Algorithm Design Manual Notes

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1 Introduction To Algorithm Design

the algorithmic *problem* known as *sorting* is defined as follows:

Problem: Sorting

Input: A sequence of n keys $a_1, ..., a_n$.

Output: The permutation (reordering) of the input sequence such that $a_1' \leq a_2' \leq ... \leq a_{n-1}' \leq a_n'$

```
I N S E R T I O N S O R T I N S E R T I O N S O R T I O N S O R T E I N S R T I O N S O R T E I N R S T I O N S O R T E I I N R S T O N S O R T E I I N R S T O N S O R T E I I N N O R S T O R T E I I N N O R S T O R T E I I N N O R S T O R T E I I N N O R S S T O R T E I I N N O R S S T R T E I I N N O O R R S S T R T E I I N N O O R R S S T T E I I N N O O R R S S T T E I I N N O O R R S S T T E I I N N O O R R S S T T E I I N N O O R R S S T T E I I N N O O R R S S T T E I I N N O O R R S S T T
```

Figure 1: Animation of insertion sort in action (time flows down)

```
insertion_sort(item s[], int n)
{
    int i,j; /* counters */

    for (i=1; i<n; i++) {
        j=i;
        while ((j>0) && (s[j] < s[j-1])) {
            swap(&s[j], &s[j-1]);
            j = j-1;
        }
    }
}</pre>
```

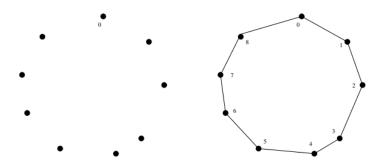


Figure 2: A good instance for the nearest neighbor heuristic

1.1 Robot Tour Optimization

Problem: Robot Tour Optimization *Input:* A set S of N points in the plane.

Output: What is the shortest cycle tour that visits each point in the set S?

1.2 Selecting the Right Jobs

Problem: Movie Scheduling Problem *Input:* A set I of n intervals on the line.

Output: What is the largest subset of mutually non-overlapping intervals which can be selected from I?

Take-Home Lesson: Reasonable-looking algorithms can easily be incorrect. Algorithm correctnes is a property that must be carefully demonstrated.

1.3 Reasoning about Correctness

1.3.1 Expressing Algorithms

Take-Home Lesson: The heart of any algorithm is an *idea*. If your idea is not clearly revealed when you express an algorithm, then you are using too low-level a notation to describe it.

1.3.2 Problems and Properties

Take-Home Lesson: An important and honorable tecnique in algorithm design is to narrow the set of allowable instances until there *is* a correct and efficient algorithm. For example, we can restrict a graph problem from general graphs down to trees, or a geometric problem from two dimensions down to one.

1.3.3 Demonstrating Incorrectness

- Verifiability
- Simplicity
- Think small
- Think exhaustively
- Hunt for the weakness
- · Seek extremes

Take-Home Lesson: Searching for conterexamples is the best way to disprove the correctness of a heuristic.

1.3.4 Induction and Recursion

Take-Home Lesson: Mathematical induction is usually the right wy to verify the correctness of a recursive or incremental insertion algorithm.

1.3.5 Summations

- Arithmetic progressions: A sequence of numbers where the difference between consecutive terms is constant
- · Geometric series

Use the general trick of seperating out the largest term from the summation to reveal an instance of the inductive assumption.

1.4 Modeling The Problem

1.4.1 Combinatorial Objects

- Permutations
- Subsets
- Trees
- Graphs
- Points
- Polygons
- Strings

Take-Home Lesson: Modeling your application in terms of well-defined structures and algorithms is the most important single step towards a solution.

1.4.2 Recursive Objects

- Permutations
- Subsets
- Trees
- Graphs
- Points
- Polygons
- Strings

1.5 About the War Stories

1.6 War Story: Psychic Modeling

2 Algorithm Analysis

Our two most important tools are

- 1. The RAM model of computation
- 2. The asymptotic analysis of worst-case complexity

2.1 The RAM Model of Computation

Take-Home Lesson: Algorithms can be understood and studied in a language and machine-independant manner..

2.1.1 Best, Worst, and Average-Case Complexity

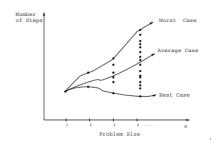


Figure 3: Best, Worst and average case complexity

2.2 The Big Oh Notation

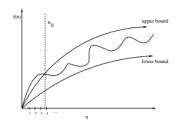


Figure 4: Upper and lower bounds valid for $n > n_0$ smooth out the behavior of complex functions

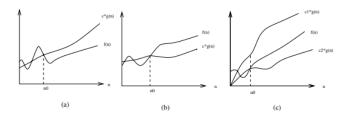


Figure 5: Illustrating the big (a) O, (b) Ω , and (c) Θ notations

Stop and Think: Hip to the Squares

Problem: Is
$$(x + y)^2 = O(x^2 + y^2)$$

Stop and Think: Back to the Definition

Problem: Is
$$2^{n+1} = \Theta(2^n)$$
?

