Efficient Algorithms and Intractable Problems

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1 Complexity Analysis

Definition 1.1 (Partial Sums).

$$S_k = \sum_{n=1}^k a_n = \frac{k}{2}(a_1 + a_k)$$
 (Arithmetic Series)
$$S_k = \sum_{n=1}^k a_1(r)^n = a_1\left(\frac{1-r^k}{1-r}\right)$$
 (Geometric Series)

Definition 1.2 (Asymptotic Notations).

$$f = O(g) \approx f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$$

$$f = o(g) \approx f(n) < c \cdot g(n)$$

$$f = \Omega(g) \approx f(n) \ge c \cdot g(n)$$

$$f = \omega(g) \approx f(n) > c \cdot g(n)$$

$$f = \Theta(g) \approx f(n) = c \cdot g(n)$$

Remark. $O(i^n | i > 1) > O(n^j) > O(\log^k n)$

Theorem 1.1 (Master Theorem). If $T(n) = aT([n/b]) + O(n^d)$ for some constants a > 0, b > 1, and $d \ge 0$, then

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(n^d) & a < b^d \\ \Theta(n^d \log n) & a = b^d \\ \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) & a > b^d \end{cases}$$

2 Polynomial Interpolation

Given a degree n polynomial $A(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n$, the relationship between its values and coefficients can be represented by

$$\begin{bmatrix} A(x_0) \\ A(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ A(x_{n-1}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_0 & x_0^2 & \cdots & x_0^{n-1} \\ 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & \cdots & x_1^{n-1} \\ & \vdots & & & \\ 1 & x_{n-1} & x_{n-1}^2 & \cdots & x_{n-1}^{n-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_{n-1} \end{bmatrix}$$
 (evaluation)

where the matrix M is a Vandermonde matrix.

2.1 Fast Fourier Transform (FFT)

Definition 2.1 (Discrete Fourier Transform Matrix). For polynomials of degree < n (n is even; polynomials can be 0-padded), the Discrete Fourier Transform can be represented by the matrix

$$M_n(\omega) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & \omega & \omega^2 & \cdots & \omega^{n-1} \\ & & \vdots & & & \\ 1 & \omega^j & \omega^{2j} & \cdots & \omega^{(n-1)j} \\ & & \vdots & & \\ 1 & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{2(n-1)} & \cdots & \omega^{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $\omega = e^{2\pi i/n}$ is the *n*th root of unity.

Remark. $M_n(\omega)$ is an unitary matrix whose columns forms the Fourier Basis.

Lemma 2.1.
$$M_n^{-1}(\omega) = \frac{1}{n} \overline{M_n(\omega)} = \frac{1}{n} M_n(\omega^{-1})$$

Lemma 2.2.
$$A(x) = A_{even}(x^2) + xA_{odd}(x^2)$$

Remark. If A is evaluated at points $\pm \omega_0, \ldots, \pm \omega_{n/2-1}$, then $A_e(x^2)$ and $A_o(x^2)$ will only need to evaluate half the amount of points $(T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n) = O(n \log n))$.

Algorithm 1: Fast Fourier transform

```
Input: A coefficient vector, \vec{a} = \langle a_0, \dots, a_{n-1} \rangle and the nth root of unity, \omega.
      Output: M_n(\omega)\vec{a}
  1 Function FFT(\vec{a}, \omega):
              if \omega = 1 then
  2
                     return \vec{a}
  3
              \mathbf{else}
  4
                     \langle A_e(0), \dots, A_e(n/2-1) \rangle \leftarrow \text{FFT}(\langle a_0, a_2, \dots, a_{n-2} \rangle, \omega^2)
\langle A_o(0), \dots, A_o(n/2-1) \rangle \leftarrow \text{FFT}(\langle a_1, a_3, \dots, a_{n-1} \rangle, \omega^2)
  \mathbf{5}
  6
                     for j := 0 \ to \ n/2 - 1 \ do
  7
                         \begin{array}{c} A(j) \leftarrow A_e(j) + \omega^j A_o(j) \\ A(j+n/2) \leftarrow A_e(j) - \omega^j A_o(j) \end{array}
  8
  9
             return \langle A(0), \dots, A(n-1) \rangle
10
```

2.2 Applications of FFT

Algorithm 2: Fast Polynomial Multiplication

Input: Coefficient vectors, a and b, and the nth root of unity, ω .

