



## Big $O$ notation: properties

Reflexivity.  $f$  is  $O(f)$ .

Constants. If  $f$  is  $O(g)$  and  $c > 0$ , then  $cf$  is  $O(g)$ .

Products. If  $f_1$  is  $O(g_1)$  and  $f_2$  is  $O(g_2)$ , then  $f_1f_2$  is  $O(g_1g_2)$ .

*Proof.*

- $\exists c_1 > 0$  and  $n_1 \geq 0$  such that  $0 \leq f_1(n) \leq c_1 \cdot g_1(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_1$ .
- $\exists c_2 > 0$  and  $n_2 \geq 0$  such that  $0 \leq f_2(n) \leq c_2 \cdot g_2(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_2$ .
- Then,  $0 \leq f_1(n) \cdot f_2(n) \leq c_1 \cdot c_2 \cdot g_1(n) \cdot g_2(n)$  for all  $n \geq \max\{n_1, n_2\}$ .

Sums. If  $f_1$  is  $O(g_1)$  and  $f_2$  is  $O(g_2)$ , then  $f_1 + f_2$  is  $O(\max\{g_1, g_2\})$ .

Transitivity. If  $f$  is  $O(g)$  and  $g$  is  $O(h)$ , then  $f$  is  $O(h)$ .

Ex.  $f(n) = 5n^3 + 3n^2 + n + 1234$  is  $O(n^3)$ .



## Proposition

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c$  for some constant  $0 < c < \infty$  then  $f(n)$  is  $\Theta(g(n))$ .

*Proof.*

By definition of the limit, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n_0$  such that

$$c - \varepsilon \leq \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \leq c + \varepsilon$$

for all  $n \geq n_0$ .

Choose  $\varepsilon = 1/2c > 0$ .

Multiplying by  $g(n)$  yields  $1/2c \cdot g(n) \leq f(n) \leq 3/2c \cdot g(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ .

Thus,  $f(n)$  is  $\Theta(g(n))$  by definition, with  $c_1 = 1/2c$  and  $c_2 = 3/2c$ .

# Euclid's Algorithm for Greatest Common Divisor



**Q:** Given two integers  $x$  and  $y$ , how to find their **greatest common divisor** ( $\gcd(x, y)$ )?

## Euclid's rule

If  $x$  and  $y$  are positive integers with  $x \geq y$ , then  $\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(x \bmod y, y)$ .

*Proof:*

It is enough to show the rule  $\gcd(x, y) = \gcd(x - y, y)$ . Result can be derived by repeatedly subtracting  $y$  from  $x$ .

# Euclid's Algorithm for Greatest Common Divisor



EUCLID( $x, y$ )

*Two integers  $x$  and  $y$  with  $x \geq y$ ;*

**if**  $y = 0$  **then** return  $x$ ;

return (EUCLID( $y, x \bmod y$ ));

## Lemma

*If  $a \geq b \geq 0$ , then  $a \bmod b < a/2$*

*Proof:*

- if  $b \leq a/2$ ,  $a \bmod b < b \leq a/2$ ;
- if  $b > a/2$ ,  $a \bmod b = a - b < a/2$ .

# An Extension of Euclid's Algorithm



**Q:** Suppose someone claims that  $d$  is the **greatest common divisor** of  $x$  and  $y$ , how can we check this?

It is not enough to verify that  $d$  divides both  $x$  and  $y$ ...

## Lemma

*If  $d$  divides both  $x$  and  $y$ , and  $d = ax + by$  for some integers  $a$  and  $b$ , then necessarily  $d = \gcd(x, y)$ .*

*Proof:*

$d \leq \gcd(x, y)$ , obviously;

$d \geq \gcd(x, y)$ , since  $\gcd(x, y)$  can divide  $x$  and  $y$ , it must also divide  $ax + by = d$ .



## Lemma

If  $\gcd(a, N) > 1$ , then  $ax \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ .

*Proof:*

$ax \pmod{N} = ax + kN$ , then  $\gcd(a, N)$  divides  $ax \pmod{N}$

If  $\gcd(a, N) = 1$ , then extended Euclid algorithm gives us integers  $x$  and  $y$  such that  $ax + Ny = 1$ , which means  $ax \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ . Thus  $x$  is  $a$ 's sought inverse.