2.3 Growth Rates and Dominance Relations

n f(n)	$\lg n$	n	$n \lg n$	n^2	2 ⁿ	n!
10	$0.003~\mu s$	$0.01~\mu s$	$0.033~\mu s$	$0.1~\mu s$	1 μs	3.63 ms
20	$0.004~\mu s$	$0.02~\mu s$	$0.086~\mu s$	$0.4~\mu s$	1 ms	77.1 years
30	$0.005~\mu s$	$0.03~\mu s$	$0.147~\mu s$	$0.9~\mu s$	1 sec	$8.4 \times 10^{15} \text{ yrs}$
40	$0.005~\mu s$	$0.04~\mu s$	$0.213~\mu s$	$1.6~\mu s$	18.3 min	
50	$0.006~\mu s$	$0.05~\mu s$	$0.282~\mu s$	$2.5~\mu s$	13 days	
100	$0.007~\mu s$	$0.1~\mu s$	$0.644~\mu s$	10 μs	$4 \times 10^{13} \text{ yrs}$	
1,000	$0.010 \ \mu s$	$1.00 \ \mu s$	9.966 μs	1 ms		
10,000	$0.013~\mu s$	$10 \mu s$	130 μs	100 ms		
100,000	$0.017~\mu s$	0.10 ms	1.67 ms	10 sec		
1,000,000	$0.020~\mu s$	1 ms	19.93 ms	16.7 min		
10,000,000	$0.023~\mu s$	$0.01 \mathrm{sec}$	0.23 sec	1.16 days		
100,000,000	$0.027~\mu s$	$0.10 \mathrm{sec}$	2.66 sec	115.7 days		
1,000,000,000	$0.030~\mu s$	1 sec	29.90 sec	31.7 years		

Figure 6: Growth rates of common functions measured in nanoseconds

2.3.1 Dominance Relations

Take-Home Lesson: Although esoteric functions arise in advanced algorithm analysis, a small variety of time complexities suffice and account for most algorithms that are widely used in practice.

2.4 Working with the Big Oh

2.4.1 Adding Functions

$$O(f(n)) + O(g(n)) \longrightarrow O(max(f(n), g(n)))$$

$$\Omega(f(n)) + \Omega(g(n)) \longrightarrow \Omega(max(f(n), g(n)))$$

$$\Theta(f(n)) + \Theta(g(n)) \longrightarrow \Theta(max(f(n), g(n)))$$

2.4.2 Multiplying Functions

$$O(c * f(n))) \longrightarrow O(f(n))$$

$$\Omega(c * f(n))) \longrightarrow \Omega(f(n))$$

$$\Theta(c * f(n))) \longrightarrow \Theta(f(n))$$

$$O(f(n)) * O(g(n)) \longrightarrow O(f(n) * g(n))$$

$$\Omega(f(n)) * \Omega(g(n)) \longrightarrow \Omega(f(n) * g(n))$$

$$\Theta(f(n)) * \Theta(g(n)) \longrightarrow \Theta(f(n) * g(n))$$

Stop and Think: Hip to the SquaresTransitive Experience

Show that Big Oh relationships are transitive. That is, if f(n) = O(g(n)) and g(n) = O(h(n)), then f(n) = O(h(n))

2.5 Reasoning About Efficiency

2.5.1 Selection Sort

Figure 7: Animation of selection sort in action.

2.5.2 Insertion Sort

```
for (i=1; i<n; i++) {
    j=i;
    while((j>0) && (s[j] < s[j-1])) {
        swap(&s[j], &s[j-1]);
        j = j-1;
    }
}</pre>
```

2.5.3 String Pattern Matching

Problem: Substring Pattern Matching Input: A text string t and a pattern string p

Output: Does t contain the pattern p as a substring, and if so where?

```
a b a b b a a a b a b b a
```

Figure 8: Searching for the substring abba in the text aababba

2.5.4 Matrix Multiplication

Problem: Matrix Multiplication

Input: Two matrices, A (of dimesion $x \times y$) and B (dimension $y \times z$).

Output: An $x \times z$ matrix C where C[i][j] is the dot product of the ith row of A and the jth column of B.

