it also

satisfies the following set of conditions

$$\sum_{i \in F} \rho_i(y) \leq 0 \qquad \text{for all } F \in E_{H[J_y]} \text{ such that } x_i = 1 \text{ for all } i \in F \tag{19}$$

$$\sum_{i \in F} \rho_i(y) > 0 \qquad \text{for all } F \in E_{H[J_y]} \text{ such that } x_i = 0 \text{ for all } i \in F. \tag{20}$$

To prove this claim, we distinguish two cases depending on which strategy has been used to choose δ. If S1 has been applied, we have $\delta_F < 0$ for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$, so the claim follows directly from (17)–(18). If S2 has been applied, inequality (20) follows from Corollary 1.

Consequently, the task to compute $X(y)$ reduces to the search for all partitions (O_y, Z_y) of the set J_y such that

$$\sum_{i \in F} \rho_i(y) \leq 0 \text{ for all } F \in E_{H[O_y]} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i \in F} \rho_i(y) > 0 \text{ for all } F \in E_{H[Z_y]}. \tag{21}$$

Such partitions will be called *feasible partitions* of J_y. Each feasible partition leads to a point $x \in X(y)$ in the following way:

$$x_j = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } j \in Z_y \\ 1 & \text{for } j \in O_y \\ x_j^y & \text{for } j \in J_y \end{cases} \tag{22}$$

(The names O_y and Z_y have been chosen to reflect that x_j is set to one for $j \in O_y$, and to zero for $j \in Z_y$.)

It is easy to see that the set of feasible partitions is nonempty since the partition $(\widetilde{O}_y, \widetilde{Z}_y)$ with $\widetilde{O}_y = \{i \in J_y : \rho_i(y) \leq 0\}$ and $\widetilde{Z}_y = \{i \in J_y : \rho_i(y) > 0\}$ is clearly feasible (note that if perturbation is used, we have to use the technique described in Section 3.4.4 to determine the sign of $\rho_i(y)$).

Our problem now is to find all feasible partitions of J_y. The following lemma turns out to be helpful in solving this problem.

Lemma 2 *Let $(\widetilde{O}_y, \widetilde{Z}_y)$ be the initial feasible partition defined above and let (O_y, Z_y) be an arbitrary partition of J_y. Then (O_y, Z_y) is a feasible partition if the following two conditions are fulfilled*

(i) $U_y^{0 \to 1} = \widetilde{Z}_y \cap O_y$ is a stable set in the induced hypergraph $H[\widetilde{Z}_y]$.

(ii) $U_y^{1\to 0} = \widetilde{O}_y \cap Z_y$ *is a stable set in the induced hypergraph* $H[\widetilde{O}_y]$.

Proof. We prove the statement in (i). The statement in (ii) is proved analogously. Assume that $U_y^{0\to 1}$ is not a stable set in $H[\widetilde{Z}_y]$, i.e., it contains an edge F of the hypergraph $H[\widetilde{Z}_y]$. Then by the feasibility of $(\widetilde{O}_y, \widetilde{Z}_y)$ it follows that $\sum_{i\in F} \rho_i(y) > 0$. Therefore, we cannot have $\sum_{i\in F} \rho_i(y) \leq 0$, which shows that (O_y, Z_y) cannot be a feasible partition since the first condition in (21) would be violated (note that $U_y^{0\to 1} \subseteq O_y$). We thus arrived at a contradiction which implies the claim (i). ∎

Lemma 2 and the discussion above motivate the following approach for computing the set $X(y)$ (actually a superset of $X(y)$ is determined because (17)–(18) have been replaced by (19)–(20)):

Algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ to compute $\mathbf{X}(y)$:

1. Compute the initial feasible partition $(\widetilde{O}_y, \widetilde{Z}_y)$. Compute the point $\tilde{x}$ associated with $(\tilde{O}_y, \tilde{Z}_y)$ according to (22). Add $\tilde{x}$ to $X(y)$.

2. Enumerate the sets $\mathcal{S}(H[\widetilde{Z}_y])$ and $\mathcal{S}(H[\widetilde{O}_y])$ which denote the sets of all stable sets in the induced hypergraphs $H[\widetilde{Z}_y]$ and $H[\widetilde{O}_y])$, respectively. (Note that $\mathcal{S}(H[\widetilde{Z}_y])$ and $\mathcal{S}(H[\widetilde{O}_y])$ are subsets of the set of all stable sets of the hypergraph H.)

