# CS 240 - Data Structures and Data Management

# Module 1: Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis

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Based on lecture notes by many previous cs240 instructors

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Fall 2024

### Outline

- Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis
  - CS240 Overview
  - Algorithm Design
  - Analysis of Algorithms I
  - Asymptotic Notation
  - Rules for asymptotic notation
  - Analysis of Algorithms II
  - Example: Design and Analysis of merge-sort

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### Course Objectives: What is this course about?

- Much of Computer Science is *problem solving*: Write a program that converts the given input to the expected output.
- When first learning to program, we emphasize *correctness*: does your program output the expected results?
- Starting with this course, we will also be concerned with efficiency: is your program using the computer's resources (typically processor time) efficiently?
- We will study efficient methods of *storing*, *accessing*, and *organizing* large collections of data.
  - **Motivating examples:** Digital Music Collection, English Dictionary Typical operations include: *inserting* new data items, *deleting* data items, *searching* for specific data items, *sorting*.

### Course Objectives: What is this course about?

- We will consider various abstract data types (ADTs) and how to realize them efficiently using appropriate data structures.
- We will some problems in data management (sorting, pattern matching, compression) and how to solve them with efficient algorithms.
- There is a strong emphasis on mathematical analysis in the course.
- Algorithms are presented using pseudo-code and analyzed using order notation (big-Oh, etc.).

### Course Topics

- background, big-Oh analysis
- priority queues and heaps
- efficient sorting, selection
- binary search trees, AVL trees
- skip lists
- tries
- hashing
- quadtrees, kd-trees, range search
- string matching
- data compression
- external memory
- 1 module  $\approx$  1 week per topic.

Fall 2024

# CS Background

#### Topics covered in previous courses:

- arrays, linked lists
- strings
- stacks, queues
- abstract data types
- recursive algorithms
- binary trees
- basic sorting
- binary search
- binary search trees

Most are briefly reviewed in course notes, or consult any textbook (e.g. [Sedgewick, CLRS]).

### Useful Math Facts

#### Logarithms:

- $y = \log_b(x)$  means  $b^y = x$ . e.g.  $n = 2^{\log n}$ .
- log(x) (in this course) means  $log_2(x)$
- $\log(x \cdot y) = \log(x) + \log(y)$ ,  $\log(x^y) = y \log(x)$ ,  $\log(x) \le x$
- $\log_b(a) = \frac{\log_c a}{\log_c b} = \frac{1}{\log_a(b)}, \ a^{\log_b c} = c^{\log_b a}$
- $\ln(x) = \text{natural log} = \log_e(x)$ ,  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$

#### **Factorial:**

- $n! := n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots 2\cdot 1 = \#$  ways to permute n elements
- $\log(n!) = \log n + \log(n-1) + \cdots + \log 2 + \log 1 \in \Theta(n \log n)$ (We will define  $\Theta$  soon.)

#### **Probability:**

- E[X] is the expected value of X.
- E[aX] = aE[X], E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y] (linearity of expectation)

### Useful Sums

#### Arithmetic sequence:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i = ???$$

#### Geometric sequence:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = ???$$

#### Harmonic sequence:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = ???$$

#### A few more:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{i}{2^{i}} = ???$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^k = ???$$

#### Useful Sums

#### Arithmetic sequence:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i = \frac{(n-1)n}{2}$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i = \frac{(n-1)n}{2} \qquad \qquad \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (a+di) = na + \frac{dn(n-1)}{2} \in \Theta(n^2) \quad \text{if } d \neq 0.$$

### Geometric sequence:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^i = 2^n - 1 \qquad \sum_{i=0}^{n-1}$$

#### Harmonic sequence:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = ???$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = ???$$
  $H_n := \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = \ln n + \gamma + o(1) \in \Theta(\log n)$ 

#### A few more:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{i}{2^{i}} = ???$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i}{2^i} \in \Theta(1)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^k = ???$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^k \in \Theta(n^{k+1}) \quad \text{ for } k \ge 0$$

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# Algorithms and Problems (review)

Let us clarify a few more terms:

**Problem:** Description of possible input and desired output. Example: Sorting problem.

Problem Instance: One possible input for the specified problem.

