

# Theory of Computing

Lecture 1

MAS 714

2019

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# Organization:

- Lectures:

Mon 10:30-11:30

TR+12

Tue 10:30-12:30

- Tutorial:

Tue 11:30-12:30

- Exceptions: This week no tutorial, next week no tutorial

# Organization

- Final: 60%, Midterm: 20%, Homework: 20%
- There will be 4 sets of homework
  - First homework on September 2, to be handed in on September 10
  - Each set of homework is 5%
- <http://www.ntu.edu.sg/home/hklauck/MAS714.htm>

# Books:

- Cormen, Leiserson, Rivest, Stein: Introduction to Algorithms
- Sipser: Introduction to the Theory of Computation
- Arora, Barak: Computational Complexity - A Modern Approach

# Theory of Computing

**ALGORITHMS**

**CRYPTOGRAPHY**

**DATA STRUCTURES**

**COMPLEXITY**

**MACHINE MODELS**

**UNCOMPUTABLE**

**FORMAL LANGUAGES**

**UNIVERSALITY**

**PROOF SYSTEMS**

# Overview

- First Half: Efficient Algorithms
  - Sorting
  - Graph Algorithms
  - Data Structures
  - Linear Programming
- Second Half: Theory of Computing
  - Computational Complexity
  - Computability
  - Formal Languages

# Computation

- Computation: Mapping inputs to outputs in a prescribed way, by small, easy steps
- Example: Multiplication
  - $\text{Mult}(a,b)=c$  such that  $a*b=c$ 
    - How to find  $c$ ?
    - School method

# Algorithms

- An algorithm is a procedure for performing a computation
- Algorithms consist of elementary steps/instructions
- Elementary steps depend on the model of computation
  - Example: C++ commands
  - Models Like Turing machines allow very simple steps only



# Algorithms: Example

- Gaussian Elimination
  - Input: Matrix  $M$
  - Output: Triangular Matrix that is row-equivalent to  $M$
  - Elementary operations: row operations
    - swap, scale, add

# Algorithms

- Algorithms are named after Al-Khwārizmī  
(Abū ‘Abdallāh Muḥammad ibn Mūsā al-Khwārizmī)  
c. 780-850 ce  
Persian mathematician and astronomer
- (Algebra is also named after his work)
- His works (later) brought the positional system of numbers to the attention of Europeans

# Algorithms: Example

- Addition via the school method:
  - Write numbers under each other
  - Add number position by position moving a „carry“ forward
- Elementary operations:
  - Add two numbers between 0 and 9 (memorized)
  - Read and Write
- Can deal with arbitrarily long numbers!

# Datastructure

- The addition algorithm uses (implicitly) an *array* as datastructure
  - An array is a fixed length vector of cells that can each store a number/digit
  - Note that when we add  $x$  and  $y$  then  $x+y$  is at most 1 digit longer than  $\max\{x,y\}$
  - So the result can be stored in an array of length  $n+1$  (where  $n$  allows to store  $x$  or  $y$ )

# Multiplication

- The school multiplication algorithm is an example of a *reduction*
- First we learn how to add  $n$  numbers with  $n$  digits each
- To multiply  $x$  and  $y$  we generate  $n$  numbers  $x_i \cdot y \cdot 10^i$  and add them up
- **Reduction** from Multiplication to Addition

# Complexity

- We usually analyze algorithms to grade the performance
- The most important (but not the only) parameters are time and space
- **Time** refers to the number of elementary steps
- **Space** refers to the storage needed during the computation

# Example: Addition

- Assume we add two numbers  $x, y$  with  $n$  decimal digits
- Clearly the number of elementary steps (adding digits etc) grows linearly with  $n$
- Space is also  $\approx n$
- Typical: asymptotic analysis

# Example: Multiplication

- We generate  $n$  numbers with at most  $2n$  digits, add them
- Number of steps is  $O(n^2)$
- Space is  $O(n^2)$ 
  - Easy to reduce to  $O(n)$
- Much faster algorithms exist
  - (but not easy to do with pen and paper)
- Question: Is multiplication harder than addition?
  - Answer: we don't know...



