Computer Science & Engineering 423/823 Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Lecture 01 — Shall We Play A Game?

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Introduction

- ▶ In this course, we assume that you have learned several fundamental concepts on basic data structures and algorithms
- Let's confirm this
- ▶ What do we mean ...

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... when we say: "Asymptotic Notation"

- ▶ A convenient means to succinctly express the growth of functions
 - ▶ Big-*O*
 - ► Big-Ω
 - ► Big-Θ
 - Little-oLittle-ω
- ► Important distinctions between these (not interchangeable)



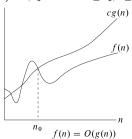
Asymptotic Notation

... when we say: "Big-O"

Asymptotic upper bound

$$O(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \exists c, n_0 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \ge n_0, 0 \le f(n) \le c g(n) \}$$

$$cg(n)$$



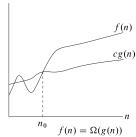
Can **very loosely and informally** think of this as a "\leq" relation between functions

Asymptotic Notation

... when we say: "Big- Ω "

Asymptotic lower bound

$$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n): \exists c, n_0 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq c \ g(n) \leq f(n)\}$$



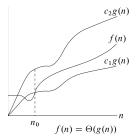
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Asymptotic Notation

... when we say: "Big- Θ "

Asymptotic tight bound

 $\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n): \exists c_1, c_2, n_0 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n)\}$



Can very loosely and informally think of this as a "=" relation between functions

Asymptotic Notation

... when we say: "Little-o"

Upper bound, not asymptotically tight

$$o(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \forall c > 0, \exists n_0 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \ge n_0, 0 \le f(n) < c g(n)\}$$

Upper inequality strict, and holds for all c>0

Can **very loosely and informally** think of this as a "<" relation between functions

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Asymptotic Notation

... when we say: "Little- ω "

Lower bound, not asymptotically tight

$$\omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \forall c > 0, \exists n_0 > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \ge n_0, 0 \le c \, g(n) < f(n)\}$$

$$f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) \in o(f(n))$$

Can very loosely and informally think of this as a ">" relation between functions

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... when we say: "Upper and Lower Bounds"

- Most often, we analyze algorithms and problems in terms of time complexity (number of operations)
- Sometimes we analyze in terms of space complexity (amount of memory)
- Can think of upper and lower bounds of time/space for a specific algorithm or a general problem

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Upper and Lower Bounds

... when we say: "Upper Bound of an Algorithm"

- ▶ The most common form of analysis
- An algorithm A has an **upper bound** of f(n) for input of size n if there exists **no** input of size n such that A requires more than f(n) time
- ▶ E.g., we know from prior courses that Quicksort and Bubblesort take no more time than $O(n^2)$, while Mergesort has an upper bound of $O(n \log n)$
 - ▶ (But why is Quicksort used more in practice?)
- ► Aside: An algorithm's lower bound (not typically as interesting) is like a best-case result

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Upper and Lower Bounds

... when we say: "Upper Bound of a Problem"

- A problem has an **upper bound** of f(n) if there exists **at least one** algorithm that has an upper bound of f(n)
 - I.e., there exists an algorithm with time/space complexity of at most f(n) on all inputs of size n
- ▶ E.g., since Mergesort has worst-case time complexity of $O(n \log n)$, the problem of sorting has an upper bound of $O(n \log n)$
 - Sorting also has an upper bound of $O(n^2)$ thanks to Bubblesort and Quicksort, but this is subsumed by the tighter bound of $O(n \log n)$

Upper and Lower Bounds

... when we say: "Lower Bound of a Problem"

- A problem has a **lower bound** of f(n) if, for **any** algorithm A to solve the problem, there exists **at least one** input of size n that forces A to take at least f(n) time/space
- ▶ This pathological input depends on the specific algorithm A
- ▶ E.g., there is an input of size n (reverse order) that forces Bubblesort to take $\Omega(n^2)$ steps
- ▶ Also e.g., there is a different input of size n that forces Mergesort to take $\Omega(n\log n)$ steps, but none exists forcing $\omega(n\log n)$ steps
- ▶ Since **every** sorting algorithm has an input of size n forcing $\Omega(n \log n)$ steps, the sorting problem has a **time complexity lower bound** of $\Omega(n \log n)$
 - ⇒ Mergesort is asymptotically optimal

Upper and Lower Bounds

... when we say: "Lower Bound of a Problem" (2)

- ▶ To argue a lower bound for a problem, can use an adversarial argument: An algorithm that simulates arbitrary algorithm A to build a pathological input
- ▶ Needs to be in some general (algorithmic) form since the nature of the pathological input depends on the specific algorithm A
- ► Can also reduce one problem to another to establish lower bounds
 - ▶ Spoiler Alert: This semester we will show that if we can compute convex hull in $o(n \log n)$ time, then we can also sort in time $o(n \log n)$; this cannot be true, so convex hull takes time $\Omega(n \log n)$