3. With each $(S_0, S_1) \in \mathcal{S}(H[\widetilde{Z}_y]) \times \mathcal{S}(H[\widetilde{O}_y])$, we associate the new feasible partition (O_y, Z_y) with $O_y = \widetilde{O}_y \cup (S_0 \setminus S_1)$ and $Z_y = \widetilde{Z}_y \cup (S_1 \setminus S_0)$. Compute the point x associated with (O_y, Z_y) according to (22). Add x to $X(y)$.

Note that the running time of algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ depends heavily on the time needed by the second step in which all stable sets of two subhypergraphs of H need to be enumerated. Eiter and Gottlob [10] have proposed an algorithm which lists all stable sets of a hypergraph of bounded edge size in time polynomial in the size of the output (the existence of such an algorithm without the assumption of bounded edge size is an open question). The approach of [10] can be applied in our case, but in order to arrive at a polynomial overall running time for the procedure for computing $X(y)$, we need to make sure that the size of the output depends polynomially on the size of the input. This leads to the following sufficient condition for the polynomiality of algorithm $\mathcal{B}$.

Condition 1 *The sum of the cardinality of all stable sets of* H *is polynomial in* n.

Simplifications are possible when H is a graph. For graphs a wealth of papers are available which present algorithms for listing all stable sets of H in time polynomial in the size of the output, see, e.g., [5, 6, 8, 16, 17, 18, 22]. The following condition suffices to guarantee the polynomiality of algorithm $\mathcal{B}$ for the special case of graphs. This condition is weaker than Condition 1 and is easier to check.

Condition 2 *The degree of any vertex in H is at least $n - b \log n$, where b is a constant.*

Observe that this condition ensures that the number of stable sets in $H = (V_H, E_H)$ is polynomial in n. This is true because the number of stable sets containing the vertex $i \in V_H$ is bounded by $2^{b \log n} = n^b$ which implies that the total number of stable sets is bounded by $n \cdot n^b = n^{b+1}$.

Now the proof of Theorem 1 is almost completed. We have already argued in Sections 3.3 and 3.4 that the computation of the set Y, i.e., the first step of the generic algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ presented in Section 3.2, can be implemented to run in polynomial time.

Now consider the running time of the second step (computation of the sets $X(y)$). Since the sum of the cardinalities of all subsets of a stable set of cardinality m is given by $\sum_{k=1}^{m} \binom{m}{k} k = m2^{m-1}$, the sum of the cardinalities of all stable sets is bounded by $\sigma(N, \overline{m}) = N\overline{m}2^{\overline{m}-1}$, where N denotes the number of maximal stable sets and $\overline{m}$ denotes the size of the largest maximal stable set. The number $\sigma(N, \overline{m})$ is bounded from above by a polynomial in n provided that N is a polynomial in n and $\overline{m} = O(\log n)$. This shows that the conditions of Theorem 1 imply Condition 1, and hence the second step of algorithm $\mathcal{A}$ can be implemented in polynomial time as well.

It remains to discuss the complexity of the third and last step of algorithm $\mathcal{A}$. To arrive at an overall polynomial time algorithm we need to make sure that the set of points x such that $\mathcal{F}(x) = \emptyset$ can be constructed in polynomial time. Observe that $\mathcal{F}(x) = \emptyset$ if and only if V_H, the vertex set of H can be partitioned into 2 stable sets. Consequently Condition 1 also ensures that the set of points x such that $\mathcal{F}(x) = \emptyset$ can be constructed in polynomial time.

5 A polynomial time algorithm for special case C2

In this section we are going to deal with the special case C2 of problem CR-QP01 (cf. Section 1). Let $G = (V, E)$ be an undirected graph the edges of which are partitioned

into two sets $E^+(G)$ and $E^-(G)$, i.e. $E^+(G) \cap E^-(G) = \emptyset$ and $E^+(G) \cup E^-(G) = E$. Let $G^+ = (V, E^+(G))$ and $G^- = (V, E^-(G))$, respectively, denote the subgraphs of G which only contain the edges in $E^+(G)$ and in $E^-(G)$, respectively. If G' is a subgraph of G, let $E^+(G')$ denote the subset of edges in $E^+(G)$ which also belong to G'. $E^-(G')$ is defined analogously.

Recall that the special case C2 arises for matrices A of rank d which additionally satisfy the following conditions:

$$a_{ii} + a_{jj} + 2a_{ij} < 0 \qquad \text{for all } \{i,j\} \in E^+(G) \tag{23}$$

$$a_{ii} + a_{jj} - 2a_{ij} < 0 \qquad \text{for all } \{i,j\} \in E^-(G). \tag{24}$$

The main result of this section is the following:

Theorem 2 *Assume that the following 2 conditions are satisfied*

(a) The number of maximal stable sets in the graph G^+ is polynomial in n.

