

Module 1: Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis

CS 240 – Data Structures and Data Management

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Based on lecture notes by many previous cs240 instructors

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Outline

- CS240 overview
 - course objectives
 - course topics
- Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis
 - algorithm design
 - pseudocode
 - measuring efficiency
 - asymptotic analysis
 - analysis of algorithms
 - analysis of recursive algorithms
 - helpful formulas



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Course Objectives: What is this course about?

- Computer Science is mostly about problem solving
 - write program that converts given input to expected output
- When first learn to program, emphasize *correctness*
 - does program output the expected results?
- This course is also concerned with *efficiency*
 - does program use computer resources efficiently?
 - processor time, memory space
 - strong emphasis on mathematical analysis of efficiency
- Study efficient methods of *storing*, *accessing*, and *organizing* large collections of data
 - typical operations: *inserting* new data items, *deleting* data items, *searching* for specific data items, *sorting*



Course Objectives: What is this course about?

- New **abstract data types** (ADTs)
 - how to implement ADT efficiently using appropriate **data structures**
- New **algorithms** solving problems in **data management**
 - sorting, pattern matching, compression
- Algorithms
 - presented in pseudocode
 - analyzed using order notation (big-Oh, etc.)



Course Topics

- asymptotic (big-Oh) analysis

mathematical tool
for efficiency

- priority queues and heaps

- sorting, selection

- binary search trees, AVL trees

- skip lists

- tries

- hashing

- quadtrees, kd-trees, range search

- string matching

- data compression

- external memory

Data Structures and
Algorithms



CS Background

- Topics covered in previous courses with relevant sections [Sedgewick]
 - arrays, linked lists (Sec. 3.2–3.4)
 - strings (Sec. 3.6)
 - stacks, queues (Sec. 4.2–4.6)
 - abstract data types (Sec. 4-intro, 4.1, 4.8–4.9)
 - recursive algorithms (5.1)
 - binary trees (5.4–5.7)
 - basic sorting (6.1–6.4)
 - binary search (12.4)
 - binary search trees (12.5)
 - probability and expectation (Goodrich & Tamassia, Section 1.3.4)



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Algorithm Design Terminology

- **Problem:** description of input and required output
 - for example, given an input array, rearrange elements in non-decreasing order
- **Problem Instance:** one possible input for specified problem
 - $I = [5, 2, 1, 8, 2]$
- **Size of a problem instance** $size(I)$
 - non-negative integer measuring size of instance I
 - $size([5, 2, 1, 8, 2]) = 5$
 - $size([]) = 0$
- Often input is array, and instance size is usually array size



Algorithm Design Terminology

- **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:** algorithm A *solves* problem Π if for every instance I of Π , A computes a valid output for instance I in finite time
- **Program:** *implementation* of an algorithm using a specified computer language
- In this course, the emphasis is on algorithms
 - as opposed to programs or programming



Algorithms and Programs

- From problem Π to program that solves it
 1. **Algorithm Design:** design algorithm(s) that solves Π
 2. **Algorithm Analysis:** assess *correctness* and *efficiency* of algorithm(s)
 3. **Implementation:** if acceptable (correct and efficient), implement algorithms(s)
 - for each algorithm, multiple implementations are possible
 4. If multiple acceptable algorithms/implementations, run experiments to determine a better solution
- CS240 focuses on the first two steps
 - the main point is to avoid implementing obviously bad algorithms



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Pseudocode

- Pseudocode is a method of communicating algorithm to a human
 - whereas program is a method of communicating algorithm to a computer

```
insertion-sort( $A, n$ )  
A: array of size  $n$   
1.   for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n - 1$  do  
2.        $j \leftarrow i$   
3.       while  $j > 0$  and  $A[j] < A[j - 1]$  do  
4.           swap  $A[j]$  and  $A[j - 1]$   
5.            $j \leftarrow j - 1$ 
```

- preferred language for describing algorithms
- omits obvious details, e.g. variable declarations
- sometimes uses English descriptions (swap)
- has limited if any error detection, e.g. assumes A is initialized
- sometimes uses mathematical notation
- should use good variable names



Pseudocode Details

- Control flow

 - if ... then ... [else ...]

 - while ... do ...

 - repeat ... until ...

 - for ... do ...

 - indentation replaces braces

- Expressions

 - \leftarrow assignment

 - $=$ equality testing

 - n^2 superscripts and other mathematical formatting allowed

- Method declaration

 - Algorithm *method* (*arg*, *arg*...)**

 - Input ...

 - Output ...

Algorithm *arrayMax*(*A*, *n*)

Input: array *A* of *n* integers

Output: maximum element of *A*

currentMax \leftarrow **A**[0]

for *i* \leftarrow 1 **to** *n* - 1 **do**

 - if** *A*[*i*] > *currentMax* **then**

 - currentMax* \leftarrow *A*[*i*]

return *currentMax*



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Efficiency of Algorithms/Programs

- Efficiency
 - **Running Time:** *amount of time* program takes to run
 - **Auxiliary Space:** *amount of additional memory* program requires
 - additional to the memory needed for the input instance
- Primarily concerned with time efficiency in this course
 - but also look at space efficiency sometimes
 - same techniques as for time apply to space efficiency
- When we say efficiency, assume time efficiency
 - unless we explicitly say space efficiency
- Running time is sometimes called **time complexity**
- Auxiliary space sometimes is called **space complexity**



Efficiency is a Function of Input

- The amount of time and/or memory required by a program usually depends on given instance (instance size and sometimes elements instance stores)

Algorithm *hasNegative(A, n)*

Input: array A of n integers

for $i \leftarrow 0$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

if $A[i] < 0$

return *True*

return *False*

$$T([3, 4]) < T([3, 1, 4, 7, 0])$$

$$T([3, -1, 4, 7, 10]) < T([3, 1, 4])$$

- So we express time or memory efficiency as a function of instances, i.e. $T(I)$
- Deriving $T(I)$ for each specific instance I is impractical
- Usually running time is longer for larger instances
- Group all instances of size n into set $I_n = \{I \mid \text{size}(I) = n\}$
 - I_4 is all arrays of size 4
- **Measure efficiency over the set** $I_n: T(n) = \text{“time for instances in } I_n\text{”}$
 - average over I_n ?
 - smallest time instance in I_n ?
 - largest time instance in I_n ?



Running Time, Option 1: Experimental Studies

- Write program implementing the algorithm
- Run program with inputs of *varying size* and *composition*

Algorithm *hasNegative(A, n)*

Input: array *A* of *n* integers

for $i \leftarrow 0$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

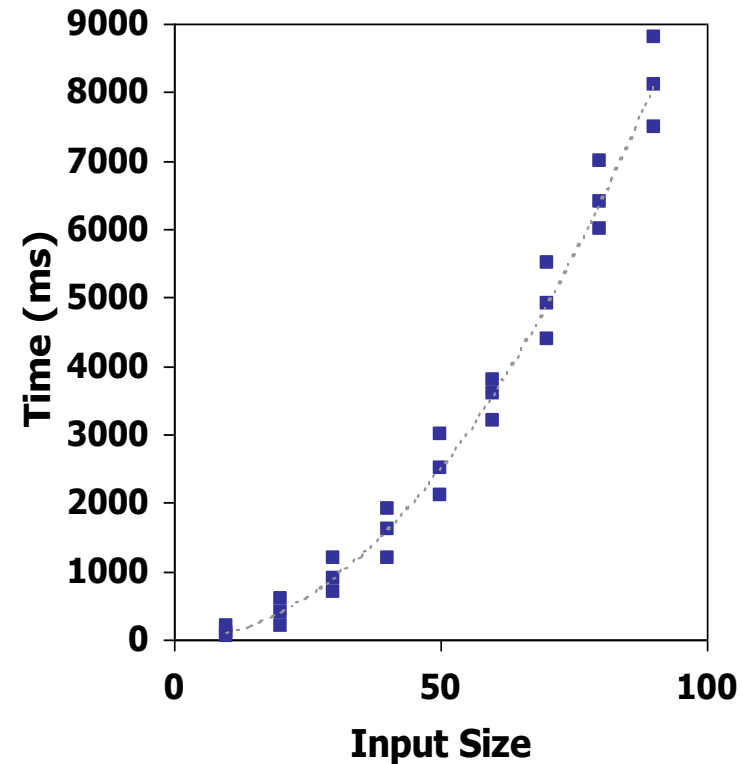
if $A[i] < 0$

return *True*

return *False*

- Shortcomings

- implementation may be complicated/costly
- timings are affected by many factors
 - *hardware* (processor, memory)
 - *software environment* (OS, compiler, programming language)
 - *human factors* (programmer)
- cannot test all inputs, hard to select good *sample inputs*

