

# Algorithm Design and Analysis

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# Text Book & Reference Books

- Text Book:

- **Introduction to Algorithms** (Third Edition)
  - Thomas H. Cormen, Charles E. Leiserson, Ronald L. Rivest and Clifford Stein
  - The MIT Press (Higher Education Press)
  - Chapter 22-26

- Reference Books

- 《图算法》：马绍汉编著，山东大学出版社。

# Why Study this Course?

- Closely related to our lives(打酒,货郎).
- Help to learn how others analyze and solve problems.
- Help to develop the ability of analyzing and solving problems via computers.
- Very interesting if you can concentrate on this course.

# Prerequisite

- Data Structure(二维数组,链表,队列,堆栈)
- C/C++, Java or other programming languages
- A little mathematics(初等数学)

Ready? Let's begin .....

# Lecture 1

## Time Complexity and Graph Basis

- Time Complexity
- Graph Basis

# What is a Problem?

- A general question to be answered, usually possessing several parameters or free variables, whose value are left to be specified.
- Described by giving:
  - **Input(instance)**: A general description of all its parameters
  - **Output(question)**: A statement of what properties the answer is required to satisfy.

# What is an Algorithm?

- Power( $x, n$ )

- Input:  $x \in \mathbb{R}, n \in \mathbb{N}^+$
- Output:  $x^n = ?$

$$x^{10} = x \cdot x \cdot x \cdot x \cdot x \cdot x \cdot x \cdot x \cdot x \cdot x$$

$$x^{10} = ((x^2)^2 \cdot x)^2$$

- An algorithm is a detailed step-by-step method for solving a problem.

# Two Algorithms

- Exponentiation(求幂运算):

- Input:  $x \in R, n \in N^+$ .
- Question:  $x^n$

Algorithm 1-power( $x, n$ )

```
y=x;  
For  $i=2$  to  $n$   
     $y=y*x$ ;  
End For  
Return  $y$ 
```

Algorithm 2-power( $x, n$ )

```
//input  $x, n = (b_{m-1}, b_{m-2}, b_{m-3}, \dots, b_1, b_0)_2$ ,  
//where  $b_{m-1}=1, m \geq 2$   
 $y=x$ ;  
For  $i=m-2$  to  $0$   
     $y=y*y$ ;  
    if  $b_i=1$  then  $y=y*x$ ;  
End For  
Return  $y$ 
```



# How to Evaluate an Algorithm?

- The Time Complexity
  - Polynomial Time Problem  
(all the problems in this course)
    - How to search a graph?
    - Minimum Spanning Tree Problem
    - Shortest Path Problem
    - Maximum Flow Problem
  - NP-hard Problem
    - Fixed Parameter Tractable
    - W-hard Problem
- The Approximation Factor

# An example to illustrate the importance of analyzing the running time of an algorithm

- **The Sorting Problem:**
- Input(实例): An array of  $n$  elements  $A[1 \dots n]$ ,
- Output(询问): Sort the entries in  $A$  in non-decreasing order.
- Assumption: each **element comparison** takes  $10^{-6}$  seconds on some computing machine.

algorithm	# of element comparisons	$n=128$ $=2^7$	$n=1,048,567$ $=2^{20}$
Selection Sort (选择排序)	$\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$	$10^{-6}(128 \times 127)/2$ $\approx 0.008$ seconds	$10^{-6}(2^{20} \times (2^{20} - 1))/2$ $\approx 6.4$ days
Merge Sort (归并排序)	$n \log n - n + 1$	$10^{-6}(128 \times 7 - 128 + 1)$ $\approx 0.0008$ seconds	$10^{-6}(2^{20} \times 20 - 2^{20} + 1)$ $\approx 20$ seconds

# The Importance of Analyzing the Running Time of an Algorithm

- Conclusion: Time is undoubtedly an extremely precious resource to be investigated in the analysis of algorithms.
- Question: How to Analyze Running Time?

# Asymptotic Running Time(渐近估计)

How to measure the efficiency of an algorithm from the point of view of time?

- Is *actual (exact) running time* a good measure?
- The answer is No. Why?
  1. Actual time is determined by not only the algorithm, but also many other factors;
  2. The measure should be machine or technology independent;
  3. Our estimates of times are *relative* as opposed to *absolute*;
  4. Our main concern is *not* in *small input instances* but the behavior of the algorithms under investigation on *large input instances*.
- Then, is there a better measure? The answer is Yes. It is **asymptotic running time**

# Elementary Operation

- Elementary Operation(基本操作): Any computational step whose cost is always upper-bounded by a constant amount of time regardless of the input data or the algorithm used.
- Examples of elementary operations:
  - Arithmetic operations: addition, subtraction, multiplication and division.
  - Comparisons and logical operations.
  - Assignments, including assignments of pointers.
- Instance size or Input size(实例长度,输入长度):
  - The number of elements in an array( $n$ ).
  - For graph, the number of vertices ( $|V|$ ) and the number of edges ( $|E|$ ).

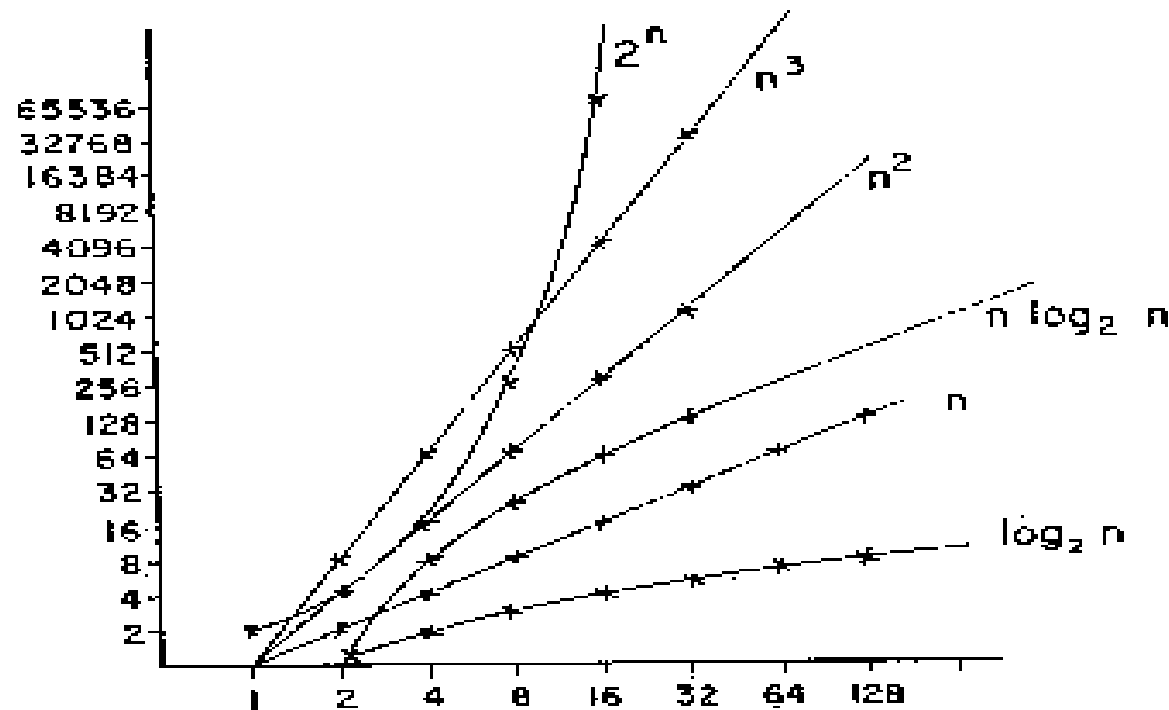
# Time Complexity (continued)

