

CS3203 #3

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Administrivia

- Textbooks should be in the bookstore
- Office hours established?

Algorithms

- An **algorithm** is a finite set of precise instructions for performing a computation or for solving a problem.
 - Term is a corruption of the name *al-Khowarizmi*, whose book on Hindu numerals is the basis of modern decimal notation.
 - What's a step? Good question! Depends on context. Algebraic operations are a step, for instance.
- Example: given a sequence of integers a_1, \dots, a_n , determine if they're in increasing order
 - Express using **psuedocode**.
 - Roughly Pascal-like.

```
output := TRUE
i := 2
while (i <= n and output = TRUE)
begin
  if  $a_i < a_{i-1}$  then output := FALSE
  i := i + 1
end
```

Fundamentals of most algorithms

- Input, output
- Definiteness: the steps of an algorithm must be defined precisely
- Correctness: An algorithm should produce the correct output for each set of input
- Finite
- Effective: It must be possible to perform each step of an algorithm exactly and in a finite amount of time
- Generality: Procedure should be applicable for all problems of the desired form, and not just for a particular set of input values.

Common categories of algorithms

- Code for these are in the book
- Searching algorithms
 - How to find information inside a long list?
 - Linear search: go through one item at a time
 - What if it's ordered?
 - Binary search: start in the middle and divide the search space by half each time.
- Sorting algorithms
 - Bubble sort: perhaps the simplest

```
procedure bubblesort( $a_1, \dots, a_n$ )  
for  $i := 1$  to  $n - 1$   
    for  $j := 1$  to  $n - 1$   
        if  $a_j > a_{j+1}$  then interchange  $a_j$  and  $a_{j+1}$   
    { $a_1, \dots, a_n$  is in increasing order}
```
 - Insertion sort
 - There are others, of course

Greedy algorithms

- Common way to solve **optimization problems**, where the goal is to find a solution that either minimizes or maximizes the value of some parameter.
- The idea is to “choose the best choice at each step”, i.e., optimize locally instead of globally, and this works for a surprisingly large number of problems (but not all!)
- Example: greedy change-making algorithm is optimal if you have all coins... but *not* necessarily if you're missing one type of coin.
- Book uses a proof by contradiction to show that this works
- We'll see a lot of greedy algorithms in the graph theory portion of the course

Growth of functions

- Fundamental idea: we're not concerned with the precise number of steps an algorithm takes
 - Just buy a PC that's X times as fast
- Rather, we're more concerned with how much work the algorithm does as the size of the input increases.
- **Big-O** notation lets us focus on growth and avoids any constants
- Fundamental algebraic 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 exist constants C and k such that

$$|f(x)| \leq C|g(x)| \text{ whenever } x > k$$

How to use?

- Do a little algebra.
- Example: prove $5x^4 - 37x^3 + 13x - 4 = O(x^4)$
- Choosing $C=59$ and $x=1$ fulfills the inequality.
- Note that this is not a “genuine equality”.
- If $h(x)$ has larger (absolute) values than $g(x)$ for sufficiently large x , it also follows that $f(x) = O(h(x))$.
- Example 2: Show that $7x^2$ is $O(x^3)$
 - But $7x^3$ is NOT $O(x^2)$!
- Other important theorems:
 - If $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$, then $f(x)$ is $O(x^n)$ (similar to problem above; can use triangle inequality to prove)
 - Estimate the sum of the first n integers using Big-Oh.

More Big-O

- Common big-O functions used in estimates
 - 1, $\log n$, n , $n \log n$, n^2 , 2^n , $n!$
- If $f_1(x)$ is $O(g_1(x))$ and $f_2(x)$ is $O(g_2(x))$, $(f_1 + f_2)(x)$ is $O(\max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|))$.
- If $f_1(x)$ is $O(g(x))$ and $f_2(x)$ is $O(g(x))$, $(f_1 + f_2)(x)$ is $O(g(x))$.
- If $f_1(x)$ is $O(g_1(x))$ and $f_2(x)$ is $O(g_2(x))$, $(f_1 f_2)(x)$ is $O(g_1(x)g_2(x))$.
- What's a big-O estimate of $f(x) = (x+1)\log(x^2+1) + 3x^2$?