Output: The coefficient vector of A(x)B(x)

- $1 \hat{\vec{a}} \leftarrow M_n(\omega)\vec{a}$ (FFT)
- $\mathbf{z} \ \hat{\vec{b}} \leftarrow M_n(\omega) \vec{b}$
- **3 for** i = 0 *to* n 1 **do**
- $\hat{c}_i \leftarrow \hat{a}_i \hat{b}_i$
- **5 return** $\frac{1}{n}M_n(\omega^{-1})\hat{\vec{c}}$ (inverse matrix)

Definition 2.2 (Cross-Correlation). $corr(\vec{x}, \vec{y})[k] = \sum x_i y_{i-k}$, which measures similarity.

Algorithm 3: Cross-Correlation

Input: Two signal vectors, \vec{x} and \vec{y} .

Output: $corr(\vec{x}, \vec{y})$

- $1 \ X(t) \leftarrow x_{m-1} + x_{m-2}t + \dots + x_0t^{m-1}$
- 2 $Y(t) \leftarrow y_0 + y_1 t + \dots + y_{n-1} t^{n-1}$
- $\mathbf{3} \ Q(t) \leftarrow X(t)Y(t)$ (Fast Polynomial Multiplication)
- 4 return \vec{q}

3 Graphs

Definition 3.1 (Graph). A graph is a pair G = (V, E), typically represented by an adjacency matrix or an adjacency list.

Table 1: Graph representations.

	Space	Connectivity	getNeighbors(u)	DFS Runtime
Adjacency Matrix	$\Theta(V ^2)$	O(1)	$\Theta(V)$	$\Theta(V ^2)$
Adjacency List	$\Theta(V + E)$	$\Theta(degree(u))$	$\Theta(degree(u))$	$\Theta(V + E)$

3.1 Depth-First Search

```
Algorithm 4: Depth-first search
  Input: V, E of directed graph G.
1 Function DFS(V, E):
      n \leftarrow |V|
      clk \leftarrow 1
3
      visited \leftarrow boolean[n]
4
      preorder, postorder = int[n]
      for v \in V do
6
          if !visited/v/ then
7
             EXPLORE(v)
 8
9 Function EXPLORE(v):
      visited[v] \leftarrow True
10
      preorder[v] \leftarrow clk++
11
      for (v, w) \in E do
12
          if !visited/w| then
13
             \mathtt{EXPLORE}(w)
      postorder[v] \leftarrow clk++
15
   /* Preorder-postorder intervals are either nested or disjoint.
                                                                                      */
   /* postorder[u] \leq postorder[v] iff(u,v) is a back edge.
                                                                                      */
   /* G contains a cycle iff it contains a back edge.
                                                                                       */
```

```
Algorithm 5: Topological sort.
```

Input: A directed cyclic graph G.

Output: An ordered list of V such that u_i comes before v_i for all $(u_i, v_i) \in E$ (i.e., ordered by decreasing dependency).

