### CS 341

These notes are meant to be supplementary to lecture slides & the textbook, and so may not contain all covered materials. Here I've chosen content which might not be easy to remember and/or is helpful to look at when doing assignments.

## **Asymptotic Analysis**

- Order Notations:
  - $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  if  $\exists c > 0$  and  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $0 \le f(n) \le cg(n) \ \forall n \ge n_0$ 
    - $\circ$  f "grows no faster than" g
  - $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$  if  $\exists c > 0$  and  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $0 \le cg(n) \le f(n) \ \forall n \ge n_0$ 
    - $\circ$  f "grows no slower than" g
  - $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$  if  $\exists c_1, c_2 > 0$  and  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $0 \le c_1 g(n) \le f(n) \le c_2 g(n) \ \forall \ n \ge n_0$ 
    - $\circ$  f ang g have the same complexity
  - $f(n) \in o(g(n))$  if  $\forall c > 0, \exists n_0 > 0$  such that  $0 \le f(n) < cg(n) \ \forall n \ge n_0$ 
    - $\circ$  f has lower complexity than g
  - $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$  if  $\forall c > 0, \exists n_0 > 0$  such that  $0 \le cg(n) < f(n) \ \forall n \ge n_0$ 
    - $\circ$  f has higher complexity than g
  - $f \in O(g)$  and  $f \in \Omega(g) \iff f \in \Theta(g)$
- Limit method: suppose  $L = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}$ 
  - $f \in o(g) \text{ if } L = 0$
  - $f \in \Theta(q)$  if  $0 < L < \infty$
  - $f \in \omega(g)$  if  $L = \infty$
- Useful facts for first-principles proofs:
  - $\bullet$  log  $n \ge 1 \ \forall \ n \ge 2$ ; i.e. log n grows faster than 1
  - $\blacksquare$  log  $n \le n \ \forall \ n \ge 0$ ; i.e. log n grows slower than n
- Useful limit laws:
  - $\blacksquare \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\log(f(n))}{\log(g(n))}$
  - $\blacksquare \lim_{n\to\infty} f(n)^k = (\lim_{n\to\infty} f(n))^k$
- Some math rules:
  - Summing a polynomial:  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^{k} \in \Theta(n^{k+1})$

■ Summing an exponential (special case of geometric series):

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c^{i} \in \begin{cases} \Theta(c^{n+1}) & \text{if } c > 1\\ \Theta(n) & \text{if } c = 1\\ \Theta(1) & \text{if } c < 1 \end{cases}$$

- $\bullet$   $a^{\log_b n} = n^{\log_b a}$  (Useful for recursion trees)
- Geometric series:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} ar^{i} = \begin{cases} a\frac{r^{n}-1}{r-1} \in \Theta(r^{n}) & \text{if } r > 1\\ na \in \Theta(n) & \text{if } r = 1\\ a\frac{1-r^{n}}{1-r} \in \Theta(1) & \text{if } r < 1 \end{cases}$$

- $a \ge b + c$  if  $a \ge 2 \cdot \max(b, c)$  (useful for asymtotic proofs)
- $\blacksquare \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \text{ if it exists (L'Hopital's Rule)}$
- $\log(n!) \in \Theta(n \log n)$  (Stirling's Approximation)

## Divide and Conquer

#### • Recursion-tree method:

- Given the recurrence T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n), T(1) = c:
  - $\circ$  a is the # of recursive calls made (# of subproblems)
  - $\circ$  b is the # by which the input size n is divided in each recursive call
  - $\circ$  f(n) is the runtime of the "work done outside of the recursive calls"
  - $\circ$  c is the constant-time work done in each recursive call in the base case
- Each node of the recursion tree represents the cost of the work done other than making recursive calls
- Each row represents the total cost of work done in all recursive calls at that recursion "level"
- The height of the tree depends on the factor that the input size is divided by; i.e.  $\log_b n$
- E.g.: Picture this as a tree where each node (except for leaves) has a children;

Level 0: 
$$f(n)$$
 total =  $f(n)$   
Level 1:  $f(n/b)$  ...  $f(n/b)$  total =  $af(n/b)$   
Level 2:  $f(n/b^2)$  ...  $f(n/b^2)$  total =  $a^2f(n/b^2)$   
...

