# 1 Syllabus

- 1. Asymptotic notation, recurrence.
- 2. Divide and Conquer.
- 3. Dynamic Programming.
- 4. Greedy Algorithm.
- 5. Graph Algorithm.
- 6. NPC

## 2 Basic

## 2.1 What is an algorithm?

Unambiguous, mechanically executable sequence of elementary operations.

There are certain types of algorithm:

Traditional (This courses main focus.) Modern algorithm research

Deterministic Randomized

Exact Approximate

Off-line On-line

Sequential Parallel

## 2.2 Input & Output

View algorithm as a function with well defined inputs mapping to specific outputs. For example:

**Input**: A[1...n] // Positive real number, distinct.

 $\mathbf{Output} \colon \mathit{MAXA}[i], 1 <= i <= n.$ 

## **2.2.1** Algorithm 1

Stupid way.

```
1: procedure FINDMAX
      for i = 1 to n do
2:
          count = 0
3:
4:
          for j = 1 to n do
             if A[i] > A[j] then
5:
                 count = count + 1
6:
             end if
7:
          end for
8:
          if count = n then
9:
             return A[i]
10:
11:
          end if
      end for
12:
13: end procedure
```

Algorithm 1: Stupid Find Max Algorithm

Analysis: Worst Case,  $n^2$  comparison.

#### 2.2.2 Algorithm 2

Sort & Find.

```
1: procedure FINDMAX

2: \overline{A} = sort(A)

3: return \overline{A}[n]

4: end procedure
```

Algorithm 2: Sort & Find Max Algorithm

**Analysis**: Worst Case, sorting takes  $c n \log n$  time.

#### 2.2.3 Algorithm 3

Dynamically store the biggest one.

```
1: procedure FINDMAX
     current = 1
2:
     for i = 2 to n do
3:
         if A[i] > A[current] then
4:
            current = i
5:
         end if
6:
7:
     end for
     return A[current]
8:
9: end procedure
```

Algorithm 3: Search & Find Max Algorithm

#### 2.3 Can we do better?

It depends on the operations allowed. For example the dropping the curtain and find the first appearing one.

# 3 Asymptotic Notation – big "O" notation

## 3.1 Growth of Functions

The growth of function in Table 1 increase downwards.

```
 \begin{array}{c|c} \text{Table 1: Function List} \\ \log_{10} n & \text{binary search} \\ n & \text{input} \\ n^2 & \text{pairs} \\ 10^{10}n^{10} & \\ 1.000.1^n & \\ 2^n & \text{Binary string of length n} \\ n! & \text{Permutation} \end{array}
```

Let f(n), g(n) be function.

## 3.2 big "O" notation

**Definition 3.2.1.**  $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ , if  $\exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, c \in \mathbb{R}^+$ , s.t.  $\forall n \geq n_0, f(n) \leq c * g(n)$ , and  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \neq \infty$ , i.e. it is  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < k$ , for some constant k.

Table 2 shows the basic definition of all the asymptotic notations.

Table 2: Definition for all Asymptotic Notation

f(n)	$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}$	relation
$\overline{\mathcal{O}(g(n))}$	$\neq \infty$	$\leq$
$\Omega(g(n))$	$\neq \infty$	$\leq$
$\Theta(g(n))$	=k>0	=
o(g(n))	=0	<
$\omega(g(n))$	$=\infty$	>

### 3.3 Asymptotic Relation's feature

**Theorem 3.3.1.** Multiplying by positive constant does NOT change asymptotic relations. i.e. if  $f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ , then  $100 * f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n))$ .

**Proof:** 
$$f(n) = \mathcal{O}(g(n)) \Rightarrow \exists n_0 \exists c, \forall n \geq n_0, f(n) \leq c * g(n),$$

then, 
$$\exists n_0 \exists c'$$
, s.t.  $\forall n \geq n_0$ ,  $100 * f(n) \leq c' * g(n) = 100c * g(n)$ .  $\Box$ 

Example:

$$C * 2^n = \Theta(2^n) \tag{1}$$

$$(C*2)^n \neq \Theta(2^n) \tag{2}$$

**Claim 3.3.2.** Show:  $2n \log(n) - 10n = \Theta(n \log(n))$ 

**Proof:** First show:  $2n \log(n) - 10n = \mathcal{O}(n \log(n))$ 

For  $n_0 = 1$ , c = 2

$$2n\log(n) - 10n \le 2n\log(n)$$

Now show:  $2n \log(n) - 10n = \Omega(n \log(n))$ 

For  $n_0 = 2^1 0$ , c = 1,

$$2n \log(n) - 10n \ge n \log(n) + n \log(2^{10}) - 10n$$
$$= n \log(n) + 10n - 10n$$
$$= n \log(n)$$

 $n_0 = 1 \ (n_0 = 2^{10})$  means n is at least 1 (or  $2^{10}$ ).  $\square$ 

Corollary 3.3.3.  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  means Any Constant.