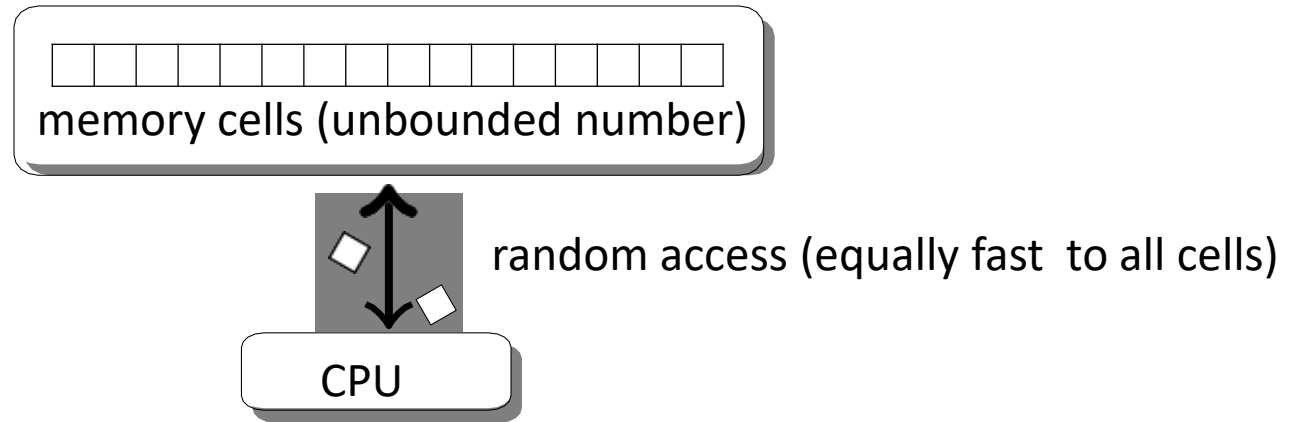



Running Time, Option 2: Theoretical Analysis

- Does not require implementing the algorithm
- Independent of hardware/software environment
- Takes into account all possible input instances
- [Side note: experimental studies are still useful]
 - especially when theoretical analysis yields no useful results for deciding between multiple algorithms
- For theoretical analysis, need an idealized computer model
 - “run” algorithms on idealized computer model
 - allows to understand how to compute running time and space theoretically
 - i.e. states explicitly all the assumptions we make when computing efficiency



Random Access Machine (RAM) Idealized Computer Model



- Has a set of **memory cells**, each of which stores one data item
 - number, character, reference
 - memory cells are big enough to hold stored items
- Any **access to a memory location** takes the same constant time
 - constant time means that time is *independent of the input size n*
- Memory access is an example of a **primitive operations**
- Can run other primitive operations on this machine (arithmetic, etc., more on this later) 
- **primitive operations take the same constant time**
- These assumptions may be invalid for a real computer

Theoretical Framework For Algorithm Analysis

- Write algorithms in pseudo-code
- Run algorithms on idealized computer model
- **Time efficiency**: count # *primitive operations*
 - **as a function of problem size n**
 - running time is proportional to number of primitive operations
 - since all primitive operations take the same constant time
 - can get complicated functions like $99n^3 + 8n^2 + 43421$
 - measure time efficiency in terms of *growth rate*
 - behaviour of the algorithm as the input gets larger
 - avoids complicated functions and isolates the factor that effects the efficiency the most for large inputs
- **Space efficiency**: count maximum # of *memory cells* ever in use
- This framework makes many simplifying assumptions
 - makes analysis of algorithms easier



Theoretical Analysis of Running time

- Pseudocode is a sequence of *primitive operations*
- A primitive operation is
 - independent of input size
- Examples of Primitive Operations
 - arithmetic: -, +, %, *, mod, round
 - assigning a value to a variable
 - indexing into an array
 - returning from a method
 - comparisons, calling subroutine, entering a loop, breaking, etc.
- To find running time, count the number of primitive operations
 - as a function of input size n

Algorithm *arrayMax*(A, n)

Input: array A of n integers

Output: maximum element of A

$currentMax \leftarrow A[0]$

for $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

if $A[i] > currentMax$ **then**

$currentMax \leftarrow A[i]$

return $currentMax$



Primitive Operation Exercise

- n is the input size
- x^n is a primitive operation
 - a) True
 - b) False



Primitive Operation Exercise

- n is the input size
- $x^{1000000000000}$ is a primitive operation
 - a) True
 - b) False



Theoretical Analysis of Running time

- To find running time, count the number of primitive operations $T(n)$
 - function of input size n

Algorithm *arraySum*(A, n)

operations

$sum \leftarrow A[0]$

2

for $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

$sum \leftarrow sum + A[i]$

{ increment counter i }

return sum



Theoretical Analysis of Running time

- To find running time, count the number of primitive operations $T(n)$
 - function of input size n

Algorithm *arraySum*(A, n)

$sum \leftarrow A[0]$

for $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

$sum \leftarrow sum + A[i]$

{ increment counter i }

return sum

operations

2

$i \leftarrow 1$

$n - 1$

$i = 1$, check $i \leq n - 1$ (go inside loop)

$i = 2$, check $i \leq n - 1$ (go inside loop)

...

$i = n - 1$, check $i \leq n - 1$ (go inside loop)

$i = n$, check $i \leq n - 1$ (do not go inside loop)

Total: $2+n$



Theoretical Analysis of Running time

- To find running time, count the number of primitive operations $T(n)$
 - function of input size n

Algorithm <i>arraySum</i> (A, n)	# operations
$sum \leftarrow A[0]$	2
for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $n - 1$ do	$2 + n$
$sum \leftarrow sum + A[i]$	$3(n - 1)$
{ increment counter i }	$2(n - 1)$
return sum	1

Total: $6n$



Theoretical Analysis of Running time: Multiplicative factors

- Algorithm ***arraySum*** executes $T(n) = 6n$ primitive operations
- On a real computer, primitive operations will have different runtimes
- Let a = time taken by fastest primitive operation
 b = time taken by slowest primitive operation
- Actual runtime is bounded by two linear functions
 $a(6n) \leq \text{actual runtime}(n) \leq b(6n)$
- Changing hardware/software affects runtime by a multiplicative factor
 - a and b will change, but the runtime is always bounded by $\text{const} \cdot n$
 - therefore, multiplicative constants are not essential
- Want to **ignore constant multiplicative** factors and say $T(n) = 6n$ is essentially n
 - in a theoretically justified way

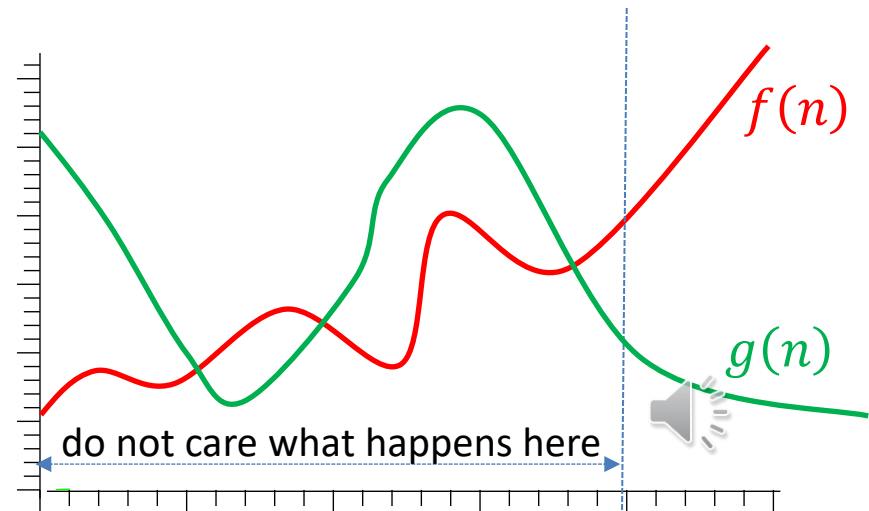


Theoretical Analysis of Running time: Lower Order Terms

- Interested in runtime for large inputs (large n)
 - datasets keep increasing in size
- Consider $T(n) = n^2 + n$
- For large n , fastest growing factor contributes the most

$$T(100,000) = 10,000,000,000 + 100,000 \approx 10,000,000,000$$

- Want to ignore lower order terms in a theoretically justified way
- Perform analysis for large n (or 'eventual' behaviour)
 - this further simplifies analysis and comparing algorithms