**Algorithm:** *Step-by-step process* (can be described in finite length) for carrying out a series of computations, given an arbitrary instance *I*.

**Solving a problem:** An Algorithm A solves a problem  $\Pi$  if, for every instance I of  $\Pi$ , A computes a valid output for the instance I in finite time.

**Program:** A program is an *implementation* of an algorithm using a specified computer language.

In this course, our emphasis is on algorithms (as opposed to programs or programming). We do not use any particular computer language to describe them.

### Algorithms and Programs

Pseudocode: communicate an algorithm to another person.

In contrast, a program communicates an algorithm to a computer.

```
insertion-sort(A, n)

A: array of size n

1. for (i \leftarrow 1; i < n; i++) do

2. for (j \leftarrow i; j > 0 \text{ and } A[j-1] > A[j]; j--) do

3. swap A[j] and A[j-1]
```

- sometimes uses English descriptions, e.g. 'swap',
- omits obvious details, e.g. i is usually an integer
- has limited if any error detection, e.g. A is assumed initialized
- should be precise about exit-conditions, e.g. in loops
- should use good indentation and variable-names

### Algorithms and Programs

From problem  $\Pi$  to program that solves it:

- **①** Design an algorithm  $\mathcal A$  that solves  $\Pi \to \mathbf{Algorithm\ Design}$  A problem  $\Pi$  may have several algorithms. Design many!
- ② Assess *correctness* and *efficiency* of each  $\mathcal{A}. \to \mathbf{Algorithm}$  Analysis Correctness  $\to \mathsf{CS245}$  (here informal arguments are enough). Efficiency  $\to$  later
- If acceptable (correct and efficient), implement algorithm(s). For each algorithm, we can have several implementations.
- If multiple acceptable algorithms/implementations, run experiments to determine best solution.

CS240 focuses on the first two steps.

The main point is to avoid implementing obviously-bad algorithms.

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# Efficiency of Algorithms/Programs (Review)

#### What do we mean by 'efficiency'?

- In this course, we are primarily concerned with the *amount of time* a program takes to run.  $\rightarrow$  **Running Time**
- We also may be interested in the amount of additional memory the program requires. 
   → Auxiliary space
- The amount of time and/or memory required by a program will usually depend on the given problem instance.
- So we express the time or memory requirements as a mathematical function of the instances (e.g. T(I))
- But then aggregate over all instances  $\mathcal{I}_n$  of size n (e.g. T(n)).
- Do we take max, min, avg? ( $\rightarrow$  later)

# Measuring Efficiency of Algorithms/Programs (Review)

What do we count as running time/space usage of an algorithm?

#### First option: experimental studies

- Write a program implementing the algorithm.
- Run the program with inputs of varying size and composition and measure time and space.
- Plot/compare the results.

#### There are numerous shortcomings:

- Implementation may be complicated/costly.
- Outcomes are affected by many factors: hardware (processor, memory), software environment (OS, compiler, programming language), and human factors (programmer).
- We cannot test all instances; what are good sample inputs?

### Running Time of Algorithms/Programs

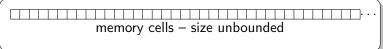
#### Better: theoretical analysis:

- Does not require implementing the algorithm (we work on pseudo-code).
- Is independent of the hardware/software environment (we work on an idealized computer model).
- Takes into account all input instances.

This is the approach taken in CS240.

We use experimental results only if theoretical analysis yields no useful results for deciding between multiple algorithms.

# Random Access Machine (RAM) model





random access (equally fast to all cells)

Central processing unit (CPU)

- Each memory cell stores one (finite-length) datum, typically a number, character, or reference.
  - Assumption: cells are big enough to hold the items that we store.
- Any access to a memory location takes constant time.
   (We will revisit this assumption late in the course.)
- Any **primitive operation** takes constant time. (Add, subtract, multiply, divide, follow a reference, ...) Not primitive:  $\sqrt{n}$ , anything involving irrational numbers

These assumptions may not be valid for a "real" computer.