Big-Omega and Big-Theta

- Big-O is *only an upper bound*
- Not always useful
- We say $f(x)$ is $\Omega(g(x))$ if there are positive constants C and k s.t.

$$|f(x)| \geq C|g(x)| \text{ whenever } x > k$$

- We say $f(x)$ is $\Theta(g(x))$ if $f(x)$ is $O(g(x))$ and $f(x)$ is $\Omega(g(x))$.
- Big-Omega is a lower bound, and Big-Theta provides both a lower and upper bound (latter being “on the order of”).
- Example: Show that $7x^2+1$ is $\Theta(x^2)$.
- If $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$, then $f(x)$ is $\Theta(x^n)$.

Complexity of algorithms

- Now that we know how to express upper/lower bounds, we'd like to analyze our algorithms and determine their *time* and *space* complexity.
 - Space complexity is not covered in this class.
- Time complexity is described in terms of the number of operations required instead of actual computer time.
- Largely informal discussion at this point – take Analysis of Algorithms if you want a more formalized approach.

Examples

- Determine the time complexity of the linear search algorithm in terms of the number of comparisons.
 - The book uses comparisons as the *basic operation*. Counting is not considered, although we could if we want.
 - Two comparisons per step, plus two more (exit condition, and outside comparison). Therefore, $\Theta(n)$ comparisons.
- Binary search?
 - For simplicity, assume there are $n = 2^k$ elements in the list. At each step, we're reducing k by one (i.e., looking at half the list). Therefore, $2k+2$ comparisons, or $2 \log n + 2$ comparisons, which is $\Theta(\log n)$.
- This kind of complexity is *worst-case analysis*. There's also average-case analysis, which we'll generally avoid as it's much more complicated.

Complexity cont'd.

- Complexity of bubble sort?
 - First time, $n-1$ comparisons, then $n-2$, ..., 1 comparison.
 - Sum of this is $n(n-1)/2$, which is $\Theta(n^2)$.
- Implications?
 - $O(1)$ is constant – fastest possible
 - $O(\log n)$ is logarithmic – pretty fast
 - $O(n)$ relative to the size of input
 - $O(n \log n)$ doesn't have a name, but is common for "fast" sorts.
 - $O(n^2)$ is polynomial – grows, but not too fast
 - $O(b^n)$ where $b > 1$ is *exponential*; this is the first category of intractable; grows way too fast to be useful; "NP" class of problems
 - $O(n!)$ is factorial
- Assumes $O(n)$ as a "good" estimate
- Page 150 gives some practical implications in the table (* means more than 10^{100} years)
- Then there are the *unsolvable problems*
 - Halting problem

Integers and division

- Number theory!
- Why?
 - Basis of important algorithms in computer science
- Especially divisibility of numbers
 - Prime number – critical to cryptography
 - Modular arithmetic (division and getting a remainder)
- Divisibility
 - If a and b are integers, $a \neq 0$, a divides b if there is an integer c such that $b=ac$. a is a *factor* of b , and b is a *multiple* of a . $a \mid b$.
 - Note we're primarily interested in integers.
- Some basic properties:
 - if $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, then $a \mid (b+c)$
 - Proof: use the definition and add them together.
 - if $a \mid b$, then $a \mid bc$ for all c
 - if $a \mid b$ and $b \mid c$, then $a \mid c$.
 - if $a \mid b$ and $a \mid c$, $a \mid mb+nc$ whenever m and n are integers (just apply the 2nd property to 1)

Primes

- A positive integer p greater than 1 is called *prime* if the only positive factors of p are 1 and p .
 - An integer greater than 1 that is divisible by others is *composite*.
 - Note greater than 1; 1 is neither prime nor composite.
 - First few primes?
- Leads to **fundamental theorem of arithmetic**
 - Every positive integer greater than 1 can be uniquely written as a prime or as the product of two or more primes where the prime factors are written in the order of nondecreasing size.
 - “Prime factorization” of any number
- If n is a composite integer, then n has a prime divisor less than or equal to the square root of n
 - Useful in determining primality of reasonably small numbers, e.g., show that 101 is prime.
- There are infinitely many primes.
 - Use the fundamental theorem of arithmetic, and generate a prime Q such that it's the product of all known primes, plus 1.