Theoretical Analysis of Running time

- We want
 - 1) ignore multiplicative constant factors
 - 2) focus on behaviour for large n (i.e. ignore lower order terms)
- This means focusing on the *growth rate* of the function

- Want to say

$f(n) = 10n^2 + 100n$ has growth rate of $g(n) = n^2$

$f(n) = 10n + 10$ has growth rate of $g(n) = n$

- Asymptotic analysis gives tools to formally focus on growth rate
- To say that function $f(n)$ has growth rate expressed by $g(n)$
 - 1) **upper bound**: asymptotically bound $f(n)$ **from above** by $g(n)$
 - 2) **lower bound**: asymptotically bound $f(n)$ **from below** by $g(n)$
 - asymptotically means: for large enough n , ignoring constant multiplicative factors

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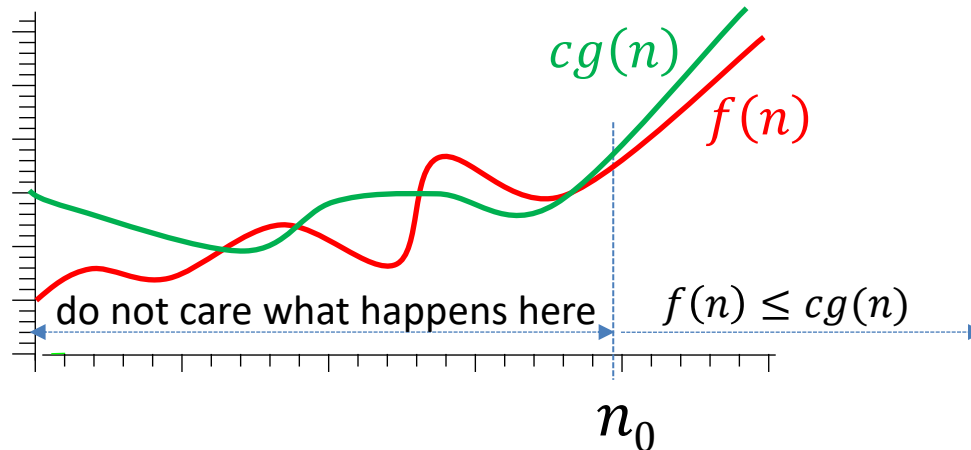


Order Notation: big-Oh

- Upper bound: asymptotically bound $f(n)$ from above by $g(n)$
 - $f(n)$ is running time, is function expressing growth rate $g(n)$

$f(n) \in O(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t.
 $|f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

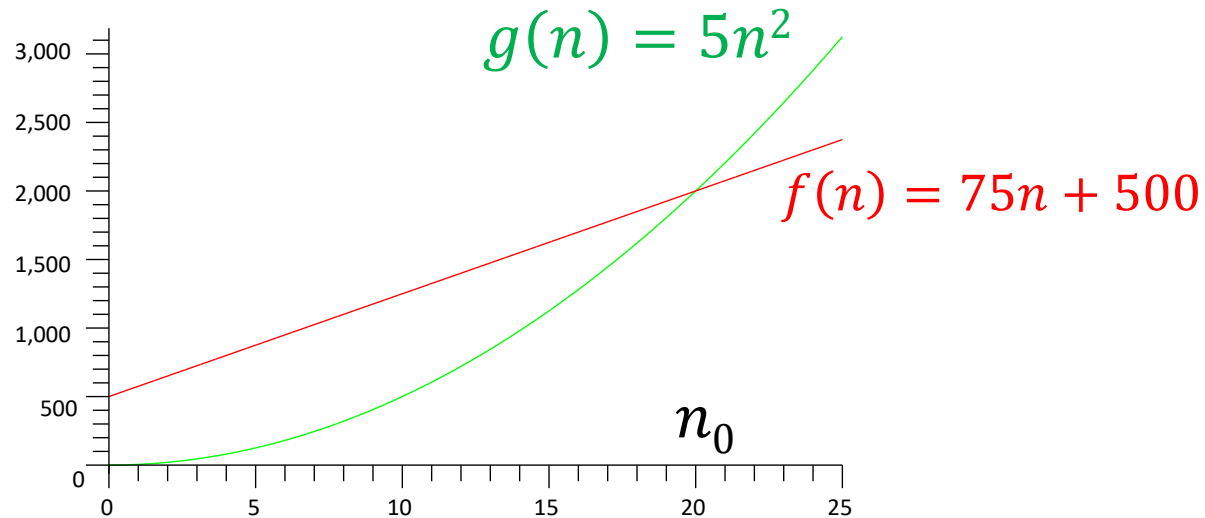
a set of
functions



- Need c to get rid of multiplicative constant in growth rate
 - cannot say $5n^2 \leq n^2$, but can say $5n^2 \leq cn^2$ for some constant c
- Absolute value not relevant for run-time, but useful in other applications
- Unless say otherwise, assume n (and n_0) are real numbers

big-Oh Example

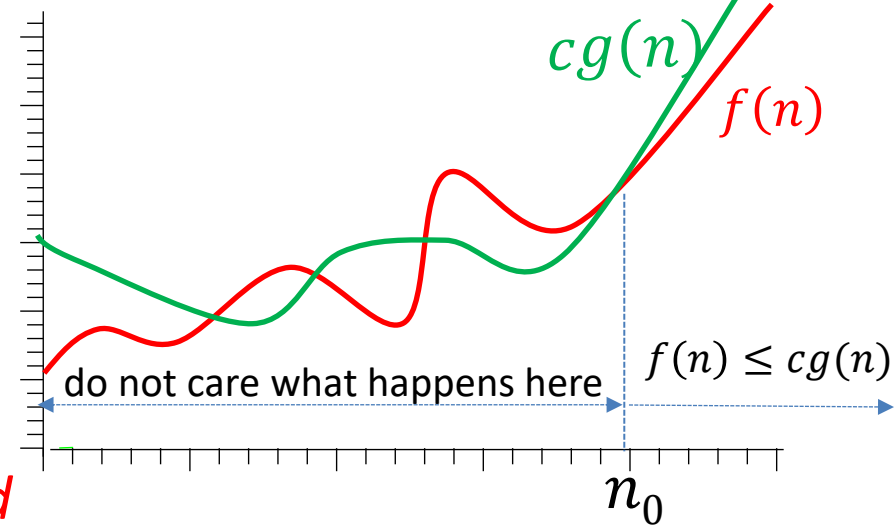
$f(n) \in O(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t.
 $|f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$



- Take $c = 1, n_0 = 20$
 - many other choices work, such as $c = 10, n_0 = 30$
- Conclusion: $f(n)$ has same or slower growth rate as $g(n)$



Order Notation: big-O



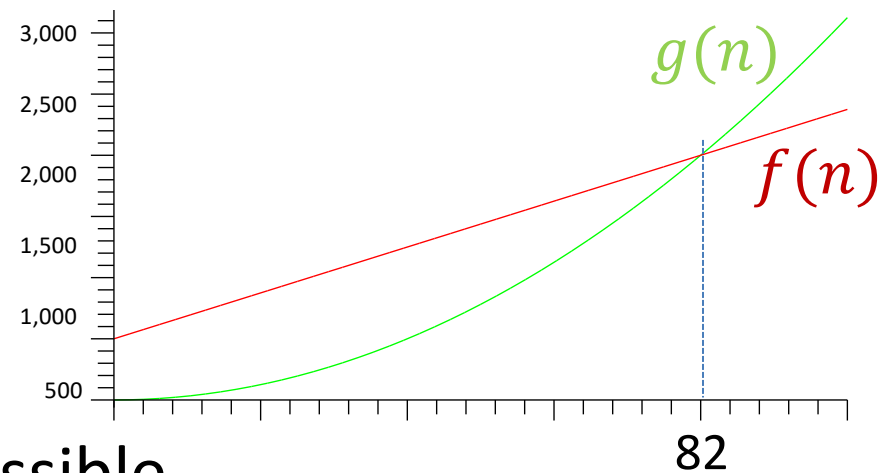
- Big-O gives asymptotic *upper bound*
 - $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ means function $f(n)$ is “bounded” above by function $g(n)$
 1. eventually, for large enough n
 2. ignoring multiplicative constant
 - Growth rate of $f(n)$ is slower or the same as growth rate of $g(n)$
- Use big-O to upper bound the growth rate of algorithm
 - $f(n)$ for running time
 - $g(n)$ for growth rate
 - should choose $g(n)$ as simple as possible
- Saying $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ is equivalent to saying $f(n) \in O(g(n))$
 - $O(g(n))$ is a set of functions with the same or larger growth rate as $g(n)$



