Two-way Rounding

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Abstract. Given \( n \) real numbers \( 0 \leq x_1, \ldots, x_n < 1 \) and a permutation \( \sigma \) of \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \), we can always find \( \bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n \in \{0, 1\} \) so that the partial sums \( \bar{x}_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_k \) and \( \bar{x}_{\sigma 1} + \cdots + \bar{x}_{\sigma k} \) differ from the unrounded values \( x_1 + \cdots + x_k \) and \( x_{\sigma 1} + \cdots + x_{\sigma k} \) by at most \( n/(n + 1) \), for \( 1 \leq k \leq n \). The latter bound is best possible. The proof uses an elementary argument about flows in a certain network, and leads to a simple algorithm that finds an optimum way to round.

Many combinatorial optimization problems in integers can be solved or approximately solved by first obtaining a real-valued solution and then rounding to integer values. Spencer [11] proved that it is always possible to do the rounding so that partial sums in two independent orderings are properly rounded. His proof was indirect—a corollary of more general results [7] about discrepancies of set systems—and it guaranteed only that the rounded partial sums would differ by at most \( 1 - 2^{-2^n} \) from the unrounded values. The purpose of this note is to give a more direct proof, which leads to a sharper result.

Let \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \) be real numbers and let \( \sigma \) be a permutation of \( \{1, \ldots, n\} \). We will write

\[
S_k = x_1 + \cdots + x_k, \quad \Sigma_k = x_{\sigma 1} + \cdots + x_{\sigma k}, \quad 0 \leq k \leq n,
\]

for the partial sums in two independent orderings. Our goal is to find integers \( \bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n \) such that

\[
[x_k] \leq \bar{x}_k \leq [x_k],
\]

and such that the rounded partial sums

\[
\bar{S}_k = \bar{x}_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_k, \quad \bar{\Sigma}_k = \bar{x}_{\sigma 1} + \cdots + \bar{x}_{\sigma k}
\]

also satisfy

\[
[S_k] \leq \bar{S}_k \leq [S_k], \quad [\Sigma_k] \leq \bar{\Sigma}_k \leq [\Sigma_k], \quad (\star)
\]

for \( 0 \leq k \leq n \). Such \( \bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n \) will be called a two-way rounding of \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \) with respect to \( \sigma \).

**Lemma.** Two-way rounding is always possible.

**Proof.** We can assume without loss of generality that \( S_n = m \) is an integer, by adding an additional term and increasing \( n \) if necessary. We can also assume that \( 0 < x_k < 1 \) for
all $k$. Construct a network with nodes $\{s, a_1, \ldots, a_m, u_1, \ldots, u_n, v_1, \ldots, v_n, b_1, \ldots, b_m, t\}$ and the following arcs:* 

$$
\begin{align*}
  s &\to a_j \quad \text{and} \quad b_j \to t \quad \text{for} \quad 1 \leq j \leq m; \\
  u_k &\to v_k \quad \text{for} \quad 1 \leq k \leq n; \\
  a_j &\to u_k \quad \text{if} \quad [j - 1 \ldots j) \cap [S_{k-1} \ldots S_k) \neq \emptyset; \\
  v_{\sigma_k} &\to b_j \quad \text{if} \quad [j - 1 \ldots j) \cap [S_{k-1} \ldots S_k) \neq \emptyset.
\end{align*}
$$

Each arc has capacity 1. This network supports a natural flow of $m$ units, if we send 1 unit through each arc $s \to a_j$ and $b_j \to t$, and $x_k$ units through $u_k \to v_k$; the flow in $a_j \to u_k$ is the measure of the interval $[j - 1 \ldots j) \cap [S_{k-1} \ldots S_k)$, and the flow in $v_{\sigma_k} \to b_j$ is similar. Deleting the arcs $s \to a_j$ defines a cut of capacity $m$, so this must be a minimum cut.

Since the arc capacities are integers, the max-flow/min-cut theorem implies that this network supports an integer flow of $m$ units. Let $\bar{x}_k$ be the amount that flows through $u_k \to v_k$, for $1 \leq k \leq n$, in one such flow. Then $\bar{x}_k \in \{0, 1\}$. If $j = [S_k]$ we have $\Sigma_k = \bar{x}_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_k = \text{flow into } \{u_1, \ldots, u_k\} \leq \text{flow out of } \{a_1, \ldots, a_j\} = j$, because all arcs $a_i \to u_l$ for $l \leq k$ have $i \leq j$. If $j = [S_k]$ then $\Sigma_k = \text{flow into } \{u_1, \ldots, u_k\} \geq \text{flow out of } \{a_1, \ldots, a_j\} = j$, because all arcs $a_i \to u_l$ for $i \leq j$ have $l \leq k$. A similar argument proves that $|\Sigma_k| \leq \Sigma_k \leq [\Sigma_k]$, hence (*) holds. \(\square\)

**Corollary.** Given any fixed $k$, two-way rounding is possible with $\bar{x}_k = [x_k]$, as well as with $\bar{x}_k = \lfloor x_k \rfloor$.

