Design and Analysis of Algorithms



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BUAA

Introduction

Outline

- Lecturer
- Course Details
- A.M. Turing Award Winners for Algorithms
- What Is This Course About
- What Are Algorithms
- What Does It Mean to Analyze An Algorithm
- Comparing Time Complexity

Lecturer: Jun Han

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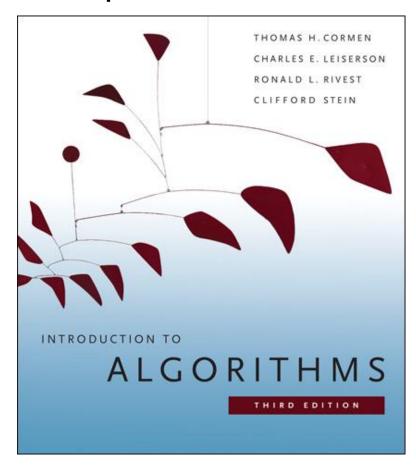
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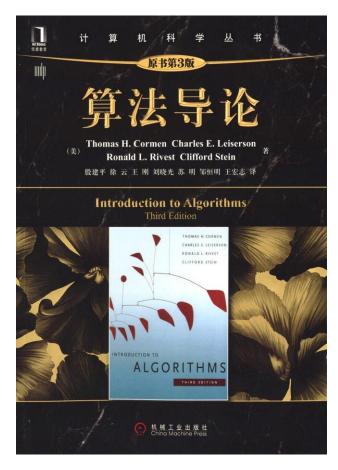
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Textbook

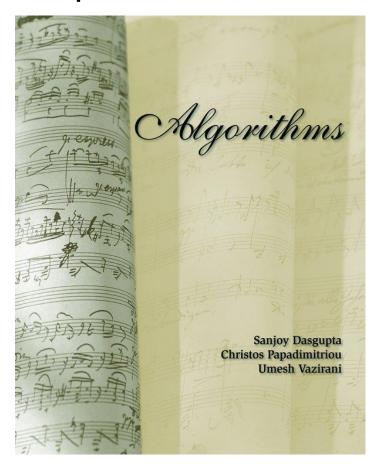
- Textbook: Introduction to Algorithms (3rd ed.)
 - by Cormen, Leiserson, Rivest and Stein (CLRS)
 - Prepublication version available online

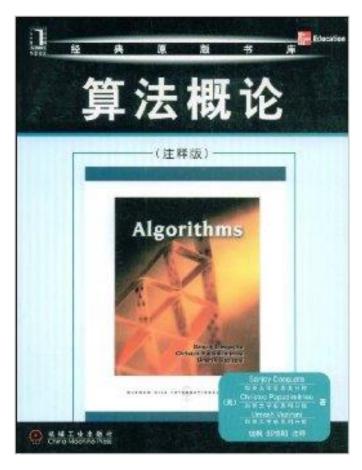




References (1)

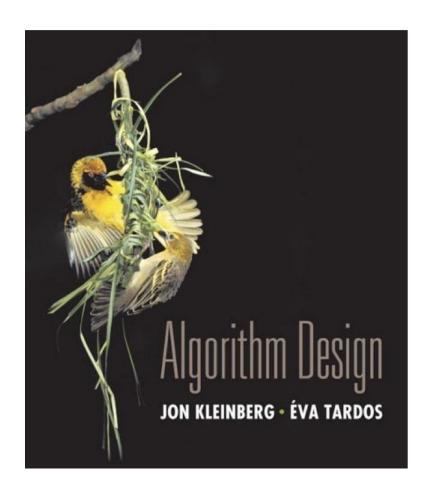
- Reference: *Algorithms*
 - by Dasgupta, Papadimitriou, and Vazirani (DPV)
 - Prepublication version available online

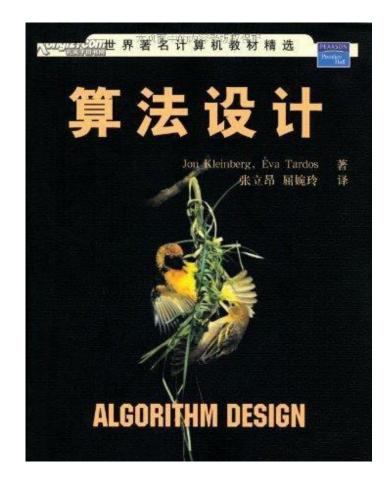




References (2)

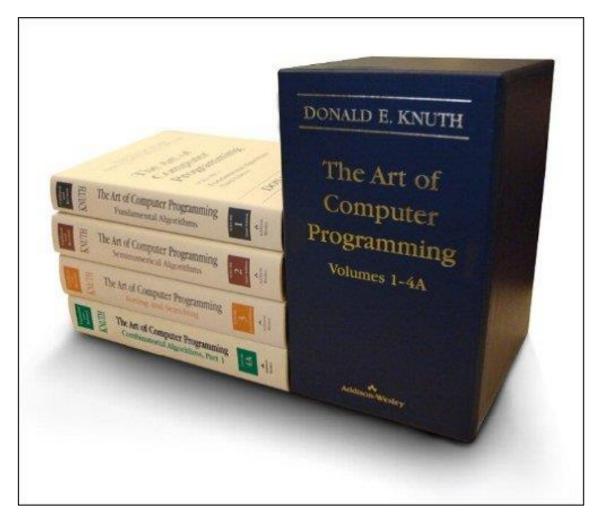
- Reference: Algorithm Design
 - by Kleinberg and Tardos (KT)





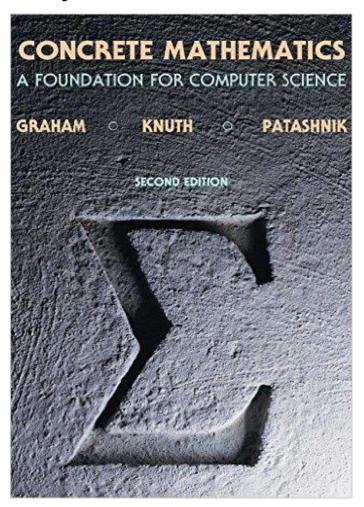
References (3)