# Fermat's Little Theorem



## Theorem

If  $p$  is a *prime*, then for every  $1 \leq a < p$ ,

$$a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$$

*Proof:*

Let  $S = \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}$ , then multiplying these numbers by  $a \pmod{p}$  is to *permute* them.

$a \cdot i \pmod{p}$  are distinct for  $i \in S$ , and all the values are nonzero.

multiplying all numbers in each representation, then gives  $(p-1)! \equiv a^{(p-1)} \cdot (p-1)! \pmod{p}$ , and thus

$$1 \equiv a^{(p-1)} \pmod{p}$$



## Lemma

If  $a^{N-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}$  for some  $a$  relatively prime to  $N$ , then it must hold for at least *half* the choices of  $a < N$ .

### Proof:

Fix some value of  $a$  for which  $a^{N-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ .

Assume some  $b < N$  satisfies  $b^{N-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{N}$ , then

$$(a \cdot b)^{N-1} \equiv a^{N-1} \cdot b^{N-1} \equiv a^{N-1} \not\equiv 1 \pmod{N}$$

For  $b \neq b'$ , we have

$$a \cdot b \not\equiv a \cdot b' \pmod{N}$$

The one-to-one function  $b \mapsto a \cdot b \pmod{N}$  shows that at least as many elements *fail* the test as *pass* it.

## Proof of the Property



*Proof:*

If the mapping  $x \rightarrow x^e \bmod N$  is invertible, it must be a bijection; hence statement 2 implies statement 1.

To prove statement 2, observe that  $e$  is invertible modulo  $(p-1)(q-1)$  because it is relatively prime to this number.

To show that  $(x^e)^d \equiv x \bmod N$ : Since  $ed \equiv 1 \bmod (p-1)(q-1)$ , can write  $ed = 1 + k(p-1)(q-1)$  for some  $k$ .

Then

$$(x^e)^d - x = x^{ed} - x = x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} - x$$

$x^{1+k(p-1)(q-1)} - x$  is divisible by  $p$  (since  $x^{p-1} \equiv 1 \bmod p$ ) and likewise by  $q$ . Since  $p$  and  $q$  are primes, this expression must be divisible by  $N = pq$ .

# The Proof of the Theorem



*Proof:*

Assume that  $n$  is a power of  $b$ .

The size of the subproblems decreases by a factor of  $b$  with each level of recursion, and therefore reaches the base case after  $\log_b n$  levels - the height of the recursion tree.

Its branching factor is  $a$ , so the  $k$ -th level of the tree is made up of  $a^k$  subproblems, each of size  $n/b^k$ .

$$a^k \times O\left(\frac{n}{b^k}\right)^d = O(n^d) \times \left(\frac{a}{b^d}\right)^k$$

$k$  goes from 0 to  $\log_b n$ , these numbers form a geometric series with ratio  $a/b^d$ , comes down to three cases.

# The Proof of the Theorem



The ratio is less than 1.

Then the series is decreasing, and its sum is just given by its first term,  $O(n^d)$ .

The ratio is greater than 1.

The series is increasing and its sum is given by its last term,  $O(n^{\log_b a})$

The ratio is exactly 1.

In this case all  $O(\log n)$  terms of the series are equal to  $O(n^d)$ .

# The Efficiency Analysis



$v$  is **good** if it lies within the 25th to 75th percentile of the array that it is chosen from.

A randomly chosen  $v$  has a 50% chance of being good.

## Lemma

*On average a fair coin needs to be tossed two times before a **heads** is seen.*

*Proof:*

Let  $E$  be the expected number of tosses before heads is seen.

$$E = 1 + \frac{1}{2}E$$

Therefore,  $E = 2$ .



## Proposition

*The sort-and-count algorithm counts the number of inversions in a permutation of size  $n$  in  $O(n \log n)$  time.*

*Proof.*

$$T(n) = 2 \cdot T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + \Theta(n)$$



### Lemma

*The columns of matrix  $M$  are orthogonal to each other.*

*Proof.*

- Take the inner product of any columns  $j$  and  $k$  of matrix  $M$ ,

$$1 + \omega^{j-k} + \omega^{2(j-k)} + \dots + \omega^{(n-1)(j-k)}$$

This is a **geometric series** with first term 1, last term  $\omega^{(n-1)(j-k)}$ , and ratio  $\omega^{j-k}$ .