**Proof.** We may assume as before that $0 < x_k < 1$. The construction in the lemma establishes a feasible flow of $x_k$ units in the arc $u_k \to v_k$. It is well known that the polytope of all feasible flows has vertices whose coordinates are integers (see, for example, Application 19.2 in Schrijver [10]). Therefore the arc $u_k \to v_k$ is saturated in at least one maximum flow, and it carries no flow at all in at least one other. \(\square\)

Incidentally, it is important to impose a capacity of 1 on the arcs $u_k \to v_k$ in the construction of this proof. Otherwise we might get solutions in which $\bar{x}_k = 2$. Condition (*) does not by itself imply that $\bar{x}_k \leq [x_k]$ or that $\bar{x}_k \geq [x_k]$.

Notice that (*) is equivalent to the conditions

$$
|S_k - \Sigma_k| < 1 \quad \text{and} \quad |\Sigma_k - \Sigma_k| < 1,
$$

for $0 \leq k \leq n$, since $\Sigma_k$ and $\Sigma_k$ are integers. Let us say that two-way rounding has discrepancy bounded by $\delta$ if $|S_k - \Sigma_k| \leq \delta$ and $|\Sigma_k - \Sigma_k| \leq \delta$ for all $k$. A slight extension of the construction in the lemma makes it possible to prove a stronger result:

* Here and in the sequel $[a \ldots b)$ denotes the half-open interval $\{x | a \leq x < b\}$. This notation, due independently to Hoare and Ramshaw, is recommended in [5].
Theorem 1. If $S_n = m$ is an integer, the sequence $(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$ can be two-way rounded with discrepancy bounded by $(2m+1)/(2m+2)$.

Proof. We will prove that two-way rounding bounded by $\delta$ is possible for all $\delta > (2m+1)/(2m+2)$. Only finitely many roundings exist, so the stated result follows by taking the limit as $\delta$ decreases to $(2m+1)/(2m+2)$.

The proof uses a network like that of the lemma, but we omit certain arcs that would lead to discrepancies near 1. More precisely, if $\epsilon$ is any fixed positive number $< 1/(2m+2)$, we have

$$a_j \rightarrow u_k \quad \text{if} \quad [j - 1 + \epsilon \ldots j - \epsilon) \cap [S_{k-1} \ldots S_k] \neq \emptyset;$$

$$v_{\sigma_k} \rightarrow b_j \quad \text{if} \quad [j - 1 + \epsilon \ldots j - \epsilon) \cap [\Sigma_{k-1} \ldots \Sigma_k] \neq \emptyset.$$

We also allow these arcs to have infinite capacity. But the capacity of the “source” arcs $s \rightarrow a_j$, the “middle” arcs $u_k \rightarrow v_k$, and the “sink” arcs $b_j \rightarrow t$ remains 1.

The minimum cut in this reduced network has size $m$. For any $m - 1$ of the unit-capacity arcs are cut, we will prove that we can still connect $s$ to $t$. Suppose we remove $p$ source arcs, $q$ middle arcs, and $r$ sink arcs, where $p + q + r = m - 1$. We send $1 - 2\epsilon$ units of flow from $s$ through each of the $m - p$ remaining source arcs. From every $a_j$ reached in this way, we send as many units of flow from $a_j \rightarrow u_k$ as the size of the interval $[j-1+\epsilon \ldots j-\epsilon) \cap [S_{k-1} \ldots S_k]$. Some of the flow now gets stuck, if $u_k$ is one of the $q$ vertices for which the arc $u_k \rightarrow v_k$ was removed. But at most $1 - 2\epsilon$ units flow into each $u_k$, so we still have at least $(m-p-q)(1-2\epsilon) = (r+1)(1-2\epsilon)$ units of flow arriving at $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$.

Now consider an “antiflow” of $1 - 2\epsilon$ units from $t$ back through each of the $m - r$ remaining sink arcs $b_j \rightarrow t$. From every such $b_j$ we send the antiflow back through $v_{\sigma_k} \rightarrow b_j$ according to the size of $[j-1+\epsilon \ldots j-\epsilon) \cap [\Sigma_{k-1} \ldots \Sigma_k]$. In this way $(m-r)(1-2\epsilon)$ units of antiflow come from $t$ to $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$. Each vertex $v_k$ contains at most $x_k$ units of flow and at most $x_k$ units of antiflow. We know that the total flow plus antiflow at $\{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$ is at least $(r+1)(1-2\epsilon) + (m-r)(1-2\epsilon) = m + 1 - (2m+2)\epsilon > m = x_1 + \cdots + x_n$. Therefore some vertex $v_k$ must contain both flow and antiflow. And this establishes the desired link between $s$ and $t$.