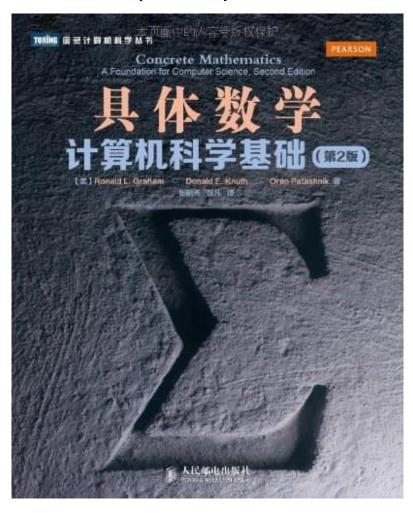
- Reference: The Art of Computer Programming
 - by Donald E. Knuth



References (4)

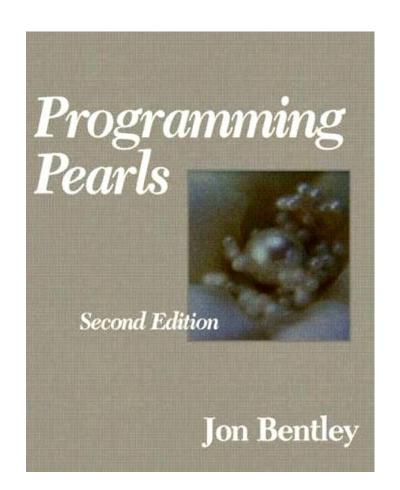
- Reference: Concrete Mathematics (2nd ed.)
 - by Graham, Knuth, Patashnik (GKP)

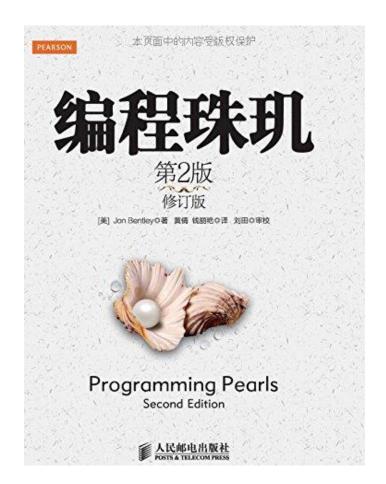




References (5)

- Reference: Programming Pearls (2nd ed.)
 - by Jon Bentley





Prerequisites

- We assume you know:
 - Linked Lists, Stacks, Queues
 - Binary Search Trees
 - Traversals
 - Searching (but not analysis)
- What have you learnt previously?
 - Graph algorithms
 - Breadth-first search (BFS)
 - Depth-first search (DFS)
 - Topological sort (TS)
 - Minimum Spanning Trees (MST)
 - Dijkstra's shortest path algorithm (SP)

Syllabus

- Basics
 - Asymptotic Notations and Recurrences
- Divide and Conquer Algorithms
 - MCS Problem, PM Problem, and Quicksort
- Dynamic Programming Algorithms
 - 0-1 Knapsack, Rod-Cutting, CMM, LCS, and MED
- Greedy Algorithms
 - Huffman Coding and Fractional Knapsack
- Graph Algorithms
 - BFS, DFS, SP, MST, Max Flow and Matching
- Dealing with Hard Problems
 - Problem Classes (P, NP, NPC) and Approximation Alg.

Lectures and Tutorials

- Lectures
 - Slides will be available on course web page.

- Tutorials (补充练习)
 - There will be 12 tutorials in this semester.
 - The tutorials will provide more examples to illustrate the material you learnt in class.
 - The first tutorial will be released on next week.

Grading Scheme

• (30%) Four Assignments

- Each requires designing algorithms and analyzing correctness/run time.
- Each will take 14 days.
- After each submission due, we will post the solution and WON'T accept any assignment.
- Failing to do any of these will be considered PLAGIARISM, and will result in a failing grade if we detect it.

• (10%) Project

- Each project is completed by a group.
- Each group needs to submit a final report and codes.
- The topics of the project will be released by the middle of Oct.

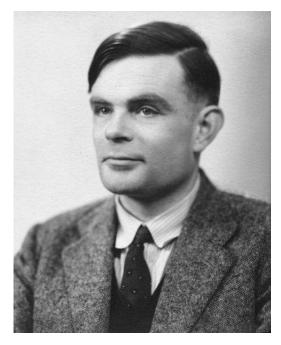
• (60%) Final Exam

It covers entire semester's material.

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A.M. Turing Award



Alan M. Turing

From 2007 to 2013, the award was accompanied by a prize of US \$250,000 by Intel and Google. Since 2014, the award has been accompanied by a prize of US \$1 million by Google.



Nobel Prize of Computing

2020, Alfred Vaino Aho & Jeffrey David Ullman 《 The Design and Analysis of Computer Algorithms》

A.M. Turing Award Winners for Algorithms



Donald E. Knuth 1974, USA



Robert W. Floyd 1978, USA



Stephen A. Cook 1982, USA



Richard M. Karp 1985, USA



John Hopcroft 1986, USA



Robert Tarjan 1986, USA



Juris Hartmanis 1993, Latvia



Richard E. Stearns 1993, USA



Manuel Blum 1995, Venezuela



Andrew Yao 2000, China



Leslie G. Valiant 2010, Hungarian



Silvio Micali 2012, Italy



Shafi Goldwasser 2012, USA



Martin Hellman 2015, USA



Whitfield Diffie 2015, USA

Other Related A.M. Turing Award Winners



Edsger W. Dijkstra
The Recipient in 1972,
Netherlands,

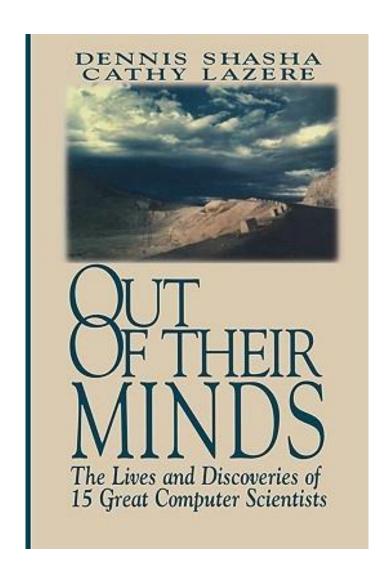
Contributions: ALGOL Father, Related Work: Dijkstra Algorithm