(b) For each maximal stable set S of G^+ and for each possible orientation $\vec{G}^-[S]$ of the induced subgraph $G^-[S]$, the number of extensions of the partial order on S induced by the directed graph $\vec{G}^-[S]$ to a total order on S is polynomial in n.

Then the CR-QP01 stated in the form (2) can be solved in polynomial time when restricted to the class of matrices fulfilling properties (23)–(24).

5.1 Definition of the neighborhood function used for case C2

The neighborhood function $\mathcal{F}$ associated with class C2 is implicitly defined as follows: $x' \in \{0,1\}^n$ is a neighbor of $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ if x and x' differ in exactly two components i and j, where we additionally require that the following two conditions are fulfilled:

- $\{i,j\} \in E^-(G)$ implies $x_i = 1 - x_j$ $(= 1 - x'_i = x'_j)$.
- $\{i,j\} \in E^+(G)$ implies $x_i = x_j$ $(= 1 - x'_i = 1 - x'_j)$.

Note that in this case we have $\mathcal{G} = \bigcup_{x \in \{0,1\}^n} \mathcal{F}(x) = E$.

Let δ_F for $F = \{i, j\} \in \mathcal{G}$ be such that

$$0 > \delta_F \geq \begin{cases} a_{ii} + a_{jj} - 2a_{ij} & \text{if } \{i, j) \in E^-(G) \\ a_{ii} + a_{jj} + 2a_{ij} & \text{if } \{i, j\} \in E^+(G). \end{cases}$$

When $\widetilde{c} = 0$, we also allow the choice $\delta_F = 0$ for all $F = \{i, j\} \in \mathcal{G}$.

Using the neighborhood function $\mathcal{F}$ introduced above, the defining inequalities (8) of the polyhedron $P_{x,\delta}$ (or the inequalities (9) defining its perturbed version $\widehat{P}_{x,0}$) simplify to

$$\rho_i(y) + \rho_j(y) \leq \delta_F \quad \text{for all } F = \{i, j\} \in E^+(G) \text{ such that } x_i = x_j = 1 \tag{25}$$
$$-\rho_i(y) - \rho_j(y) \leq \delta_F \quad \text{for all } F = \{i, j\} \in E^+(G) \text{ such that } x_i = x_j = 0 \tag{26}$$
$$\rho_i(y) - \rho_j(y) \leq \delta_F \quad \text{for all } F = \{i, j\} \in E^-(G) \text{ such that } x_i = 1, x_j = 0 \tag{27}$$

5.2 Construction of the set $\mathbf{X}(y)$ for case C2

We make the same assumptions than in the first paragraph of Section 4.2. Assume that Y has already been computed and let $y \in Y$. Let J_y again denote the set of the indices $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ for which the value of x_j has not been fixed in the course of computing y. For $j \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \setminus J_y$, let x_j^y denote the already fixed value of the j-th component of x. Given a partition (O_y, Z_y) of the set $\{1, \ldots, n\} \setminus J_y$, we say that $x \in \{0, 1\}^n$ is induced by the partition (O_y, Z_y) if x is set according to (22).

It can be assumed without loss of generality that

$$\rho_i(y) - \rho_j(y) \neq 0 \qquad \text{for all } \{i, j\} \in E^-(G[J_y]). \tag{28}$$

Indeed, by Corollary 1, this is true when $\delta_F = 0$ for all $F \in \mathcal{G}$. When $\delta_F < 0$ and we have $\rho_i(y) = \rho_j(y)$ for $F = \{i, j\} \in E^-(G[J_y])$, then we must necessarily have $x_i = x_j$ (otherwise property (27) would be violated). Therefore, we can replace G by the reduced graph which results from G by shrinking the two vertices i and j into a single new vertex and removing the edge $\{i, j\}$. If necessary, this shrinking step is repeated. We will end up with a reduced graph, which for simplicity is again called G, where $\rho_i(y) \neq \rho_j(y)$ holds for all $\{i, j\} \in E^-(G[J_y])$, which implies (28).

