

Chapter 3



The Fundamentals: Algorithms and the Integers

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Objectives

- Algorithms
- The Growth of Functions
- Complexity of Algorithms
- The Integers and Division
- Primes and Greatest Common Divisors
- Integers and Algorithms

3.1- Algorithms

An algorithm is a finite set of precise instructions for performing a computation or for solving a problem.

Specifying an algorithm: natural language/ pseudocode

Properties of an algorithm

- **Input**: An alg. has input values from a specified set
- **Output**: From each set of **IV** an alg. **produces OV** from a specified set. The **OV** are the **solution to the problem**
- **Definiteness**: The steps of an alg. must be defined precisely
- **Correctness**: produce the correct OV for each set of IV
- **Finiteness**: produce the desired OV after a finite number of steps for any IV in the set.
- **Effectiveness**: perform each step of an alg. exactly and in a finite amount of time.
- **Generality**: be applicable for all problems of the desired form, not just for a particular set of input values.

Algorithm – It is a well-defined, systematic logical approach that comes with a step-by-step procedure for computers to solve any given program.

Program – It refers to the code (written by programmers) for any program that follows the basic rules of the concerned programming language.

Pseudocode – A pseudocode is basically a simplified version of the programming codes. These codes exist in the plain English language, and it makes use of various short phrases for writing a program code before implementing it in any programming language.

Finding the Maximum Element in a Finite Sequence

Procedure max ($a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$: integers)

max := a_1

for $i := 2$ **to** n

if max < a_i **then** max := a_i

{max is the largest element}

The Linear Search

Procedure linear search (x : integer, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n : distinct integers)

$i := 1$

while ($i \leq n$ and $x \neq a_i$)

$i := i + 1$

if $i \leq n$ **then** $location := i$

else $location := 0$

{location is the subscript of the term that equals x , or is 0 if x is not found}

The Binary Search

procedure **binary search** (x :integer, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n : increasing integers)