### Running Time and Space

With this computer model, we can now formally define:

- The running time is the number of memory accesses plus the number of primitive operations.
- The **space** is the maximum number of memory cells ever in use.
- Size(1) of instance I is the number of memory cells that I occupies.

The real-life time and space is proportional to this.

We compare algorithms by considering the **growth rate**: What is the behaviour of algorithms as size n gets large?

• Example 1: What is larger, 100n or  $10n^2$ ?

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- Example 1: What is larger, 100n or  $10n^2$ ?
- Example 2 (Matrix multiplication, approximately): What is larger:  $4n^3$ ,  $300n^{2.807}$ , or  $10^{67}n^{2.373}$ ?

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To simplify comparisons, use **order notation** (big-*O* and friends). Informally: ignore constants and lower order terms

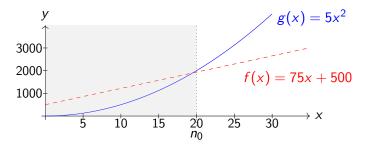
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#### **Order Notation**

Study relationships between *functions*.

**Example**: f(x) = 75x + 500 and  $g(x) = 5x^2$  (e.g.  $c = 1, n_0 = 20$ )



O-notation:  $f(x) \in O(g(x))$  (f is asymptotically upper-bounded by g) if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 \ge 0$  s.t.  $|f(x)| \le c |g(x)|$  for all  $x \ge n_0$ .

In CS240: Parameter is usually an integer (write n rather than x). f(n), g(n) usually positive for sufficiently big n (omit absolute value signs).

### **Example 1: Order Notation**

In order to prove that  $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)$  from first principles (i.e., directly from the definition), we need to find c and  $n_0$  such that the following condition is satisfied:

$$2n^2 + 3n + 11 \le c n^2$$
 for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

Many, but not all, choices of c and  $n_0$  will work.

# Aymptotic Lower Bound

- We have  $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)$ .
- But we also have  $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^{10})$ .
- We want a *tight* asymptotic bound.

Ω-notation:  $f(x) \in \Omega(g(x))$  (f is asymptotically lower-bounded by g) if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 \ge 0$  s.t.  $c |g(x)| \le |f(x)|$  for all  $x \ge n_0$ .

**Example:** Prove that  $f(n) = 2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in \Omega(n^2)$  from first principles.

**Example:** Prove that  $\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 5n \in \Omega(n^2)$  from first principles.

# Aymptotic Tight Bound

 $\Theta$ -notation:  $f(x) \in \Theta(g(x))$  (f is asymptotically tightly-bounded by g) if there exist constants  $c_1, c_2 > 0$  and  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $c_1 |g(x)| \le |f(x)| \le c_2 |g(x)|$  for all  $x \ge n_0$ .

Equivalently:  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ 

We also say that the growth rates of f and g are the same. Typically, f(x) may be "complicated" and g(x) is chosen to be a very simple function.

**Example:** Prove that  $\log_b(n) \in \Theta(\log n)$  for all b > 1 from first principles.

#### Common Growth Rates

Commonly encountered growth rates in analysis of algorithms include the following:

- $\Theta(1)$  (constant),
- $\Theta(\log n)$  (*logarithmic*),
- $\Theta(n)$  (linear),
- $\Theta(n \log n)(linearithmic)$ ,
- $\Theta(n \log^k n)$ , for some constant k (quasi-linear),
- $\Theta(n^2)$  (quadratic),
- $\Theta(n^3)$  (cubic),
- $\Theta(2^n)$  (exponential).

These are sorted in *increasing order* of growth rate.

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These are sorted in *increasing order* of growth rate.

How do we define 'increasing order of growth rate'?