# Our Model of Computation

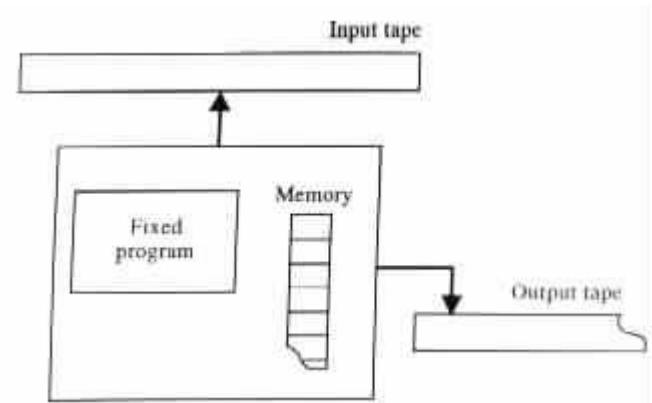
- We could use Turing machines...
- Will consider algorithms in a richer model, a RAM
- RAM:
  - random access machine
- Basically we will just use pseudocode/informal language

# RAM

- Random Access Machine
  - Storage is made of registers that can hold a number (an unlimited amount of registers is available)
  - The machine is controlled by a finite program
  - Instructions are from a finite set that includes
    - Fetching data from a register into a special register
    - Arithmetic operations on registers
    - Writing into a register
    - Indirect addressing

# RAM

- Random Access Machines and Turing Machines can simulate each other
- There is a **universal** RAM
  - Can simulate all other RAMs when given their program
- RAM's are very similar to actual computers
  - machine language



# Computation Costs

- The time cost of a RAM step involving 1 or 2 registers is the **logarithm** of the numbers stored
  - logarithmic cost measure
  - adding numbers with  $n$  bits takes time  $n$  etc.
- The **time cost** of a RAM program is the sum of the time costs of its steps
  - For a fixed input
- **Space** used is the sum (over all registers used) of the logarithms of the maximum numbers stored in the register

# Other Machine models

- Turing Machines (we will define them later)
  - Circuits
  - Many more!
- 
- A machine model is **universal**, if it can simulate **any** computation of a Turing machine
  - RAM's are universal
    - Vice versa, Turing machines can simulate RAM's

# Types of Algorithm Analysis

- Usually we will use **asymptotic** analysis
  - Reason: next year's computer will be faster, so constant factors don't matter (usually)
  - Understand the inherent complexity of a problem (can you multiply in linear time?)
  - Usually gives the right answer in practice
- **Worst case analysis**
  - The running time of an algorithm is the **maximum** time used over all inputs
  - On the safe side for all inputs...

# Other Types of Analysis

- **Average case:**
  - Average under which distribution?
  - Often the uniform distribution, but may be unrealistic
- **Amortized analysis:**
  - Sometimes after some costly preparations we can solve many problem instances cheaply
  - Count the average cost of an instance (preparation costs are spread between instances)
  - Often used in datastructure analysis

# Asymptotic Analysis


- Different models of computation lead to different running times
  - E.g. depending on the instruction set
- Also, real computers become faster through faster processors
  - Same sequence of operations performed faster
- Therefore we generally are not interested in constant factors in the running time
  - Unless they are very bad