$i:=1$ { i is left endpoint of search interval }

$j:=n$ { j is right endpoint of search interval }

while $i < j$

begin

$m := \lfloor (i+j)/2 \rfloor$

if $x > a_m$ **then** $i := m+1$

else $j := m$

end

if $x = a_i$ **then** $\text{location} := i$

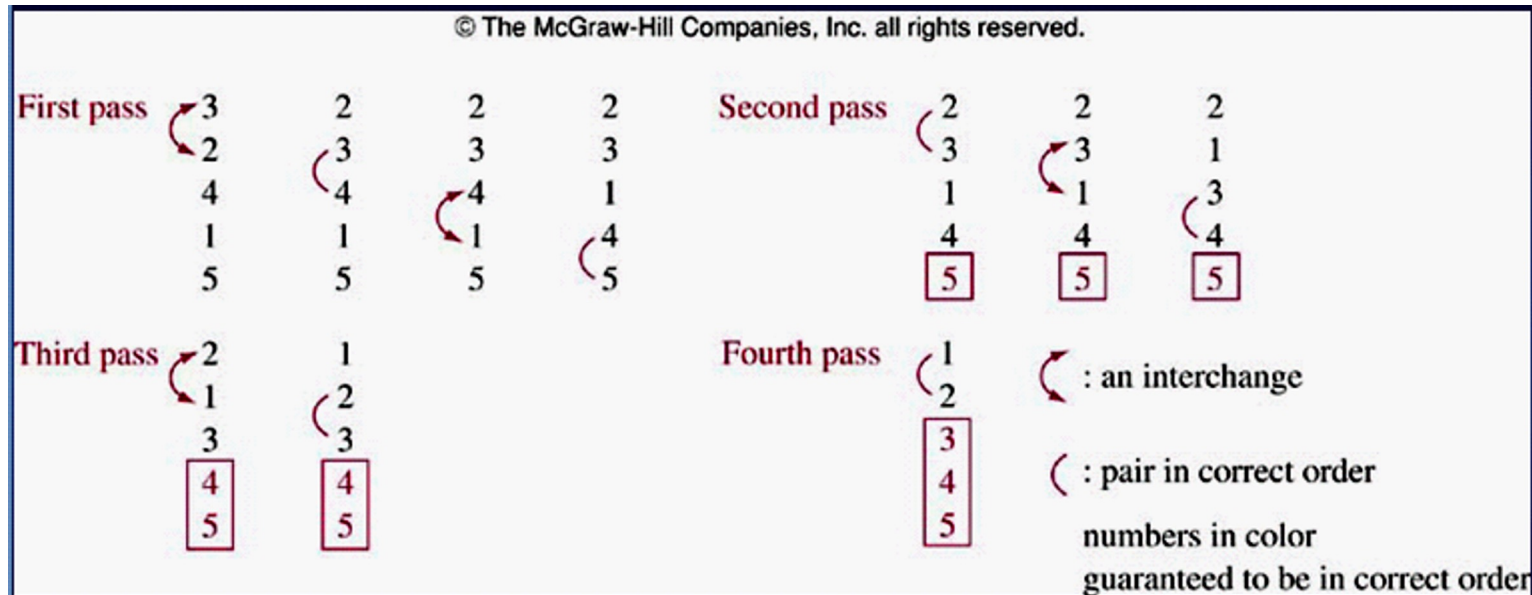
else $\text{location} := 0$

{location is the subscript of the term that equals x , or is 0 if x is not found}

Sorting

- Putting elements into a list in which the elements are in increasing order.
- There are some sorting algorithms
- Bubble sort
- Insertion sort
- Selection sort (exercise p. 178)
- Binary insertion sort (exercise p. 179)
- Shaker sort (exercise p.259)
- Merge sort and quick sort (section 4.4)
- Tournament sort (10.2)

Bubble Sort



procedure bubble sort (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n : real numbers with $n \geq 2$)

for $i := 1$ **to** $n-1$

for $j := 1$ **to** $n-i$

if $a_j > a_{j+1}$ **then interchange** a_j **and** a_{j+1}

$\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ are sorted}

Insertion Sort

procedure insertion sort (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n : real numbers with $n \geq 2$)

for $j := 2$ **to** n { j : position of the examined element }

begin

{ finding out the right position of a_j }

$i := 1$

while $a_j > a_i$ $i := i + 1$

$m := a_j$ { save a_j }

{ moving $j-i$ elements backward }

for $k := 0$ **to** $j-i-1$ $a_{j-k} := a_{j-k-1}$

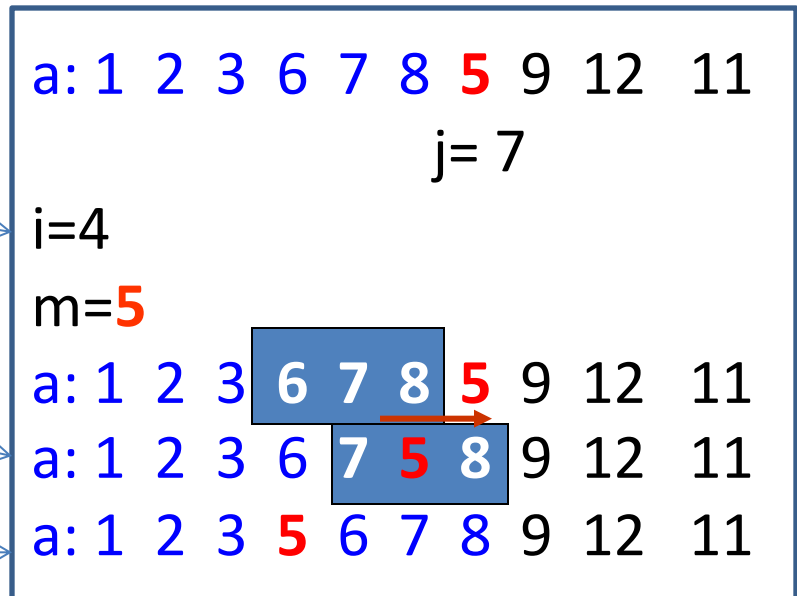
{ move a_j to the position i }

$a_i := m$

end

{ a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are sorted }

It is usually not the most efficient



Greedy Algorithm

- They are usually used to solve optimization problems: Finding out a solution to the given problem that either minimizes or maximizes the value of some parameter.
- Selecting the best choice at each step, instead of considering all sequences of steps that may lead to an optimal solution.
- Some problems:
 - Finding a route between two cities with smallest total mileage (number of miles that a person passed).
 - Determining a way to encode messages using the fewest bits possible.
 - Finding a set of fiber links between network nodes using the least amount of fiber.