Order Notation: big-Oh

$$f(n) \in O(g(n))$$

if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$
s.t. $|f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$



- Choose $g(n)$ as simple as possible
- Previous example: $f(n) = 75n + 500$, $g(n) = 5n^2$
- Simpler function for growth rate: $g(n) = n^2$
- Can show $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ as follows
 - set $f(n) = g(n)$ and solve quadratic equation
 - intersection point is $n = 82$
 - take $c = 1, n_0 = 82$



Order Notation: big-Oh

$f(n) \in O(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$
s. t. $|f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

- Do not have to solve equations
- $f(n) = 75n + 500$, $g(n) = n^2$
- For all $n \geq 1$

$$75n \leq 75n \cdot n = 75n^2$$

$$500 \leq 500 \cdot n \cdot n = 500n^2$$

- Therefore, for all $n \geq 1$

$$75n + 500 \leq 75n^2 + 500n^2 = 575n^2$$

- So take $c = 575, n_0 = 1$

Side note: for $0 < n < 1$

$$75n > 75n \cdot n = 75n^2$$



Order Notation: big-Oh

$f(n) \in O(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $|f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

- Better (i.e. “tighter”) bound on growth
 - can bound $f(n) = 75n + 500$ by slower growth than n^2
- $f(n) = 75n + 500$, $g(n) = n$
- Show $f(n) \in O(g(n))$

$$75n + 500 \leq 75n + 500n = 575n$$

for all $n \geq 1$

- So take $c = 575, n_0 = 1$



More big-O Examples

- Prove that

$$2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)$$

- Need to find $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t.

$$2n^2 + 3n + 11 \leq cn^2 \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

$$2n^2 + 3n + 11 \leq 2n^2 + 3n^2 + 11n^2 = 16n^2$$

for all $n \geq 1$

- Take $c = 16, n_0 = 1$



More big-O Examples

- Prove that

$$2n^2 - 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)$$

- Need to find $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t.

$$2n^2 - 3n + 11 \leq cn^2 \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

$$2n^2 - 3n + 11 \leq 2n^2 + 0 + 11n^2 = 13n^2$$

for all $n \geq 1$

- Take $c = 13, n_0 = 1$



More big-O Examples

- Be careful with logs
- Prove that

$$2n^2 \log n + 3n \in O(n^2 \log n)$$

- Need to find $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t.

$$2n^2 \log n + 3n \leq cn^2 \log n \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_0$$

$$2n^2 \log n + 3n \leq 2n^2 \log n + 3n^2 \log n \leq 5n^2 \log n$$

~~for all $n \geq 1$~~

for all $n \geq 2$

- Take $c = 5, n_0 = 2$



Theoretical Analysis of Running time

- To find running time, count the number of primitive operations $T(n)$
 - function of input size n
- Last step: express the running time using asymptotic notation

Algorithm <i>arraySum</i> (A, n)	# operations
$sum \leftarrow A[0]$	c_1
for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $n - 1$ do	} $c_2 n$
$sum \leftarrow sum + A[i]$	
{ increment counter i }	
return sum	c_3

Total: $c_1 + c_3 + c_2 n$ which is $O(n)$



Theoretical Analysis of Running time

- Distinguishing between c_1 c_2 c_3 has no influence on asymptotic running time
 - can just use on constant c throughout

Algorithm *arraySum*(A, n) # operations

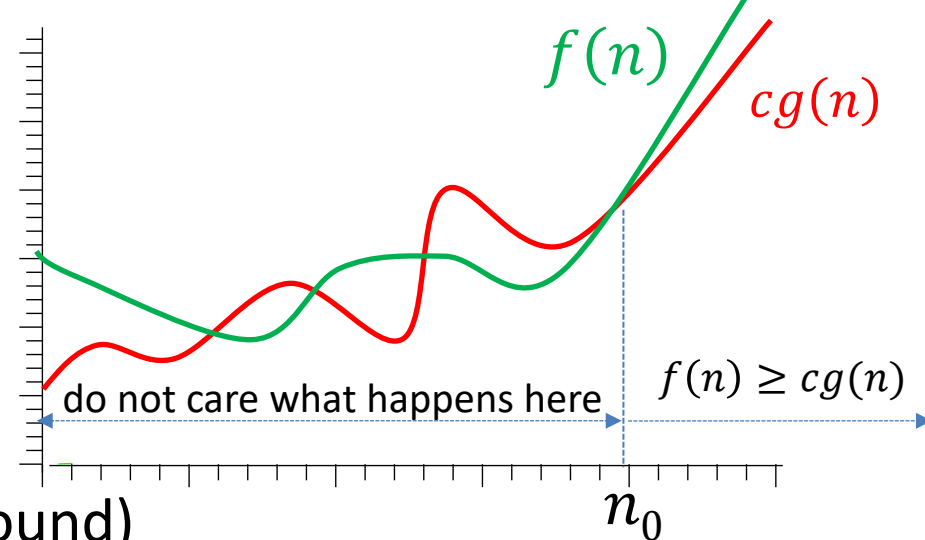
```
sum ←  $A[0]$   
for  $i$  ← 1 to  $n - 1$  do  
    sum ← sum +  $A[i]$   
    { increment counter  $i$  }  
return sum
```

Total: $c + cn$ which is $O(n)$

Need for Asymptotic Tight bound

- $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)$
- But also $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^{10})$
 - this is a true but hardly a useful statement
 - if I say I have less than a million \$ in my pocket, it is a true, but useless statement
 - i.e. this statement does not give a tight upper bound
 - upper bound is *tight* if it uses the slowest growing function possible
- Want an asymptotic notation that guarantees a *tight* upper bound
- For tight bound, also need asymptotic *lower bound*

Asymptotic Lower Bound



- Ω -notation (asymptotic lower bound)

$f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$

s.t. $|f(n)| \geq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

- $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ means function $f(n)$ is asymptotically bounded below by function $g(n)$
 1. eventually, for large enough n
 2. ignoring multiplicative constant
- Growth rate of $f(n)$ is **larger or the same** as growth rate of $g(n)$
- $f(n) \in O(g(n)), f(n) \in \Omega(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n)$ has same growth as $g(n)$

Asymptotic Lower Bound

$f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ if \exists constants $c > 0$, $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $|f(n)| \geq c|g(n)|$ for $n \geq n_0$

- Prove that $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in \Omega(n^2)$
- Find $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t.
 - $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \geq cn^2$ for all $n \geq n_0$
 - $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \geq 2n^2$ for all $n \geq 0$
- Take $c = 2, n_0 = 0$

Asymptotic Lower Bound

$f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ if \exists constants $c > 0$, $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $|f(n)| \geq c|g(n)|$ for $n \geq n_0$

- Prove that $\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 5n \in \Omega(n^2)$
 - to handle absolute value correctly, need to insure $f(n) \geq 0$ for $n \geq n_0$
- Need to find c and n_0 s.t. $\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 5n \geq cn^2$ for all $n \geq n_0$
- Unlike before, cannot just drop lower growing term, as $\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 5n \leq \frac{1}{2}n^2$

$$\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 5n = \frac{1}{4}n^2 + \frac{1}{4}n^2 - 5n = \frac{1}{4}n^2 + \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{4}n^2 - 5n\right)}_{\geq 0, \text{ if } n \geq 20} \geq \frac{1}{4}n^2 \quad \text{if } n \geq 20$$

- Take $c = \frac{1}{4}$, $n_0 = 20$
 - $f(n) \geq \frac{1}{4}n^2$ for $n \geq 20 \Rightarrow f(n) \geq 0$ for $n \geq 20$
 - as needed to handle absolute value correctly

Tight Asymptotic Bound

- Θ -notation

$f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c_1, c_2 > 0, n_0 \geq 0$ s.t.

$$c_1|g(n)| \leq |f(n)| \leq c_2|g(n)| \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

- $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ means $f(n), g(n)$ have equal growth rates
 - typically $f(n)$ is complicated, and $g(n)$ is chosen to be simple
- Easy to prove that
$$f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$$
- Therefore, to show that $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$, it is enough to show
 1. $f(n) \in O(g(n))$
 2. $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$

Tight Asymptotic Bound

- Proved previously that
 - $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)$
 - $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in \Omega(n^2)$
- Thus $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in \Theta(n^2)$
- Ideally, should use Θ to determine growth rate of algorithm
 - $f(n)$ for running time
 - $g(n)$ for growth rate
- Sometimes determining tight bound is hard, so big-O is used