... when we say: "Efficiency"

- ▶ We say that an algorithm is time- or space-efficient if its worst-case time (space) complexity is $O(n^c)$ for constant c for input size n
- ▶ I.e., polynomial in the size of the input
- Note on input size: We measure the size of the input in terms of the number of bits needed to represent it
 - ▶ E.g., a graph of n nodes takes $O(n \log n)$ bits to represent the nodes and $O(n^2 \log n)$ bits to represent the edges
 - ▶ Thus, an algorithm that runs in time $O(n^c)$ is efficient
 - ▶ In contrast, a problem that includes as an input a numeric parameter k (e.g., threshold) only needs $O(\log k)$ bits to represent
 - In this case, an efficient algorithm for this problem must run in time
 - If instead polynomial in k, sometimes call this pseudopolynomial

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... when we say: "Recurrence Relations"

- ▶ We know how to analyze non-recursive algorithms to get asymptotic bounds on run time, but what about recursive ones like Mergesort and Quicksort?
- ▶ We use a recurrence relation to capture the time complexity and then bound the relation asymptotically
- ightharpoonup E.g., Mergesort splits the input array of size n into two sub-arrays, recursively sorts each, and then merges the two sorted lists into a single, sorted one
- ▶ If T(n) is time for Mergesort on n elements,

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)$$

▶ Still need to get an asymptotic bound on T(n)

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Recurrence Relations

... when we say: "Master Theorem" or "Master Method"

- ▶ **Theorem:** Let $a \ge 1$ and b > 1 be constants, let f(n) be a function, and let T(n) be defined as T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n). Then T(n) is bounded as follows:
 - 1. If $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \epsilon})$ for constant $\epsilon > 0$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$

 - 2. If $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$ 3. If $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a} + \epsilon)$ for constant $\epsilon > 0$, and if $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ for constant c < 1 and sufficiently large n, then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
- ▶ E.g., for Mergesort, can apply theorem with a = b = 2, use case 2, and get $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_2 2} \log n) = \Theta(n \log n)$

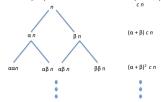
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Recurrence Relations

Other Approaches

Theorem: For recurrences of the form $T(\alpha n) + T(\beta n) + O(n)$ for $\alpha + \beta < 1$, T(n) = O(n)

Proof: Top T(n) takes O(n) time (= cn for some constant c). Then calls to $T(\alpha n)$ and $T(\beta n)$, which take a total of $(\alpha + \beta)cn$ time, and so on



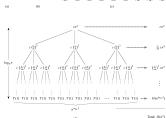
Summing these infinitely yields (since $\alpha+\beta<1)$

$$cn(1+(\alpha+\beta)+(\alpha+\beta)^2+\cdots)=\frac{cn}{1-(\alpha+\beta)}=c'n=O(n)$$

Recurrence Relations

Still Other Approaches

Previous theorem special case of **recursion-tree method**: (e.g., $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + O(n^2)$) T(5) T(5) T(5)

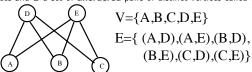


Another approach is substitution method (guess and prove via induction)

Graphs

... when we say: "(Undirected) Graph"

A (simple, or undirected) graph G = (V, E) consists of V, a nonempty set of vertices and E a set of unordered pairs of distinct vertices called edges

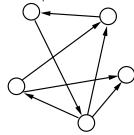


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Graphs

... when we say: "Directed Graph"

A **directed** graph (digraph) G = (V, E) consists of V, a nonempty set of vertices and E a set of *ordered* pairs of distinct vertices called *edges*

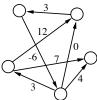


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Graphs

... when we say: "Weighted Graph"

A **weighted** graph is an undirected or directed graph with the additional property that each edge e has associated with it a real number w(e) called its weight



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Graphs

... when we say: "Representations of Graphs"

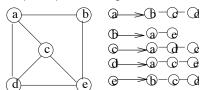
- ► Two common ways of representing a graph: Adjacency list and adjacency matrix
- ▶ Let G = (V, E) be a graph with n vertices and m edges

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Graphs

... when we say: "Adjacency List"

- lacktriangle For each vertex $v \in V$, store a list of vertices adjacent to v
- ▶ For weighted graphs, add information to each node
- ▶ How much is space required for storage?