Level  $k$ :  $f(n/b^k)$  ...  $f(n/b^k)$  total =  $a^kf(n/b^k)$   
...

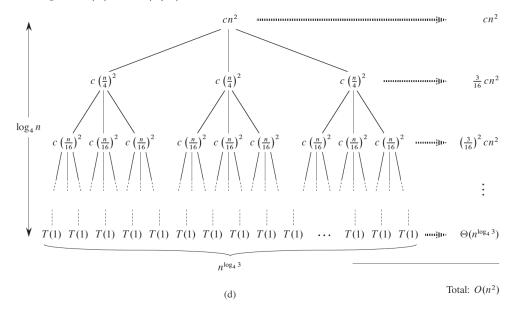
Level  $\log_b n$ :  $c$  ...  $c$  total =  $ca^{\log_b n} = cn^{\log_b a}$ 

• Total runtime of recursion tree is (summing every row total):

$$T(n) \in \Theta\left(\sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n-1} a^i f(n/b^i)\right) + \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$$

• Use geometric series formula to find a simplified value

■ Example:  $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + n^2$ 



$$T(n) \in \Theta\left(\sum_{k=0}^{\log_4 n - 1} \left(\frac{3}{16}\right)^k n^2 + n^{\log_4 3}\right) \in \Theta(n^2)$$

### • Master method:

■ Given the recurrence T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n) where  $f(n) \in \Theta(n^d)$ :

$$T(n) \in \begin{cases} \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } a > b^d \\ \Theta(n^d \log n) & \text{if } a = b^d \\ \Theta(n^d) & \text{if } a < b^d \end{cases}$$

# **Greedy Algorithms**

- Two methods of proving greedy algorithms:
- Greedy stays ahead (induction)
  - Show that  $S_g$  is better than S at every step
  - Base case: show  $S_g[1] > S[1]$
  - Inductive hypothesis: assume  $S_g[k-1] > S[k-1]$ ; show that  $S_g[k] > S[k]$ 
    - o Often by contradiction; i.e. suppose  $\exists S^*$  such that  $S_g[k] < S^*[k]$ , and derive some contradiction
- Exchange argument (swapping)
  - $\blacksquare$  Let  $S_g =$  greedy solution, S = some arbitrary solution
  - Show that (any) S can be transformed into  $S_g$  step-by-step without getting worse at any point
    - $\circ$  i.e. compare the cost of before & after swapping 2 elements in S, show that it doesn't change or improves

# Graphs

• Breadth-first search

- Forward edges cannot exist in BFS trees; cross & back edges can
- Cross edges indicate presence of an odd cycle graph is <u>not bipartite</u>
- Depth-first search

```
function DFS-visit(G, s) { // s = starting vertex
   mark s as visiting
   for each unvisited neighbour u of s:
        DFS(G, u)
   set s as finished
}

function DFS(G) { // creates DFS forest
   mark all vertices as unvisited
   for each unvisited v in G.V:
        DFS-visit(G, v)
}
```

■ Iterative implementation using a stack is also possible

#### • Topological sorting

- Order the nodes such that for every  $(u, v) \in E$ , u precedes v
- Algorithm 1: remove source nodes iteratively
- Algorithm 2: run DFS with finishing times of each node, then order by decreasing finish time
- Strongly connected components
  - An SCC = a maximal subset of vertices such that every pair u, v are reachable from each other
    - $\circ$  i.e.  $\exists$  path from  $u \to v$  and  $v \to u$

- The component graph of G,  $G^{SCC}$ , is a DAG
- Kosaraju's Algorithm:

```
function find_SCCs(G) {
    compute G_rev
    DFS(G) -> keep track of finish times
    for each unvisited v in G.V, by decreasing finishing time:
        DFS(G, v) -> label as SCC
}
```