Since $m$ is the size of a minimum cut and all capacities are integers, the network supports an integer flow of value $m$. Let $\bar{x}_k$ be the flow from $u_k$ to $v_k$; we will prove that $(\bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n)$ is a two-way rounding with discrepancy $< \delta = 1 - \epsilon$. Note that

$$|\bar{S}_k - S_k| < 1 - \epsilon \iff |S_k + \epsilon| \leq \bar{S}_k \leq [S_k - \epsilon].$$

If $j = [S_k - \epsilon]$ we have $\bar{S}_k = \bar{x}_1 + \cdots + \bar{x}_k =$ flow into $\{u_1, \ldots, u_k\} \leq$ flow out of $\{a_1, \ldots, a_j\} = j$, because all arcs $a_i \rightarrow u_l$ for $l \leq k$ have $[i-1+\epsilon \ldots i-\epsilon) \cap [S_{l-1}, S_l] \neq \emptyset$, hence $i - 1 + \epsilon < S_l$ and $i \leq [S_l - \epsilon] \leq j$. Similarly, if $j = [S_k + \epsilon]$ we have $\bar{S}_k \geq$ flow out of $\{a_1, \ldots, a_j\} = j$, because all arcs $a_i \rightarrow u_l$ for $i \leq j$ have $l \leq k$. (If $l > k$ we would have $S_{l-1} \geq S_k \geq j - \epsilon \geq i - \epsilon$, contradicting $S_{l-1} < i - \epsilon$.) A similar proof shows that $[\Sigma_k + \epsilon] \leq \Sigma_k \leq [\Sigma_k - \epsilon].$ \hfill \Box

The bound of Theorem 1 is, in fact, best possible, in the sense that no better bound can be guaranteed as a function of $m$. 

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Theorem 2. For all positive integers \(m\) there exists a sequence of real numbers \((x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) with sum \(m\) and a permutation \(\sigma\) of \(\{1, \ldots, n\}\) that cannot be two-way rounded with discrepancy < \((2m + 1)/(2m + 2)\).

Proof. Let \(n = 2m + 2\) and \(\epsilon = 1/n\). Define
\[
x_1 = x_2 = x_3 = \epsilon; \quad x_{m+3} = (2m - 1)\epsilon;
\]
\[
x_{k+3} = 2\epsilon, \ x_{k+m+3} = 2m\epsilon, \quad \text{for} \quad 1 \leq k < m;
\]
\[
\sigma_1 = 2, \ \sigma_2 = 1, \ \sigma_3 = m + 3, \ \sigma(2m + 2) = 3;
\]
\[
\sigma(2k + 2) = k + 3, \ \sigma(2k + 3) = k + m + 3, \quad \text{for} \quad 1 \leq k < m.
\]
For example, when \(m = 4\) we have \((x_1, \ldots, x_{10}) = (0.1, 0.1, 0.2, 0.2, 0.2, 0.7, 0.8, 0.8)\) and \((\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{10}) = (2, 1, 7, 4, 8, 5, 9, 6, 10, 3)\). Hence
\[
(S_1, \ldots, S_{10}) = (0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.5, 0.7, 0.9, 1.6, 2.4, 3.2, 4.0),
\]
\[
(\Sigma_1, \ldots, \Sigma_{10}) = (0.1, 0.2, 0.9, 1.1, 1.9, 2.1, 2.9, 3.1, 3.9, 4.0).
\]
We will prove that this sequence and permutation cannot be two-way rounded with discrepancy less than \((2m + 1)/(2m + 2) = 0.9\); the same proof technique will work for any \(m \geq 1\).

The main point is that whenever \(S_k\) or \(\Sigma_k\) has the form \(l \pm 0.1\) where \(l\) is an integer, it must be rounded to \(l\) in order to keep the discrepancy small. This forces \(\overline{S}_1 = \overline{\Sigma}_1 = 0, \overline{S}_3 = \overline{\Sigma}_4 = 1, \overline{S}_5 = \overline{\Sigma}_6 = 2, \overline{S}_7 = \overline{\Sigma}_8 = 3, \overline{S}_9 = 4\), hence \(\overline{x}_1 = \overline{x}_2 = \overline{x}_3 = \overline{x}_4 = \overline{x}_5 = \overline{x}_6 = 0\). But then \(\overline{S}_6 = \overline{x}_1 + \cdots + \overline{x}_6 = 0\) differs by 0.9 from \(S_6\). \(\square\)

Although Theorem 2 proves that Theorem 1 is “optimal,” we can do still better if \(m\) is greater than \(\frac{1}{2}n\), because we can replace each \(x_k\) by \(1 - x_k\). This replaces \(m\) by \(n - m\), and the bound on discrepancy decreases to \((2n - 2m + 1)/(2n - 2m + 2)\). Then we can restore the original \(x_k\) and change \(\bar{x}_k\) to \(1 - \bar{x}_k\). This computation preserves \(|S_k - \overline{S}_k|\) and \(|\Sigma_k - \overline{\Sigma}_k|\), so it preserves the discrepancy.

Further improvement is also possible when \(m = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor\), if we look at the construction closely. The following theorem gives a uniform bound in terms of \(n\), without any assumption about the value of \(x_1 + \cdots + x_n\).

Theorem 3. Any sequence \((x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) and permutation \((\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n)\) can be two-way rounded with discrepancy bounded by \(n/(n + 1)\).

Proof. We will show in fact that the discrepancy can always be bounded by \((n - 1)/n\), when \(x_1 + \cdots + x_n = m\) is an integer. The general case follows from this special case if we set \(x_{n+1} = \lfloor S_n \rfloor - S_n\) and increase \(n\) by 1.

