

CS653 Analysis of Algorithms

1 Mathematical Foundations

1.1 Common functions

Reading: CLRS 3.2

- Monotonicity: Definitions of monotonically increasing/decreasing or strictly increasing/decreasing functions.
Important note: In this course, since functions are used to represent time complexity, we restrict our attention to only increasing functions that map positive number(s) to positive number.
- Ceilings and floors: $\lceil x \rceil$ and $\lfloor x \rfloor$, where x can be any real number.
 $x - 1 < \lfloor x \rfloor \leq x \leq \lceil x \rceil < x + 1$, $\lceil n/2 \rceil + \lfloor n/2 \rfloor = n$.
- Modular arithmetic: $a \bmod n = a - \lfloor a/n \rfloor n$. $a \equiv b \bmod n$ iff $a \bmod n = b \bmod n$.
- Polynomials: $p(n) = \sum_{i=0}^d a_i n^i$. (Note: Coefficients a_i and degree d are constants.)
- Exponentials: $a^0 = 1$, $a^{-1} = \frac{1}{a}$, $a^m \cdot a^n = a^{m+n}$, $a^m / a^n = a^{m-n}$.
 $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^i}{i!}$. (Note: $e = 2.71828\dots$)
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{x}{n})^n = e^x$.
- Logarithms: $\log n = \log_2 n$ or $\log_c n$ for some c we don't care about.
 $\log(ab) = \log a + \log b$, $\log(\frac{a}{b}) = \log a - \log b$.
 $\log_a b = \frac{\log_c b}{\log_c a}$.
 $\log_a b^n = n \log_a b \neq (\log_a b)^n$, $a^{\log_a n} = n$, $a^{\log_c b} = b^{\log_c a}$.
 $\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$.
- Factorials: $n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$.
 $n! = n \cdot (n-1)!$, $0! = 1$. (Recursive definition)
Sterling's approximation: $n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} (\frac{n}{e})^n (1 + \Theta(\frac{1}{n}))$. (Note: Θ means having the same order of magnitude.)
The following approximation also holds: $n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} (\frac{n}{e})^n e^{\alpha_n}$, where $\frac{1}{12n+1} < \alpha_n < \frac{1}{12n}$.
 $\log n! = \Theta(n \log n)$.
- Functional iteration: A function f applied iteratively i times to an initial argument n . Defined recursively, $f^{(0)}(n) = n$ and $f^{(i)}(n) = f(f^{(i-1)}(n))$ for $i > 0$. (Note: The distinction between $f^{(i)}(n)$ and $f^i(n)$.)
For example, if $f(n) = 2n$ then $f^{(i)}(n) = 2^i n$.
- The log star function: $\log^* n = \min\{i \geq 0 : \log^{(i)} n \leq 1\}$, which is a very slowly growing function. $\log^* 2 = 1$, $\log^* 4 = 2$, $\log^* 16 = 3$, $\log^* 65536 = 4$, $\log^* 2^{65536} = 5$.
- Fibonacci numbers: $F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1, F_i = F_{i-1} + F_{i-2}$ for $i \geq 2$.
 $F_i = \frac{\phi^i - \hat{\phi}^i}{\sqrt{5}}$, where $\phi = \frac{1+\sqrt{5}}{2} = 1.61803\dots$ is called the golden ratio, $\hat{\phi} = \frac{1-\sqrt{5}}{2} = -0.61803\dots$ is the conjugate of ϕ , and both are roots of equation $x^2 = x + 1$.

1.2 Asymptotic notation

Reading: CLRS 3.1

- Used to compare the growth rate or order of magnitude of increasing functions. "Asymptotic" describes the behavior of functions in the limit, for sufficiently large values of variables.
- $f(n) = O(g(n))$ if $\exists c, n_0$ such that $f(n) \leq cg(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$.