**Attention**: Asymptotic notation has limit. It is not applicable for all scenarios.

## 3.4 Properties of log(n)

**Definition 3.4.1.**  $n = C^{\log_c n}, c > 1$ , dd  $\lg n = \log_2 n$ ,  $\ln n = \log_e n$ . Corollary 3.4.2.  $\forall a, b > 1$ 

$$\log_b(n) = \frac{\log_a(n)}{\log_a(b)}$$

$$\log_b(n) = \Theta(\log_a(n))$$
(3)

Corollary 3.4.3.  $\forall a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\log(a^n) = n * \log(a)$$
  

$$\log(a * b) = \log(a) + \log(b))$$
  

$$a^{\log(b)} = b^{\log(a)}$$
(4)

**Note**:  $\lg(n)$  is to n as n is to  $2^n$ .

## 3.5 Something More

**Theorem 3.5.1.** Let f(n) be a polynomial function, then  $\log(f(n)) = \Theta(\log(n))$ .

**Proof:** The asymptotic result of  $n^2$  and  $n^10$  are the same.  $\square$ 

**Definition 3.5.2.**  $\log^*(n) = o(\log \log \log \log \log \log n) = \alpha$ .

Example:  $\lg^*(2^{2^{2^{2^2}}}) = 5$ .

## 4 Series

#### 4.1 Some Definition

**Definition 4.1.1.** Harmonic Series:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = \Theta(\log(n))$$

#### **Definition 4.1.2.** Geometric Series:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} x^i = \frac{x^n - 1}{x - 1} = \begin{cases} \Theta(x^n) & \text{if } \forall x > 1, \\ \Theta(1) & \text{if } \forall x < 1, \\ \Theta(n) & \text{if } \forall x = 1. \end{cases}$$

#### **Definition 4.1.3.** Arithmetic Series:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \Theta(n^2)$$

#### 4.2 Some Theorem

Suppose I want to know if f(n) = o(g(n)).

**Theorem 4.2.1.** If  $\log(f(n)) = o(\log(g(n)), \text{ then } f(n) = o(g(n)).$ 

Example: Let  $f(n) = n^3$ ,  $g(n) = 2^n$ . Then  $\log(f(n)) = \log(n^3) = 3\log(n)$ ,  $\log(g(n)) = \log(2^n) = n$ .

i.e. 
$$\log(f(n)) < \log(g(n) \Rightarrow f(n) < g(n)$$

Note that this theorem stands for 'o', NOT TRUE for 'O'.

Example:  $\log(n^3) = \mathcal{O}(\log(n^2))$ , but  $n^3 \neq \mathcal{O}(n^2)$ .

## 5 Induction

#### 5.1 When to use?

Prove statement for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , s.t.  $n \geq n_0$ .

#### 5.2 Definition

Basically, induction has two parts:

1. Base case(s) – Sometimes there are more than one base cases.

Prove statement for some n. – Often  $n_0 = 0$  or 1.

#### 2. Induction Hypothesis

Assume statement hold true for all  $m \leq n$ .

Prove the hypothesis implies that it hold true for n + 1.

Note that the process may be different from previous, which just hypothesize n-1 is true and prove for n.

## 5.3 Example

# 5.3.1 Good Induction: Prove $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

**Proof:** We are required to prove  $\forall n > 0, \sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ .

Base Case:  $n=1, \sum_{i=1}^{1} i=1=\frac{1\times(1+1)}{2}$ . Hence the claim holds true for n=1.

Induction step: Let k > 1 be an arbitrary natural number.

Let us assume the induction hypothesis: for every k < n, assume  $\sum_{i=1}^{k} i = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$ . We will prove  $\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2}$ 

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k+1} i = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} i\right) + (n+1) = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} + \frac{2(k+1)}{2} = \frac{(k+1)(k+2)}{2} \tag{5}$$

Thus establishes the claim for k + 1.

<u>Conclusion</u>: By the principle of mathematical induction, the claim holds for all n.  $\square$ 

#### 5.3.2 Bad Induction: Prove all horses are the same color

The process is omitted. The key point is that: if the base case is not true for induction hypothesis, the induction will not be solid.