If \(2m + 2 \leq n\) or \(2n - 2m + 2 \leq n\), the result follows from Theorem 1 and possible complementation. Therefore we need only show that a discrepancy of at most \((n - 1)/n\) is achievable when \(m = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor\).
Consider first the case \( n = 2m + 1 \). We use the network in the proof of Theorem 1, but now we allow \( \epsilon \) to be any number \( < 1/n \). Suppose, as in the former proof, that we can disconnect \( s \) from \( t \) by deleting \( p \) source arcs, \( q \) middle arcs, and \( r \) sink arcs, where \( p + q + r = m - 1 \). Let \( q \) be minimum over all such ways to disconnect the network. We construct flows and antiflows as before, and we say that \( x_k \) is green if \( v_k \) contains positive flow, red if \( v_k \) contains positive antiflow. No \( x_k \) is both green and red, since there is no path from \( s \) to \( t \). The previous proof showed that there are at least \( (r + 1)(1 - 2\epsilon) \) units of green flow and \( (m - r)(1 - 2\epsilon) \) units of red flow, hence there are at least \( m + 1 - (2m + 2)\epsilon \) units of flow altogether. If we can raise this lower bound by \( \epsilon \), we will have a contradiction, because \( m + 1 - (2m + 1)\epsilon > m \).

Suppose \( q > 0 \), and let \( u_k \rightarrow v_k \) be a middle arc that was deleted. At most two arcs emanate from \( v_k \) in the network. Since \( q \) is minimum, there must in fact be two; otherwise we could restore \( u_k \rightarrow v_k \) and delete a non-middle arc. The two arcs from \( v_k \) must be consecutive, from \( v_k \rightarrow b_j \) and \( v_k \rightarrow b_{j+1} \), say. Furthermore the arcs \( b_j \rightarrow t \) and \( b_{j+1} \rightarrow t \) have not been cut. If \( k = \sigma l \) we have \( \Sigma_{l-1} < j - \epsilon \) and \( \Sigma_l > j + \epsilon \). Our lower bound on antiflow can now be raised by \( 2\epsilon \), because it was based on the weak assumption that no antiflow runs back from \( [j - \epsilon \ldots j + \epsilon] \). This improved lower bound leads to a contradiction; hence \( q = 0 \).

Divide the interval \([0 \ldots m]\) into three regions, namely “tiny left” regions of the form \([j - 1 \ldots j - 1 + \epsilon]\), “inner” regions of the form \([j - 1 + \epsilon \ldots j - \epsilon]\), and “tiny right” regions of the form \([j - \epsilon \ldots j]\), for \( 1 \leq j \leq m \). If we color the points of \([S_{k-1} \ldots S_k]\) with the color of \( x_k \), our lower bound \((r + 1)(1 - 2\epsilon) \) for green flow was essentially obtained by noting that \( m - p = r + 1 \) of the inner regions are purely green. Similarly, if we color the points of \([\Sigma_{k-1} \ldots \Sigma_k]\) with the color of \( x_{\sigma k} \), our lower bound for red flow was obtained by noting that \( m - r = p + 1 \) inner regions in this second coloring are purely red. Notice that there is complete symmetry between red and green, because we can invert the network and replace \( \sigma \) by \( \sigma^{-1} \).

Call an element \( x_k \) large if it exceeds \( 1 - \epsilon \). If any \( x_k \) is large, the interval \([S_{k-1} \ldots S_k]\) occupies more than \( \epsilon \) units outside of an inner region; this allows us to raise the lower bound by \( \epsilon \) and obtain a contradiction. Therefore no element is large. It follows that no element \( x_k \) can intersect more than \( 2 \) tiny regions, when \( x_k \) is placed in correspondence with \([S_{k-1} \ldots S_k]\) or \([\Sigma_{k-1} \ldots \Sigma_k]\).

Let’s look now at the \( 2m \) tiny regions. Each of them must contain at least some red in the first coloring; otherwise we would have at least \((p + 1)(1 - 2\epsilon) \) red units packed into at most \( 2m - 1 \) tiny regions and \( p \) inner regions, hence \((p + 1)(1 - 2\epsilon) \leq (2m - 1)\epsilon + p(1 - 2\epsilon) \), contradicting \( \epsilon < 1/n \). This means there must be at least \( m + 1 \) red elements \( x_k \), since no red element is large and since \( m \) non-large red intervals can intersect all the tiny regions only if they also cover all the inner regions (at least one of which is green). Similarly, there must be at least \( m + 1 \) green elements. But this is impossible, since there are only \( 2m + 1 \) elements altogether. Therefore the network has minimum cut size \( m \), and the rest of the proof of Theorem 1 goes through as before.

Now suppose \( n = 2m \). Then we can carry out a similar argument, but we need to raise the lower bound by \( 2\epsilon \). Again we can assume that \( q = 0 \). We can also show without
difficulty that there cannot be two large elements. When \( n = 2m \) the argument given above shows that at least \( 2m - 1 \) of the tiny regions must contain some red, in the first coloring.