- What's Time Complexity?
- When analyzing the running time of an algorithm, we are only interested in the elementary operations, the total number of elementary operations is called the time complexity of the algorithm.
- 在算法分析中,总是只考虑算法中的基本操作,并估计算法执行过程中所需要的基本操作总次数,这个总操作次数称为算法的时间复杂度.
- Once again, we are interested in the running time for large input sizes, or more precisely, **we want to discover how fast the running time of an algorithm increases as the size of the input increases** (This is called *order of growth* of the algorithm, 增长趋势).

# Asymptotic Running Time (continued)

- The running time of an algorithm is a function of input size, e.g.  $f(n)$ ;
- In the expression of the function, the costs of elementary operations can be written as their upper-bounds, e.g.  $f(n) = c_1n^2 + c_2n + c_3$ ,  $c_1, c_2, c_3 > 0$ ;
- The lower-order terms can be abandoned (or neglected) safely, e.g.  $f(n) = c_1n^2$  ;
- The leading constants can also be abandoned safely, e.g.  $f(n) = n^2$  ;
- Once we dispose of lower-order terms and leading constants from a function that expresses the running time of an algorithm, we say that we are measuring the **asymptotic running time** of the algorithm.

# Illustration of some typical asymptotic running time functions



We can see: The linear algorithm is obviously slower than the quadratic one and faster than logarithmic one, etc..

We can say: The quadratic algorithm has a *higher order of growth*, *higher order of asymptotic running time*, or *higher order of time complexity*, than the linear one; etc..



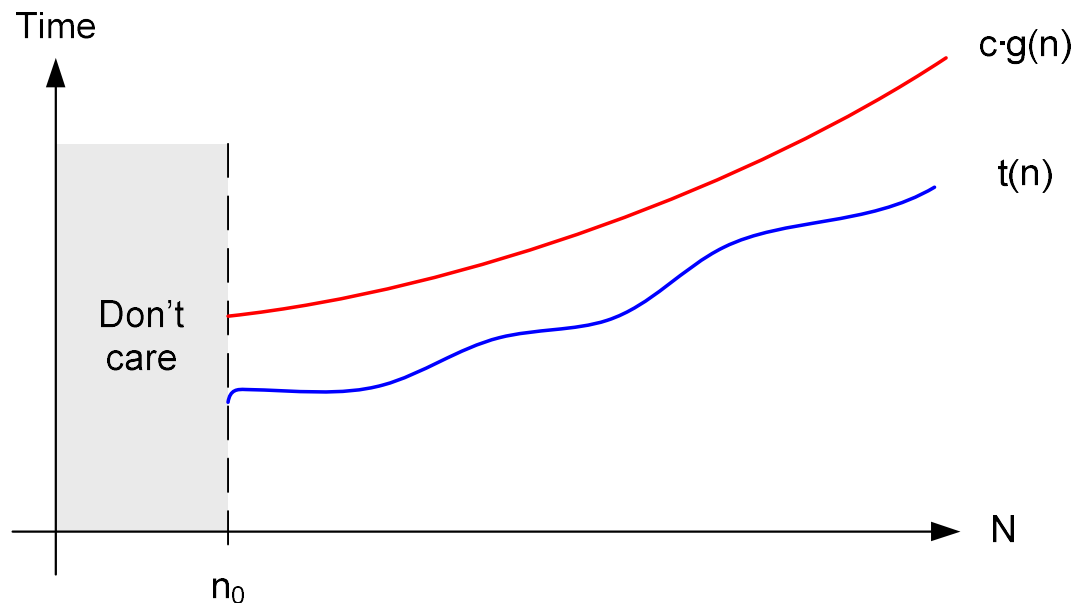
# Asymptotic Notations

- To describe the asymptotic running time of an algorithm in a convenient way, notations are introduced. These notations are so-called **Asymptotic Notations**.
- In this course, we use three notations:
  - $O(.)$  : “Big-Oh” – the most used
  - $\Omega(.)$  : “Big omega”
  - $\Theta(.)$  : “Big theta”

# O-notation

- Informal definition of  $O(\cdot)$ :

If an algorithm's running time  $t(n)$  is *bounded above* by a function  $g(n)$ , to within a constant multiple  $c$ , for  $n > n_0$ , we say that the running time of the algorithm is  $O(g(n))$ .

