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, I assume that you have learned several fundamental concepts on basic data structures and algorithms

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- Let's confirm this
- What do I mean ...

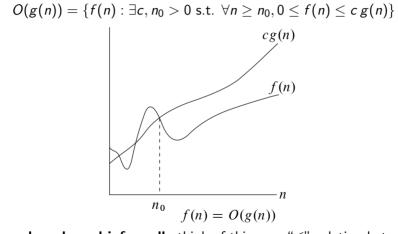
## ... when I say: "Asymptotic Notation"

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

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

#### Asymptotic upper bound



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

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

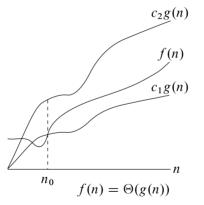
#### Asymptotic lower bound

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

 $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ Can very loosely and informally think of this as a ">" relation between functions ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □ ● ● ● ●

... when I 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 ▲□▶ ▲□▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □▶ ▲ □ ● ● ● ●

Asymptotic Notation ... when I 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 > 0Can very loosely and informally think of this as a "<" relation between functions

... when I 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

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## ... when I 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 I 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<sup>2</sup>), 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 I 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<sup>2</sup>) thanks to Bubblesort and Quicksort, but this is subsumed by the tighter bound of O(n log n)

... when I 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 Ω(n<sup>2</sup>) steps
- Also e.g., there is a different input of size n that forces Mergesort to take Ω(n log n) steps, but none exists forcing ω(n log n) steps
- Since every sorting algorithm has an input of size *n* forcing Ω(*n* log *n*) steps, the sorting problem has a time complexity lower bound of Ω(*n* log *n*)
  - $\Rightarrow$  Mergesort is asymptotically optimal

... when I 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 Ω(n log n)

## ... when I say: "Efficiency"

- We say that an algorithm is time- or space-efficient if its worst-case time (space) complexity is O(n<sup>c</sup>) 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<sup>2</sup> 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)
    - ▶ If instead polynomial in *k*, sometimes call this **pseudopolynomial**

#### ... when I 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 I say: "Master Theorem" or "Master Method"

► Theorem: Let a ≥ 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  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$ 

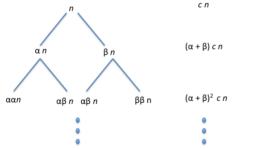
- 3. If  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$  for constant  $\epsilon > 0$ , and if  $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$  for constant c < 1 and sufficiently large n, then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
- E.g., for Mergesort, can apply theorem with a = b = 2, use case 2, and get T(n) = Θ (n<sup>log<sub>2</sub>2</sup> log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

## **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

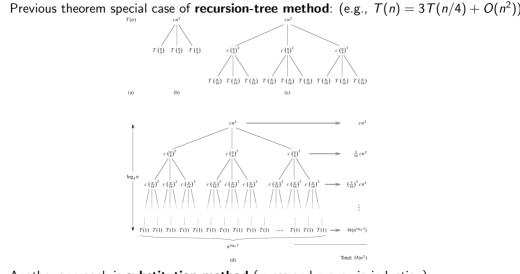


Summing these infinitely yields (since  $\alpha + \beta < 1$ )

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

## **Recurrence Relations**

#### Still Other Approaches



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

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

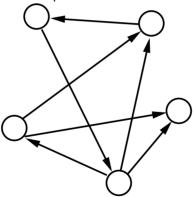
A (simple, or undirected) graph G = (V, E) consists of V, a nonempty set of vertices and E a set of unordered pairs of distinct vertices called edges

$$\begin{array}{c} D \\ A \\ B \\ C \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} E \\ E = \{ (A,B,C,D,E \} \\ E = \{ (A,D),(A,E),(B,D) \\ (B,E),(C,D),(C,E) \} \end{array}$$

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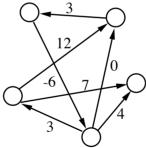
... when I say: "Directed Graph"

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* 



Graphs ... when I sav: "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 I say: "Representations of Graphs"

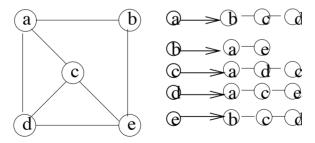
Two common ways of representing a graph: Adjacency list and adjacency matrix

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• Let G = (V, E) be a graph with *n* vertices and *m* edges

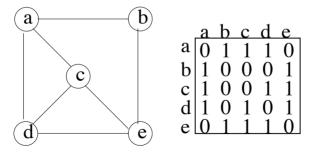
... when I say: "Adjacency List"

- ▶ 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 I 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?



# Algorithmic Techniques

... when I 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 I 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 I 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 [n/2] and [n/2], 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 I 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 ¬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:
  - Assume for sake of contradiction there exists a greatest even integer N
  - $\Rightarrow \forall$  even integers *n*, we have  $N \ge n$ 
    - ▶ 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

(1)

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

- ► Recall that P ⇒ Q is logically equivalent to ¬Q ⇒ ¬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 ⇔ 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
- I expect you to understand it well during lectures, homeworks, and exams

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It is all covered in depth in the textbook and other resources!