Tight Asymptotic Bound

Prove that $\log_b n \in \Theta(\log n)$ for $b > 1$

- Find $c_1, c_2 > 0, n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $c_1 \log n \leq \log_b n \leq c_2 \log n$ for all $n \geq n_0$
- $\log_b n = \frac{\log n}{\log b} = \frac{1}{\log b} \log n$
- $\frac{1}{\log b} \log n \leq \log_b n \leq \frac{1}{\log b} \log n$
- Since $b > 1$, $\log b > 0$
- Take $c_1 = c_2 = \frac{1}{\log b}$ and $n_0 = 1$
 - rarely $c_1 = c_2$, normally $c_1 < c_2$

Common Growth Rates

- $\Theta(1)$ *constant*
 - 1 stands for function $f(n) = 1$
- $\Theta(\log n)$ *logarithmic*
- $\Theta(n)$ *linear*
- $\Theta(n \log n)$ *linearithmic*
- $\Theta(n \log^k n)$ *quasi-linear*
 - k is constant, i.e. independent of the problem size
- $\Theta(n^2)$ *quadratic*
- $\Theta(n^3)$ *cubic*
- $\Theta(2^n)$ *exponential*
- These are listed in increasing order of growth
 - how to determine which function has a larger order of growth?

How Growth Rates Affect Running Time

- How running time affected when problem size **doubles** ($n \rightarrow 2n$)

- $T(n) = c$

$$T(2n) = c$$

- $T(n) = c \log n$

$$T(2n) = T(n) + c$$

- $T(n) = cn$

$$T(2n) = 2T(n)$$

- $T(n) = cn \log n$

$$T(2n) = 2T(n) + 2cn$$

- $T(n) = cn^2$

$$T(2n) = 4T(n)$$

- $T(n) = cn^3$

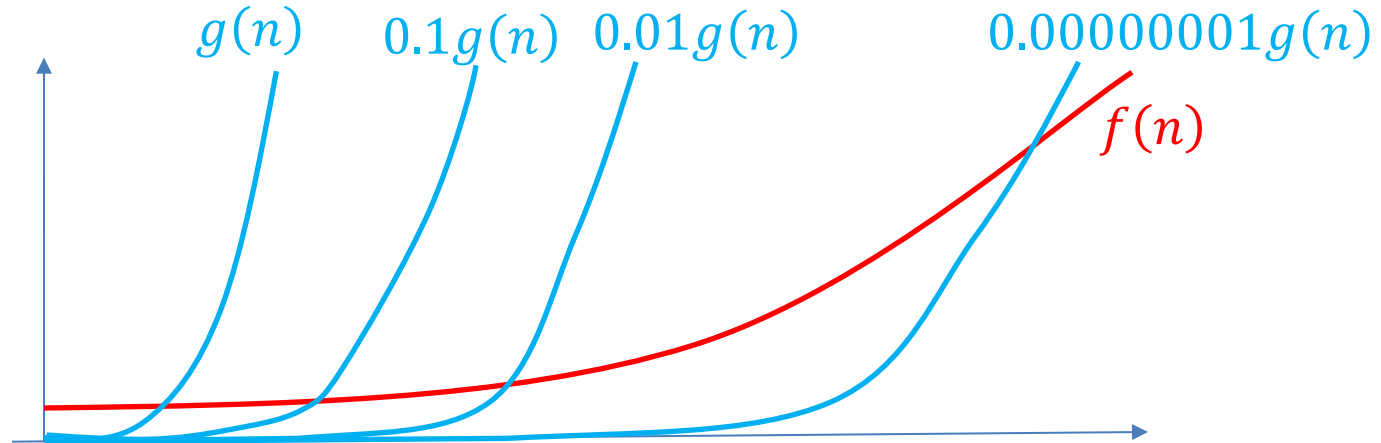
$$T(2n) = 8T(n)$$

- $T(n) = c2^n$

$$T(2n) = \frac{1}{c} T^2(n)$$

Strictly Smaller Asymptotic Bound

- $f(n) = 2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in \Theta(n^2)$
- How to say $f(n)$ is **grows slower** than $g(n) = n^3$?



- **o -notation [asymptotically strictly smaller]**

$f(n) \in o(g(n))$ if **for any constant** $c > 0$, there exists a constant $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $|f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

- Think of c as being arbitrarily small
- No matter how small c is, $c \cdot g(n)$ is eventually larger than $f(n)$
- Meaning: f grows slower than g , or growth rate of f is less than growth rate of g
- Useful for certain statements
 - there is no general-purpose sorting algorithm with run-time $o(n \log n)$

Big-Oh vs. Little-o

- Big-Oh, means f grows at the same rate or slower than g

$f(n) \in O(g(n))$ if there **exist** constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$
s.t. $|f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

- Little-o, means f grows slower than g

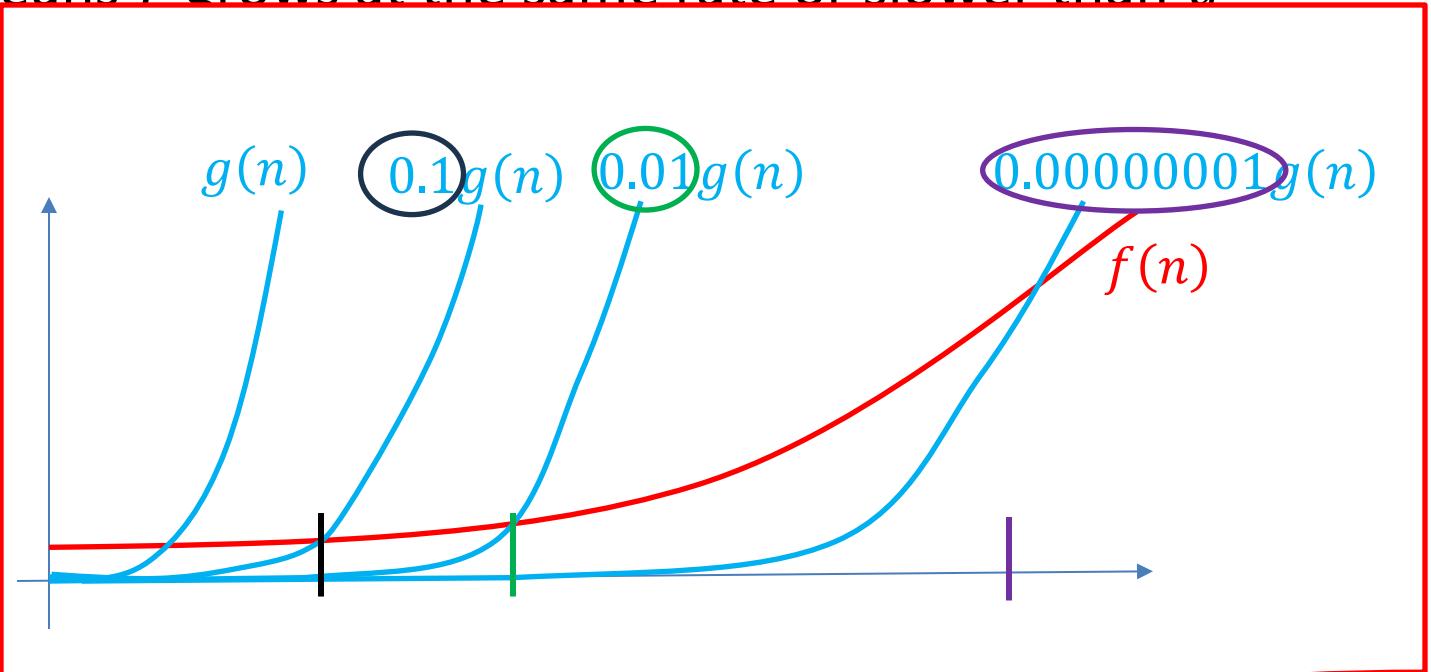
$f(n) \in o(g(n))$ if for **any** constant $c > 0$, there exists a
constant $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $|f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

- Main difference is the quantifier for c : **exists** vs. **any**
 - for big-Oh, you can choose any c you want
 - for little-o, you are given c , it can be arbitrarily small
 - in proofs for little-o, n_0 will normally depend on c , so it is really a function $n_0(c)$
 - $n_0(c)$ **must** be a constant with respect to n