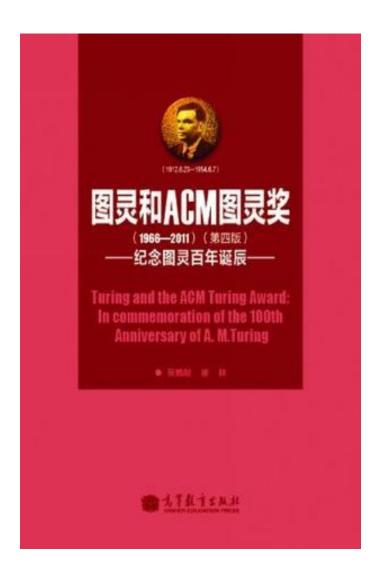


Tony Hoare
The Recipient in 1980,
UK,

Contributions: Hoare logic, Related Work: QuickSort

Books of A.M. Turing Award Winners





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Example (Chain Matrix Multiplication)

Want: ABCD = ?

Method 1: (AB)(CD)

Method 2: A((BC)D)

Method 1 is much more efficient than Method 2. (Expand the expression on board)

- There is usually more than one algorithm for solving a problem.
- Some algorithms are more efficient than others.
- We want the most efficient algorithm.

- If we have a number of alternative algorithms for solving a problem, how do we know which is the most efficient?
- To do so, we need to analyze each of them to determine its efficiency.
- Of course, we must also make sure the algorithm is correct.

- In this course, we will discuss fundamental techniques for:
 - Designing efficient algorithms,
 - Proving the correctness of algorithms,
 - Analyzing the running times of algorithms

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Note:

Analysis and design go hand-in-hand:
 By analyzing the running times of algorithms, we will know how to design fast algorithms

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Computational Problem

Definition

A computational problem is a specification of the desired input-output relationship

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Example (Computational Problem)

Sorting

- Input: Sequence of *n* numbers $\langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle$
- Output: Permutation (reordering)

$$\langle a_1', a_2', \cdots, a_n' \rangle$$

such that $a_1' \leq a_2' \leq \cdots \leq a_n'$

Instance

Definition

A problem instance is any valid input to the problem.

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A problem instance is any valid input to the problem.

Example (Instance of the Sorting Problem)

(8, 3, 6, 7, 1, 2, 9)

Algorithm

Definition

An algorithm is a well defined computational procedure that transforms inputs into outputs, achieving the desired input-output relationship

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An algorithm is a well defined computational procedure that transforms inputs into outputs, achieving the desired input-output relationship

Definition

A correct algorithm halts with the correct output for every input instance. We can then say that the algorithm solves the problem

Example: Insertion Sort

Pseudocode:

```
Input: A[1 \dots n] is an array of numbers for j \leftarrow 2 to n do key \leftarrow A[j]; i \leftarrow j - 1; while i \geq 1 and A[i] > key do A[i+1] \leftarrow A[i]; i \leftarrow i-1; end A[i+1] \leftarrow key; end
```

key

Sorted

Unsorted

Where in the sorted part to put "key"?

How Does It Work?

An incremental approach: To sort a given array of length n, at the *i*th step it sorts the array of the first *i* items by making use of the sorted array of the first *i* - 1 items

Example

```
Sort A = \langle 6, 3, 2, 4, 5 \rangle with insertion sort
Step 1: \langle 6, 3, 2, 4, 5 \rangle
Step 2: \langle 3, 6, 2, 4, 5 \rangle
Step 3: \langle 2, 3, 6, 4, 5 \rangle
Step 4: \langle 2, 3, 4, 6, 5 \rangle
Step 5: \langle 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 \rangle
```

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 - Memory (space complexity)
 - Running time (time complexity) -- focus of this course

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 - Running time (time complexity) -- focus of this course
 - depends on the speed of the computer
 - depends on the implementation details
 - depends on the input, especially on the size of the input
- In light of the above factors, how can we compare different algorithms in terms of their running times?
- We want to find a way of measuring running times that is mathematically elegant and machine-independent.

 We will measure the running time as the number of primitive operations (e.g., addition, multiplication, comparisons) used by the algorithm

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- Input size n: rigorous definition given later
 - Sorting: number of items to be sorted

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- Input size n: rigorous definition given later
 - Sorting: number of items to be sorted
 - Graphs: number of vertices and edges

Best Case: An instance for a given size n that results in the fastest possible running time.

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Example (Insertion sort)

$$A[1] \le A[2] \le A[3] \le \cdots \le A[n]$$

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Example (Insertion sort)

$$A[1] \le A[2] \le A[3] \le \cdots \le A[n]$$

The number of comparisons needed is equal to

$$\underbrace{1+1+1+\cdots+1}_{n-1}=n-1=\Theta(n)$$

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Sorted Unsorted "key" is compared to only the element right before it.

Worst Case: An instance for a given size *n* that results in the slowest possible running time.

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$$A[1] \ge A[2] \ge A[3] \ge \cdots \ge A[n]$$

The number of comparisons needed is equal to

$$1+2+\cdots+(n-1)=\frac{n(n-1)}{2}=\Theta(n^2)$$

key

Sorted Unsorted

"key" is compared to everything element before it.

Average Case: Running time averaged over all possible instances for the given size, assuming some probability distribution on the instances.

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Example (Insertion sort)

 $\Theta(n^2)$, assuming that each of the n! instances is equally likely (uniform distribution).

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Example (Insertion sort)

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key

Sorted Unsorted

On average, "key" is compared to half of the elements before it.