2.6 Logarithms and Their Applications

$$b^x = y \leftrightarrow x = log_b y$$
$$b^{log_b y} = y$$

2.6.1 Logarithms and Binary Search



Figure 9: A height h tree with d children per node as d^h leaves. Here h=2 and d=3

2.6.2 Logarithms Trees

2.6.3 Logarithms and Bits

2.6.4 Logarithms and Multiplication

$$log_a(xy) = log_a(x) + log_a(y)$$

$$log_a n^b = b \cdot log_a n$$

$$a^b = e^{(ln(a^b))} = e^{(b(ln(a)))}$$

2.6.5 Fast Exponentiation

2.6.6 Logarithms and Summations

Harmonic Numbers:

$$H(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} \sim ln(n)$$

2.6.7 Logarithms and Criminal Justice

Loss (apply the greatest)	Increase in level
(A) \$2,000 or less	no increase
(B) More than \$2,000	add 1
(C) More than \$5,000	add 2
(D) More than \$10,000	add 3
(E) More than \$20,000	add 4
(F) More than \$40,000	add 5
(G) More than \$70,000	add 6
(H) More than \$120,000	add 7
(I) More than \$200,000	add 8
(J) More than \$350,000	add 9
(K) More than \$500,000	add 10
(L) More than \$800,000	add 11
(M) More than \$1,500,000	add 12
(N) More than \$2,500,000	add 13
(O) More than \$5,000,000	add 14
(P) More than \$10,000,000	add 15
(Q) More than \$20,000,000	add 16
(R) More than \$40,000,000	add 17
(Q) More than \$80,000,000	add 18

Figure 10: The Federal Sentencing Guidelines for fraud

Take-Home Lesson: Logarithms arise whenever things are repeatedly halved or doubled

2.7 Properties of Logarithms

$$log_a b = \frac{log_c b}{log_c a}$$

Stop and Think: Importnce of an Even Split

How many queries does binary search take on the million-name Manhattan phone boo if each split was 1/3 to 2/3 instead of 1/2 to 1/2?

2.8 War Story: Mystery of the Pyramids

2.9 Advanced Aanalysis (*)

2.10 Esoteric Functions

2.11 Limits and Dominance Relations

Take-Home Lesson: By interleaving the functions here with those of Section 2.3.1 we see where everything fits into the dominnce pecking order:

$$n! \gg c^n \gg n^3 \gg n^2 \gg n^{1+\epsilon} \gg n \cdot log(n) \gg n \gg \sqrt{n}$$

$$\gg \log^2 n \gg \log(n) \gg \frac{\log(n)}{\log(\log(n))} \gg \log(\log(n)) \gg \alpha(n) \gg 1$$

3 Data Structures

3 Fundamental abstract data types

- Containers
- Dictionaries
- Lists

3.1 Contigous vs. Linked Data Structures

- Continuously allocated structures (arrays)
- Linked data structures (pointers, lists, trees...)

3.1.1 Arrays

$$M = \sum_{i=1}^{\lg(n)} i * \frac{n}{2^i} = n * \sum_{i=1}^{\lg(n)} \frac{i}{2^i} \le n * \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{i}{2^i} = 2n$$

3.1.2 Pointers and Linked Structures

figure here*** (Linked Lst example showing data and pointer fields)

```
typedef struct list {
  item_type item;
                           /*data item*/
                        /*point to successor*/
  struct list *next;
} list;
 Searching a List
list *search_list(list *1, item_type x)
{
  if(1 == NULL) return(NULL);
  if(1->item == x)
    return(1);
  else
    return(search_list(1->next, x) );
}
 Insertion into a List
void insert_list(list **1, item_type x)
    list *p
                              /* temporary pointer*/
    p = malloc(sizeof(list));
    p->item = x;
```

Deletion From a List

*1 = p;

}

p->next = *1;

list *predecessor_list(list *1, item_type x)

```
{
    if((1 == NULL) || (1->next == NULL)) {
        printf("Error: predecessor sought on null list.\n");
        return(NULL);
    }
    if((1->next)->item == x)
        return(1);
    else
        return(predecessor_list(1->next, x));
}
delete_list(list **1, item_type x)
                                   /*item pointer*/
    list *p;
    list *pred
                                   /*predecessor pointer*/
    list *search_list(), *predecessor_list();
    p = search_list(*1,x);
    if(p != NULL) {
        pred = predecessor_list(*1, x);
                                  /*splice out list*/
        if(pred == NULL)
            *1 = p->next;
        else
            pred->next = p->next;
                                  /*free memory used by node*/
        free(p);
    }
}
```

3.1.3 Comparison

Take-Home Lesson: Dynamic memory allocation provides us with flexibility on how and where we use our limited storage resources.