- Therefore, if  $j \neq k$ , it evaluates to

$$\frac{1 - \omega^{n(j-k)}}{1 - \omega^{(j-k)}} = 0$$

- If  $j = k$ , then it evaluates to  $n$ .



## Proof of Correctness

For each node  $u \in S$ , where  $S$  is the set of vertex with the  $dist$  being set.

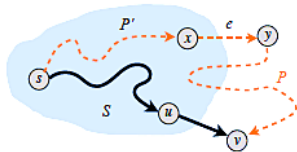
*Proof.* [by induction on  $|S|$ ]

**Base case:**  $|S| = 1$  is easy since  $S = \{s\}$  and  $dist[s] = 0$ .

**Inductive hypothesis:** Assume true for  $|S| \geq 1$ .

- Let  $v$  be next node added to  $S$ , and let  $(u, v)$  be the final edge.
- A shortest  $s \rightsquigarrow u$  path plus  $(u, v)$  is an  $s \rightsquigarrow v$  path of length  $\pi(v)$ .
- Consider **any** other  $s \rightsquigarrow v$  path  $P$ . We show that it is no shorter than  $\pi(v)$ .
- Let  $e = (x, y)$  be the first edge in  $P$  that leaves  $S$ , and let  $P'$  be the subpath from  $s$  to  $x$ .
- The length of  $P$  is already  $\geq \pi(v)$  as soon as it reaches  $y$ :

$$\begin{aligned} l(P) &\geq l(P') + \ell_e \\ &\geq dist[x] + \ell_e \\ &\geq \pi(y) \geq \pi(v). \end{aligned}$$





## Proof of the Cut Property

*Proof:*

Edges  $X$  are part of some MST  $T$ ; if the new edge  $e$  also happens to be part of  $T$ , then there is nothing to prove.

So assume  $e$  is not in  $T$ . We will construct a different MST  $T'$  containing  $X \cup \{e\}$  by altering  $T$  slightly, changing just one of its edges.

Add edge  $e$  to  $T$ . Since  $T$  is **connected**, it already has a path between the endpoints of  $e$ , so adding  $e$  creates a **cycle**.

This cycle must also have some other edge  $e'$  across the cut  $(S, V \setminus S)$ . If we now remove  $e'$

$$T' = T \cup \{e\} \setminus \{e'\}$$

which we will show to be a **tree**.

$T'$  is connected by **Lemma (1)**, since  $e'$  is a cycle edge. And it has the same number of edges as  $T$ ; so by **Lemma (2)** and **Lemma (3)**, it is also a tree.

## Proof of the Cut Property



*Proof:*

$T'$  is a minimum spanning tree, since

$$\text{weight}(T') = \text{weight}(T) + w(e) - w(e')$$

Both  $e$  and  $e'$  cross between  $S$  and  $V \setminus S$ , and  $e$  is the lightest edge of this type. Therefore  $w(e) \leq w(e')$ , and

$$\text{weight}(T') \leq \text{weight}(T)$$

Since  $T$  is an MST, it must be the case that  $\text{weight}(T') = \text{weight}(T)$  and that  $T'$  is also an MST.

### Lemma

Suppose  $B$  contains  $n$  elements and that the *optimal cover* consists of  $OPT$  sets. Then the *greedy algorithm* will use at most  $\ln n \cdot OPT$  sets.

### Proof.

Let  $n_t$  be the number of elements still not covered after  $t$  iterations of the greedy algorithm (so  $n_0 = n$ ).

Since these remaining elements are covered by the optimal  $OPT$  sets, there must be some set with at least  $n_t/OPT$  of them.

Therefore, the greedy strategy will ensure that

$$n_{t+1} \leq n_t - \frac{n_t}{OPT} = n_t \left(1 - \frac{1}{OPT}\right)$$

which by repeated application implies

$$n_t \leq n_0 \left(1 - \frac{1}{OPT}\right)^t$$

## Properties of any optimal solution (for U.S. coin denominations)



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*Property.* Number of pennies  $\leq 4$ .