- $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ if $\exists c, n_0$ such that $f(n) \geq cg(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$.
- $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if $\exists c_1, c_2, n_0$ such that $c_1g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2g(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$.
- $f(n) = o(g(n))$ if $\forall c \exists n_0$ such that $f(n) < cg(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$.
- $f(n) = \omega(g(n))$ if $\forall c \exists n_0$ such that $f(n) > cg(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$.
- *Remarks:*
 - In CLRS, the above notation is defined as sets of functions. For example, $f(n) \in O(g(n))$.
 - Comparison of growth rates of two functions: $O(\leq)$, $\Omega(\geq)$, $\Theta(=)$, $o(<)$, $\omega(>)$.
 - $f(n) = O(g(n))$ iff $g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$, and $f(n) = o(g(n))$ iff $g(n) = \omega(f(n))$.
 - $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ iff $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$.
 - $f(n) = O(g(n))$ if $f(n) = o(g(n))$, and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ if $f(n) = \omega(g(n))$.
 - An alternative definition for $f(n) = o(g(n))$ is $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$. Likewise, an alternative definition for $f(n) = \omega(g(n))$ is $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \infty$.
 - Asymptotic notation ignores constant factors and lower-order terms.
 - *Rule of thumb:* constant \leq polylogarithmic \leq polynomial \leq exponential \leq superexponential.
Example: 1, $\sqrt{\log n}$, $\ln n$, $(\log n)^2$, \sqrt{n} , $\sqrt{n} \log n$, n , $n \log n$, n^2 , $n^{\log \log n}$, 2^n , $n2^n$, $n!$, 2^{2^n} .
 - Taking logarithms helps: If $f(n) = O(g(n))$ then $\log f(n) = O(\log g(n))$ and if $\log f(n) = o(\log g(n))$ then $f(n) = O(g(n))$.
 - Be cautious when seeing asymptotic notations in summations and recursions. For examples, $\sum_{i=1}^n O(i)$ and $T(n) = T(n-1) + O(n)$.

1.3 Summations/Series

Reading: CLRS A

- Property of linearity: $\sum_{i=1}^n (ca_i + b_i) = c \sum_{i=1}^n a_i + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n \Theta(f(i)) = \Theta(\sum_{i=1}^n f(k))$.
- Arithmetic sum/series: $\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{1}{2}n(n+1)$.
- Geometric sum/series: $\sum_{i=0}^n r^i = 1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^n = \frac{r^{n+1}-1}{r-1}$ for $r \neq 1$. $1 + r + r^2 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-r}$ for $|r| < 1$.
- Harmonic series: $H_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} = \ln n + \gamma + \frac{\epsilon}{2n}$ for $\gamma = 0.5772156649 \dots$ (Euler's constant) and $0 < \epsilon < 1$.
Example: Prove that $\ln(n+1) < H_n < \ln n + 1$. (Approximation by integrals)
Remark: Use integrals to bound summations: Assume $f(x)$ is monotonically decreasing, then $\int_m^{n+1} f(x)dx \leq \sum_{k=m}^n f(k) \leq \int_{m-1}^n f(x)dx$. (What if the function is monotonically increasing?)
- Binomial series: $\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{2} + \dots + \binom{n}{n} = 2^n$.
- Other useful sums:
 - $\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{1}{6}n(n+1)(2n+1)$. (A direct proof starting with $\sum_{j=1}^i (2j-1) = i^2$)
 - $\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = (\sum_{i=1}^n i)^2$. (Proved by induction)
 - $\sum_{i=1}^n ix^{i-1} = \frac{nx^{n+1} - (n+1)x^n + 1}{(x-1)^2}$. (Proved by using derivatives)

1.4 Proof techniques

- Proving by contradiction:

The following three statements are logically equivalent:

1. If A then B .
2. If not B then not A .
3. If A and not B then not C , where C is a proved fact or axiom.

Example: Use contradiction to prove that (a) There are infinitely many prime numbers and (b) $\sqrt{2}$ is irrational.

