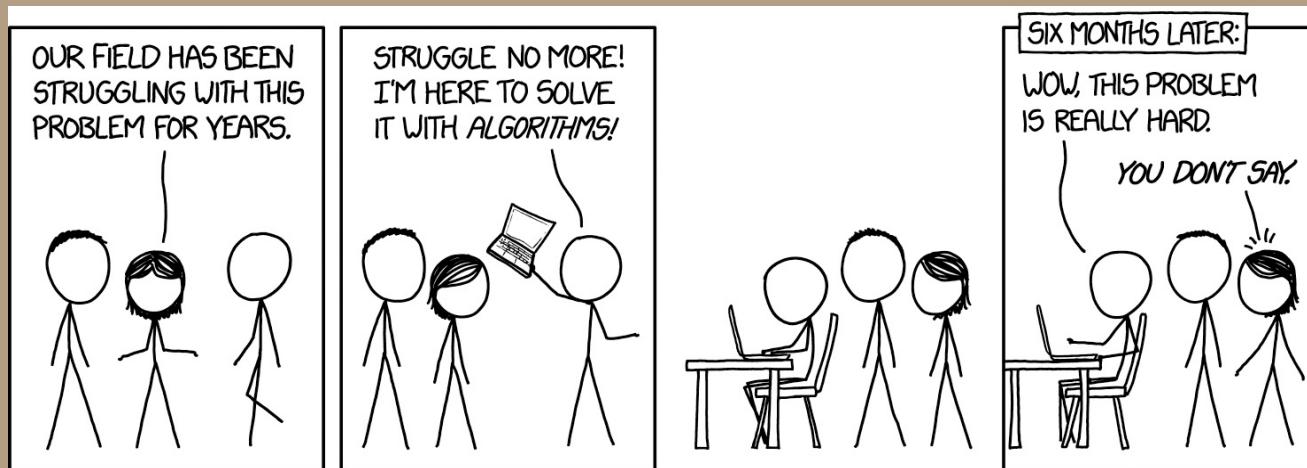


Complexity & Algorithms - Spring '26



Background



Recap

- Any syllabus questions?
- HWO is posted
- Reading posted for next week

↳ 2 posted

- discrete maths
- data structures ←
- Class slack ← questions!

Expectations

When I say "give an algorithm", "show how to compute ...", etc, what do I mean?

- Pseudocode (+ description)
- Runtime (+ space)
- Proof of correctness ~~*~~

Background

① Big-O + little-o + O:

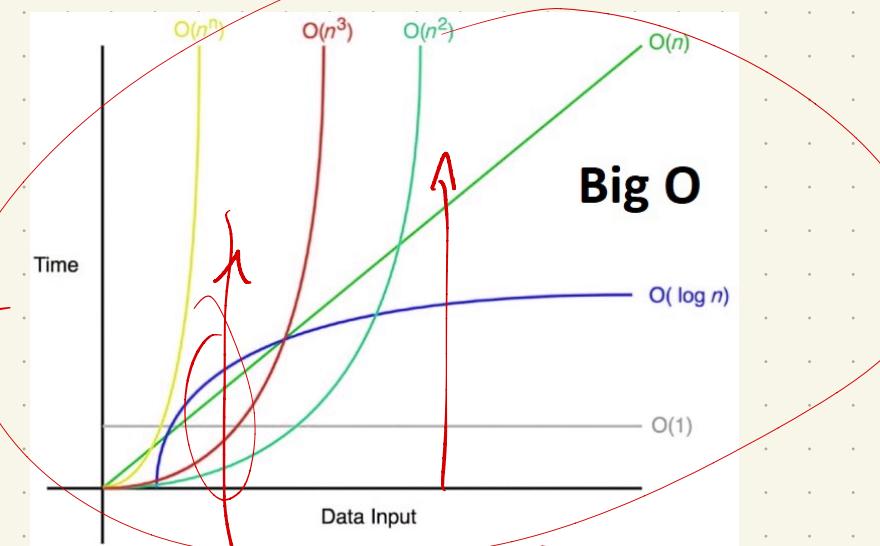
Formally, $f(n) = O(g(n))$

If: $\exists n > N, \exists c \text{ constant}$

s.t. $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$

→ Past some target N , f is
dominated by g

Why? avoid low level implementation
details



Example: $f(n) = 5n^3 - 6$ and $g(n) = 14n^3 + 3n^2 + 11$

$f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$:

Fix $N = \cancel{> 1}$

c

$$5n^3 - 6 \leq c(14n^3 + 3n^2 + 11)$$

$\cancel{c} \quad 1=c$

$$5n^3 - 6 \leq 5n^3 - 6 + 9n^3 + 3n^2 + 11$$

≥ 0

$g(n)$ is $O(f(n))$: $c \cdot f(n) = 20n^3 - 24$

Set $c=4$:

littleo: $f(n)$ is $o(g(n))$:

$\forall n > N \exists c \geq 0$ s.t.

$$f(n) = \sum g(n) f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$$

$6n^2$ is $\underline{o}(n^2)$

Set $c=7$ Fix $N=1$.

$$6n^2 \leq c \cdot n^2 \geq 7 \cdot n^2$$

big-theta: $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$

② logarithms: useful identities

Find it in your discrete
math reference, ie

$$\begin{aligned} \log_b(xy) &= \log_b(x) + \log_b(y) \\ \log_b\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) &= \log_b(x) - \log_b(y) \\ \log_b(x^y) &= y \log_b(x) \\ \log_b(\sqrt[y]{x}) &= \frac{\log_b(x)}{y} \end{aligned}$$

Recall Dfn: $\log_a b =$ exponent you take
a to in order to get b

$$\log_a b = x \Leftrightarrow a^x = b$$

Identities: how do exponents behave?

$$2^x \cdot 2^y = 2^{x+y}$$

$$\log_b(xy) = \log_b x + \log_b y$$

$$\frac{2^x}{2^y} = 2^{x-y} = 2^{x-y}$$

$$(2^x)^y = 2^{xy} = (2^y)^x$$

$$2^{\log_2 n} = n$$

" \log "

$$\ln = \log_e$$

$$\lg = \log_2$$

Another:

$$\log_a b = \frac{\log_x b}{\log_x a} \text{ with any base } x$$

Use it: Show $\underline{8 \log_{10} n}$ is $O(\log_2 n)$:

$$8 \log_{10} n = 8 \left(\frac{\log_2 n}{\log_2 10} \right) \\ = \frac{8}{\log_2 10} \cdot \log_2 n$$

Set $C = \frac{8}{\log_2 10} + N = 10$

then $8 \log_{10} n \leq C \cdot \log_2 n$
 $(=)$

③ Summations:

again, your discrete math book has a table. Find it. Love it.

Ex:

Helpful Summation Identities	
$\sum_{i=1}^n c = nc$	for every c that does not depend on i (1)
$\sum_{i=0}^n i = \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$	Sum of the first n natural numbers (2)
$\sum_{i=1}^n 2i - 1 = n^2$	Sum of first n odd natural numbers (3)
$\sum_{i=0}^n 2i = n(n+1)$	Sum of first n even natural numbers (4)
$\sum_{i=1}^n \log i = \log n!$	Sum of logs (5)
$\sum_{i=0}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} = \frac{n^3}{3} + \frac{n^2}{2} + \frac{n}{6}$	Sum of the first squares (6)
$\sum_{i=0}^n i^3 = \left(\sum_{i=0}^n i\right)^2 = \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{n^4}{4} + \frac{n^3}{2} + \frac{n^2}{4}$	Nichomacus' Theorem (7)
$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a^i = \frac{1 - a^n}{1 - a}$	Sum of geometric progression (8)
$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{2^i} = 2 - \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$	Special case for $n = 2$ (9)
$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} ia^i = \frac{a - na^n + (n-1)a^{n+1}}{(1-a)^2}$	(10)
$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (b + id)a^i = b \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a^i + d \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} ia^i$	(11)
	(12)

Notation reminder: $\sum_{i=1}^n f(i) = f(1) + f(2) + \dots + f(n)$
 (loops!)