3.2- The Growth of Functions

- The complexity of an algorithm that acts on a sequence depends on the number of elements of sequence.
- The growth of a function is an approach that help selecting the right algorithm to solve a problem among some of them.
- **Big-O** notation is a mathematical representation of the growth of a function.

3.2.1-Big-O Notation

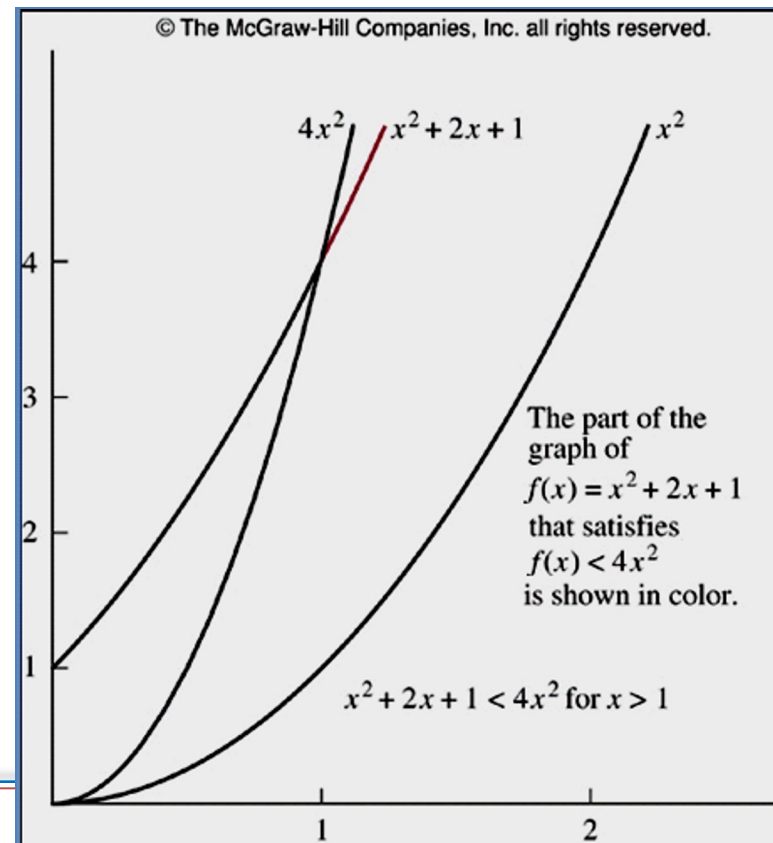
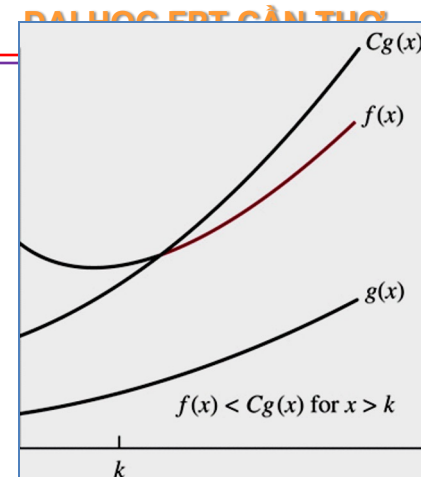
Definition:

Let f and g be functions from the set of integers or the set of real numbers to the set of real numbers. We say that $f(x)$ is

$O(g(x))$ if there are constants C and k such that $|f(x)| \leq C|g(x)|$ whenever $x > k$

Example: Show that $f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$ is $O(x^2)$

- Examine with $x > 1 \rightarrow x^2 > x$
- $\rightarrow f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1 < x^2 + 2x^2 + x^2$
- $\rightarrow f(x) < 4x^2$
- \rightarrow Let $g(x) = x^2$
- $\rightarrow C=4, k=1, |f(x)| \leq C|g(x)|$
- $\rightarrow f(x)$ is $O(x^2)$



Big-O: Theorem 1

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$, where a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are real number, then $f(x)$ is $O(x^n)$