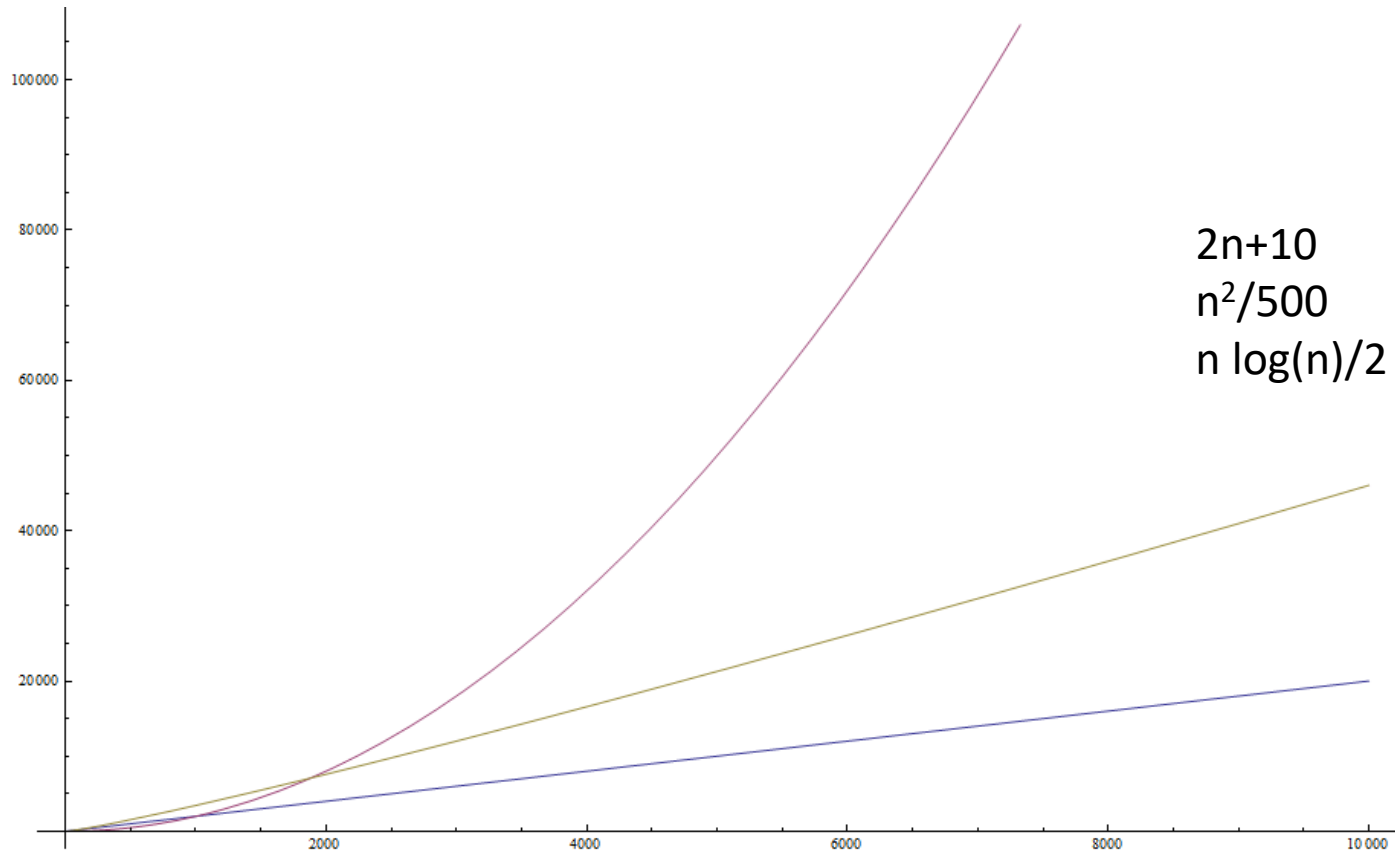
# $O, \Omega, \Theta$

- Let  $f, g$  be two monotonically increasing functions that send  $\mathbf{N}$  to  $\mathbf{R}^+$
- $f=O(g)$  if  $\exists n_0, c \forall n > n_0: f(n) \leq c g(n)$
- Example:  
 $f(n)=n, g(n)=1000n+100 \Rightarrow g(n)=O(f(n))$ 
  - Set  $c=1001$  and  $n_0=100$
- Example:  
 $f(n)=n \log n, g(n)=n^2$

# $O, \Omega, \Theta$

- Let  $f, g$  be two monotonically increasing functions that send  $\mathbf{N}$  to  $\mathbf{R}^+$
- $f = \Omega(g)$  iff  $g = O(f)$ 
  - Definition by Knuth 
- $f = \Theta(g)$  iff  $[ f = O(g) \text{ and } g = O(f) ]$
- $o, \omega$ : asymptotically smaller/larger
- E.g.,  $n = o(n^2)$
- But  $2n^2 + 100n = \Theta(n^2)$