Using assumption (28), it follows that if x satisfies (25)–(27), then it also satisfies the following system of inequalities:

$$\rho_i(y) + \rho_j(y) \leq 0 \qquad \text{for all } \{i, j\} \in E^+(G[J_y]) \text{ such that } x_i = x_j = 1 \tag{29}$$
$$\rho_i(y) + \rho_j(y) > 0 \qquad \text{for all } \{i, j\} \in E^+(G[J_y]) \text{ such that } x_i = x_j = 0 \tag{30}$$
$$\rho_i(y) - \rho_j(y) < 0 \qquad \text{for all } \{i, j\} \in E^-(G[J_y]) \text{ such that } x_i = 1, x_j = 0 \tag{31}$$

Instead of computing the set $X(y)$ of points $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ such that $y \in P_{x,\delta}$, we compute a superset $X'(y)$ of $X(y)$ which contains all points $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ which fulfill (29)–(31). We will proceed in a similar fashion as in Section 4.2.

An initial point $\widetilde{x}$ in $X'(y)$ can be computed as follows: Let $\widetilde{O}_y = \{j \in J_y : \rho_j(y) \leq 0\}$ and let $\widetilde{Z}_y = \{j \in J_y : \rho_j(y) > 0\}$. This partition induces a point $\widetilde{x} \in \{0,1\}^n$. All other points in $X'(y)$ are obtained by flipping the values of $\widetilde{x}_j$ for a subset of indices j from $\widetilde{O}_y \cup \widetilde{Z}_y$. More specifically, let (O_y, Z_y) be an arbitrary partition of $\{1,\ldots,n\} \setminus J_y$. Define $U_y^{0\to 1} = \widetilde{Z}_y \cap O_y$ and $U_y^{1\to 0} = \widetilde{O}_y \cap Z_y$ (these sets contain the indices j for which the value of $\widetilde{x}_j$ will be flipped).

In order to guarantee that the partition (O_y, Z_y) leads to a point in $X'(y)$, the following properties have to be fulfilled with respect to the set $U_y^{0\to 1}$:

- $U_y^{0\to 1}$ must be a stable set of the induced subgraph $G^+[\widetilde{Z}_y]$; otherwise property (29) would be violated by the point $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ which is induced by (O_y, Z_y). (The proof of this claim is done along the lines of the similar proof in Section 4.2).

- Observe that by (31), x must satisfy

$$x_i \geq x_j \quad \text{for all } \{i,j\} \in E^-(G[J_y]) \text{ such that } \rho_i(y) - \rho_j(y) < 0 \tag{32}$$

  (recall again that $\rho_i(y) \neq \rho_j(y)$ for all $\{i,j\} \in E^-(G[J_y])$). Let S be a maximal stable set of $G^+[\widetilde{Z}_y]$ such that $U_y^{0\to 1} \subseteq S$. Observe that the point $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ induced by the partition (O_y, Z_y) fulfills $x_j = 1$ for all $j \in U_y^{0\to 1}$ (those components change their value from 0 to 1 when moving from $(\widetilde{O}_y, \widetilde{Z}_y)$ to (O_y, Z_y)) and $x_j = 0$ for all $j \in S \setminus U_y^{0\to 1}$ (those components keep their original value 0). Clearly $U_y^{0\to 1}$ must be such that the following relaxation of (32) is fulfilled:

$$x_i \geq x_j \quad \text{for all } \{i,j\} \in E^-(G[J_y \cap S]) \text{ such that } \rho_i(y) - \rho_j(y) < 0 \tag{33}$$

Analogous requirements are posed for the set $U_y^{1\to 0}$.

We propose the following procedure to compute $X(y)$ (actually a superset of $X(y)$).

Algorithm $\mathcal{B}'$ to compute $\mathbf{X}(y)$:

1. Compute the initial feasible partition $(\widetilde{O}_y, \widetilde{Z}_y)$ and the point $\tilde{x}$ it induces. Add $\tilde{x}$ to $X(y)$.

2. Enumerate the sets $\mathcal{S}(G^+[\widetilde{Z}_y])$ and $\mathcal{S}(G^+[\widetilde{O}_y])$ which denote the sets of all maximal stable sets in the induced graphs $G^+[\widetilde{Z}_y]$ and $G^+[\widetilde{O}_y]$, respectively. (Note that $\mathcal{S}(G^+[\widetilde{Z}_y])$ and $\mathcal{S}(G^+[\widetilde{O}_y])$ are subsets of the set of all maximal stable sets of the graph G^+.)

3. For each $S_0 \in \mathcal{S}(G^+[\widetilde{Z}_y])$, construct the set X^{S_0} of all solutions to the inequality system (33) resulting for $S = S_0$. Similarly, for each $S_1 \in \mathcal{S}(G^+[\widetilde{O}_y])$, construct the set X^{S_1} of all solutions to the inequality system (32) resulting for $S = S_1$.

