
CS481: Bioinformatics Algorithms

Can Alkan

EA224

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Reminder

- The TA will hold a few recitation sessions for the students from non-CS departments
 - Quick version of CS201 and CS202
 - Details of big-oh notation
 - Basic data structures
 - Email your schedules to ekayaaslan@gmail.com
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Computational complexity (basic)

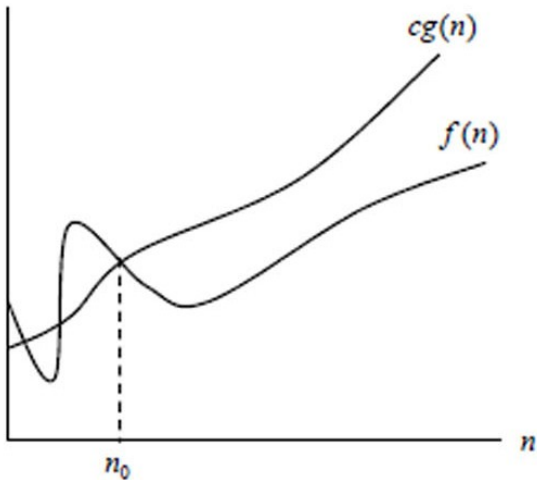
- When we develop or use an algorithm, we would like to know how its run time and memory requirements will scale with respect to data size
- Big-O Notation, and its counterparts: Limiting behavior of a function
 - **$O(f(x))$: Upper bound**
 - $\Omega(f(x))$: Lower bound
 - $\Theta(f(x))$: Tight bound

Bounds

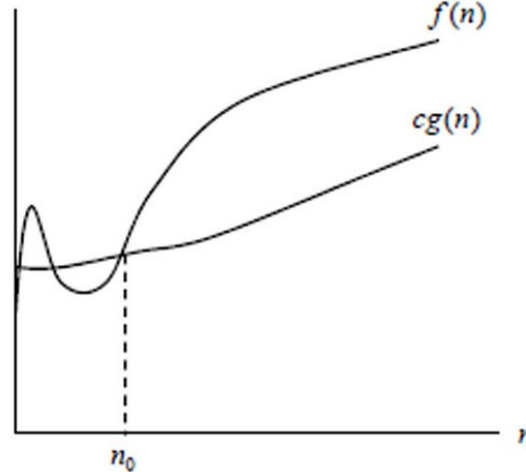
- $f(x)$ is $O(g(x))$ if there are positive real constants c and x_0 such that $f(x) \leq cg(x)$ for all values of $x \geq x_0$.
- $f(x)$ is $\Omega(g(x))$ if there are positive real constants c and x_0 such that $f(x) \geq cg(x)$ for all values of $x \geq x_0$.
- $f(x)$ is $\Theta(g(x))$ if $f(x) = O(g(x))$ and $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$