- Proving by induction:

The following statements are mathematically equivalent:

1. $P(n)$ for integers $n \geq c$.
2. Simple integer induction: $P(c)$ and $P(n-1) \rightarrow P(n)$. (What are inductive basis, inductive hypothesis, and inductive step?)
3. General integer induction: $P(c)$ and $(\forall i: c \leq i \leq n-1) P(i) \rightarrow P(n)$.

Example: Use induction to prove that (a) $\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = (\sum_{i=1}^n i)^2$ and (b) Every positive composite integer can be expressed as a product of prime numbers.

1.5 Solving recurrences

Reading: CLRS 4.3-4.5

- Recurrence is an equation or inequality that defines a function in terms of the function's values on smaller inputs. For example, $T(1) = \Theta(1)$ (boundary condition) and $T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + \Theta(n)$ for $n \geq 2$ (recurrence) or almost equivalently, $T(1) = 1$ and $T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + n$ for $n \geq 2$.
- *Remark:* We may neglect some technical details due to our interest in asymptotic solutions:
 - Relax the integer argument requirement on functions. For example, use $T(n/2)$ instead of $T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$ or $T(\lceil n/2 \rceil)$.
 - Assume boundary condition $T(n) = \Theta(1)$ for small n if not given explicitly. Asymptotically, $\Theta(1)$ is the same as any constant c no matter how large it is.
 - Use $\Theta(f(n))$ or $f(n)$ at will in the recursive definition since this will have no affect on the final answer when expressed in Θ .

- The iteration method: Apply recurrence until a summation pattern can be figured out.

Example: $T(n) = 3T(\frac{n}{4}) + n$. (Assume $n = 4^k$.)

Example: Solve $T(n) = \sqrt{n}T(\sqrt{n}) + n$ by iteration.

- The recursion-tree method: Similar to the iteration method, use a tree for bookkeeping. Suitable for solving recurrence in big-O, where the function appears more than once on the right-hand-side of the recursive equation

Example: $T(n) = T(\frac{n}{3}) + T(\frac{2n}{3}) + n$.

Example: Solve $T(n) = T(\alpha n) + T((1-\alpha)n) + n$, where $0 < \alpha < 1$, by recursion tree.

- The master method:

Theorem: If $T(n) = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + f(n)$ for $a \geq 1$ and $b > 1$, then

(a) if $f(n) = O(n^{(\log_b a) - \epsilon})$ for some $\epsilon > 0$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$;

(b) if $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$;

(c) if $f(n) = \Omega(n^{(\log_b a) + \epsilon})$ for $\epsilon > 0$ and if $af(\frac{n}{b}) \leq cf(n)$ for $c < 1$ and all large n , then $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

Remark: The master method does not cover all cases.

Example: $T(n) = 3T(\frac{n}{4}) + n \log n$. ($a = 3$, $b = 4$, and $f(n) = n \log n$. Case (c) applies.)

Example: Solve $T(n) = 4T(\frac{n}{2}) + f(n)$ by the master theorem for $f(n) = n, n^2, n^3$.

Example: $T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + n \log n$. (The master theorem does not work.)

- The substitution method: Guess and verify.

Example: Let $T(n) \leq cn$ for $n \leq 49$ and $T(n) \leq T(\frac{n}{5}) + T(\frac{3n}{4}) + cn$ for $n \geq 50$. (Guess $T(n) \leq 20cn$ and then prove by induction. Can the recursion tree method be used?)

Remarks:

- Making a good guess.
- To prove $T(n) = O(f(n))$, sometimes we use an inequality stronger than $T(n) \leq cf(n)$ in the induction, such as $T(n) \leq 20cf(n)$ in the earlier example or $T(n) \leq cf(n) - d$ which can be used for solving $T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + 1$.
- Avoid using asymptotic notation in the inductive proof.

Example: $T(n) = T(n-1) + n$. What is wrong with the following proof?

First guess $T(n) = O(n)$.

Inductive basis: For $n = 1$, $T(1) = 1 = O(1)$.

Inductive step: Assume $T(n-1) = O(n-1)$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= T(n-1) + n \\ &= O(n-1) + n \\ &= O(n). \end{aligned}$$