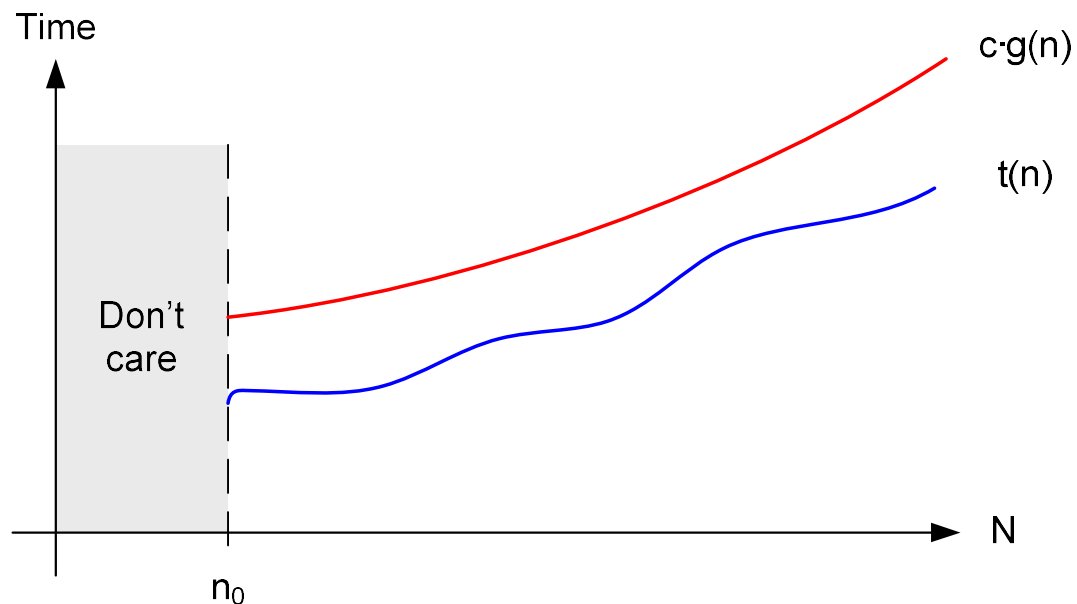


Obviously,  $O$ -notation is used to bound the **worst-case** running time of an algorithm

# O-notation

- Formal definition of  $O(\cdot)$ :

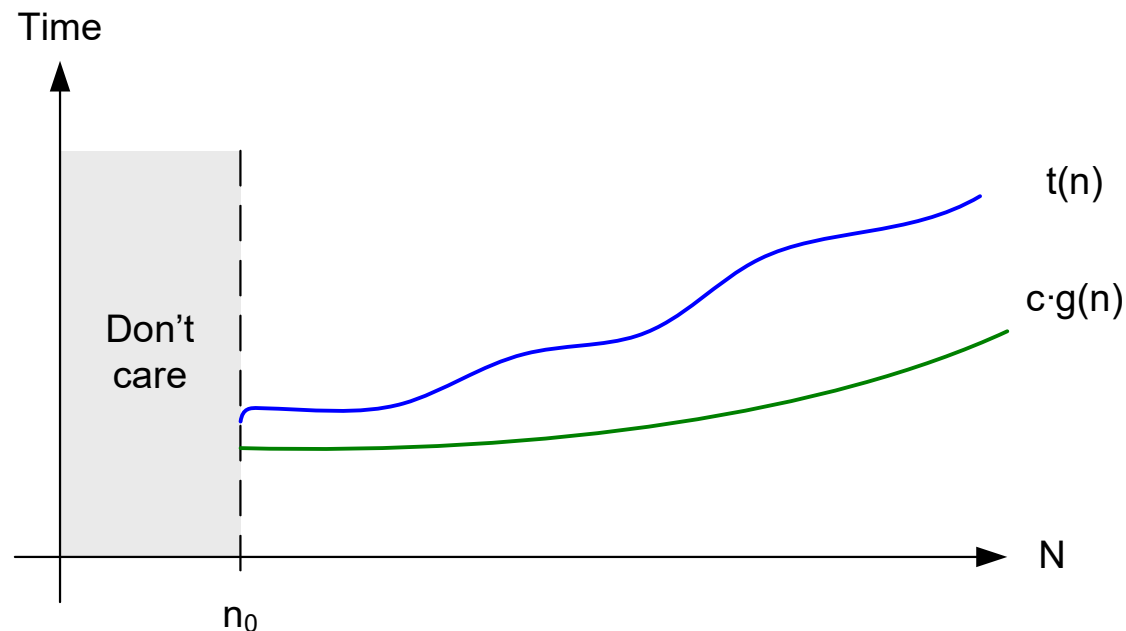
A function  $t(n)$  is said to be in  $O(g(n))$ , if there exist some  $c > 0$ ,  $n_0 > 0$ , such that  $t(n) \leq cg(n)$ , for all for  $n > n_0$ .



# $\Omega$ -notation

- Informal definition of  $\Omega(\cdot)$  :

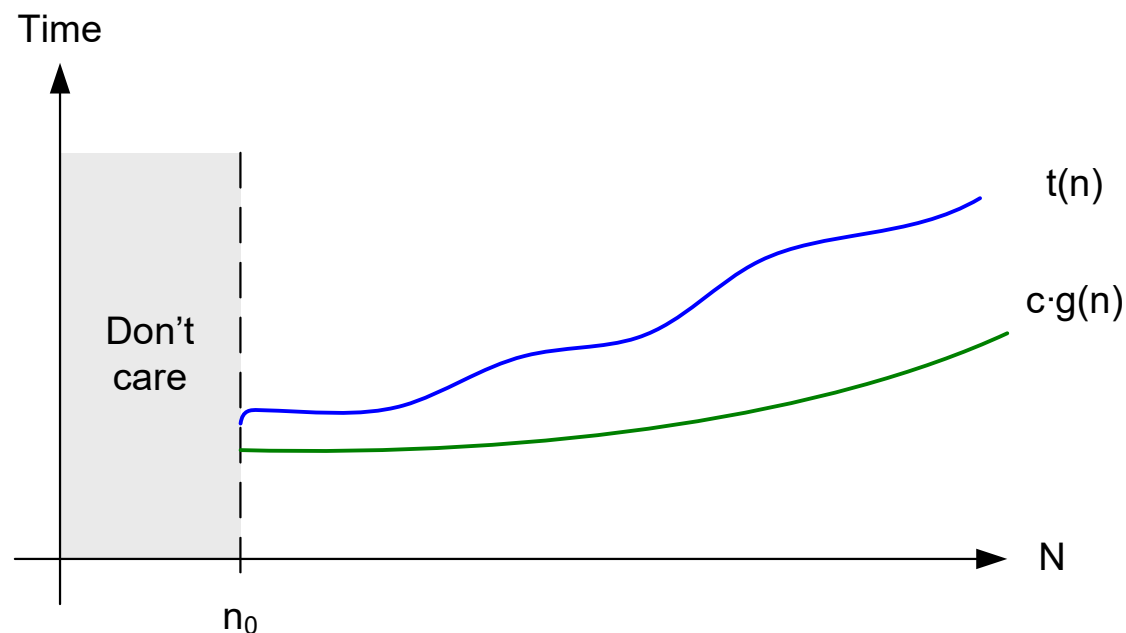
If an algorithm's running time  $t(n)$  is *bounded below* by a function  $g(n)$ , to within a constant multiple  $c$ , for  $n > n_0$ , we say that the running time of the algorithm is  $\Omega(g(n))$ .



