# 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 ...

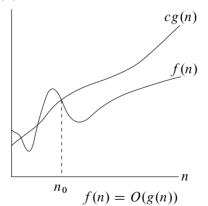
... when we say: "Asymptotic Notation"

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

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

#### Asymptotic upper bound

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

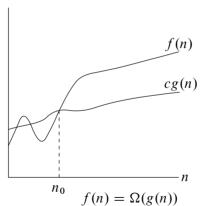


Can very loosely and informally think of this as a "<" relation between functions

... when we say: "Big- $\Omega$ "

#### Asymptotic lower bound

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

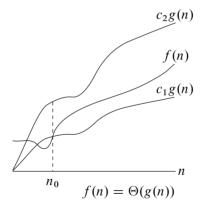


Can very loosely and informally think of this as a ">" relation between functions

... when we say: "Big- $\Theta$ "

#### Asymptotic tight bound

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



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

... 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

... when we say: "Little- $\omega$ "

#### 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

# ... 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

... 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

... 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  $O(n \log n)$

... 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

... 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 O(log<sup>c</sup> k)
    - $\triangleright$  If instead polynomial in k, sometimes call this **pseudopolynomial**



## ... 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
- ► 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)



#### Recurrence Relations

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

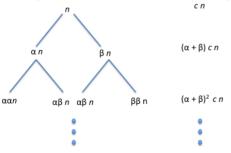
- ▶ **Theorem:** Let  $a \ge 1$  and b > 1 be constants, let f(n) be a function, and let T(n) be defined as T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n). Then T(n) is bounded as follows:
  - 1. If  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \epsilon})$  for constant  $\epsilon > 0$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
  - 2. If  $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ , 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  $T(n) = \Theta\left(n^{\log_2 2} \log n\right) = \Theta\left(n \log n\right)$

#### 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  $\alpha + \beta < 1$ )

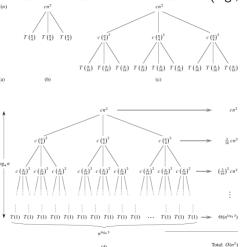
$$cn(1+(\alpha+\beta)+(\alpha+\beta)^2+\cdots)=\frac{cn}{1-(\alpha+\beta)}=c'n=O(n)$$



### Recurrence Relations

#### Still Other Approaches

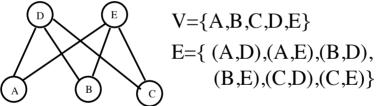
Previous theorem special case of **recursion-tree method**: (e.g.,  $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + O(n^2)$ )



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

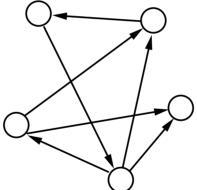
... when we say: "(Undirected) Graph"

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



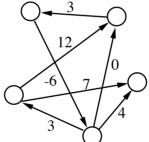
... when we say: "Directed Graph"

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* 



... 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

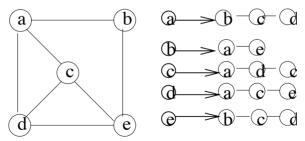


... when we say: "Representations of Graphs"

- 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

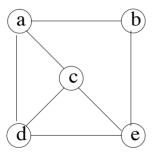
... when we say: "Adjacency List"

- ▶ 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?



... 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
- ▶ If G weighted, store weights in the matrix, using  $\infty$  for non-edges
- ▶ How much is space required for storage?



	a	b	c	d	e
a	0	1	1	1	e 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
  - $\Rightarrow$  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



# 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

# 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

... 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
  - ▶ 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:
  - lacktriangle Assume for sake of contradiction there exists a greatest even integer N
  - $\Rightarrow$   $\forall$  even integers n, we have  $N \ge n$  (1)
    - ▶ 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

... 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

... 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</p>
  - ▶ 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

... 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)
- ▶ E.g., prove that if  $x^2$  is even, then x is even
  - ► Contrapositive says: If x is not even, then  $x^2$  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 prove:
  - ▶  $P \Rightarrow Q$  and  $\neg P \Rightarrow \neg Q$  **OR**
  - ▶  $P \Rightarrow Q$  and  $Q \Rightarrow P$  (often simpler)
- ▶ 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!