Suppose there are only \( m - 1 \) red elements. Then, in the first coloring, \( m - 2 \) of them intersect 2 tiny intervals and the other is large and intersects 3; we have raised the red lower bound by \( \epsilon \). But \((p + 1)(1 - 2\epsilon) + \epsilon \) red units cannot be packed into \( 2m - 1 \) tiny regions and \( p \) inner regions, because \((p + 1)(1 - 2\epsilon) + \epsilon > (n - 1)\epsilon + p(1 - 2\epsilon)\).

A symmetrical argument shows that there cannot be only \( m - 1 \) green elements. Therefore exactly \( m \) elements are red and exactly \( m \) are green. Suppose no element is large. Then we have at least one purely green tiny interval in the first coloring and at least one purely red tiny interval in the second—another contradiction. Thus, we may assume that there is one large red element, and that the \( 2m \) tiny intervals in the first coloring contain a total of less than \( \epsilon \) units of green. In particular, each of them contains some red. Either the first interval \([0 \ldots \epsilon)\) or the last interval \([m - \epsilon \ldots m)\) is intersected by a non-large red element, which intersects at most \( \epsilon \) units of space in tiny intervals. The other \( m - 1 \) red elements intersect at most \( 2\epsilon \) units of tiny space each, so at most \( (2m - 1)\epsilon \) such units are red. This final contradiction completes the proof.

The result of Theorem 3 is best possible, because we can easily prove (as in Theorem 2) that the values

\[
x_1 = \frac{1}{n+1}, \quad x_k = \begin{cases} 
\frac{(n-1)}{n+1}, & k \text{ even, } 2 \leq k \leq n \\
\frac{2}{n+1}, & k \text{ odd, } 3 \leq k \leq n 
\end{cases}
\]

and a “shuffle” permutation that begins

\[
\sigma_k = \begin{cases} 
2k - 1 & \text{for } 1 \leq 2k - 1 \leq n, \quad n \text{ odd} \\
2k & \text{for } 1 \leq 2k \leq n, \quad n \text{ even}
\end{cases}
\]

cannot be two-way rounded with discrepancy less than \( n/(n+1) \).

So far we have discussed only worst-case bounds. But a particular two-way rounding problem, defined by values \((x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) and a permutation \((\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n)\), will usually be solvable with smaller discrepancy than guaranteed by Theorems 1 and 3. A closer look at the construction of Theorem 1 leads to an efficient algorithm that finds the best possible discrepancy in any given case.

**Theorem 4.** Let \( \epsilon \) be any positive number. There exists a solution with discrepancy less than \( 1 - \epsilon \) to a given two-way rounding problem if and only if the network constructed in the proof of Theorem 1 supports an integer flow of value \( m \).

**Proof.** The final paragraph in the proof of Theorem 1 demonstrates the “if” half. Conversely, suppose \( \bar{x}_1, \ldots, \bar{x}_n \) is a solution with discrepancy < \( 1 - \epsilon \). If \( \bar{x}_k = 1 \), let \( j = \bar{S}_k \). Then \( j - 1 = \bar{S}_{k-1} \), so the condition \(|\bar{S}_{k-1} - \bar{S}_{k-1}| < 1 - \epsilon \) implies \( \bar{S}_{k-1} < j - \epsilon \). Also \(|\bar{S}_k - \bar{S}_k| < 1 - \epsilon \) implies \( \bar{S}_k > j - 1 + \epsilon \). Therefore there is an arc \( a_j \rightarrow u_k \). Similarly, there is an arc \( v_{\sigma_k} \rightarrow b_j \) when \( \bar{x}_{\sigma_k} = 1 \) and \( j = \bar{S}_k \). So the network supports an integer flow of value \( m \). \( \square \)
In other words, the optimum discrepancy \( \delta = 1 - \epsilon \) is obtained when \( \epsilon \) is just large enough to reduce the network to the point where no \( m \)-unit flow can be sustained, if \( \delta \geq \frac{1}{2} \). We can in fact find an optimum rounding as follows: Let

\[
f(j, k) = \min(j - S_{k-1}, S_k - j + 1)
\]

be the “desirability” of the arc \( a_j \to u_k \), and

\[
g(j, \sigma_k) = \min(j - \Sigma_{k-1}, \Sigma_k - j + 1)
\]

the desirability of \( v_{\sigma_k} \to b_j \). (Thus the arcs \( a_j \to u_k \), \( v_{\sigma_k} \to b_j \) are included in the network of Theorem 1 if and only if their desirability is greater than \( \epsilon \).) Sort these arcs by desirability, and add them one by one to the initial arcs \( \{s \to a_j, u_k \to v_k, b_j \to t\} \) until an integer flow of \( m \) units is possible. Then let \( x_k \) be the flow in \( u_k \to v_k \), for all \( k \); this flow has discrepancy equal to 1 minus the desirability of the last arc added, and no smaller discrepancy is possible.