If $x > 1$

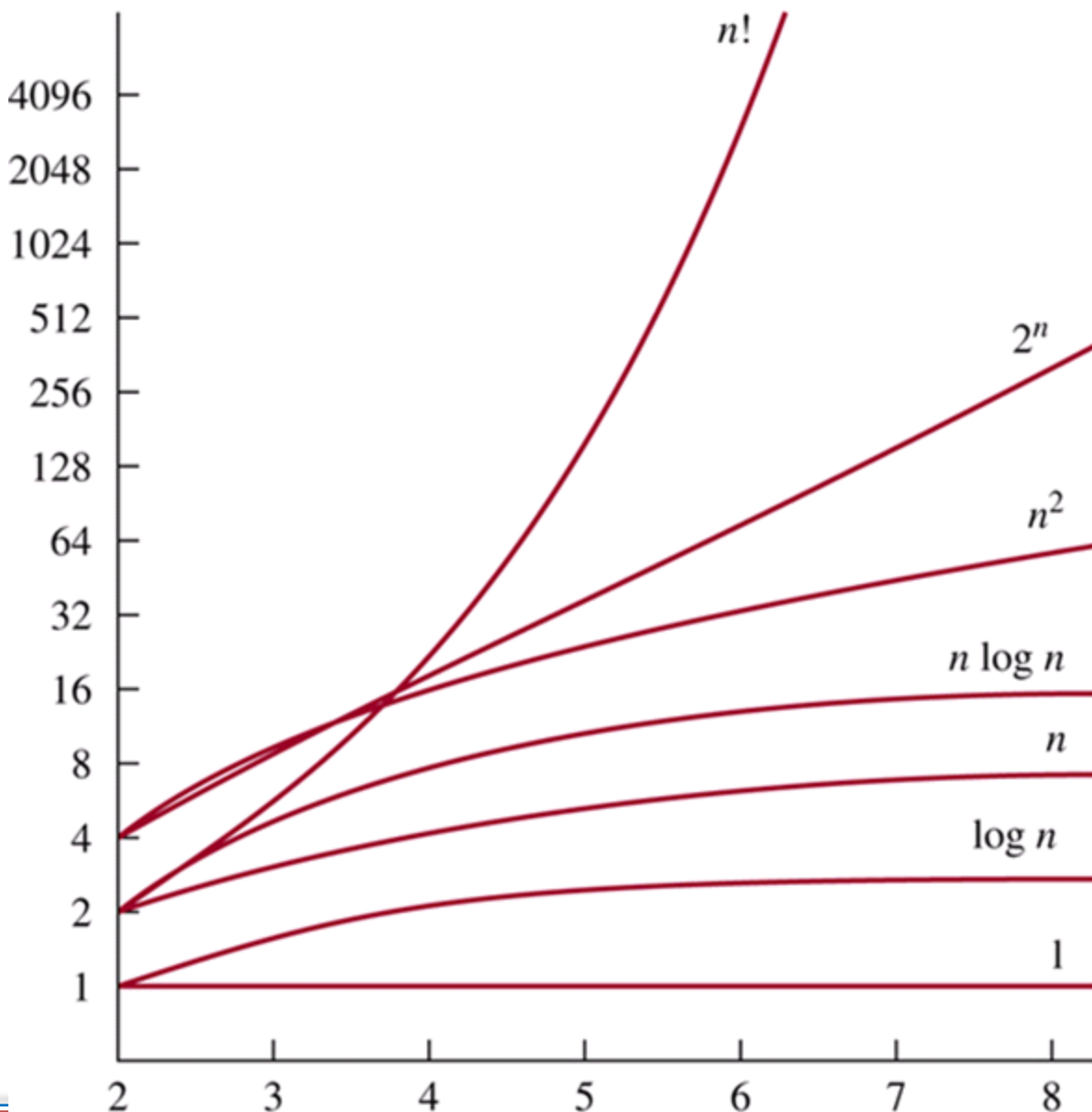
$$\begin{aligned} |f(x)| &= |a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0| \\ &\leq |a_n x^n| + |a_{n-1} x^{n-1}| + \dots + |a_1 x| + |a_0| \quad \{ \text{triangle inequality} \} \\ &\leq x^n (|a_n| + |a_{n-1} x^{n-1}/x^n| + \dots + |a_1 x/x^n| + |a_0/x^n|) \\ &\leq x^n (|a_n| + |a_{n-1}/x| + \dots + |a_1/x^{n-1}| + |a_0/x^n|) \\ &\leq x^n (|a_n| + |a_{n-1}| + \dots + |a_1| + |a_0|) \end{aligned}$$