# $\Omega$ -notation

- Formal definition of  $\Omega(\cdot)$  :

A function  $t(n)$  is said to be in  $\Omega(g(n))$ , if there exist some  $c > 0$ ,  $n_0 > 0$ , such that  $t(n) \geq cg(n)$ , for all  $n > n_0$ .

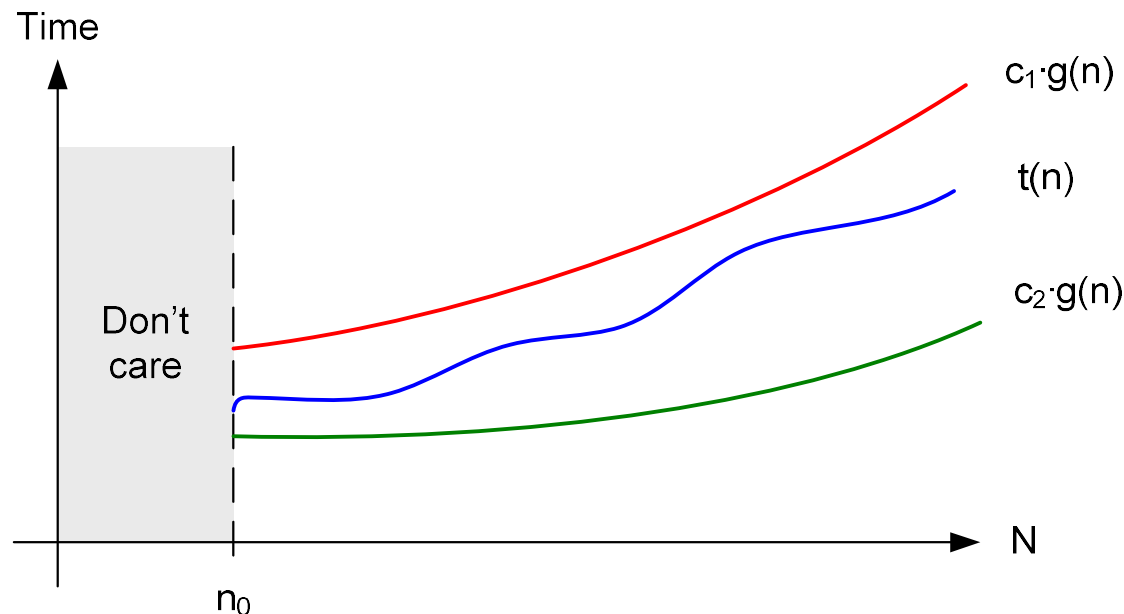


Obviously,  $\Omega$  -notation is used to bound the **best-case** running time of an algorithm

# $\Theta$ -notation

- Informal definition of  $\Theta(\cdot)$  :

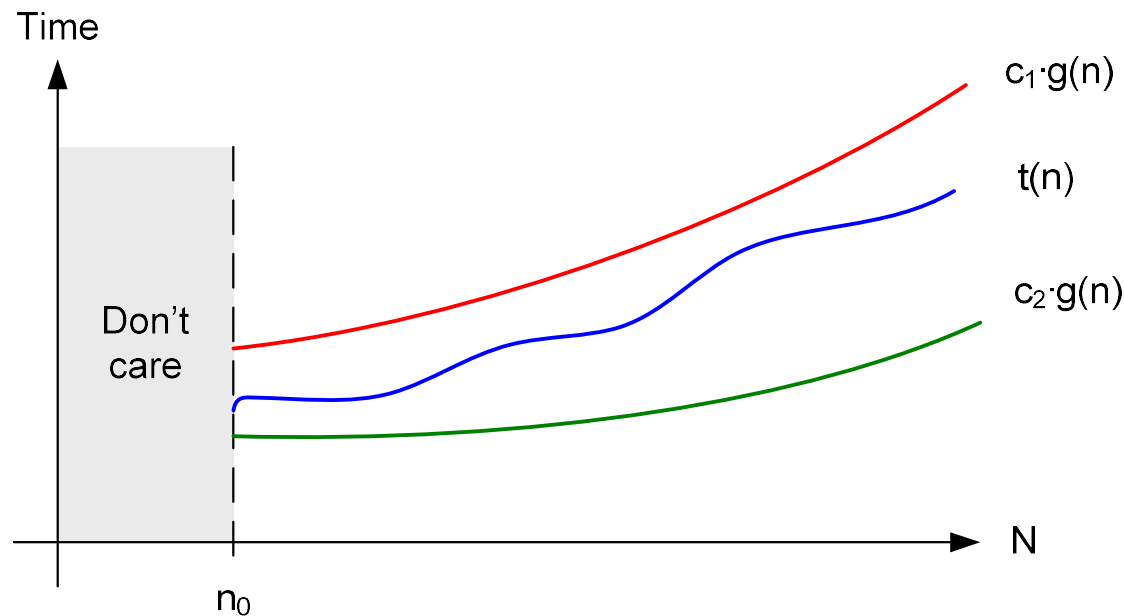
If an algorithm's running time  $t(n)$  is *bounded above* and *below* by a function  $g(n)$ , to within a constant multiple  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ , for  $n > n_0$ , we say that the running time of the algorithm is  $\Theta(g(n))$ .



# $\Theta$ -notation

- Formal definition of  $\Theta(\cdot)$  :

A function  $t(n)$  is said to be in  $\Theta(g(n))$  if there exist  $c_1 > 0$ ,  $c_2 > 0$ , and  $n_0 > 0$ , such that  $c_2g(n) \leq t(n) \leq c_1g(n)$ , for all  $n > n_0$ .



# Three Types of Analysis

- Best-Case Analysis: too optimistic
- Average-Case Analysis: too difficult, e.g. the difficulty to define “average case”, the difficulty related with mathematic
- Worst-Case Analysis: very useful and practical. We will adopt this approach.