Best case: Clearly useless

- Best case: Clearly useless
- Worst case: Commonly used, will also be used in this course
 - Gives a running time guarantee no matter what the input is
 - Fair comparison among different algorithms

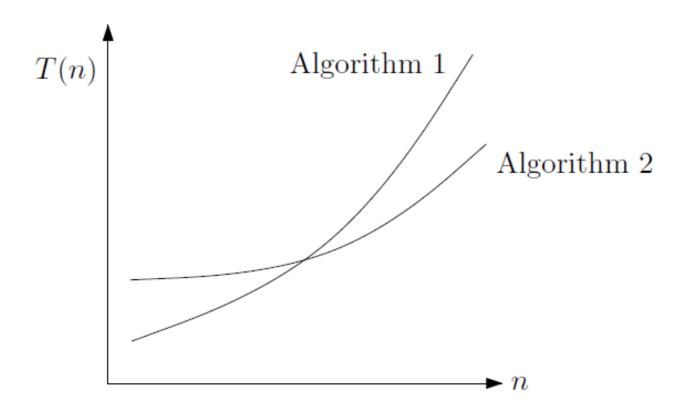
- Best case: Clearly useless
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- Average case: Used sometimes
 - Need to assume some distribution: real-world inputs are seldom uniformly random!
 - Analysis is complicated

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 - Gives a running time guarantee no matter what the input is
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- Average case: Used sometimes
 - Need to assume some distribution: real-world inputs are seldom uniformly random!
 - Analysis is complicated
 - Will not be used in this course

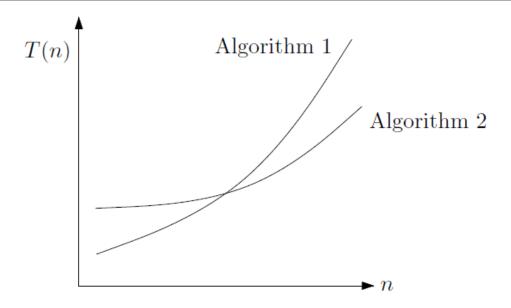
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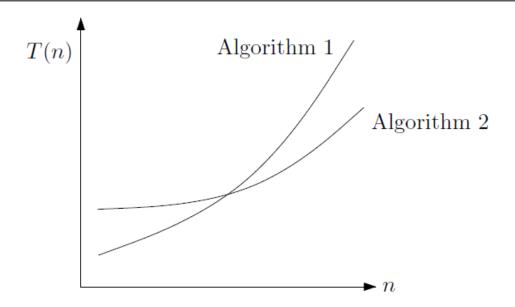
Comparing Time Complexity



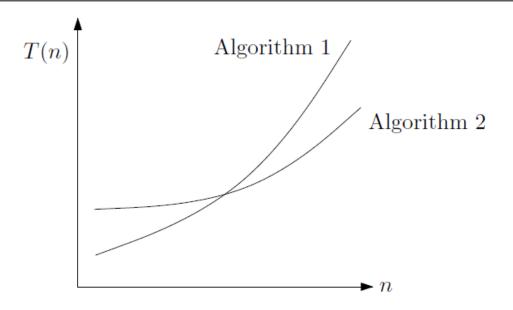
- Which algorithm is superior for large n?
 - T(n) for Algorithm 1 is $3n^3 + 6n^2 4n + 17$
 - T(n) for Algorithm 2 is $7n^2$ 8n + 20
- Clearly, Algorithm 2 is superior.



• T(n) for Algorithm 1 is $3n^3 + 6n^2 - 4n + 17 = \Theta(n^3)$



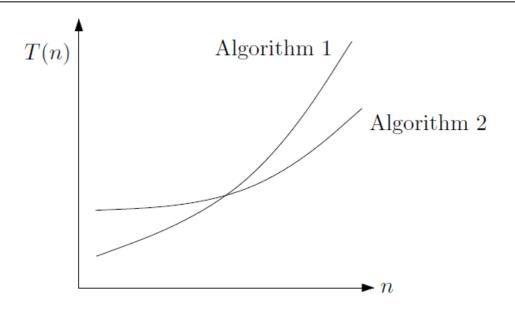
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Θ-notation

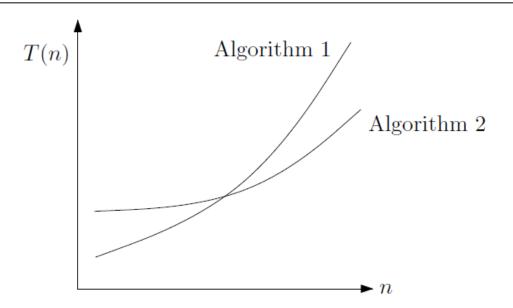
Drop low-order terms; ingore leading constants



- T(n) for Algorithm 1 is $3n^3 + 6n^2 4n + 17 = \Theta(n^3)$
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Θ-notation

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- Look at growth of T(n) as n→∞



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Θ-notation

- Drop low-order terms; ignore leading constants
- Look at growth of T(n) as n→∞
- When n is large enough, a Θ(n²) algorithm always beats a Θ(n³) algorithm

Merge Sort

Mergesort(A, left, right)

```
if left < right then
    center ← [(left + right)/2];
    Mergesort(A, left, center);
    Mergesort(A, center+1, right);
    "Merge" the two sorted arrays;
end</pre>
```

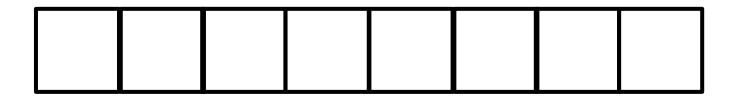
• To sort the entire array A[1 ... n], we make the initial call Mergesort(A, 1, n).

