# Chapter 0 Prologue

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**Further reading:** The notes are based on Chapter 0 of Dasgupta, Papadimitriou and Vazirani. Algorithms. 2008. McGraw-Hill. New York.

#### 1 Data structure and algorithms

#### 1.1 Numbers and additions

Solution 1:

Data structure: Roman numerals (none positional)

Algorithm: addition

Example: MCDXLVIII + DCCCXII = ?

- I = 1
- X = 10 C = 100
- M = 1000

- IV = 4 V = 5

- XL = 40
   L = 50
   CD = 400
   D = 500

Solution 2:

Data structure: Arabic numerals (positional) invented in Indian

Algorithm: addition

Example: 1448 + 812 = ?

The word "algorithm" is coined after *Al Khwarizmi*, the author who wrote an Arabic textbook to promote the use of these numbers.

## 1.2 Maps and routing

Data structure: a highway map

Algorithm: routing—find the shortest path from one city to another on the map.

### 2 Fibonacci

$$F_n = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 0\\ 1 & n = 1\\ F_{n-2} + F_{n-1} & n > 1 \end{cases}$$
 (1)

An algorithm to compute the n-th Fibonacci number:

```
function fib1(n)
if n=0: return 0
if n=1: return 1
return fib1(n-1)+fib1(n-2)
```

#### **Questions:**

1. Is it correct?

It is correct as it follows the definition of the Fibonacci number.

2. How much time does it take, as a function of n?

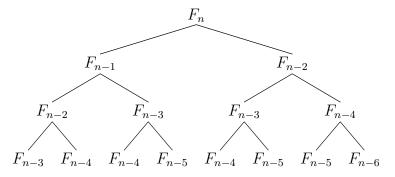
Let T(n) be the total number of operations needed to compute  $F_n$ .

Evidently,

$$T(n) \le 2$$
, for  $n \le 1$ 

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + T(n-2) + 3$$
, for  $n > 1$ 

Here 3 comes from 2 comparisons with the base cases and one addition of the  $F_{n-1}$  and  $F_{n-2}$ .



The runtime is about exponential to n—very slow if n is large.

If n is even:

$$T(n) > 2T(n-2) > 2^2T(n-4) > \dots > 2^{n/2}T(0) = 2^{n/2} \approx 1.414^n$$

If n is odd:

$$T(n) > 2T(n-2) > 2^2T(n-4) > \dots > 2^{(n-1)/2}T(1) = 2^{(n-1)/2} \approx 1.414^{n-1}$$

3. Can we do better? Yes.

```
function fib2(n)
if n=0: return 0
create an array f[0...n]
f[0] = 0, f[1] = 1
for i = 2 ... n:
  f[i] = f[i-1] + f[i-2]
return f[n]
```

Run time: loop will be done n-1 times, each time only addition will be done. Hence the total time is linear in n.

Note: the above analysis assumed that numbers can be added in constant time. However, addition depends on the width of the numbers to be added, proportional to the value of n generally.

## 3 Asymptotic notations

Asymptotic notation: computer-independent characterization of an algorithm's efficiency as the input size increases.

### Compare:

- Exact runtime T(n)
  - What is the exact time taken on an input size of n?
  - Relevant at all *n*
  - Difficult to predict on paper before a program is coded
  - Computer dependent
  - Improve by code optimization dependent on the programming language:

E.g., argument passing by reference is more efficient than passing by value in C++.

- Asymptotic runtime T(n) (change of T(n) as n increases)
  - If n doubles, will runtime double, quadruple, or exponentially increase?
  - Relevant at large n
  - Often possible to predict on paper before a program is coded
  - Computer independent
  - Improve by efficient algorithm design independent of programming languages:

E.g. Linear search versus binary search

## 3.1 Big-O notation: an asymptotic upper-bound on function growth

**Example 3.1.**  $5n^3 + 4n + 3$  can be reduced to  $5n^3$  because the other two terms are less significant as n grows. Written as  $O(n^3)$ .

**Definition 3.2** (Big-O). Let f(n) and g(n) be functions from positive integers to positive reals. We say f = O(g) (f grows no faster than g) if there is a constant c > 0 such that

$$f(n) \le cg(n)$$
 for all  $n > n_0$ 

**Theorem 3.3.** Given f(n), g(n) > 0, f(n) = O(g(n)) if and only if

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{f(n)}{g(n)}=c\quad (0\leq c<\infty)$$

Note: c can be zero, but not infinity  $\infty$  here.

#### Example 3.4.

$$k(n) = 2n + 20, \quad p(n) = n^2$$

**By definition:** When  $n \ge 6$ , k < p. Therefore c = 1 and  $n_0 = 6$ , we have

$$k(n) \le cp(n) \quad n \ge n_0$$

which implies

$$k(n) = O(p(n))$$

By limit:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{k(n)}{p(n)}=\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{2n+20}{n^2}=0$$

Therefore k = O(p).

**Example 3.5.** k(n) *versus* 

$$h(n) = n + 1$$

By taking the limit, we have

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{k(n)}{h(n)}=\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{2n+20}{n+1}=2$$

implying that

$$k = O(h)$$

By taking the limit, we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{h(n)}{k(n)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n+1}{2n+20} = \frac{1}{2}$$

implying that

$$h = O(k)$$

**Example 3.6.**  $\ln n = O(n)$ .

By limit

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\ln n}{n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1/n}{1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

The second term is the consequence of applying the L'Hôpital's rule.

Therefore, we have  $\ln n = O(n)$ , or

Logarithm functions grow slower than linear functions.

## 3.2 Big- $\Omega$ defines a lower-bound on function growth

We define g(n) to be a lower bound of f(n), written as  $f = \Omega(g)$ , if and only if g = O(f) (f is an upper bound of g).

**Example 3.7.** As we have already established k = O(p), it follows that  $p = \Omega(k)$ , or 2n + 20 is a lower bound of  $n^2$ .

**Theorem 3.8.** Given f(n), g(n) > 0,  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$  if and only if

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = c \quad (0 \le c < \infty)$$

Note: c can be zero, but not infinity here.

**Example 3.9.**  $2^{n} = \Omega(n)$ .

By limit

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n}{2^n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{2^n \ln 2} = 0$$

The second term is the consequence of applying the L'Hôpital's rule.

Therefore, we have  $2^n = \Omega(n)$ , implying

Exponential functions grow faster than linear functions.

## 3.3 Big-⊖ defines the tight bound on function growth

We define g(n) to be a tight bound of f(n), written as  $f = \Theta(g)$ , if and only if f = O(g) and  $f = \Omega(g)$ .

**Example 3.10.** As we have already established k = O(h) and h = O(k), we have  $k = \Theta(h)$  and also  $h = \Theta(k)$ .

**Commonsense rules:** (to quickly guess the bound or order of a function)

- 1. multiplicative constant:  $14n^2$  becomes  $n^2$
- 2.  $n^a$  dominates  $n^b$  if a > b:  $n^2$  dominates n
- 3. Exponential dominates polynomial:  $3^n$  dominates  $n^{100}$
- 4. Polynomial dominates logarithm:  $n^{0.5}$  dominates  $(\log n)^3$