# Evaluate the two algorithms

- Exponentiation(求幂运算):
- Input:  $x \in R, n \in Z^+$ .
- Question:  $x^n$

Algorithm 1-power( $x, n$ )

```
y=x;  
For  $i=2$  to  $n$   
     $y=y*x$ ;  
End For  
Return  $y$ 
```

- Time Complexity is  $O(n)$

Algorithm 2-power( $x, n$ )

```
//input  $x, n = (b_{m-1}, b_{m-2}, b_{m-3}, \dots, b_1, b_0)_2$ ,  
//where  $b_{m-1}=1, m \geq 2$   
 $y=x$ ;  
For  $i=m-2$  to  $0$   
     $y=y*y$ ;  
    if  $b_i=1$  then  $y=y*x$ ;  
End For  
Return  $y$ 
```

- Time Complexity is  $O(\log n)$

# Example of Three Types of Analysis

<i>INSERTION – SORT</i> ( <i>A</i> )		cost	times
1	for $j = 2$ to $n$	$c_1$	$n - 1$
2	do $key \leftarrow A[j]$	$c_2$	$n - 1$
// Insert $A[j]$ into the sorted sequence $A[1..j - 1]$			
3	$i \leftarrow j - 1$	$c_3$	$n - 1$
4	while $i > 0$ and $A[i] > key$	$c_4$	$\sum_{j=2}^n t_j$
5	do $A[i + 1] \leftarrow A[i]$	$c_5$	$\sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$
6	$i \leftarrow i - 1$	$c_6$	$\sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$
7	$A[i + 1] \leftarrow key$	$c_7$	$n - 1$

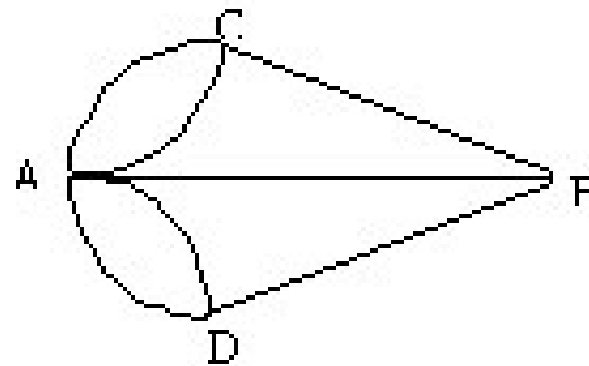
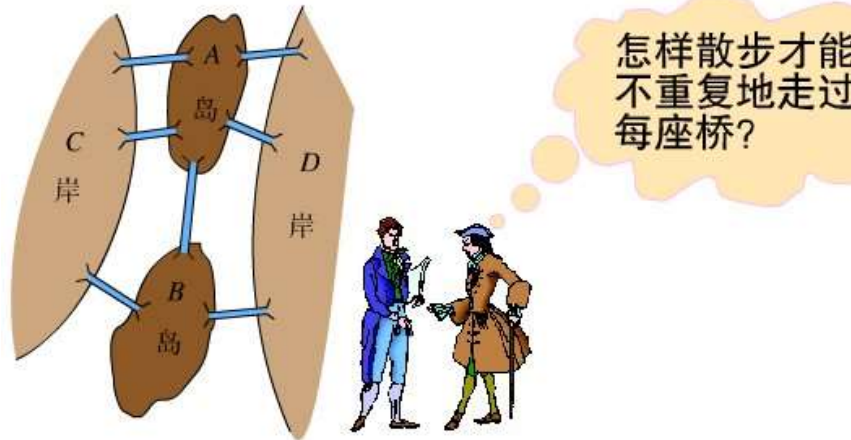
\*  $t_j$  stands for the number of times the while loop test in line 5 is executed for that value of  $j$

# Graph Preliminary Knowledge

- In this class, try to answer three questions:
  - What is a graph?
  - How to represent a graph?
  - Basic properties of a graph

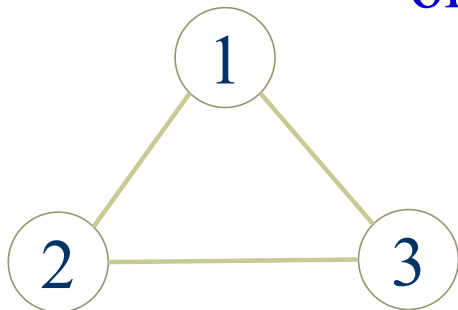
# Graph Preliminary Knowledge

- The origination of graph  
(Maybe the first graph!) 哥尼斯堡七桥问题.



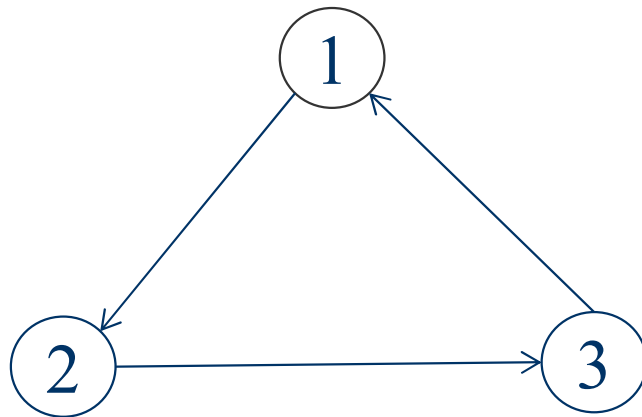
# Graph Basics (Undirected)

- A **Graph**  $G$  is a pair  $(V, E)$ , where  $V$  is a finite set of objects and  $E$  is a set of pairs on  $V$ 
  - Denoted as  $G = (V, E)$
  - Element of  $V$ : **vertex**;  $V$ : vertex set
  - Element of  $E$ : **edge(arc)**;  $E$ : edge set
- **Undirected Graph** : each pair in  $E$  is unordered, i.e., if  $(u, v) \in E$ , then  $(u, v) = (v, u)$ .
- Undirected graph:  $G_1 = (V=\{1, 2, 3\}, E=\{(1, 2), (2, 3), (3, 1)\})$   
or  $G_1 = (V=\{1, 2, 3\}, E=\{(2, 1), (3, 2), (1, 3)\})$