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```

- To sort the entire array A[1 ... n], we make the initial call Mergesort(A, 1, n).
- Key subroutine: "Merge"



3 6 9 16

2 5 8 12

2

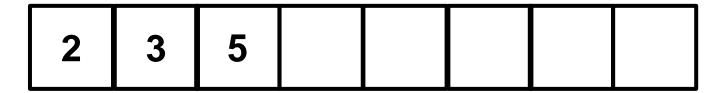
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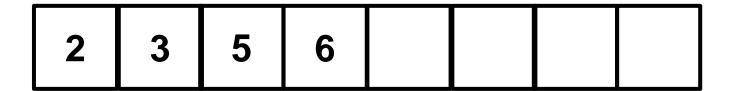
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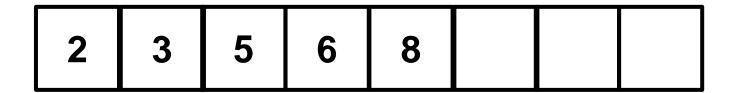
6 9 16



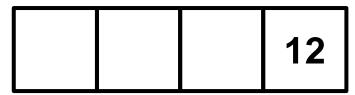


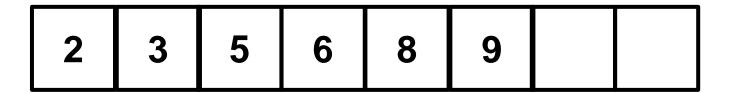




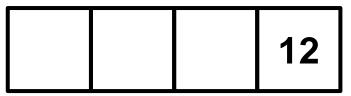


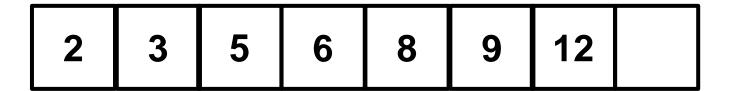




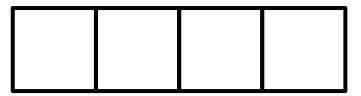


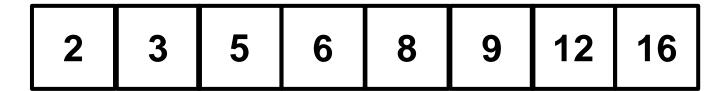




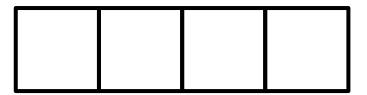












- T(n): time needed to run Mergesort(A,1,n)
- Assume n is a power of 2 for simplicity

```
if left < right then center \leftarrow \lfloor (\text{left} + \text{right})/2 \rfloor; Mergesort(A, left, center); // T(n/2)
```