Graphs

... when we say: "Adjacency Matrix"

- ▶ Use an $n \times n$ matrix M, where M(i,j) = 1 if (i,j) is an edge, 0 otherwise
- \blacktriangleright If ${\it G}$ weighted, store weights in the matrix, using ∞ for non-edges
- ▶ How much is space required for storage?



| | a | b | с | 1 0 1 0 1 | e |
|---|---|---|---|-----------------------|---|
| a | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| b | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| c | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| d | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| e | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |

Algorithmic Techniques

... when we say: "Dynamic Programming"

- Dynamic programming is a technique for solving optimization problems, where we need to choose a "best" solution, as evaluated by an objective function
- Key element: Decompose a problem into subproblems, optimally solve them recursively, and then combine the solutions into a final (optimal) solution
- ► Important component: There are typically an exponential number of subproblems to solve, but many of them overlap
 - ⇒ Can re-use the solutions rather than re-solving them
- ▶ Number of distinct subproblems is polynomial
- Works for problems that have the optimal substructure property, in that an optimal solution is made up of optimal solutions to subproblems
 - ► Can find optimal solution if we consider all possible subproblems
- ► Example: All-pairs shortest paths

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Algorithmic Techniques

... when we say: "Greedy Algorithms"

- ► Another optimization technique
- Similar to dynamic programming in that we examine subproblems, exploiting optimial substructure property
- Key difference: In dynamic programming we considered all possible subproblems
- In contrast, a greedy algorithm at each step commits to just one subproblem, which results in its greedy choice (locally optimal choice)
- ▶ Examples: Minimum spanning tree, single-source shortest paths

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Algorithmic Techniques

... when we say: "Divide and Conquer"

- An algorithmic approach (not limited to optimization) that splits a problem into sub-problems, solves each sub-problem recursively, and then combines the solutions into a final solution
- ▶ E.g., Mergesort splits input array of size n into two arrays of sizes $\lceil n/2 \rceil$ and $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$, sorts them, and merges the two sorted lists into a single sorted list in O(n) time
 - Recursion bottoms out for n = 1
- ▶ Such algorithms often analyzed via recurrence relations

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Proof Techniques

... when we say: "Proof by Contradiction"

- A proof technique in which we assume the opposite (negation) of the premise to be proved and then arrive at a contradiction of some other assumption
- ▶ If we are trying to prove premise P, we assume for sake of contradiction $\neg P$ and conclude something we know is false
 - \blacktriangleright If we argue $\neg P \Rightarrow$ false, then $\neg P$ must be false and P must be true
- ▶ E.g., to prove there is no greatest even integer:
 - Assume for sake of contradiction there exists a greatest even integer $N \Rightarrow \forall$ even integers n, we have $N \geq n$
 - But M = N + 2 is an even integer since it's the sum of two even integers, and M > N
 - ► Therefore, our conclusion (1) is false, so our negated premise is false, so our original premise is true

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Proof Techniques

... when we say: "Proof by Induction"

- ➤ A proof technique (typically applied to situations involving non-negative integers) in which we prove a base case followed by the inductive step
- ▶ E.g., prove $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n i = n(n+1)/2$
 - ▶ Base case (n = 1): $S_1 = 1 = n(n + 1)/2$
 - ▶ **Inductive step**: Assume holds for n and prove it holds for n + 1:

$$S_{n+1} = S_n + (n+1) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + (n+1) = \frac{n(n+1) + 2n + 2}{2}$$
$$= \frac{n^2 + 3n + 2}{2} = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$$

 Useful for proving invariants in algorithms, where some property always holds at every step, and therefore at the final step

Proof Techniques

... when we say: "Proof by Construction"

- A proof technique often used to prove existence of something by directly constructing it
- ▶ E.g., prove that if a < b then there exists a real number c such that a < c < b
 - ▶ Set c = (a + b)/2 (always exists in \mathbb{R})
 - ▶ Since c a = (a + b 2a)/2 = (b a)/2 > 0 and b c = (2b a b)/2 = (b a)/2 > 0, we have constructed a c such that a < c < b
- ▶ We will use this extensively when we study **NP-completeness**

Proof Techniques

... when we say: "Proof by Contrapositive"

- ▶ Recall that $P \Rightarrow Q$ is logically equivalent to $\neg Q \Rightarrow \neg P$ via contraposition (compare truth tables to convince yourself)
- ightharpoonup E.g., prove that if x^2 is even, then x is even

 - Contrapositive says: If x is not even, then x² is not even
 This is easily shown true since x is odd, and the product of two odd numbers is odd
 - ► Since contrapositive is true, original premise is true
- ▶ Very helpful when proving $P \Leftrightarrow Q$ ("P if and only if Q") since we could

 - ▶ $P \Rightarrow Q$ and $\neg P \Rightarrow \neg Q$ **OR**▶ $P \Rightarrow Q$ and $Q \Rightarrow P$ (often simpler)
- $\,\blacktriangleright\,$ We will use this extensively when we study NP-completeness



Conclusion

- ▶ This was a deliberately brief overview of concepts you should already know
- ▶ We expect you to understand it well during lectures, homeworks, and exams
- ▶ It is all covered in depth in the textbook and other resources!