- constant complexity: T(n) = c
- logarithmic complexity:  $T(n) = c \log n$
- linear complexity: T(n) = cn
- linearithmic  $\Theta(n \log n)$ :  $T(n) = c n \log n$
- quadratic complexity:  $T(n) = c n^2$
- cubic complexity:  $T(n) = cn^3$
- exponential complexity:  $T(n) = c 2^n$

- constant complexity: T(n) = c  $\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = c$ .
- logarithmic complexity:  $T(n) = c \log n$
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- constant complexity: T(n) = c  $\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = c$ .
- logarithmic complexity:  $T(n) = c \log n \longrightarrow T(2n) = T(n) + c$ .
- linear complexity: T(n) = cn
- linearithmic  $\Theta(n \log n)$ :  $T(n) = c n \log n$
- quadratic complexity:  $T(n) = c n^2$
- cubic complexity:  $T(n) = cn^3$
- exponential complexity:  $T(n) = c 2^n$

• constant complexity: 
$$T(n) = c$$

$$\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = c.$$

• logarithmic complexity: 
$$T(n) = c \log n$$

$$\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = T(n) + c.$$

• linear complexity: 
$$T(n) = cn$$

$$\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = 2T(n).$$

- linearithmic  $\Theta(n \log n)$ :  $T(n) = c n \log n$
- quadratic complexity:  $T(n) = c n^2$
- cubic complexity:  $T(n) = cn^3$
- exponential complexity:  $T(n) = c 2^n$

It is interesting to see how the running time is affected when the size of the problem instance doubles (i.e.,  $n \rightarrow 2n$ ).

• constant complexity: T(n) = c

- $\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = c$ .
- logarithmic complexity:  $T(n) = c \log n$
- $\rightarrow$  T(2n) = T(n) + c.

• linear complexity: T(n) = cn

- $\rightarrow$  T(2n) = 2T(n).
- linearithmic  $\Theta(n \log n)$ :  $T(n) = c n \log n \implies T(2n) = 2T(n) + 2cn$ .

- quadratic complexity:  $T(n) = c n^2$
- cubic complexity:  $T(n) = cn^3$
- exponential complexity:  $T(n) = c 2^n$

• constant complexity: 
$$T(n) = c$$

$$\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = c.$$

• logarithmic complexity: 
$$T(n) = c \log n$$

$$\rightarrow$$
  $T(2n) = T(n) + c$ .

• linear complexity: 
$$T(n) = cn$$

$$\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = 2T(n).$$

• linearithmic 
$$\Theta(n \log n)$$
:  $T(n) = c n \log n$ 

$$\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = 2T(n) + 2cn.$$

• quadratic complexity: 
$$T(n) = c n^2$$

$$\rightarrow$$
  $T(2n) = 4T(n)$ .

• cubic complexity: 
$$T(n) = cn^3$$

• exponential complexity: 
$$T(n) = c 2^n$$

• constant complexity: 
$$T(n) = c$$

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• logarithmic complexity: 
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:  $T(n) = c n \log n$ 

$$\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = 2T(n) + 2cn.$$

• quadratic complexity: 
$$T(n) = c n^2$$

$$\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = 4T(n).$$

• cubic complexity: 
$$T(n) = cn^3$$

$$\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = 8T(n).$$

• exponential complexity: 
$$T(n) = c 2^n$$

# How Growth Rates Affect Running Time

It is interesting to see how the running time is affected when the size of the problem instance *doubles* (i.e.,  $n \rightarrow 2n$ ).

• constant complexity: 
$$T(n) = c$$
  $\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = c$ .

• logarithmic complexity: 
$$T(n) = c \log n \longrightarrow T(2n) = T(n) + c$$
.

• linear complexity: 
$$T(n) = cn$$
  $\rightsquigarrow T(2n) = 2T(n)$ .

• linearithmic 
$$\Theta(n \log n)$$
:  $T(n) = c n \log n \rightsquigarrow T(2n) = 2T(n) + 2cn$ .

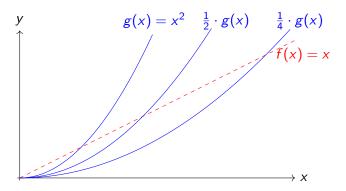
• quadratic complexity: 
$$T(n) = c n^2 \longrightarrow T(2n) = 4T(n)$$
.