## 6 Recursion (Divide & Conquer)

- Recursion is like Induction's twin brother, whereas induction is similar to movie filmed, and recursion is similar to movie backward.
- Recursion design may be most important course topic.

• Recursion is a type of reduction. <sup>1</sup>

## 6.1 Definition of Recursion: a Powerful type of reduction

- 1. if problem size very small (think  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ ), just solve it.
- 2. reduce to one or more small instances of some problem.

**Question:** How are the smaller (but not  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  size) problem solved? Not your problem! Handled by the recursion fairy.

## 6.2 Tower of Hanoi

- 3 pegs, which hold n distinct sized disks.
- initially tmp, dst empty and src has all disks sorted.
- 3 rules:
  - 1. larger cannot be placed on smaller.
  - 2. only one disks can move at a time.
  - 3. move all disks to dst.

Question: How long until the world end?

#### Solution

# 7 Dynamic Programming

## 7.1 Rod Cutting

- steel rod of length n, where n is some integer.
- P[1...n], where P[i] is market price for rod of length i.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Reduction is to solve problem A using a black box for B. Typically B is smaller.

#### Question:

Suppose you can cut rod to any integer length for free. How much money can you made?

#### **Analysis:**

- Consider leftmost cut of optimal solution.
   cut can be at positions 1...n.
   If leftmost cut at i, then you get P[i] for leftmost piece and then optimally sell remaining n i length rod.
- Don't know where to make first cut, so try them all and find

$$\max(0, \max(P[i] + cutRod(n-i)))$$

So, the first attempt of the algorithm could be described as algorithm 4.

```
1: procedure CutRod(n)
       if n = 0 then
2:
                                                            \triangleright If the remaining rod length is 0.
           return 0
3:
       end if
4:
       q = 0
5:
       for i = 1 to n do
6:
           q = \max(q, P[i] + \text{CutRod}(n-i))
7:
       end for
8:
       return q
9:
10: end procedure
```

Algorithm 4: First Attempt of Solving Cutting Rod Problem

Running time of algorithm  $4:T(n) = n + \sum_{i=0}^{n-i} T(i)$ , which is clearly **Exponential** since there are a lot of subproblem overlap!

#### 7.1.1 Memoized Version

algorithm 5 illustrates the memoized version of the algorithm in algorithm 4

```
1: procedure MemRodCut(n)
                                                                     \triangleright Globally define R[1..n]
 2:
       if n = 0 then
          return 0
 3:
       end if
 4:
       if R[n] undefined then
 5:
 6:
          q = 0
          for i = 1 to n do
 7:
              q = \max(q, P[i] + \text{MEMRODCUT}(n-i))
 8:
           end for
 9:
           R[n] = q
10:
       end if
11:
12:
       return R[n]
13: end procedure
```

Algorithm 5: Memoized Version of Solving Cutting Rod Problem

Note that R[1...n] is filled in form <u>left to right</u>. It means we can store the result and use it later, which brings us to the dynamic programming version of the algorithm.

#### 7.1.2 Dynamic Programming Version

algorithm 6 illustrates the dynamic programming version of the algorithm according to the memoized version algorithm 5.

```
1: procedure DPRodCut(n)
2:
      Let R[0...n] be an array.
      R[0] = 0
3:
4:
      for j = 1 to n do
          q = 0
5:
          for i = 0 to j do
6:
             q = \max(q, P[i] + R[j - i])
7:
          end for
8:
9:
          R[i] = q
      end for
10:
      return R[n]
11:
12: end procedure
```

Algorithm 6: Dynamic Programming Version of Solving Cutting Rod Problem

Running time of algorithm 6:  $T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^2)$ .

Note that the process only computes the total number. If we are to know how to cut, we can store the cutting position during the progress.

Define C[1...n], and replace the inner for loop in algorithm 6 as:

```
1: for i = 0 to j do

2: q = \max(q, P[i] + R[j - i])

3: C[j] = i

4: end for

5: R[i] = q
```

The for loop does the following:

- C[j] stores last leftmost cut length for rod of length j.
- C[n] says where to make first

Thus C[n-C[n]] tells the second cut.

## 7.2 Solving DP problem

According to previous examples, we can summarize the general method to solve DP problem.

- 1. Write recursive solution, explain why the solution is correct.
- 2. Identify all subproblems considered.
- 3. Described how to store subproblems.
- 4. Find order to evaluate subproblems, s.t. subproblems you depend on evaluated *before* current subproblem.
- 5. Running Time: time to fill an entry X size table.
- 6. Write DP/Memoized algorithm.