Note: $f(i)$ is any function!
 n times

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 5 = (5 + 5 + \dots + 5) = 5n = O(n)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\sum_{j=1}^i j \right] = \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = O(n^2)$$

$$\frac{n^2}{2} + \frac{n}{2}$$

τ nested for loops

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^i (\log_2 n) &= \sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot \log_2 n \\ &= \log_2 n \cdot \left[\sum_{i=1}^n i \right] = O(n^2 \log_2 n) \end{aligned}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \dots + (n-1) + n$$

A hand-drawn diagram in red ink illustrates the sum of the first n natural numbers. It shows a sequence of terms: 1, 2, 3, 4, ..., (n-1), n. Brackets group the terms into pairs: (1+2), (3+4), ..., ((n-1)+n). A large bracket at the bottom groups all these pairs together. Arrows point from each term to its corresponding pair, and another arrow points from the bottom bracket back up to the top bracket.

$$= \frac{n}{2} (n+1)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i \cdot \log_2 n = \log_2 n + 2 \cdot \log_2 n + \dots + n \log_2 n$$

$$= \log_2 n [1 + 2 + \dots + n]$$

④ Induction:

There is a template! Fix what you induct on.

Base case: Show true for some small instances

Ind hypothesis: Assume true for all instances up to some size k

Ind. step: Show true for size $k+1$

Think of this as "automating" a proof:

$P(1)$

$\forall k \geq 1, P(k-1) \Rightarrow P(k)$

} Predicate logic view

Example

$$\sum_{i=1}^n F_i = F_{n+2} - 1 \quad \{ P$$

Recall

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

$$F_0 = 0$$

$$F_1 = 1$$

$$F_2 = 1$$

$$F_3 = 2$$

$$F_4 = 3$$

$$\forall n > 1, F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$$

Induction on n :

Base case: $n=1$ LHS: $\sum_{i=1}^1 F_i = F_1 = 1$

RHS: $F_{1+2} - 1 = F_3 - 1 = 2 - 1 = 1$ ✓

P(1) is true

IH: $\forall k < n \rightarrow$ eq. is true }
 $\sum_{i=1}^k F_i \Rightarrow (F_{k+2} - 1)$

$P(n+1)$



$P(n)$

DS: Show true for n :

LHS: Consider $\sum_{i=1}^n F_i = (F_1 + F_2 + \dots + \cancel{F_n})$

$$= F_n + \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} F_i \right)$$

use IH:

$$= F_n + (F_{n+1} - 1)$$

by def of
fib #s

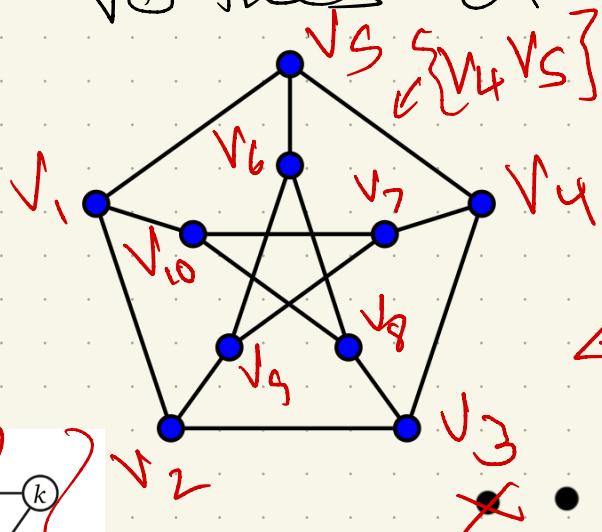
$$= F_{n+2} - 1$$



Induction on structures:

Consider graphs: $G = (V, E)$

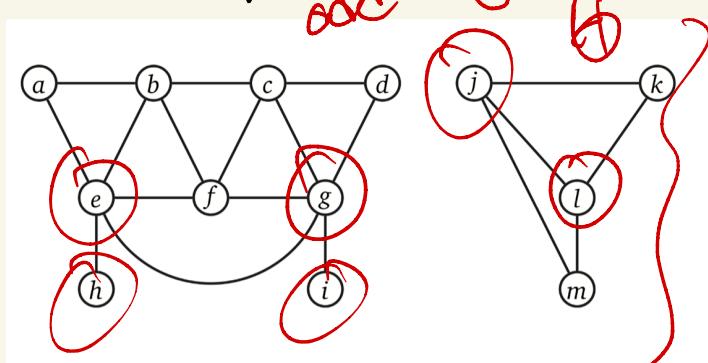
Theorem: In any undirected graph, the number of vertices of odd degree is even.



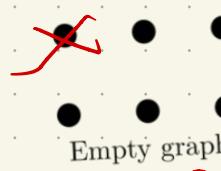
$$E = \{(u, v) | u, v \in V\}$$

← all vertices have degree = 3

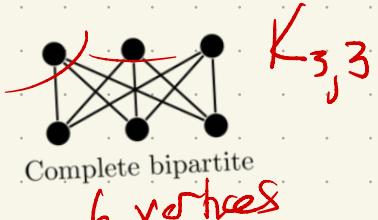
Examples:



odd degree
6

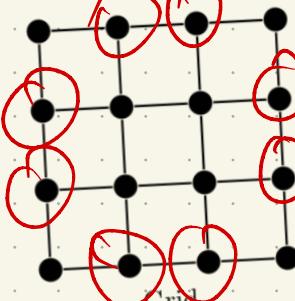
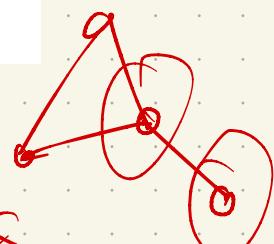


Empty graph

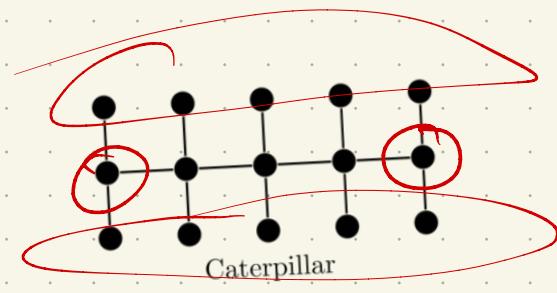


Complete bipartite
6 vertices

Note here:
Induct on vertices
or edges



Grid



Caterpillar

Proof by induction on the number of edges:

Base Case: no edges (any # of vertices)

∴ Any graph with 0 edges has
all vertices with $\deg = 0$
 \Rightarrow even # of odd degrees ($= 0$)