• cubic complexity: 
$$T(n) = cn^3 \longrightarrow T(2n) = 8T(n)$$
.

• exponential complexity: 
$$T(n) = c 2^n \longrightarrow T(2n) = (T(n))^2/c$$
.

# Strictly smaller asymptotic bounds

- We have  $f(n) = n \in \Theta(n)$ .
- How to express that f(n) grows slower than  $n^2$ ?



o-notation:  $f(x) \in o(g(x))$  (f is asymptotically strictly smaller than g) if for all constants c > 0, there exists a constant  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $|f(x)| \le c |g(x)|$  for all  $x \ge n_0$ .

# Strictly smaller/larger asymptotic bounds

**Example:** Prove that  $n \in o(n^2)$  from first principles.

# Strictly smaller/larger asymptotic bounds

**Example:** Prove that  $n \in o(n^2)$  from first principles.

- Main difference between o and O is the quantifier for c.
- $n_0$  will depend on c, so it is really a function  $n_0(c)$ .
- We also say 'the growth rate of f is *less than* the growth rate of g'.
- Rarely proved from first principles (instead use limit-rule → later).

ω-notation:  $f(x) \in ω(g(x))$  (f is asymptotically strictly larger than g) if for all constants c > 0, there exists a constant  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $|f(x)| \ge c |g(x)|$  for all  $x \ge n_0$ .

• Symmetric, the growth rate of f is *more than* the growth rate of g.

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### The Limit Rule

Suppose that f(n) > 0 and g(n) > 0 for all  $n \ge n_0$ . Suppose that

$$L = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}$$
 (in particular, the limit exists).

Then

$$f(n) \in \begin{cases} o(g(n)) & \text{if } L = 0 \\ \Theta(g(n)) & \text{if } 0 < L < \infty \end{cases}$$

If the fraction goes towards  $\infty$  then  $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$ .

The required limit can often be computed using *l'Hôpital's rule*. Note that this result gives *sufficient* (but not necessary) conditions for the stated conclusion to hold.

# Application 1: Logarithms vs. polynomials

Compare the growth rates of  $f(n) = \log n$  and g(n) = n.

Now compare the growth rates of  $f(n) = (\log n)^c$  and  $g(n) = n^d$  (where c > 0 and d > 0 are arbitrary numbers).

# Application 2: Polynomials

Let f(n) be a polynomial of degree  $d \ge 0$ :

$$f(n) = c_d n^d + c_{d-1} n^{d-1} + \dots + c_1 n + c_0$$

for some  $c_d > 0$ .

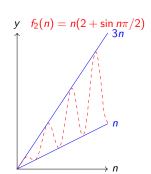
Then  $f(n) \in \Theta(n^d)$ :

# Example: Oscillating functions

Consider two oscillating functions  $f_1$ ,  $f_2$  for which  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{f_i(n)}{n}$  does not exist. Are they in  $\Theta(n)$ ?

$$y \quad f_1(n) = n(1 + \sin x\pi/2)$$

$$2n$$



So no limit  $\rightsquigarrow$  must use other methods to prove asymptotic bounds.

## **Order Notation Summary**

- *O*-notation:  $f(x) \in O(g(x))$  if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $|f(x)| \le c |g(x)|$  for all  $x \ge n_0$ .
- Ω-notation:  $f(x) \in \Omega(g(x))$  if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $c |g(x)| \le |f(x)|$  for all  $x \ge n_0$ .
- $\Theta$ -notation:  $f(x) \in \Theta(g(x))$  if there exist constants  $c_1, c_2 > 0$  and  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $c_1 |g(x)| \le |f(x)| \le c_2 |g(x)|$  for all  $x \ge n_0$ .
- *o*-notation:  $f(x) \in o(g(x))$  if for all constants c > 0, there exists a constant  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $|f(x)| \le c |g(x)|$  for all  $x \ge n_0$ .
- ω-notation: f(x) ∈ ω(g(x)) if for all constants c > 0, there exists a constant  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $c |g(x)| \le |f(x)|$  for all  $x \ge n_0$ .