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    "Merge" the two sorted arrays; // Θ(n)
end</pre>
```

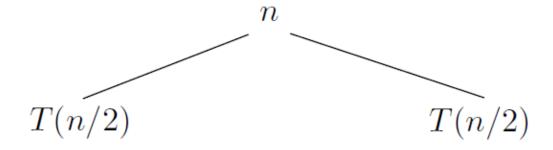
- T(n): time needed to run Mergesort(A,1,n)
- Assume n is a power of 2 for simplicity

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n), & \text{if } n > 1, \\ \Theta(1), & \text{if } n = 1. \end{cases}$$

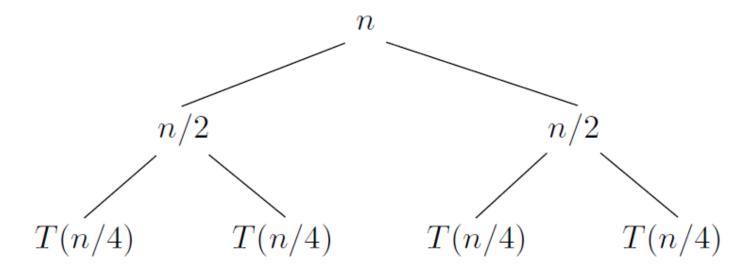
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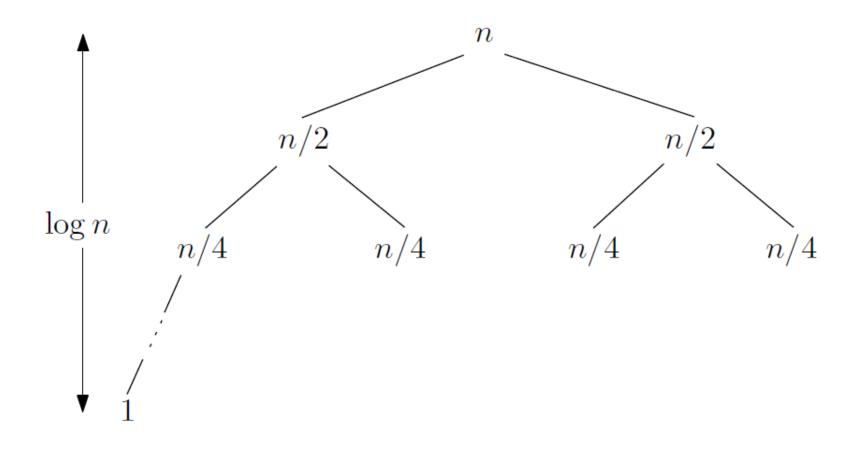
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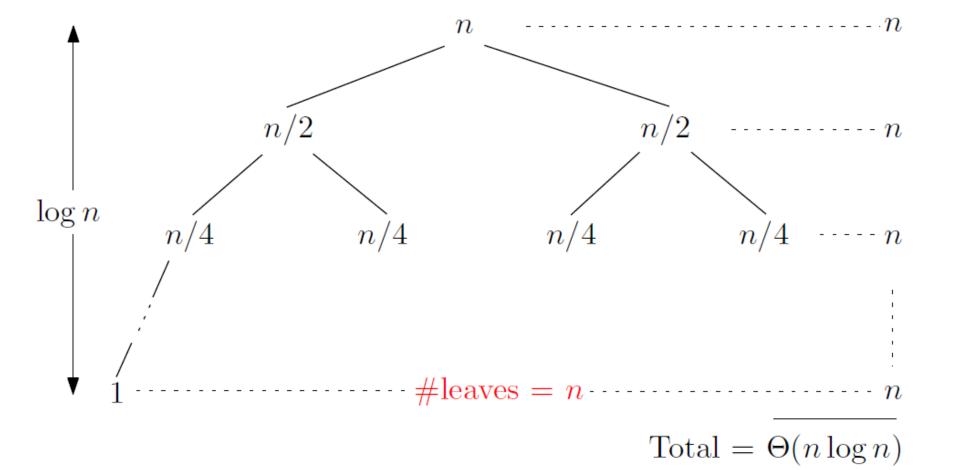
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Asymptotic Notations and Recurrences

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- Asymptotic Notations (新近记号)
 - Big-Oh
 - Big-Omega
 - Big-Theta
 - Algorithm Design and Algorithm Tuning
- Solving Recurrences
 - Recursion-tree Method (递归树法)
 - Substitution Method (代入法/替代法)
 - Master Method and Master Theorem (主方法)

Outline

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 - Recursion-tree Method (递归树法)
 - Substitution Method (代入法/替代法)
 - Master Method and Master Theorem (主方法)

Big-Oh

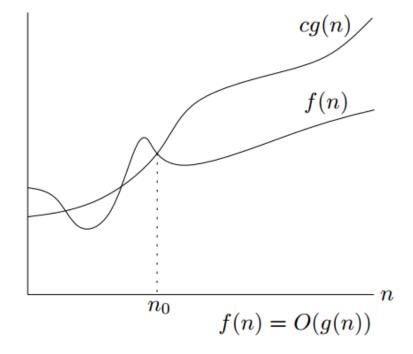
Asymptotic upper bound

Definition (big-Oh)

f(n) = O(g(n)): There exists constant c > 0 and n_0 such that $f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$ for $n \ge n_0$

When estimating the growth rate of T(n) using big-Oh:

- ignore the low order terms
- ignore the constant coefficient of the most significant term



Big-Oh: Example

Definition (big-Oh)

f(n) = O(g(n)): There exists constant c > 0 and n_0 such that $f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$ for $n \ge n_0$

Example

Let $T(n) = 3n^2 + 4n + 5$. Prove that $T(n) = O(n^2)$.

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Example

Let $T(n) = 3n^2 + 4n + 5$. Prove that $T(n) = O(n^2)$.

Proof.

$$T(n) = 3n^2 + 4n + 5$$

 $\leq 3n^2 + 4n^2 + 5n^2$
 $= 12n^2$.

Thus, $T(n) \le 12n^2$ for all $n \ge 1$. Setting $n_0 = 1$ and c = 12 in the definition, we have that $T(n) = O(n^2)$.

•
$$\frac{n^2}{2} - 3n =$$

- $\bullet \ \frac{n^2}{2} 3n = O(n^2)$
- 1 + 4n =

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- 1 + 4n = O(n)
- $\log_{10} n =$

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- $\log_{10} n = \frac{\log_2 n}{\log_2 10} = O(\log_2 n) = O(\log n)$
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- $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^2 \le n \cdot n^2 = O(n^3)$
- $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i$

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- $\log(n!) = \log(n) + \cdots + \log 1 = O(n \log n)$
- $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = O(\log n)$ (Harmonic Series, 调和级数)

The Asymptotic Upper Bound of Harmonic Series:

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$$

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$$< \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n/2} + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i}$$

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$$= \frac{1}{1} + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + 4 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + 8 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) + \cdots + \frac{n}{2}\left(\frac{1}{n/2}\right) + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i}$$

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$$= 1/n + \sum_{j=0}^{\log n - 1} 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i}$$

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$$= 1/n + \sum_{j=0}^{\log n-1} 1$$

$$= \log n + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} \\ &= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \\ &< \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots + \frac{1}{n/2} + \frac{1}{n} \\ &= \frac{1}{1} + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + 4 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + 8 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) + \dots + \frac{n}{2}\left(\frac{1}{n/2}\right) + \frac{1}{n} \\ &= 1/n + \sum_{j=0}^{\log n - 1} 1 \\ &= \log n + \frac{1}{n} \\ &\text{Thus, } \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = O(\log n) \end{split}$$

algorithm scan(v)

```
1. for i = 1 to n do
```

- 2. if S[i] = v then
- 3. **return** *yes*
- 4. return no

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$$\left.\begin{array}{l} O(1) \end{array}\right. \left.\begin{array}{l} n\cdot O(1)=O(n) \end{array}\right.$$

algorithm scan(v)

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O(1)
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```

Although Lines 2-3 may be executed less than n times, we are considering the worst-case complexity

algorithm CountingInversedPairs(A[1..n])