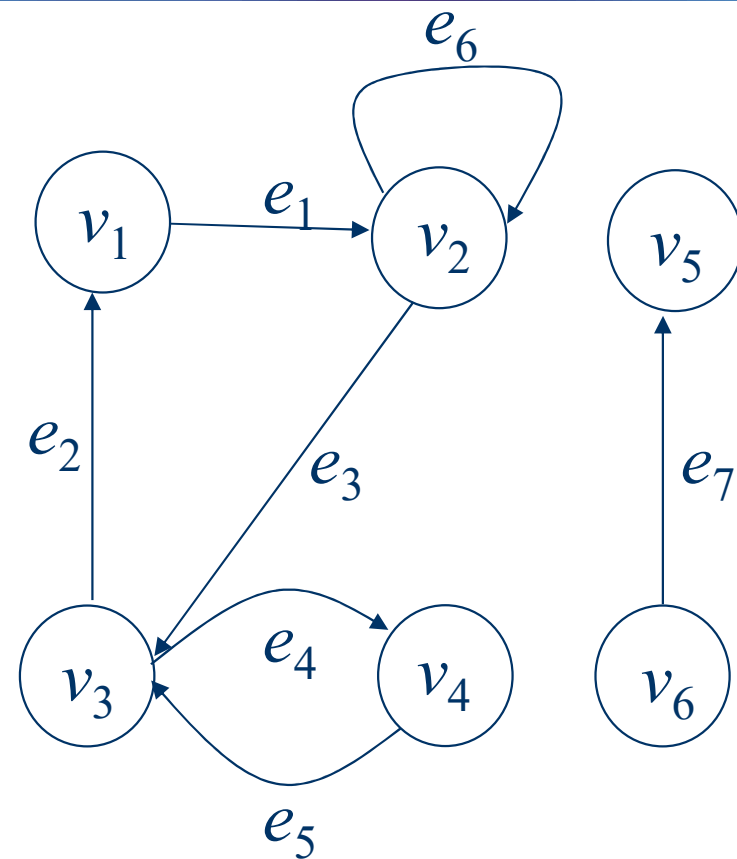
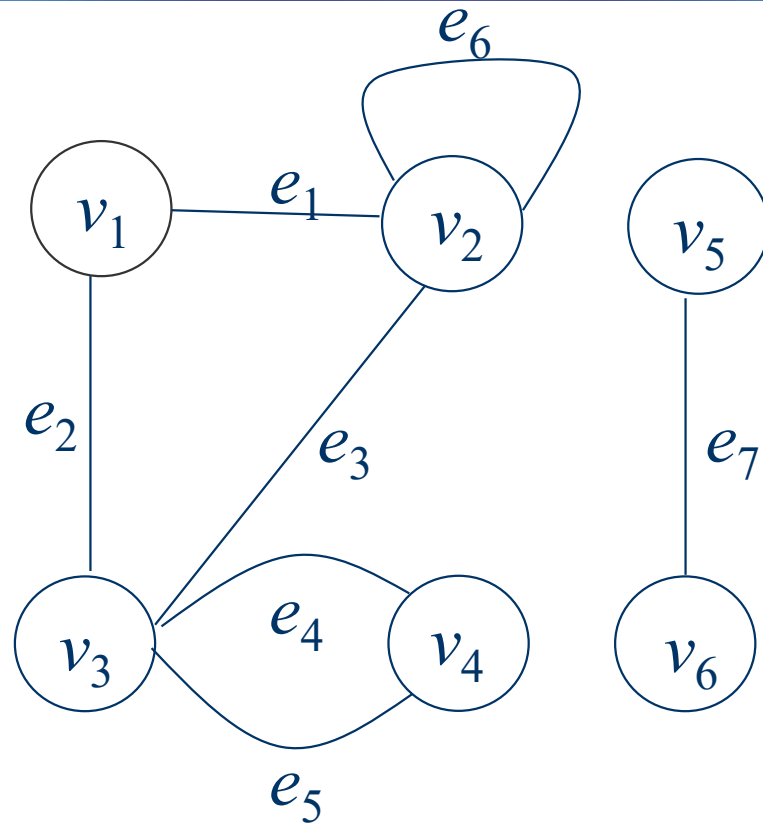


# Graph Basics (Directed)

- **Directed Graph:** each pair in  $E$  is ordered, i.e., for each pair of vertices,  $u, v$ ,  $\langle u, v \rangle \in E$  does **not** necessarily mean  $\langle v, u \rangle \in E$ , and vice versa.
- Directed graph:  $G_2 = (V=\{1, 2, 3\}, E=\{\langle 1, 2 \rangle, \langle 2, 3 \rangle, \langle 3, 1 \rangle\})$



# Schematic Representation



Can you give the representation in format  $G = (V, E)$  for above graphs?

# Graph Basics (Adjacency)

- **Adjacency:** In a graph  $G = (V, E)$ , if  $(u, v) \in E$ , we say that vertex  $v$  is **adjacent** to vertex  $u$ .
  - If  $G$  is an undirected graph, vertex  $u$  is adjacent to vertex  $v$ , too. The adjacency relation is **symmetric**.  
We also say  $(u, v)$  is **incident with**  $u$  and  $v$ , vice versa.
  - If  $G$  is a directed graph and if  $\langle u, v \rangle \in E$ , vertex  $v$  is adjacent to vertex  $u$ . Now,  $\langle u, v \rangle$  is *from (or leaves) vertex  $u$  to (or enters) vertex  $v$* .



# Graph Basics(Multiple, Simple)

- **Repeated** edges: edges  $e$  and  $f$  have the same endpoints.
- **Self-loop**: an edge from a vertex to itself.
- **Simple** graph: a graph without repeated edges and without self-loops.
- **Weighted** graph: each edge  $e$  has a weight  $w(e)$ ,  $w(e) \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# Graph Basics (Degree)

- **Degree** of a vertex  $v$ :
  - For undirected graph:
    - Number of edges incident with  $v$ . (Self-loop?)
    - Denote as  $d_G(v)$  or simply,  $d(v)$ .
  - For directed graph:
    - **In-degree**: number of edges entering (or incident to)  $v$ .
    - **Out-degree**: number of edges leaving (or incident from)  $v$ .
    - Denote as  $id_G(v)$ ,  $od_G(v)$  or simply,  $id(v)$ ,  $od(v)$  respectively.
- **Isolated** vertex: a vertex whose degree is 0.

# Graph Properties

- Theorem 1.1 (Handshaking Lemma)

- Given an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ ,  $\sum_{v \in V} d(v) = 2|E|$ , where  $|E|$  is the number of edges in  $G$ .
- Proof: can you give?
- How about a directed graph? (sum of in-degrees equals to sum of out-degrees, i.e., the number of arcs)

- Corollary 1.2

- Given an undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$ , the number of vertices with odd degrees is even.
- Proof: can you give?

# Graph Basics (Cycle)

- A **path** is a sequence of vertices  $p = \langle v_0, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k \rangle$  such that  $(v_i, v_{i+1}) \in E, i=0,1,\dots,k-1$ .
  - **路径**:  $v_0, v_1, \dots, v_k$  are distinct (except that  $v_0 = v_k$ ).
  - **通路**: otherwise
- A **cycle** is a path  $c = \langle v_0, v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k \rangle$  with  $v_0 = v_k$ .
  - **圈**和回路.
  - For undirected graph, a cycle contains at least 3 edges, that is,  $k \geq 3$  and  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$  are distinct.
  - For directed graph, a cycle contains at least 2 edge.
  - A self-loop is a cycle of length 1.
- **Acyclic graph**: a graph with no cycles.