Big-Oh vs. Little-o

- Big-Oh, means f grows at the same rate or slower than g

$f(n) \in O(g(n))$



- Little-o, means f grows at a strictly slower rate than g

$f(n) \in o(g(n))$

- Main difference

- for Big-Oh, c can be any constant
- for little-o, c can be arbitrarily small
- in proofs for little-o, n_0 will normally depend on c , so it is really a function $n_0(c)$
 - $n_0(c)$ **must** be a constant with respect to n

Strictly Smaller Proof Example

$f(n) \in o(g(n))$ if **for any** $c > 0$, there exists $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $|f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

Prove that $5n \in o(n^2)$

- Given $c > 0$ need to find n_0 s.t. [solve for n in terms of c]

$$5n \leq cn^2 \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

divide both sides by n
 \Leftrightarrow

$$5 \leq cn \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

solve for n
 \Leftrightarrow

$$n \geq \frac{5}{c}$$

- Therefore, $5n \leq cn^2$ for $n \geq \frac{5}{c}$

- Take $n_0 = \frac{5}{c}$

- n_0 is a function of c

- if you ever in your proof get something like $n_0 = \frac{5n}{c}$, **it does not work**,
 n_0 cannot depend on n

Strictly Smaller Proof Example

$f(n) \in o(g(n))$ if **for any** $c > 0$, there exists $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $|f(n)| \leq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

Prove that $5n + 10n^4 \in o(n^5)$

- Given $c > 0$ need to find n_0 s.t.

$$5n + 10n^4 \leq cn^5 \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

[difficult to solve for n in terms of c]

- First derive simple upper bound

$$5n + 10n^4 \leq 15n^4 \text{ for all } n \geq 1$$

- Solve for n in terms of c** for the simple upper bound

$$15n^4 \leq cn^5 \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

$$n \geq 15/c$$

- Combine: $5n + 10n^4 \leq 15n^4 \leq cn^5$ for all $n \geq 1$ for all $n \geq \frac{15}{c}$
- Take $n_0 = \max\{15/c, 1\}$

Strictly Larger Asymptotic Bound

- ω -notation

$f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$ if **for any constant** $c > 0$, there exists a constant $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $|f(n)| \geq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

- think of c as being arbitrarily large
- Meaning: f grows much faster than g

Strictly Larger Asymptotic Bound

- $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$ if **for any constant** $c > 0$, there is constant $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $|f(n)| \geq c|g(n)|$ for all $n \geq n_0$

- Claim: $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Rightarrow g(n) \in o(f(n))$

Proof:

- Given $c > 0$ need to find n_0 s.t.

$$g(n) \leq cf(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0 \quad \text{divide both sides by } c \quad \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\frac{1}{c}g(n) \leq f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

- Since $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$, for any constant, in particular for constant $\frac{1}{c}$ there is m_0 s.t.

$$f(n) \geq \frac{1}{c}g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq m_0$$

- $n_0 = m_0$ and we are done!

Limit Theorem for Order Notation

- So far had proofs for order notation from the *first principles*
 - i.e. from the definition

Limit theorem for order notation

- Suppose for all $n \geq n_0$, $f(n) > 0$, $g(n) > 0$ and $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}$

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

- Limit can often be computed using l'Hopital's rule
- Theorem gives sufficient but not necessary conditions
- Can use theorem *unless* asked to prove from the first principles

Example 1

Let $f(n)$ be a polynomial of degree $d \geq 0$ with $c_d > 0$

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

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

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{n^d} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{c_d n^d}{n^d} + \frac{c_{d-1} n^{d-1}}{n^d} + \dots + \frac{c_0}{n^d} \right) \\ &= \underbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{c_d n^d}{n^d} \right)}_{= c_d} + \underbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{c_{d-1} n^{d-1}}{n^d} \right)}_{= 0} + \dots + \underbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{c_0}{n^d} \right)}_{= 0} \\ &= c_d > 0 \end{aligned}$$

Example 2

- Compare growth rates of $\log n$ and n

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log n}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{\ln n}{\ln 2}}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\ln 2 \cdot n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n \cdot \ln 2} = 0$$

↓
L'Hopital rule

- $\log n \in o(n)$

Example 3

- Prove $(\log n)^a \in o(n^d)$, for any (big) $a > 0$, (small) $d > 0$
 - $(\log n)^{1000000} \in o(n^{0.0000001})$

1) Prove (by induction):

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln^k n}{n} = 0 \text{ for any integer } k$$

- Base case $k = 1$ is proven on previous slide
- Inductive step: suppose true for $k - 1$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln^k n}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n} k \ln^{k-1} n}{1} = k \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln^{k-1} n}{n} = 0$$

L'Hopital rule

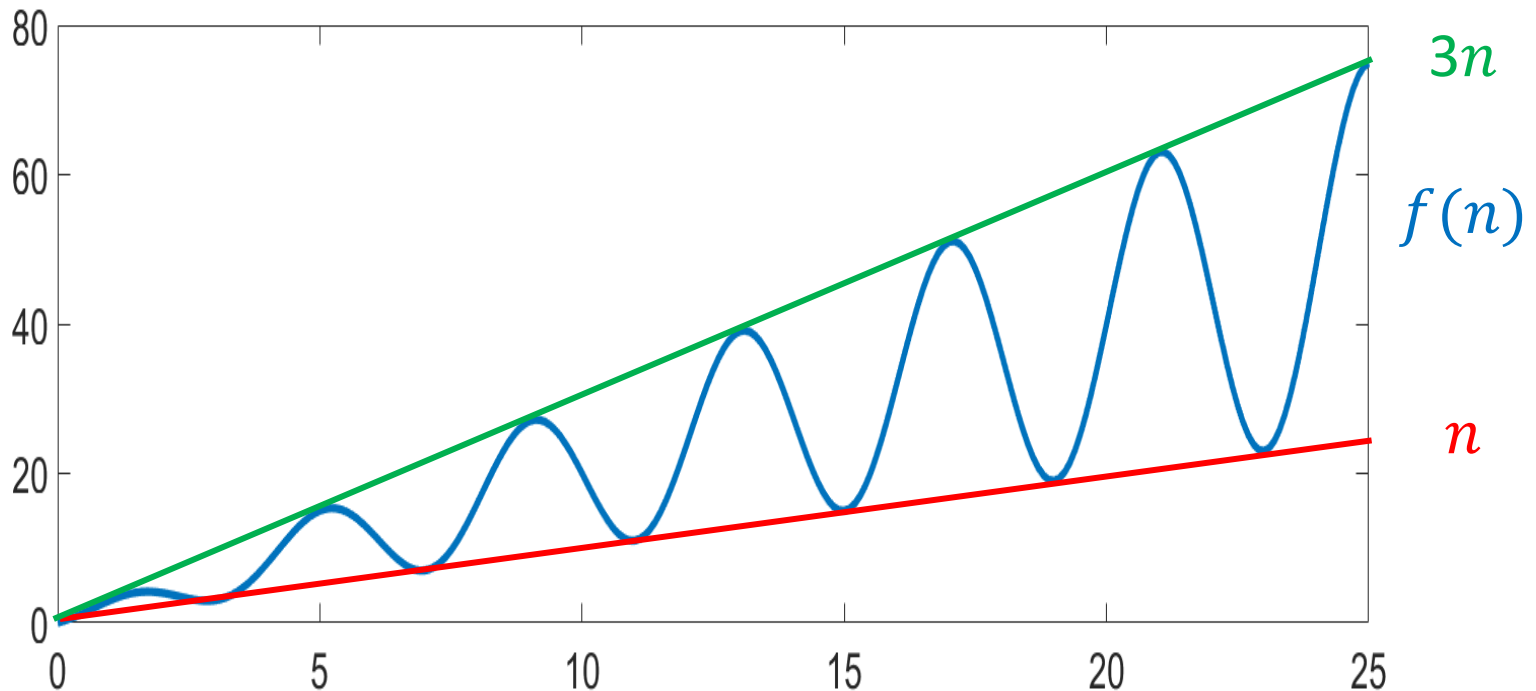
2) Prove $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln^a n}{n^d} = 0$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln^a n}{n^d} = \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln^{a/d} n}{n} \right)^d \leq \left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln^{\lfloor a/d \rfloor} n}{n} \right)^d = 0$$

3) Finally $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(\log n)^a}{n^d} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left(\frac{\ln n}{\ln 2}\right)^a}{n^d} = \left(\frac{1}{\ln 2}\right)^a \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(\ln n)^a}{n^d} = 0$