Primes (II)

- Quest to find larger and larger primes. One such set is the set of **Mersenne primes**, which are integers of the form $2^p - 1$. (Not all are!)
- The ratio of the number of primes not exceeding x and $x/\ln x$ approaches 1
 - In other words, the odds that a randomly selected positive integer x is prime are approximately $1/\ln x$.

Division revisited

- **Division algorithm** – given integer a and positive integer d , there exist unique integers q and r , with $0 \leq r < d$, such that $a = dq + r$.
 - d is the divisor, a is the dividend, q is the quotient and r is the remainder.
 - $q = a \mathbf{div} d$, and $r = a \mathbf{mod} d$
 - Remainders cannot be negative!

GCD and LCM

- Greatest common divisor is the largest integer d such that $d|a$ and $d|b$. $d = \gcd(a,b)$, where a and b both aren't zero
- a and b are *relatively prime* if their gcd is 1.
- Can use prime factorization to find gcd
 - Take as many factors as possible and multiply them together.
- Least common multiple of positive integers a and b is the smallest positive integer that is divisible by both; $\text{lcm}(a,b)$
 - Again, can use prime factorization; this time, need each term, but only max of any common ones
- For positive integers a, b , $ab = \gcd(a,b) * \text{lcm}(a,b)$

Modular arithmetic

- If a, b are integers and m is a positive integer, we say a is *congruent to b modulo m* if m divides $a - b$. Notation is $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$
- Another way of saying this is that two numbers have the same remainder.
 - $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ if $a \bmod m$ and $b \bmod m$.
- a and b are congruent modulo m if and only if there is an integer k such that $a = b + km$.
- All integers congruent to an integer $a \bmod m$ lets you create *congruence classes*

More modular arithmetic

- If $a \equiv b \pmod{m}$ and $c \equiv d \pmod{m}$, then $a+c \equiv b+d \pmod{m}$ and $ac \equiv bd \pmod{m}$
- Why do we care?
 - Hashing is a way of rapidly storing and retrieving information
 - $h(k) = k \bmod m$
 - Congruences suggest a collision, which needs to be dealt with.
 - Generating random numbers
 - Cryptology
 - Caesar's encryption method: $f(p) = (p+3) \bmod 26$
 - In other words, formalizing a very old mechanism
 - Of course, you can use more interesting functions
 - Inverse generates the decryption function

Representing integers

- We've been assuming base 10 all along. However, computers don't necessarily use that.
 - Computers also use base 2, base 8, and base 16 commonly.
- Let b be a positive integer greater than 1. Then if n is a positive integer, it can be expressed in the form
 - Base b expansion of n
 - $n = a_k b^k + a_{k-1} b^{k-1} + \dots + a_1 b + a_0$
where k is nonnegative, a_0, \dots, a_k are less than b but also nonnegative, and $a_k \neq 0$.
 - For example, binary expansion (pg 169)

Base conversion

- Divide repeatedly by the base.
- Keep the remainders, but use them *backwards*.
- This is just a variation of the previous base expansion.
- Algorithm written out on page 171.
- Can also use table lookups.
 - Remember that hex uses letters...

Integer algorithms with respect to base

- Suppose the binary expansions of a and b are $a = (a_{n-1}a_{n-2}\dots a_1a_0)_2$ and $b = (b_{n-1}b_{n-2}\dots b_1b_0)_2$.
- How to add?
- We add their rightmost bits and carry over as necessary.
 - Algorithm on page 173; $O(n)$.
 - Similar to base 10, just keep track of base 2.
 - Multiplication works similarly.

Computing div and mod

- Just subtract the divisor repeatedly and increase the quotient by 1 as long as you can.
- The remainder and quotient are the answer.
 - If the dividend was negative, just flip the quotient.

Euclidean algorithm

- Very fast way of determining the greatest common divisor
- Repeatedly divide the larger by the smaller, and keep the smaller and remainder.
- Therefore, $\gcd(150,8) = \gcd(8,6) = \gcd(6,2) = 2$
- Based on the following result:
Let $a = bq+r$, where a, b, q, r are integers. Then $\gcd(a,b) = \gcd(b, r)$.
- Algorithm on page 179.

Next time

- Reasoning, induction, recursion