Let $C = |a_n| + |a_{n-1}| + \dots + |a_1| + |a_0|$

$$|f(x)| \leq Cx^n$$

$\Rightarrow f(x) = O(x^n)$

The Growth of Combinations of Functions



Big-O : Theorems

Theorem 2:

$$f_1(x)=O(g_1(x)) \wedge f_2(x)=O(g_2(x))$$

$$\rightarrow (f_1+f_2)(x) = O(\max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|))$$

Theorem 3:

$$f_1(x)=O(g_1(x)) \wedge f_2(x)=O(g_2(x))$$

$$\rightarrow (f_1f_2)(x) = O(g_1g_2(x))$$

Corollary 1:

$$f_1(x)=O(g(x)) \wedge f_2(x)=O(g(x)) \rightarrow (f_1+f_2)(x) = O(g(x))$$

3.2.2- Big-Omega and Big-Theta Notation

- Big-O does not provide the lower bound for the size of $f(x)$
- Big- Ω , Big- θ were introduced by Donald Knuth in the 1970s
- Big- Ω provides the lower bound for the size of $f(x)$
- Big- θ provides the upper bound and lower bound on the size of $f(x)$

Big-Omega and Big-Theta Notation

● Definitions

$$\exists c > 0, k \ x \geq k \wedge |f(x)| \geq C|g(x)| \rightarrow |f(x)| = \Omega(g(x))$$

$$f(x) = O(g(x)) \wedge f(x) = \Omega(g(x)) \rightarrow f(x) = \theta(g(x))$$

If $f(x) = \theta(g(x))$ then $f(x)$ is of order $g(x)$

Show that $f(n) = 1 + 2 + \dots + n$ is $\theta(n^2)$

Examining $x > 0$

$$f(n) = 1 + 2 + \dots + n = n(n+1)/2 = (n^2 + n) / 2$$

$$n^2 / 2 \leq f(n) \leq (2n^2) / 2$$

$$n^2 / 2 \leq f(x) \leq n^2$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Let } c_1 = 1/2, c_2 = 1, g(n) = n^2$$

$$\rightarrow c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n)$$

$$\rightarrow f(n) = \theta(n^2) \text{ with } x > 0$$

Big-Omega and Big-Theta Notation

- Theorem 4

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$, where a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are real number, then $f(x)$ is of order x^n

3.3- Complexity of Algorithms

- Computational complexity = Time complexity + space complexity.
- Time complexity can be expressed in terms of the number of operations used by the algorithm.
 - Average-case complexity
 - Worst-case complexity
- Space complexity will not be considered.

Demo 1

Describe the time complexity of the algorithm for finding the largest element in a set:

Procedure **max** (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n : integers)

$\text{max} := a_1$

for $i := 2$ to n

If $\text{max} < a_i$ **then** $\text{max} := a_i$

Time Complexity is $\theta(n)$

i	Number of comparisons
2	2
3	2
...	2
n	2
n+1	1, $\text{max} < a_i$ is omitted

$2(n-1) + 1 = 2n-1$
comparisons

Demo 2

Describe the average-case time complexity of the linear-search algorithm :

Procedure linear search (x : integer, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n :distinct integers)

$i := 1$

while ($i \leq n$ and $x \neq a_i$) $i := i + 1$

if $i \leq n$ **then** $\text{location} := i$

else $\text{location} := 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Avg-Complexity} &= [(3+5+7+\dots+(2n+1))] / n \\ &= [2(1+2+3+\dots+n) + n] / n \\ &= [2n(n+1)/2] / n + 1 \\ &= [n(n+1)] / n + 1 \\ &= n+1 + 1 = n+2 \\ &= \theta(n) \end{aligned}$$

i	Number of comparisons done
1	2
2	4
...	
n	2n
n+1	1, $x \neq a_i$ is omitted

See demonstrations about the worst-case complexity: Examples 5,6 pages 195, 196

Understanding the Complexity of Algorithms

Complexity	Terminology	Problem class
$\Theta(1)$	Constant complexity	Tractable (dễ), class P
$\Theta(\log n)$	Logarithmic complexity	Class P
$\Theta(n)$	Linear complexity	Class P
$\Theta(n \log n)$	$n \log n$ complexity	Class P
$\Theta(n^b)$, $b \geq 1$, integer	Polynomial complexity	Intractable, class NP
$\Theta(b^n)$, $b > 1$	Exponential complexity	
$\Theta(n!)$	Factorial complexity	

NP : Non-deterministic Polynomial time

3.4- The Integers and Division

Definition: If a and b are integers with $a \neq 0$, we say that a divides b if there is an integer c such that $b=ac$.

