

# CSE 421

# Algorithms

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Lecture 4

# Announcements

- Reading
  - Chapter 2.1, 2.2
  - Chapter 3 (Mostly review)
  - Start on Chapter 4
- Homework Guidelines
  - Prove that your algorithm works
    - A proof is a “convincing argument”
  - Give the run time for you algorithm
    - Justify that the algorithm satisfies the runtime bound
  - You may lose points for style

What does it mean for an algorithm  
to be efficient?

# Definitions of efficiency

- Fast in practice
- Qualitatively better worst case performance than a brute force algorithm

# Polynomial time efficiency

- An algorithm is efficient if it has a polynomial run time
- Run time as a function of problem size
  - Run time: count number of instructions executed on an underlying model of computation
  - $T(n)$ : maximum run time for all problems of size at most  $n$

# Polynomial Time

- Algorithms with polynomial run time have the property that increasing the problem size by a constant factor increases the run time by at most a constant factor (depending on the algorithm)

# Why Polynomial Time?

- Generally, polynomial time seems to capture the algorithms which are efficient in practice
- The class of polynomial time algorithms has many good, mathematical properties

# Polynomial vs. Exponential Complexity

- Suppose you have an algorithm which takes  $n!$  steps on a problem of size  $n$
- If the algorithm takes one second for a problem of size 10, estimate the run time for the following problems sizes:

12

14

16

18

20



# Ignoring constant factors

- Express run time as  $O(f(n))$
- Emphasize algorithms with slower growth rates
- Fundamental idea in the study of algorithms
- Basis of Tarjan/Hopcroft Turing Award

# Why ignore constant factors?

- Constant factors are arbitrary
  - Depend on the implementation
  - Depend on the details of the model
- Determining the constant factors is tedious and provides little insight

# Why emphasize growth rates?

- The algorithm with the lower growth rate will be faster for all but a finite number of cases
- Performance is most important for larger problem size
- As memory prices continue to fall, bigger problem sizes become feasible
- Improving growth rate often requires new techniques

# Formalizing growth rates

- $T(n)$  is  $O(f(n))$   $[T : \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+]$ 
  - If  $n$  is sufficiently large,  $T(n)$  is bounded by a constant multiple of  $f(n)$
  - Exist  $c, n_0$ , such that for  $n > n_0$ ,  $T(n) < c f(n)$
- $T(n)$  is  $O(f(n))$  will be written as:  
 $T(n) = O(f(n))$ 
  - Be careful with this notation

Prove  $3n^2 + 5n + 20$  is  $O(n^2)$

Let  $c =$

Let  $n_0 =$

$T(n)$  is  $O(f(n))$  if there exist  $c, n_0$ , such that for  $n > n_0$ ,  
 $T(n) < c f(n)$

Order the following functions in increasing order by their growth rate

a)  $n \log^4 n$

b)  $2n^2 + 10n$

c)  $2^{n/100}$

d)  $1000n + \log^8 n$

e)  $n^{100}$

f)  $3^n$

g)  $1000 \log^{10} n$

h)  $n^{1/2}$

# Lower bounds

- $T(n)$  is  $\Omega(f(n))$ 
  - $T(n)$  is at least a constant multiple of  $f(n)$
  - There exists an  $n_0$ , and  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $T(n) > \varepsilon f(n)$  for all  $n > n_0$
- Warning: definitions of  $\Omega$  vary
- $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(f(n))$  if  $T(n)$  is  $O(f(n))$  and  $T(n)$  is  $\Omega(f(n))$

# Useful Theorems

- If  $\lim (f(n) / g(n)) = c$  for  $c > 0$  then  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$
- If  $f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$  and  $g(n)$  is  $O(h(n))$  then  $f(n)$  is  $O(h(n))$
- If  $f(n)$  is  $O(h(n))$  and  $g(n)$  is  $O(h(n))$  then  $f(n) + g(n)$  is  $O(h(n))$



# Ordering growth rates

- For  $b > 1$  and  $x > 0$ 
  - $\log^b n$  is  $O(n^x)$
- For  $r > 1$  and  $d > 0$ 
  - $n^d$  is  $O(r^n)$