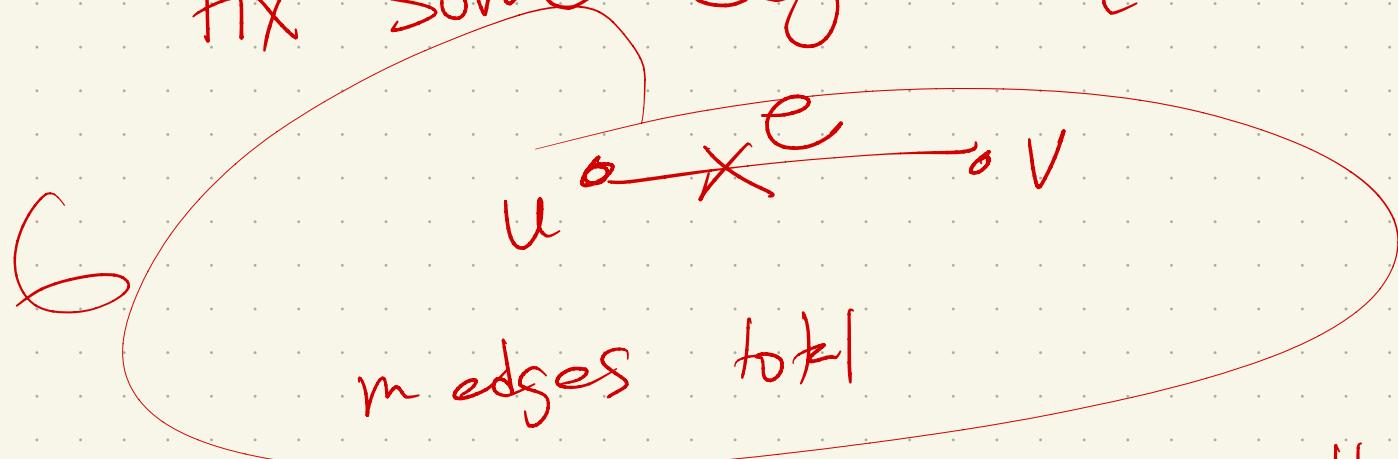
Inductive hypothesis:

Any graph with $0 \leq k < m$
edges has even # of vertices
with odd degree,
(any # of vertices)

Inductive Step:

Consider a graph with m edges
(Not in base case $\Rightarrow m \geq 1$)

Fix some edge $e = \{uv\}$



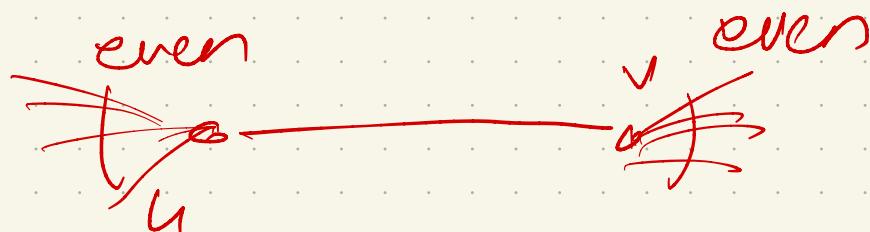
delete e
to get G'

By IH, G' has even # of odd degree vertices. \rightarrow call this X .

What if we re-add e ?

Cases:

- u and v had even degree in G'



Now, both have odd degree

$x+2$ odd deg. vertices

$\underbrace{x}_{x \text{ is even}}$ is even, so is $x+2$. ✓

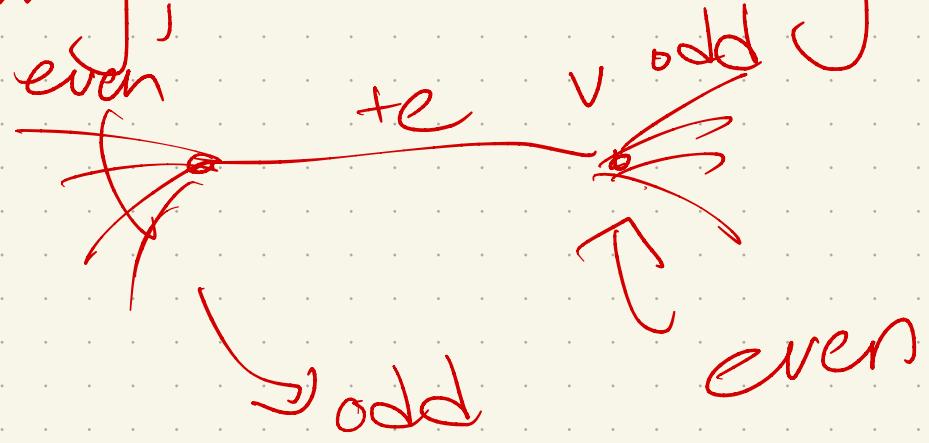
- u & v had odd degree in G'



\Rightarrow now both even

So G has $x-2$ odd deg. vertices \Rightarrow still even.