*Proof.* Replace 5 pennies with 1 nickel.

*Property.* Number of nickels  $\leq 1$ .

*Property.* Number of quarters  $\leq 3$ .

*Property.* Number of nickels + number of dimes  $\leq 2$ .

*Proof.*

- Recall:  $\leq 1$  nickel.
- Replace 3 dimes and 0 nickels with 1 quarter and 1 nickel;
- Replace 2 dimes and 1 nickel with 1 quarter.



## A rather formal proof

*Proof.* by induction on amount to be paid  $x$

Consider optimal way to change  $c_k \leq x \leq c_{k+1}$ : greedy takes coin  $k$ .

Claim that any optimal solution must take coin  $k$ .

- if not, it needs enough coins of type  $c_1, \dots, c_{k-1}$  to add up to  $x$ .
- table below indicates no optimal solution can do this

Problem reduces to coin-changing  $x - c_k$  cents, which, **by induction**, is optimally solved by cashier's algorithm.

$k$	$c_k$	all optimal solutions must satisfy	max value of $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_{k-1}$ in any optimal solution
1	1	$P \leq 4$	none
2	5	$N \leq 1$	4
3	10	$N + D \leq 2$	$4 + 5 = 9$
4	25	$Q \leq 3$	$20 + 4 = 24$
5	100	no limit	$75 + 24 = 99$



## Lemma (1)

For any non-root  $x$ ,  $\text{rank}(x) < \text{rank}(\pi(x))$ .

### *Proof Sketch:*

By design, the rank of a node is exactly the **height** of the subtree rooted at that node. This means, for instance, that as you move up a path toward a root node, the rank values along the way are **strictly increasing**.



## Lemma (2)

Any root node of rank  $k$  has least  $2^k$  nodes in its tree.

### *Proof Sketch:*

A root node with rank  $k$  is created by the merger of two trees with roots of rank  $k - 1$ . By induction to get the results.



## Lemma (3)

If there are  $n$  elements overall, there can be at most  $n/2^k$  nodes of rank  $k$ .

### *Proof Sketch:*

A node of rank  $k$  has at least  $2^k$  descendants.

Any internal node was once a root, and neither its rank nor its set of descendants has changed since then.

Different rank- $k$  nodes cannot have common descendants. Any element has at most one ancestor of rank  $k$ .

## Task 1 in the Origin



### Lemma

The origin is *optimal* if and only if all  $c_i \leq 0$ .

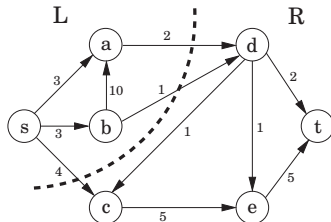
*Proof.*

If all  $c_i \leq 0$ , then considering the constraints  $x \geq 0$ , we can't hope for a better objective value.

Conversely, if some  $c_i > 0$ , then the origin is not optimal, since we can increase the objective function by *raising*  $x_i$ .

A truly remarkable fact:

Not only does simplex **correctly compute** a maximum flow, but it also generates a **short proof of the optimality** of this flow!



An  $(s, t)$ -cut partitions the vertices into two **disjoint** groups  $L$  and  $R$ , such that  $s \in L$  and  $t \in R$ . Its capacity is the total capacity of the edges from  $L$  to  $R$ , and as argued previously, is an **upper bound** on any flow:

Pick any flow  $f$  and any  $(s, t)$ -cut  $(L, R)$ . Then  $\text{size}(f) \leq \text{capacity}(L, R)$ .

## A Certificate of Optimality



*Proof:*

Suppose  $f$  is the final flow when the algorithm terminates.

We know that node  $t$  is no longer reachable from  $s$  in the residual network  $G^f$ .

Let  $L$  be the nodes that are reachable from  $s$  in  $G^f$ , and let  $R = V \setminus L$  be the rest of the nodes.

We claim that  $\text{size}(f) = \text{capacity}(L, R)$ .

To see this, observe that by the way  $L$  is defined, any edge going from  $L$  to  $R$  must be at **full capacity** (in the current flow  $f$ ), and any edge from  $R$  to  $L$  must have **zero flow**.