4. For each $(S_0, S_1) \in \mathcal{S}(G^+[\widetilde{Z}_y]) \times \mathcal{S}(G^+[\widetilde{O}_y])$ perform the following steps:
   For each $x^{S_0} \in X^{S_0}$ and $x^{S_1} \in X^{S_1}$, compute the point x defined as follows:

$$x_j = \begin{cases} x_j^{S_0} & \text{for } j \in S_0 \\ x_j^{S_1} & \text{for } j \in S_1 \\ 0 & \text{for } j \in \widetilde{Z}_y \setminus S_0 \\ 1 & \text{for } j \in \widetilde{O}_y \setminus S_1 \\ x_j^y & \text{for } j \in J_y \end{cases} \tag{34}$$

   Add x to $X(y)$.

The running time of algorithm $\mathcal{B}'$ is determined by steps 2 and 3. Due to condition (a), step 2 can be performed in polynomial time by one of the various algorithms that enumerate stable sets, while the polynomiality of step 3 results from condition (b).

In order to complete the proof of Theorem 2, it remains to be shown that the set of points $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ such that $\mathcal{F}(x) = \emptyset$ can be computed in polynomial time. From the definition of the neighborhood function $\mathcal{F}$, it follows that if $\mathcal{F}(x) = \emptyset$, then the following two properties are fulfilled:

- $V_0 = \{i \in V : x_i = 0\}$ and $V_1 = \{i \in V : x_i = 1\}$ are two stable sets of the graph G^+.
- There are no edges in $E^-(G)$ connecting a vertex in V_0 with a vertex in V_1.

In particular any connected component of G^- is completely contained in either V_0 or in V_1. The existence of a point x such that $\mathcal{F}(x) = \emptyset$ can hence be checked as follows: First, construct the list of connected components of G^-, and enumerate the set of all maximal stable sets of the graph G^+. Then check for each pair (S, S') of maximal stable sets of G^+ such that $S \cup S' = V$, if there exists an assignment of the

connected components of G^- to the stable sets S and S' such that each connected component is completely included in the stable set to which it has been assigned. In the affirmative case, the point $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ with $x_i = 1$ for $i \in S$ and $x_i = 0$ for $i \in S'$ satisfies $\mathcal{F}(x) = \emptyset$. Otherwise, we have $\mathcal{F}(x) \neq \emptyset$ for all $x \in \{0,1\}^n$.

Once the existence of a point $\bar{x} \in \{0,1\}^n$ with no neighbors has been established, the set of all x with this property can by found as follows: We consider all partitions of the set of connected components of G^- into two parts and check if the two parts of the partition define stable sets of the graph G^+. It remains to be shown this can be done in polynomial time. Denote by n_c^- the number of connected components of G^- and let $(\overline{V}_0, \overline{V}_1)$ be the partition of V into two stable sets which corresponds to $\bar{x}$, i.e. $\overline{V}_0 = \{i \in V : \bar{x}_i = 0\}$ and $\overline{V}_1 = \{i \in V : \bar{x}_i = 1\}$. Suppose that $\overline{V}_0$ is the stable set that contains the largest number of connected components: this number of components is at least equal to $\frac{n_c^-}{2}$. It follows that for each partial order induced by an orientation of the edges of $E^-(G[\overline{V}_0])$, the number of possible extensions to a total order is at least $2^{\frac{n_c^-}{2}}$. By the assumption of Theorem 2, the number of extensions is bounded by a polynomial in n, say $p_2(n)$, hence $p_2(n) \geq 2^{\frac{n_c^-}{2}}$ and therefore $n_c^- \leq 2 \log p_2(n)$. It follows that the number of partitions we have to examine is at most $2^{n_c^-} \leq (p_2(n))^2$, i.e., polynomial in n. This concludes the proof of Theorem 2.

6 Comparison with the algorithm of Allemand, Fukuda, Liebling, and Steiner

In their paper [1], Allemand, Fukuda, Liebling, and Steiner propose a polynomial algorithm for solving problem (2) when there is no linear term (i.e., $c = 0$) and the matrix A is negative semidefinite (i.e., $\lambda_\ell < 0$ for $\ell = 1, \ldots, d$ if a spectral decomposition of A is used, see the explanation in Section 1 for further details).