# Algebra of Order Notations

Many rules are easily proved from first principle (exercise).

**Identity rule:**  $f(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$ 

### **Transitivity:**

- If  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  and  $g(n) \in O(h(n))$  then  $f(n) \in O(h(n))$ .
- If  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$  and  $g(n) \in \Omega(h(n))$  then  $f(n) \in \Omega(h(n))$ .
- If  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  and  $g(n) \in o(h(n))$  then  $f(n) \in o(h(n))$ .
- ...

**Maximum rules:** Suppose that f(n) > 0 and g(n) > 0 for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

Then:

- $f(n) + g(n) \in O(\max\{f(n), g(n)\})$
- $f(n) + g(n) \in \Omega(\max\{f(n), g(n)\})$

Key proof-ingredient:  $\max\{f(n),g(n)\} \le f(n)+g(n) \le 2\max\{f(n),g(n)\}$ 

# Relationships between Order Notations

- $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$
- $f(n) \in O(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) \in \Omega(f(n))$
- $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) \in \omega(f(n))$
- $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$
- $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n))$
- $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \notin \Omega(g(n))$
- $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$
- $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \notin O(g(n))$

### **Example:** Fill the following table with TRUE or FALSE:

		Is $f(n) \in \ldots (g(n))$ ?			
f(n)	g(n)	0	0	Ω	$\omega$
log n	$\sqrt{n}$				

- Normally, we say  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$  because  $\Theta(g(n))$  is a set.
- Avoid doing arithmetic with asymptotic notations—it can go badly wrong ( $\rightarrow$  later) Do **not** write O(n) + O(n) = O(n). (CS136 allowed you to be sloppy here. CS240 does not, mostly because it can go badly wrong with recursions.)
- Instead, when you do arithmetic, replace ' $\Theta(f(n))$ ' by ' $c \cdot f(n)$  for some constant c > 0

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  - $f(n) = n^2 + \Theta(n)$  means "f(n) is  $n^2$  plus a linear term"
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    - ★ more precise about constants than " $O(n^2)$ "
  - ▶ But use this very sparingly (typically only for stating the final result)
  - ▶ Similarly  $f(n) = n^2 + o(1)$  means " $n^2$  plus a vanishing term."

## Outline

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## Techniques for Run-time Analysis

- Goal: Use asymptotic notation to simplify run-time analysis.
- Running time of an algorithm depends on the *input size* n.

```
\begin{array}{ll} \textit{print-pairs}(A, n) \\ 1. & \textbf{for } i \leftarrow 0 \textbf{ to } n-1 \textbf{ do} \\ 2. & \textbf{for } j \leftarrow 0 \textbf{ to } i-1 \textbf{ do} \\ 3. & \text{print 'the next pair is } \{A[i], A[j]\}' \end{array}
```

- Identify *primitive operations* that require  $\Theta(1)$  time. (For doing arithmetic, assume they require c time for some c > 0.)
- The complexity of a loop is expressed as the <u>sum</u> of the complexities of each iteration of the loop.
- Nested loops: start with the innermost loop and proceed outwards.
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For print-pairs: The run-time is  $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sum_{j=0}^{i-1} c$ .

## Techniques for Run-time Analysis

Two general strategies are as follows.

**Strategy I:** Use  $\Theta$ -bounds throughout the analysis and obtain a  $\Theta$ -bound for the complexity of the algorithm.

For *print-pairs*:

**Strategy II:** Prove a *O*-bound and a *matching*  $\Omega$ -bound *separately*. Use upper bounds (for O) and lower bounds (for  $\Omega$ ) early and frequently. This may be easier because upper/lower bounds are easier to sum. For *print-pairs*:

# Complexity of Algorithms

 Algorithm can have different running times on two instances of the same size.

```
insertion-sort(A, n)

A: array of size n

1. for (i \leftarrow 1; i < n; i++) do

2. for (j \leftarrow i; j > 0 \text{ and } A[j-1] > A[j]; j--) do

3. swap A[j] and A[j-1]
```

Let  $T_{\mathcal{A}}(I)$  denote the running time of an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  on instance I.