Example 4

- Sometimes limit does not exist, but can prove from first principles
- Let $f(n) = n(2 + \sin n\pi/2)$
- Prove that $f(n)$ is $\Theta(n)$



Example 4

- Let $f(n) = n(2 + \sin n\pi/2)$, prove that $f(n)$ is $\Theta(n)$
- Proof

$$-1 \leq \sin(\text{any number}) \leq 1$$

$$f(n) \leq n(2 + 1) = 3n \quad \text{for all } n \geq 0$$

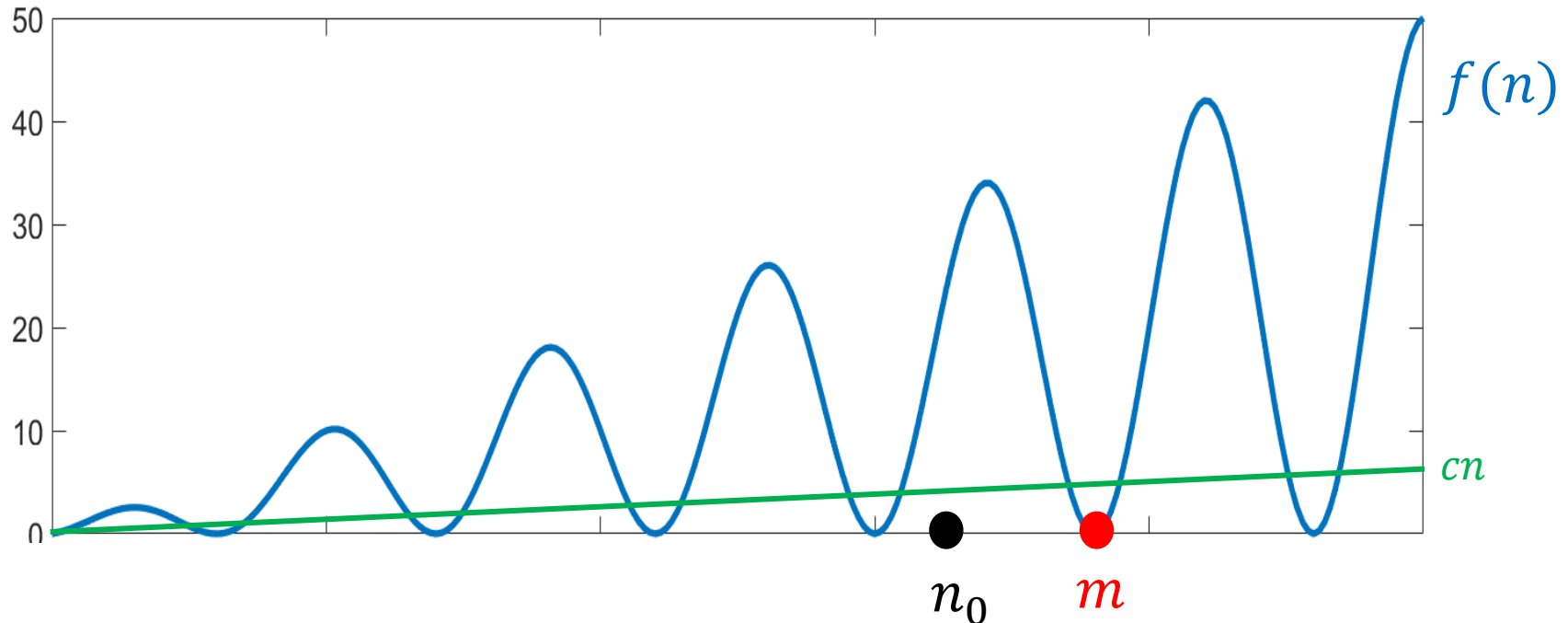
$$n = n(2 - 1) \leq f(n) \quad \text{for all } n \geq 0$$

- Use $c_1 = 1, c_2 = 3, n_0 = 0$

Example 5

$f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ if \exists constants $c > 0$, $n_0 \geq 0$ s.t. $|f(n)| \geq c|g(n)|$ for $n \geq n_0$

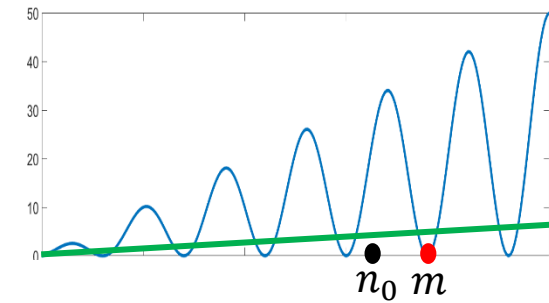
- Let $f(n) = n(1 + \sin n\pi/2)$, prove that $f(n)$ is **not** $\Omega(n)$



- Many points do not satisfy $f(n) \geq cn$ for $n \geq n_0$, but easiest to use zero-valued one for the formal proof

Example 5

- Let $f(n) = n(1 + \sin n\pi/2)$
- Prove that $f(n)$ is **not** $\Omega(n)$
- Proof: (by contradiction)



- suppose $f(n)$ is $\Omega(n)$
- then $\exists n_0 \geq 0$ and $c > 0$ s.t. $f(n) \geq cn$ for $n \geq n_0$
- [for contradiction, will find $m \geq n_0$ s.t. $0 = f(m)$]

$$n(1 + \sin n\pi/2) \geq cn \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_0 \iff$$

$$(1 + \underbrace{\sin n\pi/2}_{-1}) \geq c \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_0$$

need to make this -1 for contradiction for some $m \geq n_0$

- need $\frac{m\pi}{2} = \frac{3\pi}{2} + 2\pi i$ for some integer i and $m \geq n_0$ \iff
- need $m = 3 + 4i$ for some integer i and $m \geq n_0$
- take $m = 3 + 4 \lceil n_0 \rceil > n_0$

Order notation Summary

- $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$: growth rates of f and g are the same
- $f(n) \in o(g(n))$: growth rate of f is less than growth rate of g
- $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$: growth rate of f is greater than growth rate of g
- $f(n) \in O(g(n))$: growth rate of f is the same or less than growth rate of g
- $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$: growth rate of f is the same or greater than growth rate of g

Relationship between Order Notations

One can prove the following relationships

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

Algebra of Order Notations (1)

- The following rules are easy to prove [exercise]

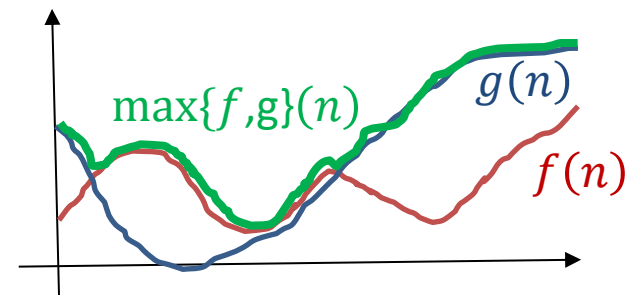
1. Identity rule: $f(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$

2. 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 $f(n) \in o(h(n))$

Algebra of Order Notations (2)

$$\max\{f, g\}(n) = \begin{cases} f(n) & \text{if } f(n) > g(n) \\ g(n) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



3. Maximum rules

Suppose that $f(n) > 0$ and $g(n) > 0$ for all $n \geq n_0$, then

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

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

Proof:

function positivity

a) $f(n) + g(n) \geq$ either $f(n)$ or $g(n) = \max\{f(n), g(n)\}$

b) $f(n) + g(n) = \max\{f(n), g(n)\} + \min\{f(n), g(n)\}$

$$\leq \max\{f(n), g(n)\} + \max\{f(n), g(n)\}$$

$$= 2\max\{f(n), g(n)\}$$

- Usage: $n^2 + \log n \in \Theta(n^2)$

Abuse of Order Notation

- Normally, say $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ because $\Theta(g(n))$ is a set
- Sometimes it is convenient to abuse notation
 - $f(n) = 200n^2 + \Theta(n)$
 - $f(n)$ is $200n^2$ plus a term with linear growth rate
 - nicer to read than $200n^2 + 30n + \log n$
 - does not hide the constant term 200, unlike if we said $O(n^2)$
 - $f(n) = n^2 + o(1)$
 - $f(n)$ is n^2 plus a vanishing term (term goes to 0)
 - example: $f(n) = n^2 + 1/n$
- Use these sparingly, typically only for stating final result
- But **avoid** arithmetic with asymptotic notation, can go very wrong
- Instead, replace $\Theta(g(n))$ by $c \cdot g(n)$
 - still sloppy, but less dangerous
 - if $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$, more accurate statement is $c \cdot g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c' \cdot g(n)$ for large enough n