Bounds

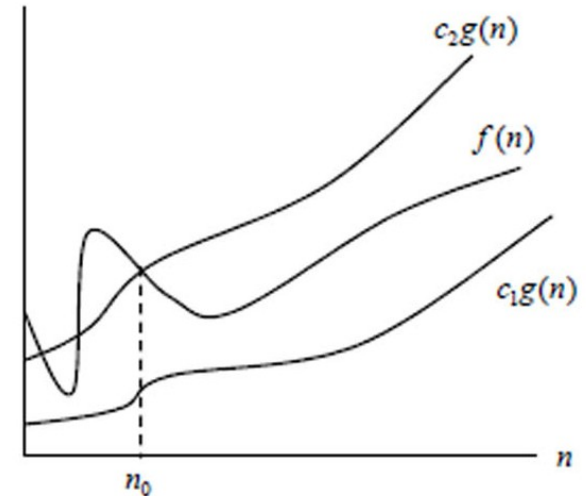
$f(n) = O(g(n))$



$f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$



$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$



$$n^2 = O(n^2)$$

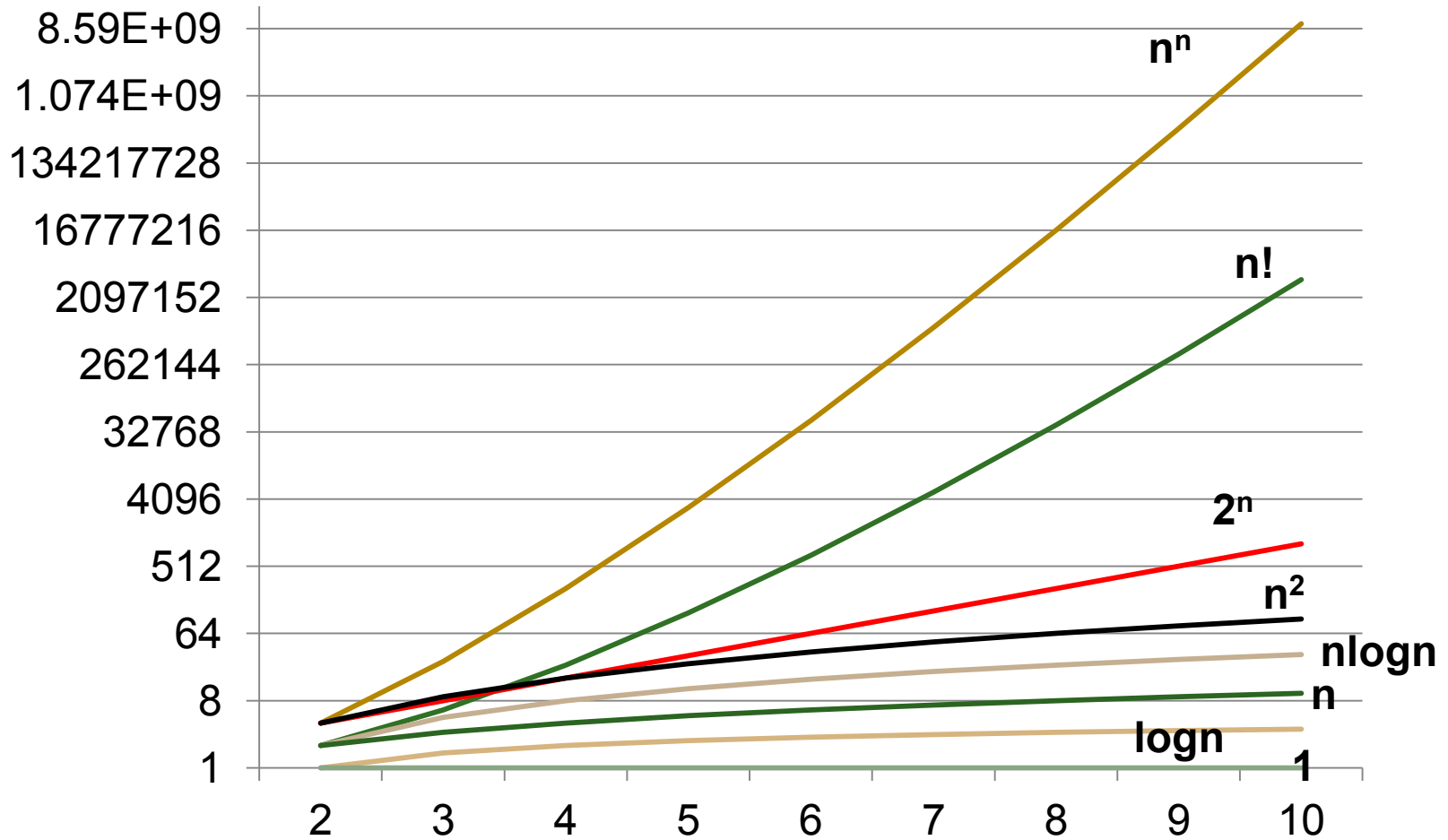
$$n^2 + n = O(n^2)$$

$$n^2 + 1000n = O(n^2)$$

$$5000n^2 + 1000n = O(n^2)$$

Constants do not matter!

Fast vs. slow algorithms



Polynomial vs. exponential

- Polynomial algorithms: run time is bounded by a polynomial function (addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, non-negative integer exponents)
 - n , n^2 , n^{5000} , etc.
 - Exponential algorithms: run time is bounded by an exponential function, where exponent is n
 - n^n , 2^n , etc.
-

Fast vs. Slow: Fibonacci

- Fibonacci series:

- $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$

- $F_1 = F_2 = 1$

- 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, ...