### • Minimum spanning tree:

- Sum of edge weights is minimal
- General greedy MST algorithm:
  - Add the minimum weighted edge crossing the cut formed by the tree "so far" & the rest of the graph
  - $\circ$  Repeat for n-1 times
- Prim's Algorithm: general greedy algorithm but with heap-based priority queue
  - $\circ$  Runtime =  $O(m \log n)$
- Kruskal's Algorithm:
  - Sort edges by weight; choose the minimum weighted edge that doesn't create a cycle
  - $\circ$  Runtime =  $O(m \log n)$

#### • Shortest path:

- SSSP in DAG:
  - Use DP, and the recurrence:  $SD[v] = min_{(u,v) \in E}SD[u] + w(u,v)$
  - $\circ$  i.e. subproblem is the SSSP to the vertices preceding v

#### ■ Dijkstra's Algorithm:

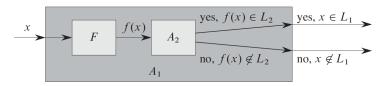
- At each step, pick the vertex with the shortest distance so far
- o "Overwrite" distance-so-far of a vertex if a shorter path to it has been found
- $\circ$  Runtime =  $O(m \log n)$
- Floyd-Warshall's Algorithm (all-pairs shortest path):
  - o D[i, j, k] =shortest path from i to j that only goes through  $v_1 \dots v_k$  as intermediate vertices
  - $\circ$  Recurrence:  $D[i, j, k] = \min(D[i, j, k-1], D[i, k, k-1] + D[k, j, k-1])$
  - $\circ$  Runtime =  $O(n^3)$

## Intractability

- P: solvable in polynomial time
- NP: verifiable in polynomial time
  - A verification algorithm takes 2 inputs:
  - Problem instance a particular set of parameters of the problem
    - e.g. a graph, with vertices and edges
  - $\blacksquare$  Certificate a given "solution" of the problem that shows the instance returns yes
    - o e.g. a ordered list of vertices, used to verify that a Hamiltonian cycle indeed exists
- $P \subseteq NP$

#### • Reducibility:

- $L_1 \leq_P L_2$  " $L_1$  is polynomial-time reducible to  $L_2$ "
- There exists a P-time computable function f that maps instances of  $L_1$  to  $L_2$
- $\blacksquare$  e.g. If problem instance I returns yes for  $L_1$ , then f(I) also returns yes for  $L_2$



- If  $L_1 \leq_P L_2$ , then  $L_2 \in P \implies L_1 \in P$ 
  - $\circ$  i.e. if  $L_2$  is solvable in P-time, then  $L_1$  is as well
  - $\circ$  i.e.  $L_1$  is no harder than  $L_2$
- Contrapositive:
  - $\circ$  i.e. if  $L_1$  is known to be *not* solvable in P-time, then  $L_2$  can't be either
  - $\circ$  i.e.  $L_2$  is as hard as  $L_1$
- Mainly used for reducing decision problems as part of NPC proofs

## • Turing reduction:

- A reduction  $L_1 \leq^T L_2$  used to solve  $L_1$ , where  $L_2$  is known, e.g. available as a subroutine
- $L_1 \leq_P^T L_2$  polynomial-time Turing reduction
- $L_1, L_2$  don't have to be decision problems
- $\blacksquare$  Mainly used for reducing optimization problem  $\rightarrow$  decision problem

#### • NP-Completeness:

- $\blacksquare$  L is NPC if:
  - $\circ$   $L \in NP$ , and
  - $\circ \quad \forall \ L' \in NP, L' \leq_P L \text{ (this is definition of } \underline{NP-hard})$
- i.e. NPC = set of problems in NP such that all other NP problems can be can be

reduced to X

- $\blacksquare$  NPC = NP  $\cap$  NP-hard
- $\blacksquare$  Because of these properties, to prove a problem L is NPC:
  - Show that  $L \in NP$
  - Show that  $L' \leq_P L$  for some  $L' \in NPC$
- Reduction relationships between NPC problems:



## • Undecidability:

- No algorithm can solve the problem
- Show that the existence of an algorithm leads to a contradiction
- Example: the Halting Problem
- Reduce an undecidable problem to another problem to show that it's also undecidable