

# IE 607 Heuristic Optimization

## Introduction to Optimization Part II

# Algorithm Design & Analysis

Steps:

- Design the algorithm
- Encode the algorithm
  - Steps of algorithm
  - Data structures
- Apply the algorithm

# Algorithm Efficiency

- Run-time
- Memory requirements
- Number of elementary computer operations to solve the problem in the worst case

Study increased in the 70's

# Complexity Analysis

- Seeks to classify problems in terms of the mathematical order of the computational resources required to solve the problems via computer algorithms
- Judge a problem whether we can find a polynomial-time algorithm to solve it
- Decide the “right” approach to solve a problem

- **Problem** is a collection of instances that share a mathematical form but differ in size and in the values of numerical constants in the problem form (i.e. *generic model*).

Example: shortest path.

- **Instance** is a special case of problem with specified data and parameters.
- An algorithm *solves* a problem if the algorithm is guaranteed to find the optimal solution for any instance.

# Complexity Measures

- **Empirical Analysis**
  - see how algorithms perform in practice
  - write program, test on classes of problem instances
- **Average Case Analysis (Expected Case Analysis)**
  - determine expected number of steps
  - choose probability distribution for problem instances, use statistical analysis to derive asymptotic expected run times

# Complexity Measures (cont.)

- **Worst Case Analysis**
  - provides upper bound (UB) on the number of steps an algorithm can take on *any* instance
  - count largest possible number of steps
  - provides a “guarantee” on number of steps the algorithm will need

# Complexity Measures (cont.)

- **CONs of Empirical Analysis**

- algorithm performance depends on computer language, compiler, hardware, programmer's skills
- costly and time consuming to do
- algorithm comparison can be inconclusive



# Complexity Measures (cont.)

- **CONs of Average Case Analysis**
  - depends heavily on choice of probability distribution
  - hard to pick the probability distribution of realistic problems
  - analysis often very complex
  - assumes analyst solving multiple problem instances

# Complexity Measures (cont.)

- **Worst Case Analysis**

## PROs

- independent of computing environment
- relatively easy
- guarantee on steps (time)
- definitive

## CONs

- simplex method exception
- algorithm comparisons can be inconclusive

# Big “O” Notation

- A theoretical measure of the execution of an algorithm given the problem size  $n$ .
- An algorithm is said to run in  $O(g(n))$  time if  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  (of order  $g(n)$ ) and there are positive constants  $c$  and  $k$ , such that  $0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n)$  for all  $n \geq k$  (i.e. the time taken by the algorithm is at most  $cg(n)$  for all  $n \geq k$  ).

“ $f$  of  $n$  is big  $o$  of  $g$  of  $n$ ”

# Big “O” Notation (cont.)

- Usually interested in performance on large instances
- Only consider the dominant term

Example:  $100n + 1000n^2 + 0.01n^3$

$$\rightarrow O(n^3)$$

# Polynomial vs Exponential-Time Algorithms

- What is a “good” algorithm?
- It is commonly accepted that worst case performance bounded by a polynomial function of the problem parameters is “good”. We call this a *Polynomial-Time Algorithm*.  
Example:  $O(n^3)$
- Strongly preferred because it can handle arbitrarily large data

# Polynomial vs Exponential-Time Algorithms (cont.)

- In Exponential-Time Algorithms, worst case run time grows as a function that cannot be polynomially bounded by the input parameters.

Example:  $O(2^n)$   $O(n!)$

- Why is a polynomial-time algorithm better than an exponential-time one?
  - Exponential time algorithms have an explosive growth rate.

# Polynomial vs Exponential- Time Algorithms (cont.)

	n=5	n=10	n=100	n=1000
n	5	10	$10^2$	$10^3$
$n^2$	25	100	$10^4$	$10^6$
$n^3$	125	1000	$10^6$	$10^9$
nlogn		10	$2 \times 10^2$	$3 \times 10^3$
$2^n$	32	1024	$1.27 \times 10^{30}$	$1.07 \times 10^{301}$
n!	120	$3.6 \times 10^6$	$9.33 \times 10^{157}$	$4.02 \times 10^{2567}$

# Optimization vs Decision Problems

- **Optimization Problem**

A computational problem in which the object is to find the best of all possible solutions. (i.e. find a solution in the feasible region which has the minimum or maximum value of the objective function.)

- **Decision Problem**

A problem with a “yes” or “no” answer.



- **Convert Optimization Problems into equivalent Decision Problems**

What is the optimal value?

→ Is there a feasible solution to the problem with an objective function value equal to or superior to a specified threshold?

# Class P

- The class of decision problems for which we can find a solution in *polynomial* time.  
i.e. **P** includes all decision problems for which there is an algorithm that halts with the correct yes/no answer in a number of steps bounded by a polynomial in the problem size  $n$ .
- The **Class P** in general is thought of as being composed of relatively “easy” problems for which efficient algorithms exist.