When a divides b , we say that:

a is a factor of b

b is a multiple of a

Notation: $a|b$: a divides b $a \nmid b$: a does not divide b

Example:

$3 \nmid 7$ because $7/3$ is not an integer

$3|12$ because $12/3=4$, remainder=0

Corollary 1:

$a|b \wedge a|c \rightarrow a|(mb+nc)$, m,n are integers

The Division Algorithm

Theorem 2: Let a be an integer and d a positive integer. Then there are unique integers q and r , with $0 \leq r < d$, such that $a = dq + r$

d : divisor, r : remainder, q : quotient (thương số)

Note: r can not be negative

Definition: $a = dq + r$

a : dividend

d : divisor

q : quotient

r : remainder,

$q = a \text{ div } d$ $r = a \text{ mod } d$

Example:

101 is divided by 11 : $101 = 11 \cdot 9 + 2 \rightarrow q=9, r=2$

-11 is divided by 3 : $3(-4) + 1 \rightarrow q=-4, r=1$

No OK: -11 is divided by 3 : $3(-3) - 2 \rightarrow q=-3, r = -2$

Modular Arithmetic

Definition: a, b : integers, m : positive integer.

a is called ***congruent*** to b modulo m if $m \mid a-b$

Notations:

$a \equiv b \pmod{m}$, a is congruent to b modulo m

$a \not\equiv b \pmod{m}$, a is not congruent to b mod m

Examples:

15 is congruent to 6 modulo 3 because $3 \mid 15-6$

15 is **not** congruent to 7 modulo 3 because $3 \nmid 15-7$

Modular Arithmetic

Theorem 3

a, b : integers, m : positive integer

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m} \leftrightarrow (a \bmod m) = (b \bmod m)$$

Modular Arithmetic...

Theorem 4

a, b : integers, m : positive integer

a and b are congruent modulo m if and only if there is an integer k such that $a = b + km$

Modular Arithmetic...

Theorem 5

m : positive integer

$$a \equiv b \pmod{m} \wedge c \equiv d \pmod{m}$$

$$\rightarrow a+c \equiv b+d \pmod{m} \wedge ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$$

Corollary 2:

m : positive integer, a, b : integers

$$(a+b) \bmod m = ((a \bmod m) + (b \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

$$ab \bmod m = ((a \bmod m)(b \bmod m)) \bmod m$$

Applications of Congruences

Hashing Function: $H(k) = k \bmod m$

Using in assigning memory locations to computer files.

k : data searched, m : memory block

Examples:

$$H(064212848) \bmod 111 = 14$$

$$H(037149212) \bmod 111 = 65$$

Collision: $H(k_1) = H(k_2)$. For example, $H(107405723) = 14$

Applications of Congruences

Pseudo-random Numbers $x_{n+1} = (ax_n + c) \bmod m$

a: multiplier, c: increment, x_0 : seed

with $2 \leq a < m$, $0 \leq c < m$, $0 \leq x_0 < m$

Examples:

$m=9 \rightarrow$ random numbers: 0..8

$a=7$, $c=4$, $x_0=3$

Result: Page 207

Applications of Congruences

Cryptography: letter 1 \rightarrow letter 2

Examples: shift cipher with k $f(p) = (p+k) \bmod 26$

$\rightarrow f^{-1}(p) = (p-k) \bmod 26$

Applications of Congruences

What is the secret message produced from the message
“MEET YOU IN THE PARK” using
the Caesar cipher ($k=3$)?

M E E T	Y O U	I N	T H E	P A R K
12 4 4 19	24 14 20	8 13	19 7 4	15 0 17 10

Sender: (encoding)

Using $f(p) = (p+3) \bmod 26$ // 26 characters

15 7 7 22	1 17 23	11 16	22 10 7	18 3 20 13.
P H H W	B R X	L Q	W K H	S D U N

Receiver: (decoding) Using $f^{-1}(p) = (p-3) \bmod 26$

15 7 7 22	1 17 23	11 16	22 10 7	18 3 20 13
12 4 4 19	24 14 20	8 13	19 7 4	15 0 17 10

Decrypt the ciphertext message “LEWLYPLUJL
PZ H NYLHA ALHJOLY”
that was encrypted with the shift cipher with shift k
 $= 7$

3.5- Primes and Greatest Common Divisors

Definition 1:

A positive integer p greater than 1 is called *prime* if the only positive factors are 1 and p

A positive integer that is greater than 1 and is *not prime* is called *composite*

Examples:

Primes: 2 3 5 7 11

Composites: 4 6 8 9

Finding very large primes: tests for supercomputers

Primes...