Therefore the net flow across  $(L, R)$  is exactly the capacity of the cut.

### Theorem Proving

- **Input:** A mathematical statement  $\varphi$  and  $n$ .
- **Problem:** Find a proof of  $\varphi$  of length  $\leq n$  if there is one.

A formal proof of a mathematical assertion is written out in excruciating detail, it can be checked mechanically, by an **efficient algorithm** and is therefore in **NP**.

So if  $P = NP$ , there would be an efficient method to prove any theorem, thus eliminating the need for mathematicians!

# Approximation Guarantee Factor



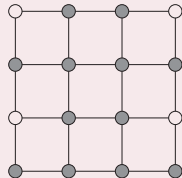
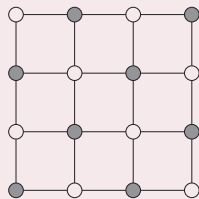
The **Algorithm** is a **factor 2** approximation algorithm for the **vertex cover** problem.

*Proof.*

- No edge can be left uncovered by the set of vertices picked.
- Let  $M$  be the matching picked. As argued above,

$$|M| \leq OPT$$

- The approximation factor is at most  $2 \cdot OPT$ .



## Proof for the Approximation Ratio 2



Let  $x \in X$  be the point farthest from  $\mu_1, \dots, \mu_k$ , and  $r$  be its distance to its closest center.

Then every point in  $X$  must be within distance  $r$  of its cluster center. By the triangle inequality, this means that every cluster has diameter at most  $2r$ .

We have identified  $k + 1$  points  $\{\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k, x\}$  that are all at a distance at least  $r$  from each other.

Any partition into  $k$  clusters must put two of these points in the same cluster and must therefore have diameter at least  $r$ .

# State-Flipping Algorithm: Proof of Correctness



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## Theorem

*The state-flipping algorithm terminates with a stable configuration after at most  $W = \sum_e |w_e|$  iterations.*

*Proof* [Hint.] Consider measure of progress  $\Phi(S) = \#$  satisfied nodes.



## State-Flipping Algorithm: Proof of Correctness

### Theorem

The state-flipping algorithm terminates with a stable configuration after at most  $W = \sum_e |w_e|$  iterations.

*Proof.* Consider measure of progress  $\Phi(S) = \sum_{e \text{ good}} |w_e|$ .

- Clearly  $0 \leq \Phi(S) \leq W$ .
- We show  $\Phi(S)$  increase by at least 1 after each flip.

When  $u$  flips state:

- all good edges incident to  $u$  become bad
- all bad edges incident to  $u$  become good
- all other edges remain the same

$$\Phi(S') = \Phi(S) - \sum_{\substack{e : e = (u, v) \in E \\ e \text{ is bad}}} |w_e| + \sum_{\substack{e : e = (u, v) \in E \\ e \text{ is good}}} |w_e| \geq \Phi(S) + 1$$

## Maximum Cut: Local Search Analysis



### Theorem

Let  $(A, B)$  be a locally optimal cut and let  $(A^*, B^*)$  be an optimal cut. Then  $w(A, B) \geq 1/2 \sum_e w_e \geq 1/2 w(A^*, B^*)$ .

### Proof.

- Local optimality implies that for all  $u \in A : \sum_{v \in A} w_{uv} \leq \sum_{v \in B} w_{uv}$ .
- Adding up all these inequalities yields:  $2 \sum_{\{u,v\} \subseteq A} w_{uv} \leq \sum_{u \in A, v \in B} w_{uv} = w(A, B)$
- Similarly  $2 \sum_{\{u,v\} \subseteq B} w_{uv} \leq \sum_{u \in A, v \in B} w_{uv} = w(A, B)$
- Now,

$$\sum_{e \in E} w_e = \underbrace{\sum_{\{u,v\} \subseteq A} w_{uv}}_{\leq \frac{1}{2} w(A, B)} + \underbrace{\sum_{u \in A, v \in B} w_{uv}}_{w(A, B)} + \underbrace{\sum_{\{u,v\} \subseteq B} w_{uv}}_{\leq \frac{1}{2} w(A, B)} \leq 2w(A, B)$$