Study this value for the worst-possible, best-possible and 'typical' (average) instance *I*.

# Complexity of Algorithms

Worst-case (best-case) complexity of an algorithm: The worst-case (best-case) running time of an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  is a function  $T: \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  mapping n (the input size) to the longest (shortest) running time for any input instance of size n:

$$T_{\mathcal{A}}^{\mathrm{worst}}(n) = \max_{I \in \mathcal{I}_n} \{ T_{\mathcal{A}}(I) \}$$

$$T_{\mathcal{A}}^{\text{best}}(n) = \min_{I \in \mathcal{I}_n} \{ T_{\mathcal{A}}(I) \}$$

Average-case complexity of an algorithm: The average-case running time of an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  is a function  $T: \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  mapping n (the input size) to the *average* running time of  $\mathcal{A}$  over all instances of size n:

$$T_{\mathcal{A}}^{avg}(\textit{n}) = \sum_{\textit{I} \in \mathcal{I}_\textit{n}} T_{\mathcal{A}}(\textit{I}) \cdot (\text{relative frequency of } \textit{I})$$

Goal in cs240: For a problem, find an algorithm that solves it and whose tight bound on the worst-case running time has the smallest growth rate.

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  - *No!* The worst-case run-time of  $A_1$  may only be achieved on some instances. Possibly  $A_1$  is better on most instances.
  - Also, the hidden constants may be so large that  $A_1$  is better on all but unrealistically big n.

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## Explaining the solution of a problem

To give an algorithm that 'solves a problem', we usually do four steps. We illustrate this here on *merge-sort*.

### Step 1: Describe the overall idea

**Input:** Array A of n integers

- ① We split A into two subarrays  $A_L$  and  $A_R$  that are roughly half as big.
- 2 Recursively sort  $A_L$  and  $A_R$
- $\odot$  After  $A_L$  and  $A_R$  have been sorted, use a function merge to merge them into a single sorted array.

## Explaining the solution of a problem

### Step 2: Give pseudo-code or detailed description.

```
merge-sort(A, n)

A: array of size n

1. if (n \le 1) then return

2. else

3. m = \lfloor (n-1)/2 \rfloor

4. merge-sort(A[0..m], m+1)

5. merge-sort(A[m+1..n-1], r)

6. merge(A[0..m], A[m+1..n-1])
```

(pseudo-code for *merge* to come)

Two tricks to reduce constant in the run-time and auxiliary space:

- Do not pass array A by value, instead indicate the range of the array that needs to be sorted.
- merge needs an auxiliary array S. Allocate this only once.

## Explaining the solution of a problem

### Step 2: Give pseudo-code or detailed description.

```
merge-sort(A, n, \ell \leftarrow 0, r \leftarrow n-1, S \leftarrow \text{NULL})
A: array of size n, 0 \leq \ell \leq r \leq n-1
1. if S is NULLdo initialize it as array S[0..n-1]
2. if (r \leq \ell) then
3. return
4. else
5. m = \lfloor (r+\ell)/2 \rfloor
6. merge-sort(A, n, \ell, m, S)
7. merge-sort(A, n, m+1, r, S)
8. merge(A, \ell, m, r, S)
```

- This would be much better for an efficient implementation.
- But the idea is much harder to understand.
- CS240 pseudocode will often prefer clarity over improved constants.

# Sub-routine merge

Idea: Always extract from each sub-array the value that is smaller and append it to the output.

```
\begin{array}{l} \textit{merge}(A,\ell,m,r,S) \\ A[0..n-1] \text{ is an array, } A[\ell..m] \text{ is sorted, } A[m+1..r] \text{ is sorted} \\ S[0..n-1] \text{ is an array} \\ 1. & \operatorname{copy} A[\ell..r] \text{ into } S[\ell..r] \\ 2. & (i_L,i_R) \leftarrow (\ell,m+1); \qquad // \text{ start-indices of subarrays} \\ 3. & \textbf{for } (k \leftarrow \ell; k \leq r; k++) \textbf{ do} \qquad // \text{ fill-index for result} \\ 4. & \textbf{ if } (i_L > m) A[k] \leftarrow S[i_R++] \\ 5. & \textbf{ else if } (i_R > r) A[k] \leftarrow S[i_L++] \\ 6. & \textbf{ else if } (S[i_L] \leq S[i_R]) A[k] \leftarrow S[i_L++] \\ 7. & \textbf{ else } A[k] \leftarrow S[i_R++] \end{array}
```