Notice that the arc \( a_j \to u_k \) has desirability \( > \frac{1}{2} \) if and only if \( S_{k-1} < j - \frac{1}{2} < S_k \), so at most \( m \) such arcs are present. If all \( x_k \) lie between 0 and 1, at most \( m + n - 1 \) arcs of the form \( a_j \to u_k \) will have positive desirability, since both \( a_{j-1} \to u_k \) and \( a_j \to u_k \) will be desirable iff \( S_{k-1} < j < S_k \).

The following simple algorithm turns out to be quite efficient, assuming that \( m \leq \frac{1}{2} n \): Begin with the network consisting of arcs \( \{s \to a_j, u_k \to v_k, b_j \to t\} \) for \( 1 \leq j \leq m \) and \( 1 \leq k \leq n \), plus any additional arcs of desirability \( > \frac{1}{2} \). Call an arc \( a_j \to u_k \) or \( v_{\sigma_k} \to b_j \) “special” if its desirability lies between \( 1/m \) and \( 1/2 \), inclusive; fewer than \( 2m + 2n \) arcs are special. Then, for \( j = 1, \ldots, m \), send one unit of flow from \( a_j \) to \( t \) along an “augmenting path,” using the well-known algorithm of Ford and Fulkerson [2, pp. 17–19] but specialized for unit-capacity arcs. In other words, construct a breadth-first search tree from \( a_j \) until encountering \( t \); then choose a path from \( a_j \) to \( t \) and reverse the orientation of all arcs on that path. If \( t \) is not reachable from \( a_j \), add special arcs to the network, in order of decreasing desirability, until \( t \) is reachable.

The running time of this algorithm is bounded by \( O(mn) \) steps, but in practice it runs much faster on random data. For example, Tables 1 and 2 show the results of various tests when the input permutation \( \sigma \) is random and when the values \( (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \) are selected as follows: Let \( y_1, \ldots, y_n \) be independent uniform integers in the range \( 1 \leq y_k \leq N \), where \( N \) is a large integer (chosen so that arithmetic computations will not exceed 31 bits). Increase one or more of the \( y \)’s by 1, if necessary, until \( y_1 + \cdots + y_n \) is a multiple of \( m \); then set \( x_k = y_k/d \), where \( d = (y_1 + \cdots + y_n)/m \). Reject \( (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \) and start over, if some \( x_k \geq 1 \). (In practice, rejection occurs about half the time when \( m = \frac{1}{2} n \), but almost never when \( m \ll \frac{1}{2} n \).)

Table 1 shows the optimum discrepancies found, and Table 2 shows the running time in memory references or “mems” [6, pp. 464–465] divided by \( n \). All entries in these tables are given in the form \( \mu \pm \sigma \), where \( \mu \) is the sample mean and \( \sigma \) is an estimate of the standard deviation; more precisely, \( \sigma \) is the square root of an unbiased estimate of the variance. The number of test runs \( t(n) \) for each experiment was \( 10^6/n \); thus, \( 10^5 \) runs
were made for each \( m \) when \( n = 10 \), but only 10 runs were made for each \( m \) when \( n = 10^5 \). The actual confidence interval for the tabulated \( \mu \) values is therefore approximately
\[
2\sigma / \sqrt{t(n)} = .002\sigma \sqrt{n}.
\]
Table 1. Empirical optimum discrepancies

| m = 1     | m = 2     | m = ⌊lg n⌋ | m = ⌊√n⌋    | m = \( \frac{1}{2} n \) |
|-----------|-----------|------------|-------------|------------------------|
| n = 10    | 0.566 ± 0.06 | 0.619 ± 0.07 | 0.627 ± 0.07 | 0.627 ± 0.07 | 0.622 ± 0.08 |
| n = 100   | 0.537 ± 0.02 | 0.575 ± 0.03 | 0.664 ± 0.03 | 0.710 ± 0.03 | 0.759 ± 0.02 |
| n = 1000  | 0.513 ± 0.007 | 0.527 ± 0.01 | 0.582 ± 0.01 | 0.662 ± 0.02 | 0.794 ± 0.02 |
| n = 10000 | 0.504 ± 0.002 | 0.509 ± 0.003 | 0.535 ± 0.005 | 0.612 ± 0.01 | 0.818 ± 0.01 |
| n = 100000| 0.502 ± 0.001 | 0.503 ± 0.001 | 0.513 ± 0.002 | 0.570 ± 0.005 | 0.838 ± 0.007|

Table 2. Empirical running time, in mems/n

| m = 1     | m = 2     | m = ⌊lg n⌋ | m = ⌊√n⌋    | m = \( \frac{1}{2} n \) |
|-----------|-----------|------------|-------------|------------------------|
| n = 10    | 10 ± 4    | 19 ± 6     | 27 ± 8      | 27 ± 8     | 37 ± 11       |
| n = 100   | 2.9 ± 1.3 | 6 ± 2      | 18 ± 5      | 29 ± 7     | 76 ± 15       |
| n = 1000  | 0.9 ± 0.5 | 1.9 ± 0.7  | 8.5 ± 2.2   | 25 ± 6     | 152 ± 32      |
| n = 10000 | 0.3 ± 0.2 | 0.6 ± 0.2  | 3.6 ± 0.8   | 22 ± 7     | 289 ± 49      |
| n = 100000| 0.1 ± 0.1 | 0.2 ± 0.1  | 1.4 ± 0.4   | 17 ± 4     | 540 ± 72      |