The algorithm of Allemand et al. involves the enumeration of the extreme points of a special polytope, called *zonotope*. The reader interested into the practical implementation of the method of Allemand et al. is recommended to read the recent paper of Ferrez, Fukuda, and Liebling [11] where an improved method for enumerating the extreme points of the zonotope is proposed.

6.1 Method of Allemand, Fukuda, Liebling, and Steiner

In this section we briefly describe the method of Allemand et al. [1] in a slightly more general framework. We are going to consider the problem:

$$\min_{x\in\{0,1\}^n} f(x) = \beta_0 + \langle u^0, x\rangle + \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \lambda_\ell \left(\beta_\ell + \langle u^\ell, x\rangle\right)^2 .$$

The case treated by Allemand et al. arises by setting $u^0 = 0$ and $\beta_\ell = 0$ for all $\ell = 0, \ldots, d$.

Consider the mapping T from $\mathbb{R}^n$ to $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ that transforms a point x into the point $T(x) = (\beta_0 + \langle u^0, x\rangle, \ldots, \beta_d + \langle u^d, x\rangle)$. The image of the hypercube $[0,1]^n$ is a special polytope Q_z of $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$, called *zonotope*. The crucial observation is that Q_z has $O(n^d)$ extreme points, which can be computed in $O(n^d)$ time (see Allemand et al. [1]; note that in the special case treated in [1] the zonotope is $d-$ rather than $(d+1)$-dimensional). The algorithm in [1] evaluates the expression $z_0 + \sum_{\ell=1}^{d} \lambda_\ell (z_\ell)^2$ for each extreme point $z = (z_0, \ldots, z_d)$ of Q_z and keeps the points of smallest value. Observe that, while each extreme point of Q_z is the image of some point $x \in \{0,1\}^n$, not all points in $\{0,1\}^n$ are transformed into an extreme point of Q_z. Therefore, the algorithm works correctly only if the optimal solution can be shown to be among the points $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ corresponding to an extreme point of Q_z. Allemand et al. observed that this property is true when the matrix A is negative semidefinite by exploiting the concavity of the objective function. The next lemma shows that the approach of Allemand et al. works for a larger class of instances of the CR-QP01.

Proposition 5 *Let $\mathcal{I}$ be an instance of the problem CR-QP01 with the property that all optimal solutions of the continuous relaxation of instance $\mathcal{I}$ are integral. Then the algorithm of Allemand et al. solves the instance $\mathcal{I}$ to optimality.*

Proof. We are going to show that if the algorithm of Allemand et al. fails, then there exists an optimal solution of the continuous relaxation that is fractional, contradicting the assumptions of the theorem.

Let x^* be an optimal solution of problem CR-QP01 that is not found by the algorithm of Allemand et al. It follows that the image $z^* = T(x^*)$ of x^* under the mapping T is not an extreme point of the zonotope Q_z. Therefore, z^* can be written as a convex combination of $t \geq 2$ extreme points of Q_z, say $z^{(1)}, \ldots, z^{(t)}$. Let $\xi^{(j)} \in \{0,1\}^n$ be such that $z^{(j)}$ is the image of $\xi^{(j)}$ under T, i.e., $z^{(j)} = T(\xi^{(j)})$ for

$j = 1, \ldots, t$. Hence, there exists a real vector $\nu = (\nu_1, \ldots, \nu_t) \geq 0$ with $\sum_{j=1}^{t} \nu_j = 1$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} z_\ell^* &= \sum_{j=1}^{t} \nu_j z_\ell^{(j)} = \sum_{j=1}^{t} \nu_j \left(\beta_\ell + \langle u^\ell, \xi^{(j)} \rangle\right) \\ &= \beta_\ell + \left\langle u^\ell, \sum_{j=1}^{t} \nu_j \xi^{(j)} \right\rangle \qquad \ell = 0, \ldots, d. \end{aligned}$$

But then $\sum_{j=1}^{t} \nu_j \xi^{(j)}$ is a feasible solution of the continuous relaxation with the same objective function value than x^*. It follows that the continuous relaxation has at least one optimal solution that is fractional. ∎