Two Fibonacci algorithms

RECURSIVEFIBONACCI(n)

1 **if** $n = 1$ **or** $n = 2$

2 **return** 1

3 **else**

4 $a \leftarrow$ RECURSIVEFIBONACCI($n - 1$)

5 $b \leftarrow$ RECURSIVEFIBONACCI($n - 2$)

6 **return** $a + b$

$O(2^n)$

FIBONACCI(n)

1 $F_1 \leftarrow 1$

2 $F_2 \leftarrow 1$

3 **for** $i \leftarrow 3$ **to** n

4 $F_i \leftarrow F_{i-1} + F_{i-2}$

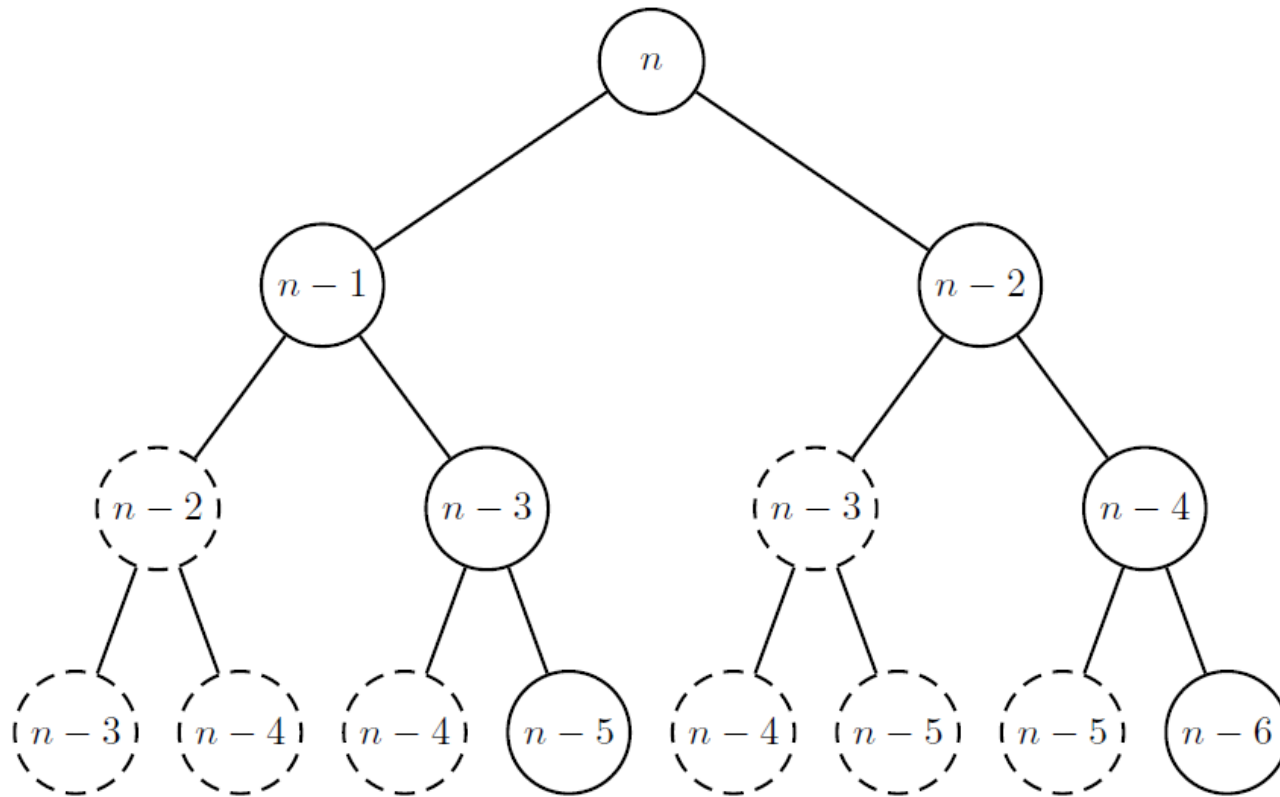
5 **return** F_n

$O(n)$

Recursion or no recursion?

Why is it not a good idea to write recursive algorithms when you *can* write non-recursive versions?