Notice that when \( m \ll n \), the optimum discrepancy is nearly \( \frac{1}{2} \). Indeed, this is obvious on intuitive grounds: When \( n \) is large, approximately \( en \) values of \( k \) will have \( S_k \) within \( \frac{1}{2} \) of \( \frac{1}{2} \), \( \frac{3}{2} \), \ldots, \( \frac{m-1}{2} \), and approximately \( e^2 n \) will also have equally good values \( \Sigma_{k=1}^m \). So we are essentially looking for a perfect matching in a bipartite graph with \( m \) vertices in each part and \( e^2 n \) edges. For fixed \( m \) as \( n \to \infty \), the matching will exist when \( e^2 n \) is sufficiently large, hence the mean optimum discrepancy is \( \frac{1}{2} + O(n^{-\frac{1}{2}}) \).

However, the behavior of the mean optimum discrepancy when \( m = \frac{1}{2} n \) is not clear. It appears to approach 1, but quite slowly, perhaps as \( 1 − c / \log n \).

When \( n \) is fixed and \( m \) varies, the mean optimum discrepancy is not maximized when \( m = \frac{1}{2} n \). For example, when \( n = 10 \), Table 1 shows that it is .622 when \( m = 5 \) but .627 when \( m = 3 \).

The running times shown in Table 2 do not include the work of constructing the network or sorting the special arcs by desirability. Those operations are easily analyzed, and in practice they take \( am + bn \) steps for some constants \( a \) and \( b \), because a straightforward bucket sort is satisfactory for this application. Therefore only the running time of the subsequent flow calculations is of interest.

The average running time to compute the flows appears to be \( o(n) \) when \( m \leq \sqrt{n} \), and approximately proportional to \( n^{1.3} \) when \( m = \frac{1}{2} n \). So it is much less than the obvious upper bound \( mn \) of the Ford-Fulkerson scheme. The author tried to obtain still faster results by using more sophisticated max-flow algorithms, but these “improved” algorithms actually turned out to run more than an order of magnitude slower.

For example, the algorithm of Dinits, as improved by Karzanov and others, seems at first to be especially well suited to this application because the network of Theorem 1 is
“simple” in the sense discussed by Papadimitriou and Steiglitz [9, pp. 212–214]: Every internal vertex has in-degree 1 or out-degree 1, hence edge-disjoint paths are vertex-disjoint and the running time with unit-capacity arcs is \( O(|V|^{1/2} |A|) = O(n^{3/2}) \). Using binary search to find the optimum number of special arcs gives us a guaranteed worst-case performance of \( O(\min(m, n^{1/2}) n \log n) \). Unfortunately, in practice the performance of that algorithm actually matches this worst-case estimate, even on random data. For example, when \( m = \frac{1}{2} n \) the observed running time in mems/n was 15284 ± 2455 when \( n = 10^4 \), compared to 289 ± 49 by the simple algorithm. Each flow calculation consumed more than 1000\( m \) mems, and binary search required \( \lceil \log 2n \rceil = 14 \) flow calculations to be carried out.

When modern preflow push/relabel algorithms are specialized to unit-capacity networks of the type considered here, they behave essentially like the Dinits algorithm and are no easier to implement (see Goldberg, Plotkin, and Vaidya [4]). Such algorithms do allow networks to change dynamically by adding arcs from \( s \) and/or deleting arcs to \( t \) (see Gallo, Grigoriadis, and Tarjan [3]); but our application requires adding or deleting special arcs in the middle of the network, so the techniques of [3] do not apply. Thus the simple Ford-Fulkerson algorithm seems to be a clear winner for this application, in spite of a lack of performance guarantees.

How complex can the networks of Theorem 1 be? If we have any bipartite graph with \( m \) vertices in each part and with \( n \) edges, and if every edge can be extended to a perfect matching, then we can find real numbers \((x_1, \ldots, x_n)\) in the range \( 0 < x_k \leq 1 \) and a permutation \((\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n)\) such that \( x_1 + \cdots + x_n = m \) and the two-way roundings are in one-to-one correspondence with the perfect matchings of the given graph. For we can take \((x_1, \ldots, x_n) = t_1 \alpha_1 + \cdots + t_n \alpha_n\) where \( t_1 + \cdots + t_n = 1 \) and \( \alpha_k \) is the characteristic vector of a perfect matching that uses edge \( k \). The sum of \( x_k \) over all the edges touching any vertex is 1. Represent an edge from \( u \) to \( v \) by the ordered pair \((u, v)\), and label the edges \( 1, \ldots, n \) in lexicographic order of these pairs; then define the permutation \( \sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n \) by lexicographic order of the dual pairs \((v, u)\). It follows that if \( k \) is the final edge for vertex \( j \) in the first part, we have \( S_k = j \); and if \( \sigma k \) is the final edge for vertex \( j \) in the second part, we have \( \Sigma_k = j \). The correspondence between matchings and roundings is now evident.