- 1 $post \leftarrow DFS$ -visited vertexes ordered by postorder visits
- 2 return reverse(post)

Definition 3.2 (Strongly Connected Component). A SCC is a maximal partition of a directed graph in which every vertex is reachable from every other vertex.

```
u is in sink SCC of graph G \Leftrightarrow u is in source SCC of reverse graph G \Leftrightarrow u is in source SCC if highest postorder number.
```

3.2 Single-Source Shortest Path

```
Algorithm 6: Single-Source Shortest Path

Input: A directed graph G and a start vertex S.

Output: Two arrays prev[|V|] (shortest-path predecessor) and dist[|V|] (shortest-path distance).

1 Function BFS(G, S):

| /* Must have uniform edge weights. O(|V| + |E|) runtime. */

2 Function Dijkstra (G, S):

| /* Must have positive edge weights. O(|V| \log |V| + |E|) runtime if implemented using Fibonacci heap. */

3 Function Bellman-Ford (G, S):

| /* Can have aribitrary edge weights. */
```

3.3 Minimum Spanning Tree

```
Algorithm 7: Minimum spanning tree.

Input: A graph G and a starting vertex v.

Output: The minimum spanning tree T of G.

/* Use the cut property.

*/

Function Prim(G,v):

/* Sequentially adds the closest neighbbor of the running set.

O(|E| + \log |V|) runtime if implemented using Fibonacci heap.

*/

Function Kruskal(G,v):

/* Sequentially adds the shortest edge that does not create a cycle. O(|E| \log |V|) runtime if implemented using Union-Find data structure.
```

4 Greedy Algorithm

Definition 4.1 (Greedy Algorithm). A greedy algorithm is one that builds the solution iteratively using a sequence of local choices.

Algorithm 8: Example greedy algorithms.

1 Function SCHEDULING:

/* Find the maximum set of jobs that can be completed within time by iteratively select the next job to have the smallest end time without conflicting existing schedule. $O(n\log n)$ runtime if sorting the collection of jobs first.

2 Function HUFFMAN:

/* Find a prefix tree for prefix-free Huffman coding by iteratively combine the two least frequent elements of the alphabet and retrieve the order of the prefix tree accordingly. $O(n\log n)$ runtime if implemented with min-heap.

Input: A set of partitions $S = \{S_1, \ldots, S_m\}$ that covers the universe $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. **Output:** The indices of the smallest sub-collection of S that covers the universe.

3 Function SET-COVER:

```
/* Greedy search yields sub-optimal but competitive solution to the set-cover problem. If the optimal solution uses k sets, then the greedy solution uses at most k \ln n sets. */

4 A \leftarrow \{1, \dots, n\}

5 B \leftarrow \emptyset

6 while |A| > 0 do

7 |\cot i \in [m] \setminus B \text{ be s.t. } |A \cap S_i| \text{ is maximum}

8 A \leftarrow A \setminus S_i

9 B \leftarrow B \cup i

10 return B
```

5 Union-Find

Definition 5.1 (Amortized Analysis). Suppose a data structure supports k operations. Then the amortized cost of each operation is t_i if for any sequence of operations with N_i of O_i operations, the total time is at most $\sum_{i=1}^k t_i N_i$.

```
Algorithm 9: Union-find (disjoint forest implementation).
   /* O((m+n)\log^* n) runtime.
 1 parent[1, \ldots, n]
 2 rank[1,...,n] // rank is defined as the height if no path compression
 3 Function MAKE-SET(x):
       parent[x] \leftarrow x
     rank[x] \leftarrow 0
 6 Function FIND(x):
       if x = parent[x] then
         return x
 8
       parent[x] \leftarrow \texttt{FIND}(parent[x]) \text{ // path compression}
 9
       return parent[x]
11 Function UNION(x, y):
       x \leftarrow \text{FIND}(x)
       y \leftarrow \text{FIND}(y)
13
       if x = y then
14
        return // no work needed
       if rank[x] > rank[y] then
16
        | swap x and y
17
       parent[x] \leftarrow y \text{ if } rank[x] = rank[y] \text{ then}
18
         rank[y] \leftarrow rank[y] + 1
19
```

Remark. Union-Find Invariants:

- a tree rooted at x has $\geq 2^{r[x]}$ items;
- $(\forall x)$, if x is not a root, r[p[x]] > r[x];
- the number of items of exactly rank k is $\leq \frac{n}{2^k}$.