# Graph Basics (Sub-graph)

- A graph  $G' = (V', E')$  is a **sub-graph** of  $G = (V, E)$  if  $V' \subseteq V$  and  $E' \subseteq E$ .
  - A graph  $G' = (V', E')$  is a **vertex induced sub-graph** of  $G = (V, E)$  if  $V' \subseteq V$  and  $E' = \{(u, v) \in E : u, v \in V'\}$ .

# Graph Basics (Connected)

- An undirected graph is **connected** if every pair of vertices is connected by a path.
  - **Connected component** of a graph: a sub-graph that is connected and is not included in any other connected sub-graphs with more edges or vertices.
  - *Any connected, undirected graph  $G = (V, E)$  satisfies that  $|E| \geq |V| - 1$ .*
- A directed graph is **strongly connected** if every two vertices are reachable from each other.
  - **Strongly connected components** of a directed graph

# Special graphs

- A **complete** graph is an undirected graph in which every pair of vertices is adjacent.
- A **bipartite** graph is a graph  $G = (V, E)$  in which  $V$  can be partitioned into two sets  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  such that  $(u, v) \in E$  implies either  $u \in V_1$  and  $v \in V_2$  or  $u \in V_2$  and  $v \in V_1$ .
- A **tree** is a connected, acyclic, undirected graph. ( $|E| = |V| - 1$ ; a unique path between any pair of vertices.)
- A **forest** is an acyclic, undirected graph.

# Representations of graphs

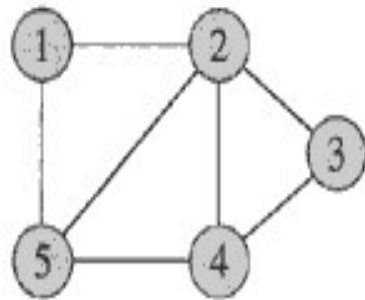
- Two standard ways:
  - A collection of adjacency lists
  - An adjacency matrix
- Sparse graph:  $|E|$  is much less than  $|V|^2$ 
  - Adjacency-list representation is preferred
- Dense graph:  $|E|$  is close to  $|V|^2$ 
  - Adjacency-matrix representation is preferred



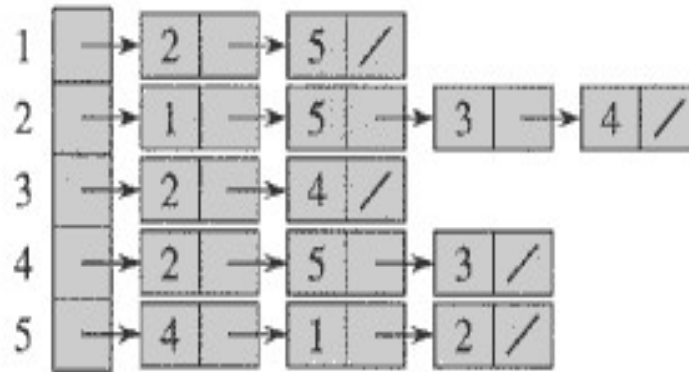
# Adjacency-list representation

- consist of an array  $Adj$  of  $|V|$  lists, one for each vertex in  $V$ .
- adjacency list  $Adj[u]$  contains all the vertices  $v$  such that there is an edge  $(u, v) \in E$ , i.e., all vertices that are adjacent to  $u$ .
- vertices in  $Adj[u]$  can be stored in arbitrary order.

# Representations of graphs (Examples)



(a)



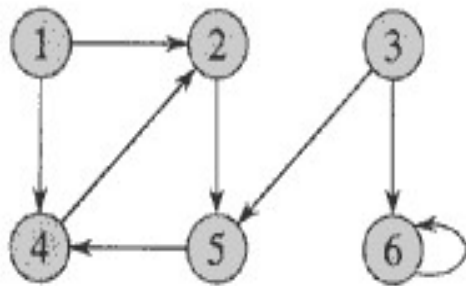
(b)

	1	2	3	4	5
1	0	1	0	0	1
2	1	0	1	1	1
3	0	1	0	1	0
4	0	1	1	0	1
5	1	1	0	1	0

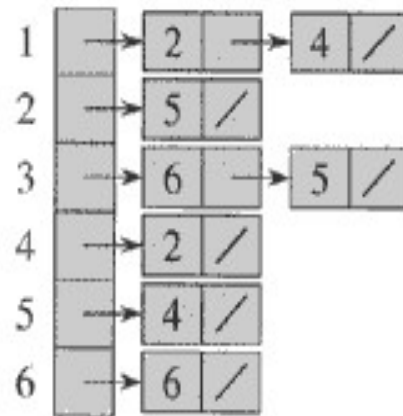
(c)

**Figure 22.1** Two representations of an undirected graph. (a) An undirected graph  $G$  having five vertices and seven edges. (b) An adjacency-list representation of  $G$ . (c) The adjacency-matrix representation of  $G$ .

# Representations of graphs (Examples)



(a)



(b)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	0	1	0	1	0	0
2	0	0	0	0	1	0
3	0	0	0	0	1	1
4	0	1	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	1	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	0	1

(c)

**Figure 22.2** Two representations of a directed graph. (a) A directed graph  $G$  having six vertices and eight edges. (b) An adjacency-list representation of  $G$ . (c) The adjacency-matrix representation of  $G$ .

# Adjacency-list representation

- Some questions.
  - How to compute the degree of each vertex?
  - What is the total length of all the adjacency-lists?
  - How to determine whether a given edge is present in the graph or not?

# Adjacency-list representation

- sum of the lengths of all the adjacency lists is
  - $2|E|$  if  $G$  is an undirected graph
  - $|E|$  if  $G$  is a directed graph
- Memory needed to store an adjacency-list representation of a graph is  $O(|V| + |E|)$
- Weighted graph can be represented by adjacency lists.

# Adjacency-list representation (advantage vs disadvantage)

- Advantage:

- when the graph is sparse, uses only  $O(|V| + |E|)$  memory.