```
1. ans = 0

2. for i = 1 to n do

3. for j = i + 1 to n do

4. if A[i] > A[j] then

5. ans = ans + 1

6. return ans
```

What's the worst-case complexity of this program?

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```

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```

??=
$$(n-1)O(1) + (n-2)O(1) + \dots + (n-n)O(1)$$

= $n(n-1)/2(O(1))$
= $O(n^2)$

Outline

- Asymptotic Notations (新近记号)
 - Big-Oh
 - Big-Omega
 - Big-Theta
 - Algorithm Design and Algorithm Turing
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 - Recursion-tree Method (递归树法)
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Asymptotic lower bound

Definition (big-Omega)

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f(n) = \Omega(g(n)): There exists constant c > 0 and n_0 such that f(n) \ge c \cdot g(n) for n \ge n_0.
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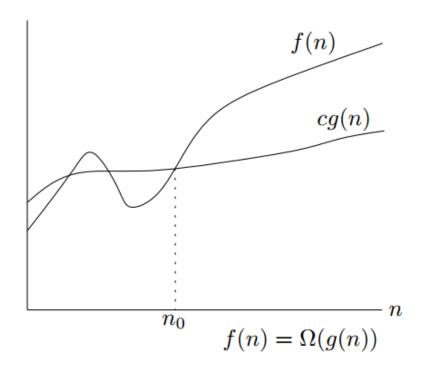
Asymptotic lower bound

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It is easy to show that

$$\frac{n^2}{2} - 3n \ge \frac{n^2}{4}$$
 for all $n \ge 12$.
Thus, $n^2/2 - 3n = \Omega(n^2)$.



Asymptotic lower bound

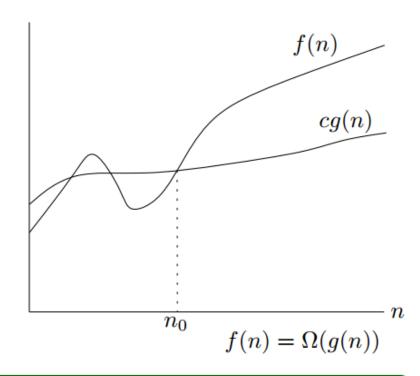
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$$\log(n!) = \log(n) + \log(n-1) + \cdots + \log 1$$

Asymptotic lower bound

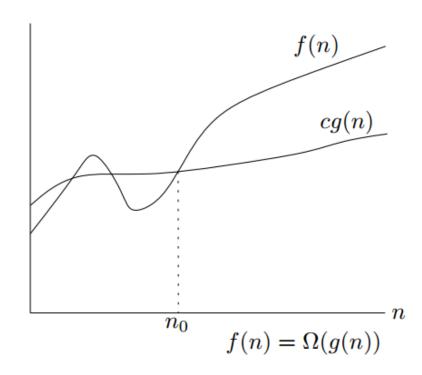
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Thus,
$$n^2/2 - 3n = \Omega(n^2)$$
.



$$\log(n!) = \log(n) + \log(n-1) + \cdots + \log 1$$

$$\geq \log(n) + \log(n-1) + \cdots + \log(n/2)$$

Asymptotic lower bound

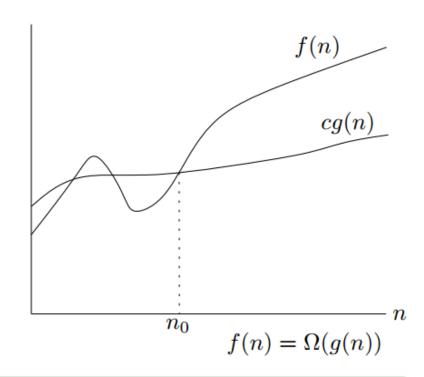
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$$\frac{n^2}{2} - 3n \ge \frac{n^2}{4}$$
 for all $n \ge 12$.
Thus $n^2/2 - 3n = O(n^2)$

Thus,
$$n^2/2 - 3n = \Omega(n^2)$$
.



$$\log(n!) = \log(n) + \log(n-1) + \cdots + \log 1$$

$$\geq \log(n) + \log(n-1) + \cdots + \log(n/2)$$

$$\geq n/2 \cdot \log(n/2)$$

Asymptotic lower bound

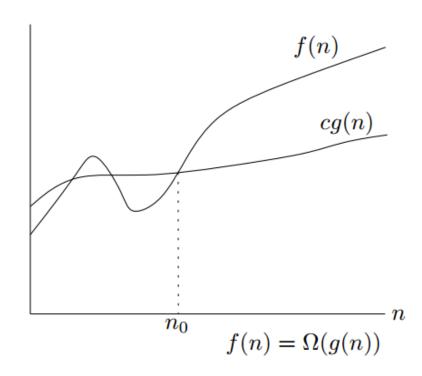
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It is easy to show that

$$\frac{n^2}{2} - 3n \ge \frac{n^2}{4}$$
 for all $n \ge 12$.

Thus, $n^2/2 - 3n = \Omega(n^2)$.



$$\log(n!) = \log(n) + \log(n-1) + \cdots + \log 1$$

$$\geq \log(n) + \log(n-1) + \cdots + \log(n/2)$$

$$\geq n/2 \cdot \log(n/2)$$

$$= n/2 \cdot (\log n - 1) = \Omega(n \log n).$$

The Asymptotic Lower Bound of Harmonic Series:

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i}$$

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$$> \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$$

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$$= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + 2 \cdot (\frac{1}{4}) + 4 \cdot (\frac{1}{8}) + 8 \cdot (\frac{1}{16}) + \dots + \frac{n}{2} (\frac{1}{n})$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$$

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$$= 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\log n} \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$$

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$$= 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\log n} \frac{1}{2}$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{2} \log n$$

$$\begin{split} &\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} \\ &= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \\ &> \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \\ &= \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + 2 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right) + 4 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{8}\right) + 8 \cdot \left(\frac{1}{16}\right) + \dots + \frac{n}{2}\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \\ &= 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\log n} \frac{1}{2} \\ &= 1 + \frac{1}{2}\log n \end{split}$$

$$&\text{Thus, } \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = \Omega(\log n)$$

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Big-Theta

Asymptotic tight bound

Definition (big-Theta)

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$$
: $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$

Big-Theta

Asymptotic tight bound

Definition (big-Theta)

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$$
: $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$

We have shown that

$$n^2/2 - 3n = O(n^2),$$

and

$$n^2/2 - 3n = \Omega(n^2).$$

Therefore, we have that $n^2/2 - 3n = \Theta(n^2)$.

Big-Theta

Asymptotic tight bound

Definition (big-Theta)

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$$
: $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$

We have shown that

$$n^2/2 - 3n = O(n^2),$$

and

$$n^2/2 - 3n = \Omega(n^2).$$

Therefore, we have that $n^2/2 - 3n = \Theta(n^2)$.

Usually (and in this course), it is sufficient to show only upper bounds (big-Oh), though we should try to make these as tight as we can.

Asymptotic Notations

Upper bounds. T(n)=O(f(n)) if there exist constants c>0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$, we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Equivalent definition: $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{T(n)}{f(n)}<\infty$.