Recursion tree for Fibonacci



Sample problem: Change

- Input: An amount of money M , in cents
 - Output: Smallest number of coins that adds up to M
 - Quarters (25c): q
 - Dimes (10c): d
 - Nickels (5c): n
 - Pennies (1c): p
 - Or, in general, c_1, c_2, \dots, c_d (d possible denominations)
-

Algorithm design techniques

- **Exhaustive search / brute force**
 - Examine every possible alternative to find a solution

```
BRUTEFORCECHANGE( $M, \mathbf{c}, d$ )
1   $smallestNumberOfCoins \leftarrow \infty$ 
2  for each  $(i_1, \dots, i_d)$  from  $(0, \dots, 0)$  to  $(M/c_1, \dots, M/c_d)$ 
3       $valueOfCoins \leftarrow \sum_{k=1}^d i_k c_k$ 
4      if  $valueOfCoins = M$ 
5           $numberOfCoins \leftarrow \sum_{k=1}^d i_k$ 
6          if  $numberOfCoins < smallestNumberOfCoins$ 
7               $smallestNumberOfCoins \leftarrow numberOfCoins$ 
8               $bestChange \leftarrow (i_1, i_2, \dots, i_d)$ 
9  return  $(bestChange)$ 
```

Algorithm design techniques

- **Branch and bound:**
 - Omit a large number of alternatives when performing brute force



Algorithm design techniques

■ Greedy algorithms:

- Choose the “most attractive” alternative at each iteration

BETTERCHANGE(M, \mathbf{c}, d)

```
1  $r \leftarrow M$ 
2 for  $k \leftarrow 1$  to  $d$ 
3      $i_k \leftarrow r/c_k$ 
4      $r \leftarrow r - c_k \cdot i_k$ 
5 return  $(i_1, i_2, \dots, i_d)$ 
```

USCHANGE(M)

```
1  $r \leftarrow M$ 
2  $q \leftarrow r/25$ 
3  $r \leftarrow r - 25 \cdot q$ 
4  $d \leftarrow r/10$ 
5  $r \leftarrow r - 10 \cdot d$ 
6  $n \leftarrow r/5$ 
7  $r \leftarrow r - 5 \cdot n$ 
8  $p \leftarrow r$ 
9 return  $(q, d, n, p)$ 
```

Algorithm design techniques

■ **Dynamic Programming:**

- ❑ Break problems into subproblems; solve subproblems; merge solutions of subproblems to solve the real problem
 - ❑ Keep track of computations to avoid recomputing values that you already solved
 - ❑ *Dynamic programming table*
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DP example: Rocks game

- Two players
 - Two piles of rocks with p_1 rocks in pile 1, and p_2 rocks in pile 2
 - In turn, each player picks:
 - One rock from either pile 1 or pile 2; OR
 - One rock from pile 1 and one rock from pile 2
 - The player that picks the last rock wins
-

DP algorithm for Player 1

- Problem: $p_1 = p_2 = 10$
 - Solve more general problem of $p_1 = n$ and $p_2 = m$
 - It's hard to directly calculate for $n=5$ and $m=6$; we need to solve smaller problems
-

DP algorithm for Player 1

		<i>pile2</i>										
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>pile1</i>	0		W									
	1	W	W									
	2											
	3											
	4											
	5											
	6											
	7											
	8											
	9											
	10											

Initialize; obvious win for Player 1 for 1,0; 0,1 and 1,1

DP algorithm for Player 1

		<i>pile2</i>												
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
<i>pile1</i>	0		W	L										
	1	W	W											
	2	L												
	3													
	4													
	5													
	6													
	7													
	8													
	9													
	10													

Player 1 cannot win for 2,0 and 0,2

DP algorithm for Player 1

		<i>pile2</i>										
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>pile1</i>	0		W	L								
	1	W	W	W								
	2	L	W									
	3											
	4											
	5											
	6											
	7											
	8											
	9											
	10											

Player 1 can win for 2,1 if he picks one from pile2

Player 1 can win for 1,2 if he picks one from pile1

DP algorithm for Player 1

pile2

pile1

Player 1 can win for 2,1 if he picks one from pile2

Player 1 can win for 1,2 if he picks one from pile1

DP algorithm for Player 1

		<i>pile2</i>										
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>pile1</i>	0		W	L								
	1	W	W	W								
	2	L	W	L								
	3											
	4											
	5											
	6											
	7											
	8											
	9											
	10											