- Disadvantage:

- no quicker way to determine if a given edge  $(u, v)$  is present in the graph than searching  $v$  in the adjacency list  $Adj[u]$ .  $O(|V|)$

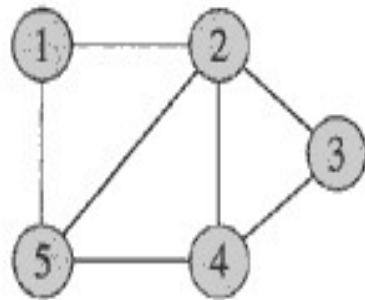
# Adjacency-matrix representation

- Consists of a  $|V| \times |V|$  matrix  $A = (a_{ij})$  such that

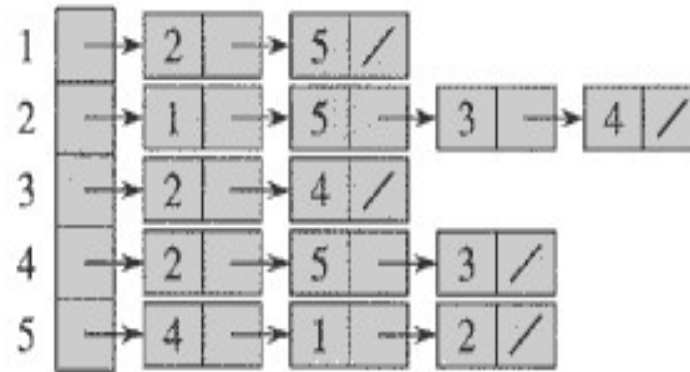
$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (i,j) \in E, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad \text{or} \quad a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (i,j) \in E, \\ \infty & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

- $A$  is symmetric along the main diagonal for undirected graphs, that is,  $A^T = A$ .
- For directed graph, generally,  $A^T \neq A$ . Can you imagine what directed graph satisfies  $A^T = A$ ?
- Adjacency-matrix can be used to represent weighted graphs.

# Representations of graphs (Examples)



(a)



(b)

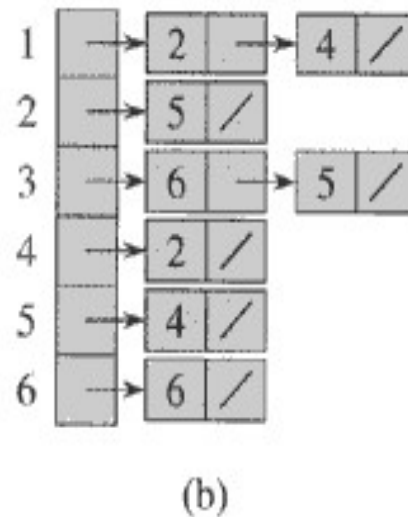
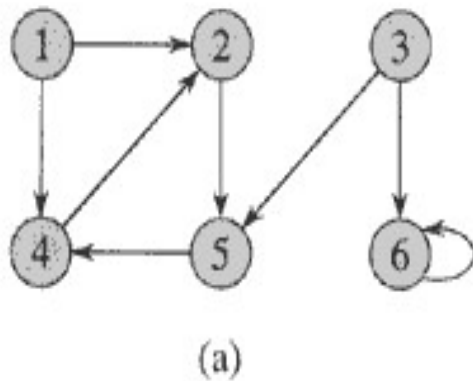
	1	2	3	4	5
1	0	1	0	0	1
2	1	0	1	1	1
3	0	1	0	1	0
4	0	1	1	0	1
5	1	1	0	1	0

(c)

**Figure 22.1** Two representations of an undirected graph. (a) An undirected graph  $G$  having five vertices and seven edges. (b) An adjacency-list representation of  $G$ . (c) The adjacency-matrix representation of  $G$ .



# Representations of graphs (Examples)



	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	0	1	0	1	0	0
2	0	0	0	0	1	0
3	0	0	0	0	1	1
4	0	1	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	1	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	0	1

(c)

**Figure 22.2** Two representations of a directed graph. (a) A directed graph  $G$  having six vertices and eight edges. (b) An adjacency-list representation of  $G$ . (c) The adjacency-matrix representation of  $G$ .

# Properties of adjacency-matrix representation

- **Lemma 1.3:** Suppose that  $A$  is the adjacency-matrix representation of an undirected graph  $G$ , then the element  $A^k[i, j]$  of  $A^k = A \cdot A \cdot \dots \cdot A$  is the number of paths(通路) of length  $k$  that connect vertices  $i$  and  $j$ .
  - Proof by induction on  $k$ .
    - Basic step:  $k = 1$ ,  $A^1 = A$ ,  $A[i, j]$  is the number of paths of length 1 that connect vertices  $i$  and  $j$ .
    - Hypothesis :  $A^k[i, j]$  is the number of paths of length  $k$  that connect vertices  $i$  and  $j$ .
    - Inductive step:  $A^{k+1} = A \cdot A^k$ , we have  $A^{k+1}[i, j] = \sum_{l \in V} A[i, l] \cdot A^k[l, j]$ . For  $A[i, l]$  is the number of paths of length 1 that connect vertices  $i$  and  $l$ ,  $A^k[l, j]$  is the number of paths of length  $k$  that connect vertices  $l$  and  $j$ . So,  $A[i, l] \cdot A^k[l, j]$  is the number of paths of length  $k+1$  that connect vertices  $i$  and  $j$  via  $l$ . Consider all vertices  $l$ ,  $1 \leq l \leq n$ , we get our conclusion.

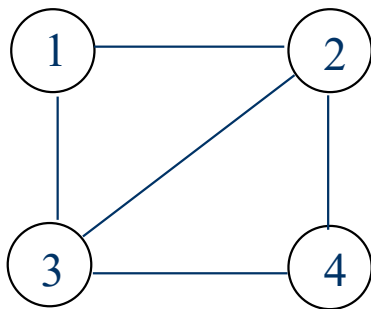
# Properties of adjacency-matrix representation

- Corollary 1.4  $A^2[i, i] = \sum_{j=1}^n A[i, j] = \sum_{j=1}^n A[j, i] = d_G(i)$

Proof: For symmetry of adjacency-matrix,

$A[i, l] = A[l, i] = 0$  or  $1$ , so

$$A^2[i, i] = \sum_{l=1}^n A[i, l] \cdot A[l, i] = \sum_{j=1}^n A[i, j] = \sum_{j=1}^n A[j, i] = d_G(i)$$



$A^2[1, 1]: 2: (1, 2, 1), (1, 3, 1)$

$A^2[2, 2]: 3: (2, 1, 2), (2, 3, 2), (2, 4, 2)$

# Adjacency-matrix representation (Advantage vs disadvantage)

- Advantage:

- Easily or quickly to determine if an edge is in the graph or not.  $O(1)$

- Disadvantage:

- Uses more memory to store a graph.  $O(|V|^2)$