This construction shows that the networks arising in Theorem 1 are general enough to mimic the networks that arise in bipartite matching problems, but only when the bipartite graphs contain no unmatchable edges; and the corollary preceding Theorem 1 shows that the latter restriction cannot be removed. This restriction on network complexity might account for the excellent performance we obtain with the simple Ford-Fulkerson algorithm.

If the capacity constraint on \( u_k \to v_k \) is removed, our network becomes equivalent to a network for bipartite matching, in which we want to match \( \{a_1, \ldots, a_m\} \) to \( \{b_1, \ldots, b_m\} \) through edges \( a_j \to b_j \) whenever \( a_j \to u_k \) and \( v_k \to b_j \). The problem of finding the best such match, when the edge \( a_j \to b_j \) is ranked by the minimum of the desirabilities \( f(j, k) \) and \( g(j', k) \), is then a bottleneck assignment problem [1, 2]. (Open question: Is there a nice way to characterize all bottleneck assignment problems that arise from two-way rounding problems in this manner?)

The problem of optimum two-way rounding is, however, more general than the bottleneck assignment problem, because the unit capacity constraint on \( u_k \to v_k \) is significant.
Consider, for example, the case \( n = 7, m = 3, (x_1, \ldots, x_7) = \frac{1}{28}(8, 8, 24, 11, 11, 11) \), \((\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_7) = (2, 1, 3, 5, 4, 7, 6)\). Then \((S_1, \ldots, S_7) = (\Sigma_1, \ldots, \Sigma_7) = \frac{1}{28}(8, 16, 40, 51, 62, 73, 84)\), and the arcs \( \{a_j \to u_k, v_k \to b_j\} \) ranked by desirability are

\[
\begin{align*}
& a_3 \to u_6, \ v_7 \to b_3 \quad \text{desirability} = \min(\frac{22}{28}, \frac{17}{28}) = \frac{17}{28} \\
& a_1 \to u_2, \ v_1 \to b_1, \ a_2 \to u_4, \ v_5 \to b_2 \quad \text{desirability} \frac{16}{28} \\
& a_1 \to u_3, \ v_3 \to b_1, \ a_2 \to u_3, \ v_3 \to b_2 \quad \text{desirability} \frac{12}{28} \\
& a_3 \to u_7, \ v_6 \to b_3 \quad \text{desirability} \frac{11}{28} \\
& a_1 \to u_1, \ v_2 \to b_1 \quad \text{desirability} \frac{9}{28} \\
& a_3 \to u_5, \ v_4 \to b_3 \quad \text{desirability} \frac{6}{28} \\
& a_2 \to u_5, \ v_4 \to b_2 \quad \text{desirability} \frac{5}{28}
\end{align*}
\]

Thus the edges \( a_j \to b_j \) ranked by desirability are

\[
\begin{align*}
& a_1 \to b_1, \ a_1 \to b_2, \ a_2 \to b_1, \ a_2 \to b_2 \quad (\frac{12}{28} \text{ via } u_3, v_3) \\
& a_3 \to b_3 \quad (\frac{11}{28} \text{ via } u_6, v_6 \text{ or } u_7, v_7) \\
& a_1 \to b_1 \quad (\frac{8}{28} \text{ via } u_1, v_1 \text{ or } u_2, v_2) \\
& a_2 \to b_3, \ a_3 \to b_2 \quad (\frac{6}{28} \text{ via } u_4, v_4 \text{ or } u_5, v_5) \\
& a_2 \to b_2 \quad (\frac{5}{28} \text{ via } u_4, v_4 \text{ or } u_5, v_5)
\end{align*}
\]

The bottleneck assignment problem is solved by matching \( a_1 \to b_1, a_2 \to b_2, \) and \( a_3 \to b_3 \) with desirability \( \min(\frac{12}{28}, \frac{11}{28}, \frac{8}{28}) = \frac{8}{28} \). But this matching does not correspond to a valid two-way rounding because it uses the intermediate arc \( u_3 \to v_3 \) twice; it rounds \( x_3 \) to 2 and \( x_6 \) (or \( x_7 \)) to 1. The optimum two-way rounding uses another route from \( a_1 \) to \( b_1 \) and has desirability \( \min(\frac{8}{28}, \frac{12}{28}, \frac{11}{28}) = \frac{8}{28} \), discrepancy \( 1 - \frac{8}{28} = \frac{20}{28} \); it rounds \( x_1 \) (or \( x_2 \)), \( x_3 \), and \( x_6 \) (or \( x_7 \)) to 1, the other \( x \)'s to 0.

In closing, we note that a conjecture of József Beck \([7, 11]\) remains a fascinating open problem: Is there a constant \( K \) such that three-way rounding is always possible with discrepancy at most \( K \)? (In three-way rounding the partial sums are supposed to be well approximated with respect to a third permutation \( (\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n) \), in addition to \( (1, \ldots, n) \) and \( (\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_n) \).) It suffices \([7, 11]\) to prove this when \( x_k = \frac{1}{2} \) for all \( k \).

Can any of the methods of this paper be extended to find better bounds on the discrepancy of arbitrary set systems (or at least of set systems more general than those for two-way rounding), in the sense of \([11]\)?

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