3.2 Stacks and Queues

• Stacks: LIFO

• Queues: FIFO

3.3 Dictionaries

Primary Operations:

• Search

- Insert
- Delete

Stop and Think: Comparing Dictionary Implementations (I)

Problem: What are the asymptotic worst-case running times for each of the seven fundamental dictionary operations (search, delete, successor, predecessor, minimum, maximum) when the data structure is implemented as:

- An unsorted array
- · A sorted Array

Take-Home Lesson: Data structure design must balance all the different operations it supports. The fastest data structure to support both operations A and B may well not be the fastest structure to support either operation A or B.

Stop and Think: Comparing Dictionary Implementations (II)

Problem: What are the asymptotic worst-case running times for each of the seven fundamental dictionary operations (search, delete, successor, predecessor, minimum, maximum) when the data structure is implemented as:

- A singly-linked unsorted list
- A doubly-linked unsorted list
- A singly-linked sorted list
- A doubly-linked sorted list

3.4 Binary Search Trees

For any binary tree on n nodes and any set of n keys, there is exactly one labeling that makes it a binary search tree

3.4.1 Implementing Binary Search Trees

```
struct tree *right /*pointer to right child*/
} tree;
```

Basic binary search tree operations:

- search
- traversal
- insertion
- deletion

Searching in a Tree

```
tree *search_tree(tree *1, item_type x)
{
    if(1 == NULL) return(NULL);
    if(1->item == x) return(1);
    if(x < 1->item)
        return(search_tree(1->left, x));
    else
        return(search_tree(1->right, x));
}
```

Finding Minimum and Maximum Elements in a Tree

Traversal in a Tree

```
void traverse_tree(tree *1)
```

```
if(1 != NULL) {
         traverse_tree(1->left);
         process_item(1->item);
         traverse_tree(1->right);
     }
}
Insertion in a Tree
insert_tree(tree **1, item_type x, tree *parent)
     tree *p;
                                         /*temporary pointer*/
     if(*1 == NULL) {
                                         /*allocate new node*/
         p = malloc(sizeof(tree));
         p->item = x;
         p->left = p->right = NULL;
         p->parent = parent;
                                         /*link into parents record*/
         *1 = p;
         return;
     }
     if(x < (*1) \rightarrow item)
         insert_tree(\&((*1)->left), x, *1);
```

Deletion from a Tree

}

figure here*** (Deleting tree nodes with 0, 1 and 2 children)

insert_tree(&((*1)-right), x, *1);

3.4.2 How Good Are Binary Search Trees?

What if items are inserted in order? Trees should be balanced.

3.4.3 Balanced Search Trees

Take-Home Lesson: Picking the wrong data structure for the job can be disastrous in terms of performance. Identifying the very best data structure is usually not as critical, because there can be several choices that perform similarly.

Stop and Think: Exploiting Balanced Search Trees

Problem: You are given the task of reading n numbers and then printing them out in sorted order. Suppose you have access to a balanced dictionary data attructure, which supports the operations search, insert, delete, minimum, maximum, successor and predecesor each in $O(\log(n))$ time

- 1. How can you sort in $O(n\log(n))$ time using only insert and in-order traversal?
- 2. How can you sort in O(nlog(n)) time using only minimum, seccessor, and insert?
- 3. How can you sort in $O(n\log(n))$ time using only minimum, insert, delete, and search?

3.5 Priority Queues

Primary Operations

- Insert
- Find Minimum/Maximum
- Delete Minimum/Maximum

Take-Home Lesson: Building algorithms around data structures such as dictionaries and priority queues leads to both clean structures and good performance.

Stop and Think: Basic Priority Queue Implementatons

Problem: What is the worst-case time complexity of the three basic priority queue operations (insert, find minimum, and delete minimum) when the basic data structure is:

- · An unsorted Array
- An sorted Array
- · A balanced binary search tree

3.6 War Story: Stripping Triangulations

A Hamiltonian path is NP-Complete

3.7 Hashing and Strings

$$H(S) = \sum_{i=0}^{|S|-1} \alpha^{|S|-(i+1)} x char(s_i)$$

3.7.1 Collision Resolution

chaining vs open addressing

3.7.2 Efficient String Matching via Hashing

Problem: Substring Pattern Matching *Input:* A text string t and a pattern string p.

Output: Does t contain the pattern p as a substring, and if so where?

$$H(S,j) = \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} \alpha^{m-(i+1)} x char(s_{i+j})$$

$$H(S, j+1) = \alpha(H(S, j) - \alpha^{m-1}char(s_j)) + char(s_{j+m})$$

3.7.3 Duplicate Detection Via Hashing

Hashing is a fundamental idea in randomized algorithms yielding linear expected time algorithms for problems otherwise $\Theta(nlog(n))$ or $\Theta(n^2)$ in the worst case.

3.8 Specialized Data Structures

- String Data Structures
- Geometric Data Structures
- Graph Data Structures
- Set Data Structures

3.9 War Story: String 'em Up

3.10 Chapter Notes