Player 1 cannot win for 2,2

Any move causes his opponent to go to W state

DP “moves”

When you are at position (i,j)

Go to:

Pick from pile 1: $(i-1, j)$

Pick from pile 2: $(i, j-1)$

Pick from both piles 1 and 2: $(i-1, j-1)$

DP final table

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
0		W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L
1	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W
2	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L
3	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W
4	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L
5	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W
6	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L
7	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W
8	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L
9	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W	W
10	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L	W	L

Also keep track of the choices you need to make to achieve W and L states: *traceback table*

Algorithm design techniques

- **Divide and conquer:**
 - Split, solve, merge
 - Mergesort
 - **Machine learning:**
 - Analyze previously available solutions, calculate statistics, apply most likely solution
 - **Randomized algorithms:**
 - Pick a solution randomly, test if it works. If not, pick another random solution
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Tractable vs intractable

- Tractable algorithms: there exists a solution with $O(f(n))$ run time, where $f(n)$ is *polynomial*
- P is the set of **problems** that are **known** to be *solvable* in polynomial time
- NP is the set of **problems** that are *verifiable* in polynomial time
 - NP : “*non-deterministic polynomial*”

$$P \subset NP$$

NP-hard

- *NP-hard*: non-deterministic polynomial hard
 - Set of problems that are “*at least as hard as the hardest problems in NP*”
 - There are no known polynomial time optimal solutions
 - There *may* be polynomial-time *approximate* solutions
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NP-Complete

- *A decision problem C is in NPC if :*
 - C is in NP
 - Every problem in NP is **reducible** to C in polynomial time

That means: if you could solve any NPC problem in polynomial time, then you can solve all of them in polynomial time

Decision problems: outputs “yes” or “no”