# Analysis of merge-sort

### **Step 3:** Argue correctness.

- Typically state loop-invariants, or other key-ingredients, but no need for a formal (CS245-style) proof by induction.
- Sometimes obvious enough from idea-description and comments.

### Step 4: Analyze the run-time.

- First analyze work done outside recursions.
- If applicable, analyze subroutines separately.
- If there are recursions: how big are the subproblems? The run-time then becomes a recursive function.

### Let T(n) denote the time to run *merge-sort* on an array of length n.

- $\bigcirc$  (initialize array) takes time  $\Theta(n)$
- ② (recursively call *merge-sort*) takes time  $T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor)$
- **3** (call *merge*) takes time  $\Theta(n)$

## The run-time of *merge-sort*

• The **recurrence relation** for T(n) is as follows (constant factor c replaces  $\Theta$ ):

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) + c n & \text{if } n > 1 \\ c & \text{if } n = 1. \end{cases}$$

 The following is the corresponding sloppy recurrence (it has floors and ceilings removed):

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 2 T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & \text{if } n > 1 \\ c & \text{if } n = 1. \end{cases}$$

- When n is a power of 2, then the exact and sloppy recurrences are *identical* and can easily be solved by various methods. E.g. prove by induction that  $T(n) = cn \log(2n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$ .
- It is possible to show that  $T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$  for all n by analyzing the exact recurrence.

# Asymptotics and Arithmetic revisited

Recall: You should not intermix asymptotics and arithmetic.

- Writing O(n) + O(n) = O(n) is very bad style.
- It even occasionally leads to incorrect results.
- Example: What is wrong with the following proof?

# Asymptotics and Arithmetic revisited

Recall: You should not intermix asymptotics and arithmetic.

- Writing O(n) + O(n) = O(n) is very bad style.
- It even occasionally leads to *incorrect* results.
- Example: What is wrong with the following proof?

Claim (false!): If 
$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 2 T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & \text{if } n > 1 \\ c & \text{if } n = 1. \end{cases}$$
 then  $T(n) \in O(n)$ .

"Proof": Use induction on n.

- In the base case (n = 1) we have  $T(n) = c \in O(1) = O(n)$ .
- Assume the claim holds for all n' with n' < n.
- Step: We have

$$T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn \stackrel{IH}{\in} 2O(\frac{n}{2}) + O(n) = O(n) + O(n) = O(n)$$

### Some Recurrence Relations

Recursion	resolves to	example	
$T(n) \leq T(n/2) + O(1)$	$T(n) \in O(\log n)$	binary-search	
$T(n) \leq 2T(n/2) + O(n)$	$T(n) \in O(n \log n)$	merge-sort	
$T(n) \leq 2T(n/2) + O(\log n)$	$T(n) \in O(n)$	heapify (*)	
$T(n) \leq cT(n-1) + O(1)$	$T(n) \in O(1)$	avg-case analysis (*)	
for some $c < 1$			
$T(n) \leq 2T(n/4) + O(1)$	$T(n) \in O(\sqrt{n})$	range-search (*)	
$T(n) \leq T(\sqrt{n}) + O(\sqrt{n})$	$T(n) \in O(\sqrt{n})$	interpol. search (*)	
$T(n) \leq T(\sqrt{n}) + O(1)$	$T(n) \in O(\log \log n)$	interpol. search (*)	

- Once you know the result, it is (usually) easy to prove by induction.
- These bounds are tight if the upper bounds are tight.
- Many more recursions, and some methods to find the result, in CS341.

(\*) These may or may not get used later in the course.