• wlog, u even deg & v odd deg



\Rightarrow Still \times odd deg.
vertices

\Rightarrow Even # of odd degree.



Another: Every rooted binary tree of height h has $\leq 2^{h+1} - 1$ nodes

Recall: $\text{height}(\tau) = \{$

Proof:

③ Pseudo code + runtime Discrete math examples (from Rosen textbook)

ALGORITHM 1 Finding the Maximum Element in a Finite Sequence.

```
procedure max( $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ : integers)
max :=  $a_1$ 
for  $i := 2$  to  $n$ 
    if  $max < a_i$  then  $max := a_i$ 
return max{max is the largest element}
```

This book:

```
FIBONACCIMULTIPLY( $X[0..m-1], Y[0..n-1]$ ):
hold ← 0
for  $k \leftarrow 0$  to  $n+m-1$ 
    for all  $i$  and  $j$  such that  $i+j = k$ 
        hold ← hold +  $X[i] \cdot Y[j]$ 
     $Z[k] \leftarrow hold \bmod 10$ 
    hold ←  $\lfloor hold/10 \rfloor$ 
return  $Z[0..m+n-1]$ 
```

Pseudo code conventions here:

Variable assignment:

Boolean comparison:

Arrays: $A[0..n-1]$

- each element:

Loops:

Pseudocode format:

In a pinch, pretend you're in Python
or Ruby → High level + readable.

I realize this is not a "definition"-
that is the point!

It's about effective communication.

Next reading: recursion

Most of you indicated you'd seen it before. Topics here:

- Towers of Hanoi
- Merge sort
- Recap of recurrences & "Master theorem"
- Linear time Selection
- Multiplication (again)
- Exponentiation

A high level note on recursion:

Recursion really can be simpler +
useful!

Often depends upon the language
and setup.

Counter-intuitive, but that's often due
to lack of practice

Often considered slower?

Recursion

- If you can solve directly (usually because input is small), do it!
- Otherwise, reduce to simple (usually smaller) instances of the same problem.

Recursion Fairy

- Helps to solidify that "black box" mentality, so you don't keep unpacking the next level.

(She's also called the
"induction hypothesis".)

Classic example

↙ Our book

QUICKSORT($A[1..n]$):

```
if ( $n > 1$ )
    Choose a pivot element  $A[p]$ 
     $r \leftarrow \text{PARTITION}(A, p)$ 
     $\text{QUICKSORT}(A[1..r - 1])$     ⟨Recurse!⟩
     $\text{QUICKSORT}(A[r + 1..n])$     ⟨Recurse!⟩
```

PARTITION($A[1..n], p$):

```
swap  $A[p] \leftrightarrow A[n]$ 
 $\ell \leftarrow 0$           ⟨#items < pivot⟩
for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n - 1$ 
    if  $A[i] < A[n]$ 
         $\ell \leftarrow \ell + 1$ 
        swap  $A[\ell] \leftrightarrow A[i]$ 
swap  $A[n] \leftrightarrow A[\ell + 1]$ 
return  $\ell + 1$ 
```

Algorithm 1 Quicksort

```
1: procedure QUICKSORT( $A, p, r$ )
2:   if  $p < r$  then
3:      $q = \text{PARTITION}(A, p, r)$ 
4:      $\text{QUICKSORT}(A, p, q - 1)$ 
5:      $\text{QUICKSORT}(A, q + 1, r)$ 
6:   end if
7: end procedure
8: procedure PARTITION( $A, p, r$ )
9:    $x = A[r]$ 
10:   $i = p - 1$ 
11:  for  $j = p$  to  $r - 1$  do
12:    if  $A[j] < x$  then
13:       $i = i + 1$ 
14:      exchange  $A[i]$  with  $A[j]$ 
15:    end if
16:    exchange  $A[i]$  with  $A[r]$ 
17:  end for
18: end procedure
```

QuickSort Pseudocode Example

↙ Another version