# Some functions



# Sorting

- Computers spend a lot of time sorting!
- Assume we have a list of numbers  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  from a universe  $U$
- For simplicity assume the  $x_i$  are distinct
- The goal is to compute a permutation  $\pi$  such that
$$x_{\pi(1)} < x_{\pi(2)} < \dots < x_{\pi(n)}$$
- Think of a deck of cards
- Often the numbers have additional information attached
  - E.g. Telephone book

# InsertionSort

- An intuitive sorting algorithm
- The input is provided in  $A[1\dots n]$
- Code:

```
for i = 2 to n,  
    for (k = i; k > 1 and  $A[k] < A[k-1]$ ; k--)  
        swap  $A[k, k-1]$ 
```

→ *invariant:  $A[1..i]$  is sorted*

end

- Clear:  $O(n^2)$  comparisons and  $O(n^2)$  swaps
- Algorithm works in place, i.e., uses linear space

# Correctness

- By induction
- Base case:  $n=2$ :  
We have one conditional swap operation, hence the output is sorted
- Induction Hypothesis:  
After iteration  $i$  the elements  $A[1] \dots A[i]$  are sorted
- Induction Step:  
Consider Step  $i+1$ .  $A[1] \dots A[i]$  are sorted already. Inner loop starts from  $A[i+1]$  and moves it to the correct position. After this  $A[1] \dots A[i+1]$  are sorted.

# Best Case

- In the worst case Insertion Sort takes time  $\Omega(n^2)$
- If the input sequence is already sorted the algorithm takes time  $O(n)$
- The same is true if the input is almost sorted
  - important in practice
- Algorithm is simple and fast for small  $n$

# Worst Case

- On some inputs InsertionSort takes  $\Omega(n^2)$  steps
- Proof: consider a sequence that is decreasing, e.g.,  $n, n-1, n-2, \dots, 2, 1$
- Each element is moved from position  $i$  to position 1
- Hence the running time is at least  $\sum_{i=1, \dots, n} i = \Omega(n^2)$



# Can we do better?

- Attempt 1:  
Searching for the position to insert the next element is inefficient, employ *binary search*
- Ordered search:
  - Given an array  $A$  with  $n$  numbers in a sorted sequence, and a number  $x$ , find the smallest  $i$  such that  $A[i] \geq x$
- Use  $A[n+1] = \infty$

# Linear Search

- Simplest way to search
- Run through A (from 1 to n) and compare A[i] with x until A[i]  $\geq$  x is found, output i
- Time:  $\Theta(n)$
- Can also be used to search unsorted Arrays

# Binary Search

- If the array  $A$  is sorted already, we can find an item much faster!
- Assume we search for a  $x$  among  $A[1] < \dots < A[n]$
- **Algorithm** (to be first called with  $l=1$  and  $r=n$ ):
  - $\text{BinSearch}(x, A, l, r)$ 
    - If  $r-l=0$  test if  $A[l]=x$ , end
  - Compare  $A[(r-l)/2+l]$  with  $x$
  - If  $A[(r-l)/2+l]=x$  output  $(r-l)/2+l$ , end
  - If  $A[(r-l)/2+l] > x$   $\text{BinSearch}(x, A, l, (r-l)/2+l)$
  - If  $A[(r-l)/2+l] < x$   $\text{Bin Search}(x, A, (r-l)/2+l, r)$

# Time of Binary Search

- Define  $T(n)$  as the time/number of comparisons needed on Arrays of length  $n$
- $T(2)=1$
- $T(n)=T(n/2)+1$
- Solution:  $T(n)=\log(n)$
- logs have base 2 usually
  - In asymptotic analysis the base of the logarithms does not matter (as long as it's constant)

# Recursion

- We just described an algorithm via recursion: a procedure that calls itself
- This is often convenient but we must make sure that the recursion eventually terminates
  - Have a base case (here  $r=1$ )
  - Reduce some parameter in each call (here  $r-1$ )

# Binary Insertion Sort

- Using binary search in InsertionSort reduces the number of **comparisons** to  $O(n \log n)$ 
  - The outer loop is executed  $n$  times, each inner loop now uses  $\log n$  comparisons
- Unfortunately the number of **swaps** does not decrease:
  - To insert an element we need to shift the remaining array to the right!