Observe that the class of instances of the CR-QP01 to which Proposition 5 applies, is a proper superset of the class of instances which arise for negative semidefinite matrices A. Let $\mathcal{N}$ denote the class of all $n \times n$ matrices A with strictly negative entries on the main diagonal. It is easy to show that matrices $A \in \mathcal{N}$ lead to instances of the CR-QP01 for which Proposition 5 is valid. Suppose the contrary. Let $\mathcal{I}'$ be an instance resulting from a matrix $A' \in \mathcal{N}$. Let $x^* = (x_1^*, \ldots, x_n^*)$ be an optimal solution of the continuous relaxation of $\mathcal{I}'$, and assume that x_j^* is fractional for some j. Then x_j^* is the optimal solution of a quadratic optimization problem of the form

$$\min_{0 \leq x_j \leq 1} a'_{jj} x_j^2 + B(x_1^*, \ldots, x_{j-1}^*, x_{j+1}^*, \ldots, x_n^*) x_j + C(x_1^*, \ldots, x_{j-1}^*, x_{j+1}^*, \ldots, x_n^*)$$

for some quadratic functions B and C. Since $a'_{jj} < 0$, the optimum cannot be attained at a fractional value, contradicting the assumption.

Note that the class of instances resulting from matrices $A \in \mathcal{N}$ is a special case of the class C1 considered in Section 4. This special case is obtained by using the hypergraph $H = (V_H, E_H)$ where E_H contains only edges of size 1 (i.e. H is a graph all of whose edges are loops). It is not difficult to verify that the conditions of Theorem 1 are satisfied for H.

It is well-known that the class of negative semidefinite matrices is contained in the set of matrices with nonpositive entries on the main diagonal. This class of matrices is a superset of $\mathcal{N}$. It is easy to see that our algorithm applies to this class as well since we either have $a_{ii} < 0$ for all $i = 1, \ldots, n$, or there exist entries $a_{ii} = 0$. In the first case, the arguments from the paragraph above apply. In the latter case, the variable x_i does not appear in the quadratic part of the objective function which implies that the optimal value of x_i can easily be obtained from the linear part of the

objective function. Consequently, our algorithm can be applied to solve the special case of the CR-QP01 with negative semidefinite A in polynomial time. For the sake of fairness, it needs to be pointed out, however, that the algorithm of Allemand et al. has a lower complexity than our algorithm.

6.2 Non-dominance

We now compare our approach with the approach of Allemand et al. We show that none of the two approaches dominates the other with respect to the class of instances of the CR-QP01 which can be solved in polynomial time.

We first present an instance $\mathcal{I}_1$ of the CR-QP01 which is solvable by our approach, but not by the approach of Allemand et al. Consider the quadratic function

$$f(x) = (n^2 x_1 + x_2)^2 - \left(x_1 + 2n^2 x_2 + \sum_{i=3}^{n} (2n^2 + i) x_i \right)^2 .$$

It is easy to check that the matrix A corresponding to the quadratic part of f satisfies the condition $a_{ii} + a_{jj} + 2|a_{ij}| < 0$ for $1 \leq i < j \leq n$. The resulting class of instances belongs to both C1 and C2, and can hence be solved in polynomial time by our approach.

We are now going to argue that the approach of Allemand et al. fails. Since the variables $x_i, i = 3, \ldots, n$, appear only in the second term, they must take the value 1 in an optimal solution of the continuous relaxation. Solving the 2-dimensional problem in the remaining variables x_1 and x_2 shows that the unique minimum is attained for $x = (\lambda, 1, \ldots, 1)$ with $\lambda = \frac{n^2 + (n-2)\left(2n^2 + \frac{n+3}{2}\right)}{n^4 - 1}$ (see the appendix for more details). Therefore the instance $\mathcal{I}_1$ cannot be solved by the method of Allemand et al.

Next we give an example of an instance $\mathcal{I}_2$ which can be solved by the approach of Allemand et al., but not by our approach. Consider the quadratic function given by

$$f(x) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} (i+1) x_i + 1 \right)^2 - \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{x_i}{i} \right)^2 .$$

This instance results from the matrix A with entries $a_{ij} = (i+1)(j+1) - \frac{1}{ij}$. It is easy to see that A does neither belong to class C1 nor to class C2 (note that

$a_{ii} + a_{jj} - 2|a_{ij}| \geq 0$ for all i, j). Consequently our methods do not apply. On the other hand, $f(x)$ is negative for all $x \in [0,1]^n$, therefore the optimal solution of the continuous relaxation must be integral (see Hammer, Hansen, Pardalos, and Rader [15]), and hence this problem can be solved in polynomial time by the method of Allemand et al. (and also by the method of Hammer et al.).

7 Conclusions

In this paper, we derived two new polynomially solvable special cases of the CR-QP01. Our generic algorithm works by enumerating a superset of the set of local minima of the objective function f with respect to a suitably chosen neighborhood.