# Graph Theory

- $G = (V, E)$ 
  - $V$  – vertices
  - $E$  – edges
- Undirected graphs
  - Edges sets of two vertices  $\{u, v\}$
- Directed graphs
  - Edges ordered pairs  $(u, v)$
- Many other flavors
  - Edge / vertices weights
  - Parallel edges
  - Self loops

# Definitions

- Path:  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$ , with  $(v_i, v_{i+1})$  in  $E$ 
  - Simple Path
  - Cycle
  - Simple Cycle
- Distance
- Connectivity
  - Undirected
  - Directed (strong connectivity)
- Trees
  - Rooted
  - Unrooted

# Graph search

- Find a path from  $s$  to  $t$

$S = \{s\}$

While there exists  $(u, v)$  in  $E$  with  $u$  in  $S$  and  $v$  not in  $S$

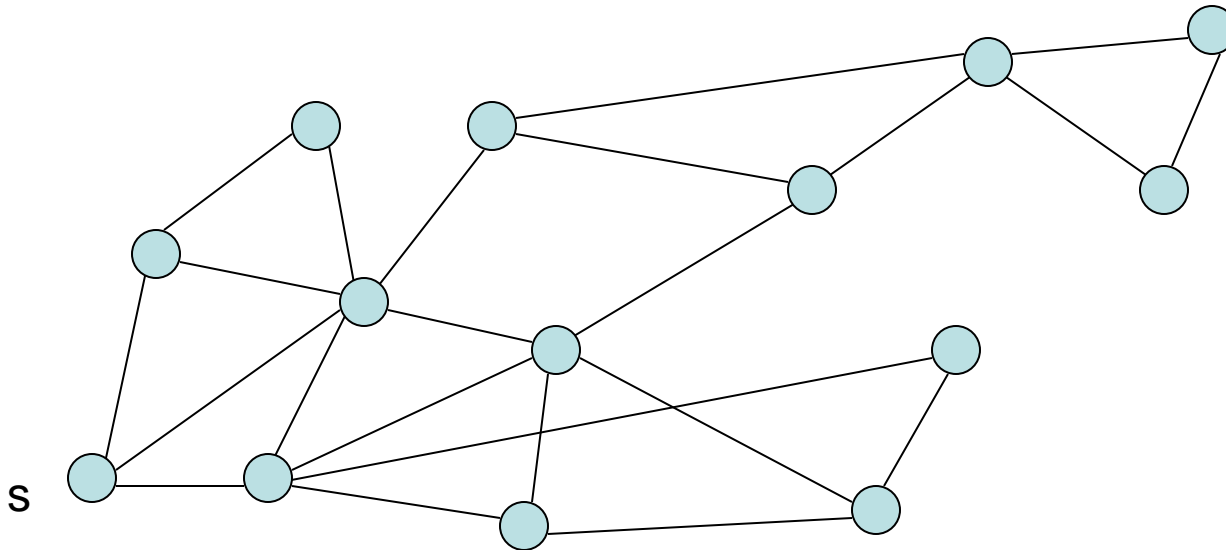
$\text{Pred}[v] = u$

    Add  $v$  to  $S$

    if  $(v = t)$  then path found

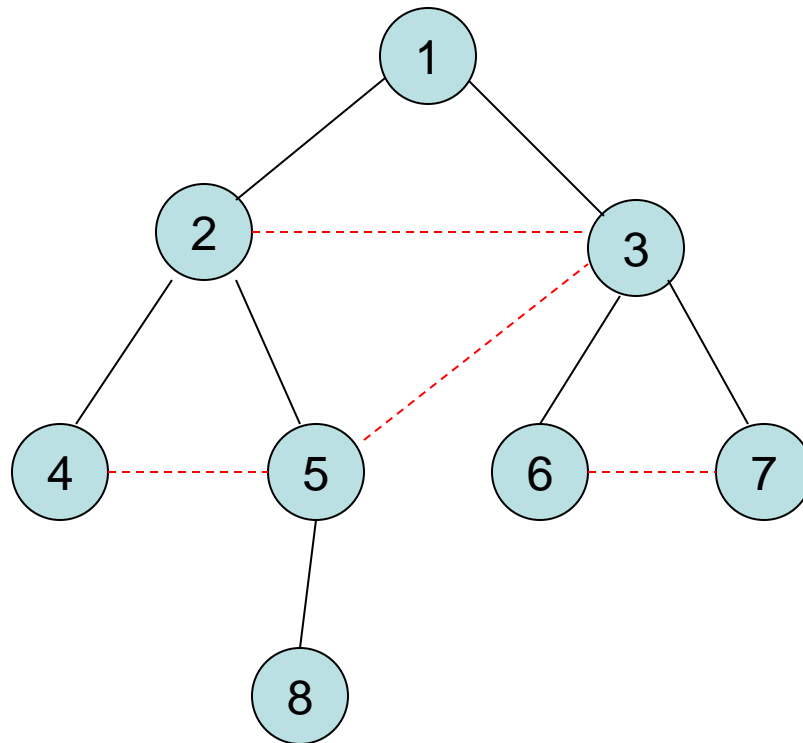
# Breadth first search

- Explore vertices in layers
  - $s$  in layer 1
  - Neighbors of  $s$  in layer 2
  - Neighbors of layer 2 in layer 3 . . .