# Examples of Class P Problems

- Shortest path
- Minimum spanning tree
- Network flow
- Transportation, assignment and transshipment
- Some single machine scheduling problems

# Class NP

- **NP** = Nondeterministic Polynomial
- **NP** is the class of decision problems for which we can *check* solutions in polynomial time.  
i.e. *easy to verify but not necessarily easy to solve*

Example: easy to verify the correctness of a mathematical proof but difficult to generate a mathematical proof

# Class NP (cont.)

- Formally, it is the set of decision problems such that if  $x$  is a “yes” instance then this could be *verified* in *polynomial* time if a **clue** or **certificate** whose size is polynomial in the size of  $x$  is appended to the problem input.
- **NP** includes all those decision problems that could be polynomial-time solved if the right (polynomial-length) clue is appended to the problem input.

Extra information so the correctness of an answer to a decision problem can be quickly checked.

# Class NP (cont.)

- Given a hypothetical solution to a decision problem, if one can efficiently check that all constraints are met (i.e., feasible) & compute the objective function to compare with the bound, then the problem is in NP.

Example: composite number problem

# Class P vs Class NP

- **Class P** contains all those that have been conquered with well-bounded, constructive algorithms.
- **Class NP** includes the decision problem versions of virtually all the widely studied combinatorial optimization problems.
- **P** is a subset of **NP**.

# NP Hard vs NP Complete

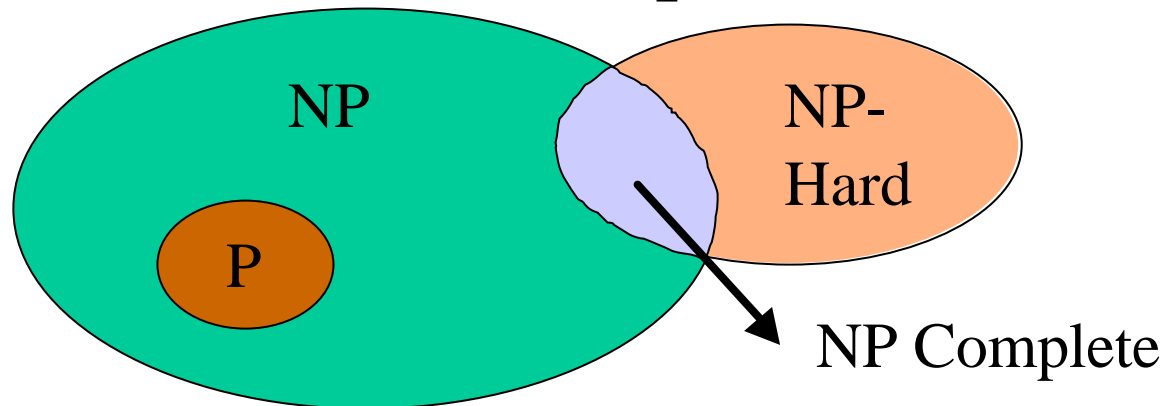
- When a decision version of a combinatorial optimization problem is proven to belong to the class of **NP-Complete** problems, an optimization version is **NP-Hard**.

-NIST Dictionary of Algorithms  
& Data Structure



# NP Hard vs NP Complete (cont.)

- A problem is said to be *NP-Hard* if all members of **NP** polynomially reduce to this problem.  $\rightarrow$  *NP-Hard* problems are at least as hard as or harder than any problem in *NP*.
- A problem is said to be *NP-Complete* if (a) it is in **NP**, and (b) it is *NP-Hard*.  $\rightarrow$  *NP-Complete* problems are the hardest problems in *NP*.



- **Cook's Theorem:** If there is an efficient (i.e. polynomial) algorithm for some **NP-Complete** problem, then there is a polynomial algorithm existing for all problems in **NP**.  $\rightarrow P = NP$
- Examples of NP-Hard problems:  
TSP, graph coloring, set covering and partitioning, knapsack, precedence-constrained scheduling, etc.

# Reference

- NIST Dictionary of Algorithms & Data Structure

<http://www.nist.gov/dads/>

- Comp. Theory FAQ

<http://db.uwaterloo.ca/~alopez-o/comp-faq/faq.html>

# Polynomial(-time) Reduction

- A transformation of one problem into another which is computable in polynomial time.
- Problem  $\mathbf{P}$  reduces in polynomial-time to another problem  $\mathbf{P}'$ , if and only if,
  - there is an algorithm for problem  $\mathbf{P}$  which uses problem  $\mathbf{P}'$  as a subroutine,
  - each call to the subroutine of problem  $\mathbf{P}'$  counts as a single step,
  - this algorithm for problem  $\mathbf{P}'$  runs in polynomial-time.

# Polynomial(-time) Reduction (cont.)

- If problem **P** *polynomially reduces* to problem **P'** and there is a polynomial-time algorithm for problem **P'**, then there is a polynomial-time algorithm for problem **P**.

→ Problem **P'** is at least as hard as problem **P**!

i.e., If **P'** can be used to solve instances of **P**, then **P'** is at least as hard as or harder than **P**.

<b>P</b>	<b>P'</b>
easy	← easy
hard	→ hard