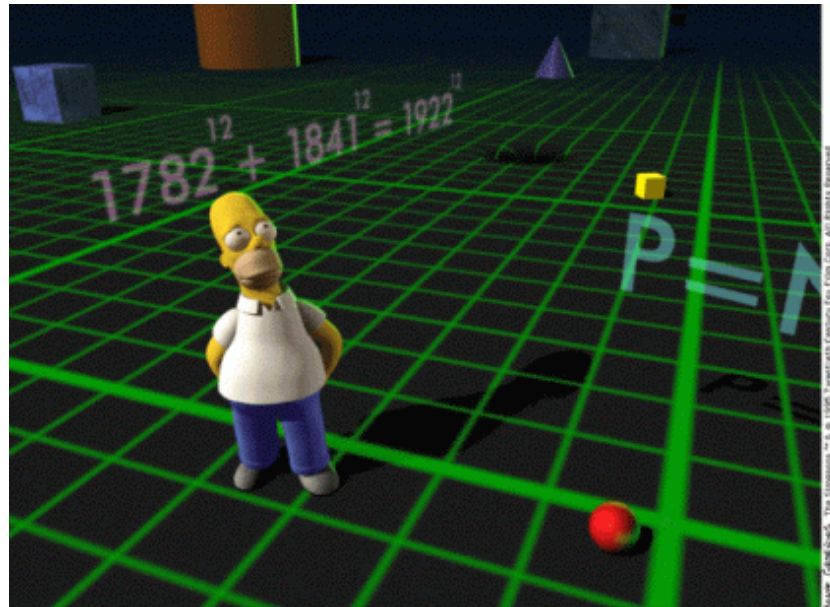
NP-intermediate

- Problems that are in NP; but not in either NPC or NP-hard

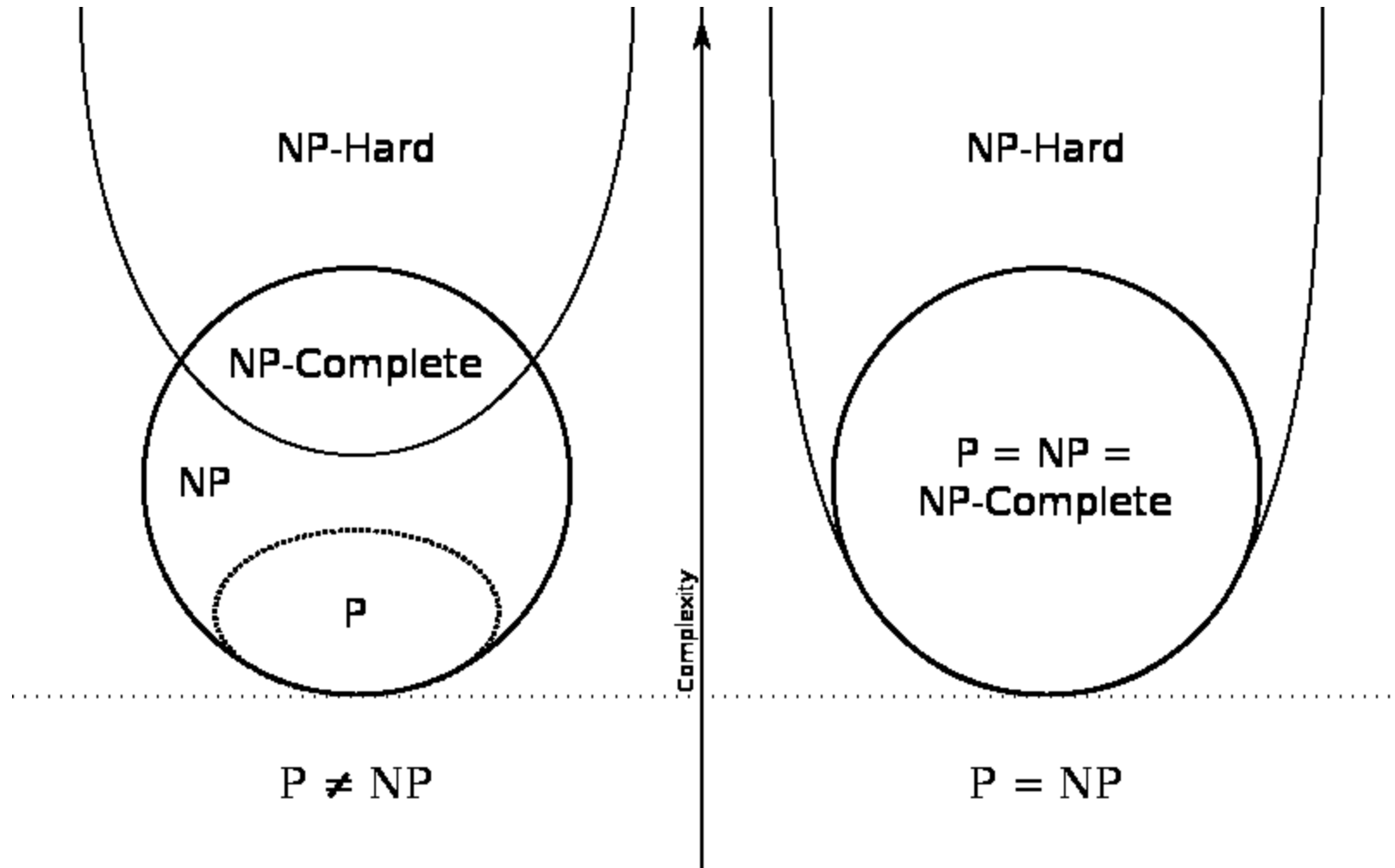


P vs. NP

- We do not know whether $P=NP$ or $P \neq NP$
 - Principal unsolved problem in computer science
 - It is believed that $P \neq NP$



P vs. NP vs. NPC vs. NP-hard



Examples

- P:
 - Sorting numbers, searching numbers, pairwise sequence alignment, etc.
 - NP-complete:
 - Subset-sum, traveling salesman, etc.
 - NP-intermediate:
 - Factorization, graph isomorphism, etc.
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Historical reference

- The notion of NP-Completeness: Stephen Cook and Leonid Levin independently in 1971
 - First NP-Complete problem to be identified: Boolean satisfiability problem (SAT)
 - Cook-Levin theorem
 - More NPC problems: Richard Karp, 1972
 - “21 NPC Problems”
 - Now there are thousands....
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