Our results are essentially only of theoretical interest since our algorithms for the solution of the special cases C1 and C2 have running times which make them unsuited for solving practical problems for reasonably large values of n. (The main reason for the high running times is their dependency on the cardinality of the set Y.) It is, however, conceivable that heuristics obtained from the general idea of our approach lead to promising results. For example, one could think of developping local search heuristics based on the neighborhoods used in this paper. Another way to arrive at a heuristic is to refrain from computing the full set Y and be instead satisfied with a set Y' of randomly selected points of $\mathbb{R}^d$. Instead of searching for the best solution in $X(Y)$, we then search for the best solution in $X(Y')$.

Finally note that the classes presented in this paper are special cases of the more general class defined by:

$$\sum_{i,j \in F_1} a_{ij} + \sum_{i,j \in F_2} a_{ij} - 2 \sum_{i \in F_1} \sum_{j \in F_2} a_{ij} < 0 \qquad \text{for all } (F_1, F_2) \in E_{HH}$$

where $HH = (V_{HH}, E_{HH})$ is a "hyperhypergraph" whose edges are pairs $\{F_1, F_2\}$ of subsets of V_{HH} (a hypergraph can then be considered as the special case of a hyperhypergraph with all edges of the form $\{F, \emptyset\}$ where F is a subset of V_{HH}). In particular, the class considered in Section 5 corresponds to the hyperhypergraphs with edges $\{F_1, F_2\}$ satisfying $|F_1| + |F_2| = 2$. This suggests the following question: What conditions on HH ensure that the associated instances of the CR-QP01 can be solved in polynomial time ?

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Appendix

In this appendix we provide more details on the solution of the continuous relaxation of the instance $\mathcal{I}_1$ of the CR-QP01 which has been investigated in Section 6.2. The resulting quadratic programming problem QP is given by:

$$\min_{x\in[0,1]^n} f(x) = (n^2x_1 + x_2)^2 - \left(x_1 + 2n^2x_2 + \sum_{i=3}^{n}(2n^2+i)x_i\right)^2$$

Set $h_1(x) = n^2x_1 + x_2$ and $h_2(x) = x_1 + 2n^2x_2 + \sum_{i=3}^{n}(2n^2+i)x_i$. Hence we can write $f(x) = (h_1(x))^2 - (h_2(x))^2$. Since the variables x_i, $i = 3,\ldots,n$ only appear in the second term and since $h_2(x) \geq 0$, we will have $x_i = 1$, $i = 3,\ldots,n$ in any optimal solution. Consequently we are left with a function in 2 variables:

$$g(x_1,x_2) = (n^2x_1 + x_2)^2 - \left(x_1 + 2n^2x_2 + (n-2)\left(2n^2 + \frac{n+3}{2}\right)\right)^2.$$

Assume for a moment that the value of the function $h_2(x)$ at the optimum is known, and let this value be denoted by h_2^*. Then the optimal solution x^* of the QP can be obtained as solution of the following continuous knapsack problem:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min & n^2x_1 + x_2 \\ \text{s.t.} & \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_1 + 2n^2x_2 = h_2^* - (n-2)\left(2n^2 + \frac{n+3}{2}\right) \\ x_1, x_2 \in [0,1]. \end{array} \right. \end{array}$$

Since $\frac{n^2}{1} > \frac{1}{2n^2}$, it is well known that the optimum solution is either of the form $(x_1,x_2) = (0,\lambda)$ or $(x_1,x_2) = (\lambda,1)$ with $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$. The minimum of

$$g(0,\lambda) = \lambda^2 - \left(2n^2\lambda + (n-2)\left(2n^2 + \frac{n+3}{2}\right)\right)^2$$

on $[0,1]$ is attained for $\lambda = 1$ (observe, for example, that the derivative of $g(0,\lambda)$ with respect to λ is negative).

On the other hand, we have

$$g(\lambda, 1) = (n^2\lambda + 1)^2 - \left(\lambda + 2n^2 + (n-2)\left(2n^2 + \frac{n+3}{2}\right)\right)^2.$$

By setting the derivative of $h(\lambda) = g(\lambda, 1)$ equal to 0, we obtain that the minimum of g is attained for

$$\tilde{\lambda} = \frac{n^2 + (n-2)\left(2n^2 + \frac{n+3}{2}\right)}{n^4 - 1}.$$

Note that $\tilde{\lambda} \in [0, 1]$. Observing that $g(\tilde{\lambda}, 1) < g(0, 1)$, we conclude that the minimum of f over $[0, 1]^n$ is obtained for $x = (\tilde{\lambda}, 1, \ldots, 1)$, as claimed in Section 6.2.