Lower bounds. $T(n)=\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist constants c>0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$, we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Equivalent definition: $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{T(n)}{f(n)} > 0$.

Tight bounds. $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ if T(n) = O(f(n)) and $T(n) = \Omega(f(n))$.

Note: Here "=" means "is", not equal. The more mathematically correct way should be $T(n) \in O(f(n))$.

For example, for the harmonic series,

we have: $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} = O(\log n) = \Omega(\log n) = \Theta(\log n)$

• $100n^2 = O(n^3)$?

• $100n^2 = \Omega(n^3)$?

- $10n^2 100n = O(n^2)$?
- $10n^2 100n = \Omega(n^2)$?
- $10n^2 100n = \Theta(n^2)$?
- log(2n) = O(log n)?
- $(2n)^{10} = O(n^{10})$?
- $2^{2n} = O(2^n)$?

- $100n^2 = O(n^3)$? **Answer**: Yes. C = 1 and $n_0 = 100$. Then $\forall n \ge n_0$, $100n^2 \le C \cdot n^3$.
- $100n^2 = \Omega(n^3)$?

- $10n^2 100n = O(n^2)$?
- $10n^2 100n = \Omega(n^2)$?
- $10n^2 100n = \Theta(n^2)$?
- log(2n) = O(log n)?
- $(2n)^{10} = O(n^{10})$?
- $2^{2n} = O(2^n)$?

- $100n^2 = O(n^3)$? **Answer**: Yes. C = 1 and $n_0 = 100$. Then $\forall n \ge n_0$, $100n^2 \le C \cdot n^3$.
- $100n^2 = \Omega(n^3)$? **Answer**: No. \forall C > 0, n_0 > 0, there exists $n > n_0$ ($n = n_0 + 100$ /C) such that $100n^2 < C \cdot n^3$.
- $10n^2 100n = O(n^2)$?
- $10n^2 100n = \Omega(n^2)$?
- $10n^2 100n = \Theta(n^2)$?
- log(2n) = O(log n)?
- $(2n)^{10} = O(n^{10})$?
- $2^{2n} = O(2^n)$?

- $100n^2 = O(n^3)$? **Answer**: Yes. C = 1 and $n_0 = 100$. Then $\forall n \ge n_0$, $100n^2 \le C \cdot n^3$.
- $100n^2 = \Omega(n^3)$? **Answer**: No. \forall C > 0, n_0 > 0, there exists $n > n_0$ ($n = n_0 + 100$ /C) such that $100n^2 < C \cdot n^3$.
- $10n^2 100n = O(n^2)? \sqrt{ }$
- $10n^2 100n = \Omega(n^2)$? $\sqrt{ }$
- $10n^2 100n = \Theta(n^2)$? $\sqrt{ }$
- $\log(2n) = O(\log n)? \sqrt{}$
- $(2n)^{10} = O(n^{10})? \sqrt{ }$
- $2^{2n} = O(2^n)$? ×

• $10n^2 - 100n = O(n^2)$?

• $10n^2 - 100n = \Omega(n^2)$?

• $10n^2 - 100n = \Theta(n^2)$?

- $10n^2 100n = O(n^2)$? **Answer**: **Yes**. \forall n > 0, $10n^2 - 100n \le 10n^2$.
- $10n^2 100n = \Omega(n^2)$?

• $10n^2 - 100n = \Theta(n^2)$?

- $10n^2 100n = O(n^2)$? **Answer**: **Yes**. \forall n > 0, $10n^2 - 100n \le 10n^2$.
- $10n^2 100n = \Omega(n^2)$? **Answer**: **Yes**. \forall $n \ge 20$, $10n^2 - 100n \ge 5n^2$.
- $10n^2 100n = \Theta(n^2)$?

- $10n^2 100n = O(n^2)$? **Answer**: **Yes**. \forall n > 0, $10n^2 - 100n \le 10n^2$.
- $10n^2 100n = Ω(n^2)$? **Answer**: **Yes**. \forall n ≥ 20, $10n^2 - 100n ≥ 5n^2$.
- $10n^2 100n = \Theta(n^2)$? **Answer**: **Yes**. Because $10n^2 - 100n = O(n^2)$ and $10n^2 - 100n = \Omega(n^2)$

• log(2n) = O(log n)?

•
$$(2n)^{10} = O(n^{10})$$
?

• $2^{2n} = O(2^n)$?

An interesting fact about logarithm

$$\log_{b_1} n = O(\log_{b_2} n)$$

For any constant $b_1 > 1$ and $b_2 > 1$.

For example, let us verify $log_2 n = O(log_3 n)$.

Notice that

$$\log_3 n = \frac{\log_2 n}{\log_2 3} \Longrightarrow \log_2 n = \log_2 3 \cdot \log_3 n$$

Hence, we can set $c_1 = \log_2 3$ and $c_2 = 1$, which makes $\log_2 n \le c_1 \log_3 n$

Hold for all $n \ge c_2$.

An interesting fact about logarithm

$$\log_{b_1} n = O(\log_{b_2} n)$$

For any constant $b_1 > 1$ and $b_2 > 1$.

Because of the above, in computer science, we omit all the constant logarithm bases in big-O. For example, instead of $O(log_2 n)$, we will simply write O(log n)

- Essentially, this says that "you are welcome to put any constant base there, and it will be the same asymptotically".
- Obviously, Ω , Θ also have this property.

Outline

- Asymptotic Notations (新近记号)
 - Big-Oh
 - Big-Omega
 - Big-Theta
 - Algorithm Design and Algorithm Turing
- Solving Recurrences
 - Recursion-tree Method (递归树法)
 - Substitution Method (代入法/替代法)
 - Master Method and Master Theorem (主方法)

Some Thoughts on Algorithm Design

- Algorithm Design, as taught in this class, is mainly about designing algorithms that have big-Oh running times.
- As n gets larger and larger, O(nlogn) algorithms will run faster than O(n²) ones and O(n) algorithms will beat O(nlogn) ones.
- Good algorithm design & analysis allows you to identify the hard parts of your problem and deal with them effectively.
- Too often, programmers try to solve problems using brute force techniques and end up with slow complicated code!
- A few hours of abstract thought devoted to algorithm design often results in faster, simpler, and more general solutions.

Algorithm Tuning

- After algorithm design one can continue on to Algorithm tuning
 - concentrate on improving algorithms by cutting down on the constants in the big O() bounds.
 - needs a good understanding of both algorithm design principles and efficient use of data structures.
- In this course we will not go further into algorithm tuning
 - For a good introduction, see chapter 9 in Programming Pearls,
 2nd ed by Jon Bentley