## Maximum Cut: Big Improvement Flips

**Local search.** Within a factor of 2 for MAX-CUT, but not polynomial time!

**Big-improvement-flip algorithm.** Only choose a node which, when flipped, increases the cut value by at least  $\frac{2\varepsilon}{n}w(A, B)$

### Claim

*Upon termination, big-improvement-flip algorithm returns a cut  $(A, B)$  such that  $(2 + \varepsilon)w(A, B) \geq w(A^*, B^*)$*

**Proof idea.** Add  $\frac{2\varepsilon}{n}w(A, B)$  to each inequality in original proof.



## Maximum Cut: Big Improvement Flips

### Claim

*Big-improvement-flip algorithm terminates after  $O(\varepsilon^{-1} n \log W)$  flips, where  $W = \sum_e w_e$ .*

*Proof sketch.*

Each flip improves cut value by at least a factor of  $(1 + \varepsilon/n)$ .

After  $n/\varepsilon$  iterations the cut value improves by a factor of 2.

- $(1 + 1/x)^x \geq 2$  for  $x \geq 1$ .

Cut value can be doubled at most  $\log_2 W$  times.

## Finding a Nash Equilibrium



*Proof.* Consider a set of  $P_1, \dots, P_k$

- Let  $x_e$  denote the number of paths that use edge  $e$ .
- Let  $\Phi(P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k) = \sum_{e \in E} c_e \cdot H(x_e)$  be a potential function, where

$$H(0) = 0$$
$$H(k) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{1}{i}$$

- Since there are only finitely many sets of paths, it suffices to show that  $\Phi$  strictly decreases in each step.

## Finding a Nash Equilibrium



*Proof.* [continued]

- Consider agent  $j$  switching from path  $P_j$  to path  $P'_j$ .
- Agent  $j$  switches because

$$\underbrace{\sum_{f \in P'_j - P_j} \frac{c_f}{x_f + 1}}_{\text{newly incurred cost}} < \underbrace{\sum_{e \in P_j - P'_j} \frac{c_e}{x_e}}_{\text{cost saved}}$$

- $\Phi$  increase by  $\sum_{f \in P'_j - P_j} c_f [H(x_f + 1) - H(x_f)] = \sum_{f \in P'_j - P_j} \frac{c_f}{x_f + 1}$ .
- $\Phi$  decrease by  $\sum_{e \in P_j - P'_j} c_e [H(x_e) - H(x_e - 1)] = \sum_{e \in P_j - P'_j} \frac{c_e}{x_e}$ .
- Thus, net change in  $\Phi$  is negative.

## Bounding the Price of Stability



### Lemma

Let  $C(P_1, \dots, P_k)$  denote the total cost of selecting paths  $P_1, \dots, P_k$ . For any set of paths  $P_1, \dots, P_k$ , we have

$$C(P_1, \dots, P_k) \leq \Phi(P_1, \dots, P_k) \leq H(k) \cdot C(P_1, \dots, P_k)$$

*Proof.*

Let  $x_e$  denote the number of paths containing edge  $e$ .

- Let  $E^+$  denote set of edges that belong to at least one of the paths. Then,

$$C(P_1, \dots, P_k) = \sum_{e \in E^+} c_e \leq \underbrace{\sum_{e \in E^+} c_e H(x_e)}_{\Phi(P_1, \dots, P_k)} \leq \sum_{e \in E^+} c_e H(k) = H(k) C(P_1, \dots, P_k)$$



### Theorem

*There is a Nash equilibrium for which the total cost to all agents exceeds that of the social optimum by at most a factor of  $H(k)$ .*

### *Proof.*

- Let  $(P_1^*, \dots, P_k^*)$  denote a set of socially optimal paths.
- Run best-response dynamics algorithm starting from  $P^*$ .
- Since  $\Phi$  is monotone decreasing  $\Phi(P_1, \dots, P_k) \leq \Phi(P_1^*, \dots, P_k^*)$ ,

$$C(P_1, \dots, P_k) \leq \Phi(P_1, \dots, P_k) \leq \Phi(P_1^*, \dots, P_k^*) \leq H(k) \cdot C(P_1^*, \dots, P_k^*)$$