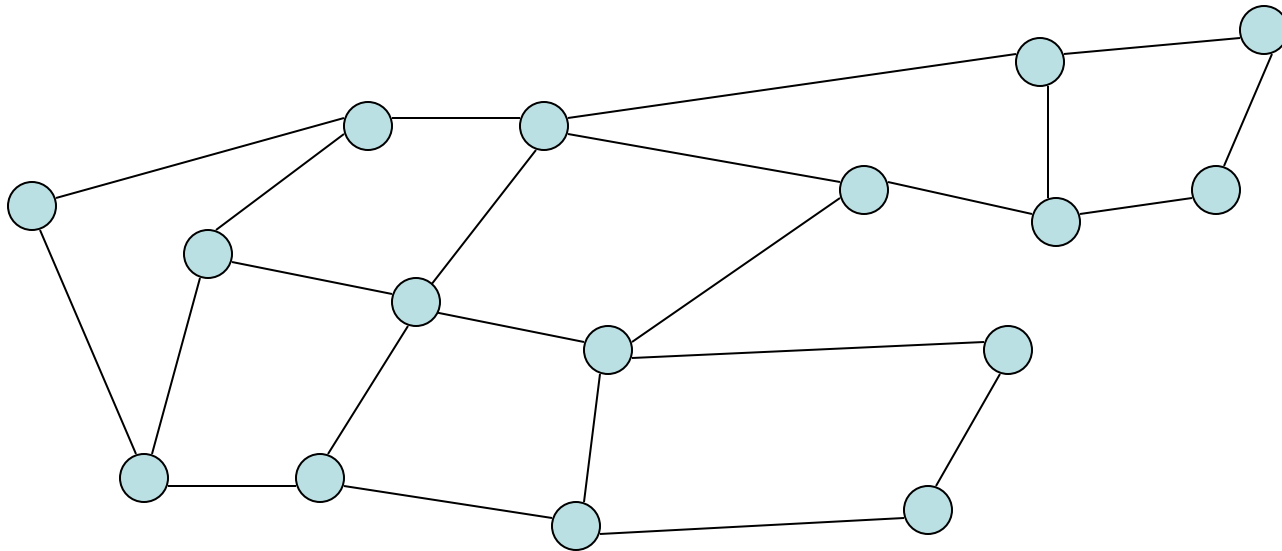
# Key observation

- All edges go between vertices on the same layer or adjacent layers

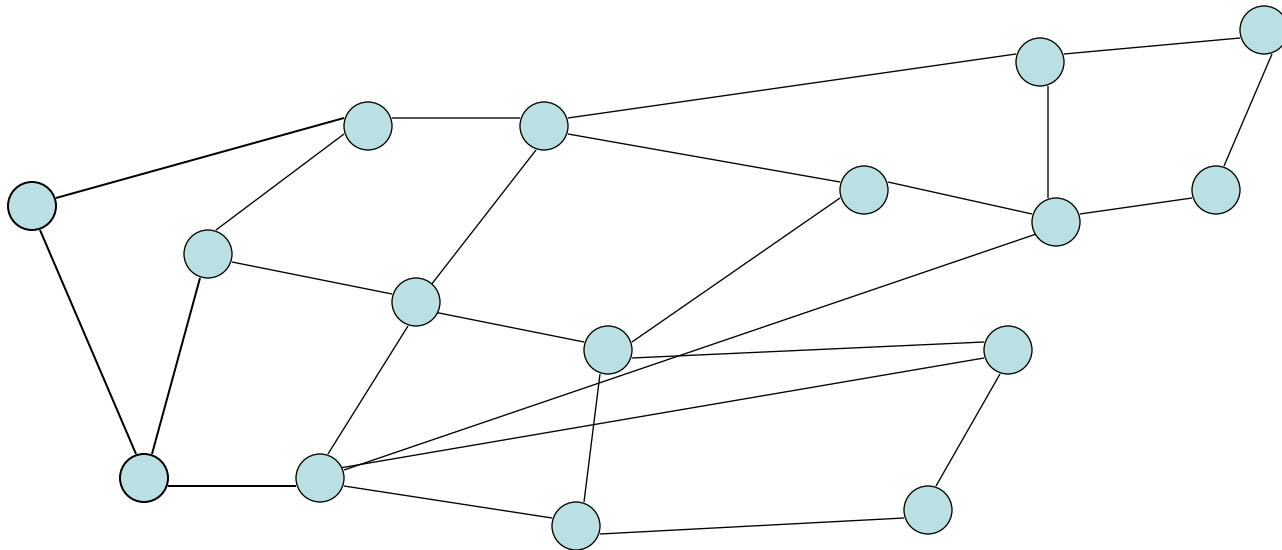


# Bipartite Graphs

- A graph  $V$  is bipartite if  $V$  can be partitioned into  $V_1, V_2$  such that all edges go between  $V_1$  and  $V_2$
- A graph is bipartite if it can be two colored



# Can this graph be two colored?





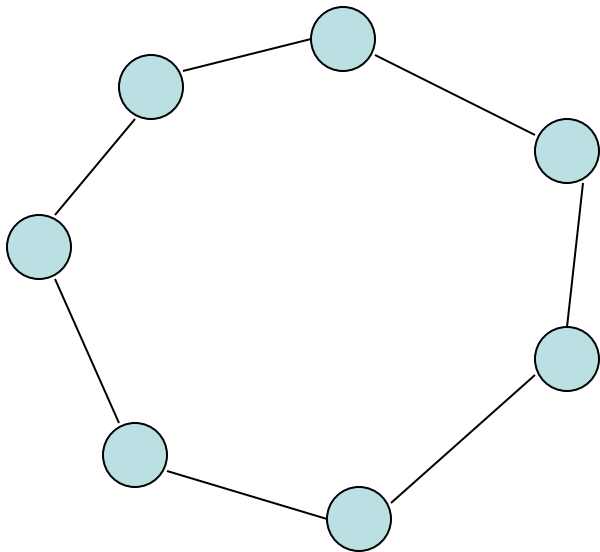
# Algorithm

- Run BFS
- Color odd layers red, even layers blue
- If no edges between the same layer, the graph is bipartite
- If edge between two vertices of the same layer, then there is an odd cycle, and the graph is not bipartite

Theorem: A graph is bipartite if and only if it has no odd cycles

# Lemma 1

- If a graph contains an odd cycle, it is not bipartite



# Lemma 2

- If a BFS tree has an *intra-level edge*, then the graph has an odd length cycle

Intra-level edge: both end points are in the same level

# Lemma 3

- If a graph has no odd length cycles, then it is bipartite