Theorem 1- The fundamental theorem of arithmetic:

Every positive integer greater than 1 can be written uniquely as a prime or as the product of two or more primes where the prime factors are written in order of nondecreasing size

Examples:

Primes: 37

Composite: $100 = 2.2.5.5 = 2^2 5^2$

$999 = 3.3.3.37 = 3^3 37$

Primes...

Converting a number to prime factors

Examples: 7007

Try it to 2,3,5 : 7007 can not divided by 2,3,5

$$7007 : 7$$

$$1001 : 7$$

$$143 : 11$$

$$13 : 13$$

$$0$$

$$\rightarrow 7007 = 7^2 \cdot 11 \cdot 13$$

Primes...

Theorem 2: If n is a composite, then n has a prime **divisor** less than or equal to \sqrt{n}

Proof:

n is a composite $\rightarrow n = ab$ in which a or b is a prime

If $(a > \sqrt{n} \wedge b > \sqrt{n}) \rightarrow ab > n \rightarrow \text{false}$

\rightarrow Prime divisor of n less than or equal to \sqrt{n}

Primes...

Theorem 3: There are infinite many primes

Proof: page 212

Theorem 4: The prime number theorem:

The ratio of the number of primes not exceeding x and $x/\ln x$ approaches 1 and grows without bound (i.e. the number of primes not exceeding x can be approximated by $x/\ln x$).

Example:

$x = 10^{1000} \rightarrow$ The odds that an integer near 10^{1000} is prime are approximately $1/\ln 10^{1000} \sim 1/2300$

Greatest Common Divisors and Least Common Multiples

Definition 2:

Let a, b be integers, not both zero. The largest integer d such that $d|a$ and $d|b$ is called the *greatest common divisor* of a and b .

Notation: $\gcd(a,b)$

Example: $\gcd(24,36)=?$

Divisors of 24: 2 3 4 6 8 12 = $2^3 3^1$

Divisors of 36: 2 3 4 6 9 12 18 = $2^2 3^2$

$\gcd(24,36)=12 = 2^2 3^1$ // Get factors having minimum power

Greatest Common Divisors and Least Common Multiples

Definition 3:

The integers a, b are *relatively prime* if their greatest common divisor is 1

Example:

$\gcd(3,7)=1 \rightarrow 3,7$ are relatively prime

$\gcd(17,22)=1 \rightarrow 17,22$ are relatively prime

$\gcd(17,34) = 17 \rightarrow 17, 34$ are **not** relatively prime

Greatest Common Divisors and Least Common Multiples

Definition 4:

The integers $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$ are *pairwise relatively prime* if $\gcd(a_i, a_j) = 1$ whenever $1 \leq i < j \leq n$

Example:

7 10 11 17 23 are pairwise relatively prime

7 10 11 16 24 are **not** pairwise relatively prime

Greatest Common Divisors and Least Common Multiples

Definition 5:

The Least common multiple of the positive integer a and b is the smallest integer that is divisible by both a and b

Notation: $\text{lcm}(a,b)$

Example:

$$\text{lcm}(12,36) = 36 \quad \text{lcm}(7,11) = 77$$

$$\text{lcm}(2^3 3^5 7^2, 2^4 3^3) = 2^4 3^5 7^2$$

$$2^3 3^5 7^2, 2^4 3^3 7^0 \rightarrow 2^4 3^5 7^2 \quad // \text{ get maximum power}$$

Greatest Common Divisors and Least Common Multiples

Theorem 5:

Let a, b be positive integers then

$$ab = \gcd(a, b) \cdot \text{lcm}(a, b)$$

Example: $\gcd(8, 12) = 4$ $\text{lcm}(8, 12) = 24 \rightarrow 8 \cdot 12 = 4 \cdot 24$

3.6- Integers and Algorithms

- Representations of Integers
- Algorithms for Integer Operations
- Modular Exponentiation
- Euclid Algorithm

Representations of Integers

Theorem 1:

Let b be a positive integer greater than 1. Then if n is a positive integer, it can be expressed uniquely in the form

$$n = a_k b^k + a_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 b + a_0$$

where $k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$, $b < a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k \in \mathbb{Z}^+$ and $a_k \neq 0$

Example:

$$245 = 2 \times 10^2 + 4 \times 10 + 5$$

$$(245)_8 = 2 \times 8^2 + 4 \times 8 + 5 = 165$$

Common Bases Expansions: Binary, Octal, Decimal, Hexadecimal

Algorithm 1: Constructing Base b Expansions

Procedure base b expansion (n: positive integer)

q:=n

k:=0

while **q** \neq 0

begin

a_k :=q mod b

q := $\lfloor q/b \rfloor$

k := k +1

end { The base b expansion of n is $(a_{k-1}a_{k-2}\dots a_1a_0)$ }

Algorithms for Integer Operations

Algorithm 2: Addition integers in binary format

Algorithm 3: Multiplying integers in binary format

Algorithm 4: Computing div and mod integers

Algorithm 5: Modular Exponentiation

Algorithm 2: Adding of Integers

Complexity: $O(n)$

1	1	1	0	0
	1	1	1	0
+	1	0	1	1
<hr style="width: 100%; border: 0.5px solid black;"/>				
1	1	0	0	1

procedure add (a,b: integers)

{ a: $(a_{n-1}a_{n-2}\dots a_1a_0)_2$

b: $(b_{n-1}b_{n-2}\dots b_1b_0)_2$ }

c:=0

for j:=0 to n-1

Begin

$d := \lfloor (a_j + b_j + c) / 2 \rfloor$ // next carry of next step

$s_j = a_j + b_j + c - 2d$ // result bit

c:=d // updating new carry to next step

End

$s_n = c$ // rightmost bit of result

{ The binary of expansion of the sum is $(s_ns_{n-1}\dots s_1s_0)$ }

Algorithm 3: Multiplying Integers

$$\begin{array}{r}
 110(a) \\
 \times 101(b) \\
 \hline
 110 \\
 + 0000 \\
 11000 \\
 \hline
 11110(p)
 \end{array}$$

```

procedure multiply ( a,b: integer)
{ a: (an-1an-2...a1a0)2    b: (bn-1bn-2...b1b0)2 }
for j:= 0 to n-1
begin
  if bj=1 then cj := a shifted j places
end
{ c0, c1, ..., cn-1 are the partial products }
p := 0
for j:= 0 to n-1
  p:=p+cj
{p is the value of ab}
  
```

Complexity: $O(n^2)$

Complexity: $O(n)$

Algorithm 4: Computing div and mod

```

procedure division ( a: integer; d: positive integer)
  q:=0
  r:= |a|
  while r ≥ d {quotient= number of times  of successive subtractions}
    begin
      r:= r-d
      q := q+1
    end
  If a<0 and r>0 then {updating remainder when a<0}
    begin
      r:= d-r
      q := -(q+1)
    end
  { q = a div d is the quotient, r=a mod d is the remainder}

```

Algorithm 5: Modular Exponentiation

{ $b^n \bmod m = ?$. Ex: $3^{644} \bmod 645 = 36$ }

procedure mod_ex (b: integer, $n=(a_{k-1}a_{k-2}\dots a_1a_0)_2$, m: positive integer)

x:=1

power := b mod m

for i:=0 to k-1

begin

 if $a_i=1$ then x:= (x.power) mod m

 power := (power.power) mod m

end

{ x equals $b^n \bmod m$ }

Corollary 2: $ab \bmod m = ((a \bmod m)(b \bmod m)) \bmod m$
 $b^n \bmod m = \text{result of successive factor}_i \bmod m$

The Euclidean Algorithm

Lemma: Proof: page 228

Let $a = bq + r$, where a, b, q, r are integers. Then $\gcd(a, b) = \gcd(b, r)$

Example: $287 = 91 \cdot 3 + 14 \rightarrow \gcd(287, 91) = \gcd(91, 14) = 7$

procedure $\gcd(a, b: \text{positive integer})$

$x := a$

$y := b$

while $y \neq 0$

begin

$r := x \bmod y$

$x := y$

$y := r$

end { $\gcd(a, b)$ is x }

Summary

- Algorithms
- The Growth of Functions
- Complexity of Algorithms
- The Integers and Division
- Primes and Greatest Common Divisors
- Integers and Algorithms

Thanks