6 Dynamic Programming

Definition 6.1 (Top-Down DP/Memoization). Recursion + look-up table
Definition 6.2 (Bottom-Up DP). Fill up the look-up table iteratively instead of recursively
Remark. Bottom-up DP sometimes have better memory

7 Linear Programming

Definition 7.1 (Linear Programming). Linear programming (LP) describes a broad class of optimization tasks in which both the constraints and the optimization criterion are linear functions. The optimum of a linear program is achieved at a vertex of the convex feasible region.

Remark. A linear program does not have an optimum *iff* its feasible region is infeasible and/or unbounded.

Definition 7.2 (Simplex Method). A standard greedy algorithm for solving LP by hill-climbing on vertices of the feasible region.

Remark. Solves real-life LP in polynomial time.

7.1 LP Conversion

- 1. (Maximization \leftrightarrow minimization) multiply the coefficients of the objective function by -1
- 2. (Inequality \rightarrow equality) $ax \leq b \rightarrow ax + s = b \mid s \geq 0$
- 3. (Equality \rightarrow Inequality) $ax = b \rightarrow ax \le b \land ax \ge b$
- 4. (Signed \leftrightarrow unsigned) $x \leftrightarrow x^+ x^- \mid x^+, x^- \ge 0$

7.2 Network Flow

Definition 7.3 (Flow). Given a directed graph G = (V, E) with capacities $c_e > 0$ on all edges. The flow f from source s to sink t satisfies the constraints:

1. For all $e \in E$,

$$0 \le f_e \le c_e$$

2. For all $e \in E \setminus \{s, t\}$,

$$\sum_{(w,u)\in E} f_{wu} = \sum_{(u,z)\in E} f_{uz} \quad \text{(conservation of flow)}$$

Remark. By the conservation principle,

$$\operatorname{size}(f) = \sum_{(s,u)\in E} f_{su}$$

Algorithm 10: Ford-Fulkerson

```
// Simplex algorithm for solving max-flow problem. Pseudopolynomial time complexity; O(|E|F)

Input: G = (V, E), s, t
Output: f

1 f \leftarrow 0
2 E^f \leftarrow E \cup \{rev(e) \mid e \in E\}
3 G^f \leftarrow (V, E^f) // residual graph
4 while t reachable from s in G^f do
5 | Choose an (s, t) path in G^f and maximize flow along the edges of the path // reverse flow cancels existing flow
6 | c^f \leftarrow \begin{cases} c_{uv} - f_{uv} & [(u, v) \in E \land f_{uv} < c_{uv}] \\ f_{vu} & [(v, u) \in E \land f_{vu} > 0] \end{cases}
7 return f
```

Theorem 7.1 (Max-flow Min-cut Theorem). The size of the maximum flow in a network equals the capacity of the smallest (s,t)-cut (L,R) (total capacity of the edges crossing the cut)

Remark. L contains all reachable vertices from s in the final residual G^f and R contains all remaining vertices.

7.3 Duality

Theorem 7.2 (Duality theorem). If a linear program has a bounded optimum, then so does its dual, and the two optimum values coincide.

Definition 7.4 (Duality). Given two forms of the same LP:

- Primal LP $\operatorname*{argmax}_{\vec{x}} \left\{ \vec{c}^{\,\mathsf{T}} \vec{x} \mid A \vec{x} \leq \vec{b} \right\}$
- Dual LP $\operatorname*{argmin}_{\vec{y}} \left\{ \vec{b}^{\,\mathsf{T}} \vec{y} \mid A^{\mathsf{T}} \vec{y} = \vec{c}, \, \vec{y} \geq 0 \right\}$

Then,

- Weak duality $OPT(P) \leq OPT(D)$
- Strong duality Primal LP is bounded and feasible \implies Dual LP is bounded and feasible \land OPT(P) = OPT(D)

Remark. Dual/Primal unbounded \implies Primal/Dual infeasible.