Outline

- CS240 overview
 - Course objectives
 - Course topics
- **Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis**
 - algorithm design
 - pseudocode
 - measuring efficiency
 - **analysis of algorithms**
 - analysis of recursive algorithms
 - helpful formulas

Techniques for Runtime Analysis

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

Test1(n)

```
1.   $sum \leftarrow 0$ 
2.  for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do
3.      for  $j \leftarrow i$  to  $n$  do
4.           $sum \leftarrow sum + (i - j)^2$ 
5.  return  $sum$ 
```

- Identify *primitive operations*: these require constant time
- Loop complexity expressed as *sum* of complexities of each iteration
- Nested loops: start with the innermost loop and proceed outwards
- This gives *nested summations*

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4.           $sum \leftarrow sum + (i - j)^2$      $c$ 
5.  return  $sum$ 
```

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5. **return** sum

$$\sum_{j=i}^n c$$

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5. **return** sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c$$

- Identify *primitive operations*: these require constant time
- Loop complexity expressed as *sum* of complexities of each iteration
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Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

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

Test1(n)

```
1.  sum ← 0
2.  for i ← 1 to n do
3.      for j ← i to n do
4.          sum ← sum + (i - j)2
5.  return sum
```

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c + c$$

- Identify *primitive operations*: these require constant time
- Loop complexity expressed as *sum* of complexities of each iteration
- Nested loops: start with the innermost loop and proceed outwards
- This gives *nested summations*

Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

Test1(n)

```
1.  sum ← 0
2.  for i ← 1 to n do
3.      for j ← i to n do
4.          sum ← sum + (i - j)2
5.  return sum
```

- Derived complexity as

$$c + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c$$

- Some textbooks will write this as

$$c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c_2$$

- Or even as

$$1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n 1$$

- Now need to work out the sum

Sums: Review

$$\sum_{j=1}^n 1 = 1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 = n$$

Diagram illustrating the summation $\sum_{j=1}^n 1 = n$. The index of summation is j , and the summand is 1 . The terms are shown for $j=1, 2, 3, \dots, n$.

Annotations:

- summand (points to the 1 in the summand)
- index of summation (points to the j in the index)

Sums: Review

terms from 1 to $i - 1$
are missing

$$\sum_{j=i}^n 1 = \begin{array}{ccccccc} & j = i & & j = i + 1 & & \dots & & j = n \\ & 1 & & + 1 & & \dots & & + 1 & = n - i + 1 \end{array}$$

Sums: Review

$$\sum_{j=i}^n (n - e^x) = \overset{j=i}{n - e^x} + \overset{j=i+1}{n - e^x} + \dots + \overset{j=n}{n - e^x} = (n - e^x)(n - i + 1)$$

Sums: Review

$$\begin{array}{r} S = \sum_{i=1}^n i = \\ + \\ S = \end{array} \begin{array}{ccccccc} & n+1 & & n+1 & & n+1 & & & & n+1 \\ & \text{\textcircled{1}} & & \text{\textcircled{+ 2}} & & \text{\textcircled{+ 3}} & & \dots & & \text{\textcircled{+ n}} \\ & n & & \text{\textcircled{+(n-1)}} & & \text{\textcircled{+(n-2)}} & & \dots & & \text{\textcircled{+ 1}} \end{array}$$

$$2S = (n+1)n$$

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

Sums: Review

$$\begin{array}{r} S = \sum_{i=a}^b i = \\ + \\ S = \end{array} \begin{array}{c} a + b \\ a \\ b \end{array} + \begin{array}{c} a + b \\ (a + 1) \\ (b - 1) \end{array} \dots \begin{array}{c} a + b \\ + b \\ + a \end{array}$$

$$2S = (a + b)(b - a + 1)$$

$$S = \frac{1}{2}(a + b)(b - a + 1)$$

Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

Test1(*n*)

1. *sum* \leftarrow 0
2. **for** *i* \leftarrow 1 **to** *n* **do**
3. **for** *j* \leftarrow *i* **to** *n* **do**
4. *sum* \leftarrow *sum* + (*i* - *j*)²
5. **return** *sum*

$$\begin{aligned}c + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c &= c + \sum_{i=1}^n c(n - i + 1) = c + c \sum_{i=1}^n (n - i + 1) \\&= c + c \sum_{i=1}^n n - c \sum_{i=1}^n i + c \sum_{i=1}^n 1 \\&= c + cn^2 - c \frac{(n+1)n}{2} + cn = c \frac{n^2}{2} + c \frac{n}{2} + c\end{aligned}$$

- Complexity of algorithm **Test1** is $\Theta(n^2)$

Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

Test1(*n*)

1. *sum* \leftarrow 0
2. **for** *i* \leftarrow 1 **to** *n* **do**
3. **for** *j* \leftarrow *i* **to** *n* **do**
4. *sum* \leftarrow *sum* + (*i* - *j*)²
5. **return** *sum*

- Can use Θ -bounds earlier, before working out the sum

$$c + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c \quad \text{is} \quad \Theta \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c \right)$$

- Therefore, can drop the lower order term and work on

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c$$

- Using Θ -bounds earlier makes final expressions simpler
- Complexity of algorithm **Test1** is $\Theta(n^2)$

Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

- Two general strategies
 1. Use Θ -bounds *throughout the analysis* and obtain Θ -bound for the complexity of the algorithm
 - used this strategy on previous slides for **Test1** Θ -bound
 2. Prove a O -bound and a *matching* Ω -bound *separately*
 - use upper bounds (for O -bounds) and lower bounds (for Ω -bound) early and frequently
 - easier because upper/lower bounds are easier to sum

Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

- Second strategy: **upper bound** for **Test1**

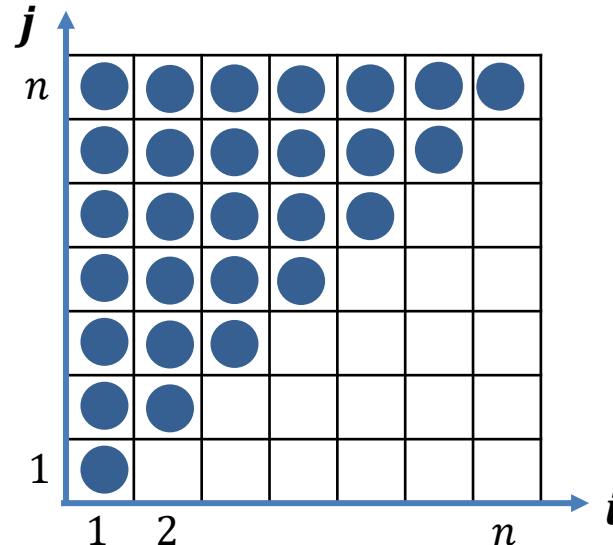
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c$$

Test1(*n*)

- sum* ← 0
- for** *i* ← 1 **to** *n* **do**
- for** *j* ← *i* **to** *n* **do**
- sum* ← *sum* + (*i* - *j*)²
- return** *sum*

- Add** more iterations to make sum easier to work out

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n c = \sum_{i=1}^n cn = c \sum_{i=1}^n n = cn^2$$



Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

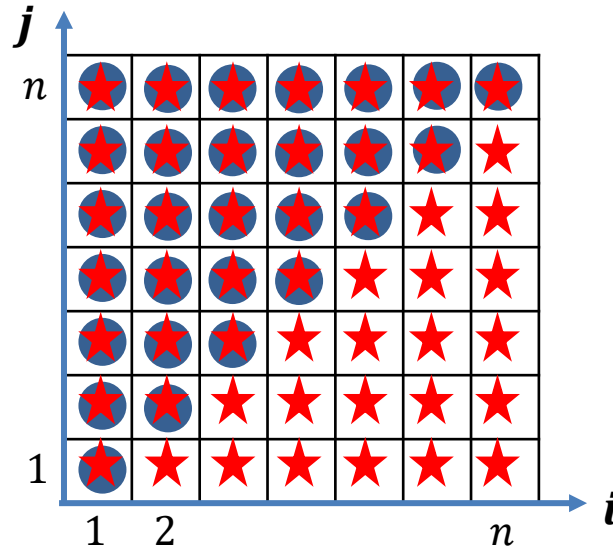
- Second strategy: **upper bound** for **Test1**

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c$$

- Add** more iterations to make sum easier to work out

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n c = \sum_{i=1}^n cn = c \sum_{i=1}^n n = cn^2$$

upper bound ★



- Test1** is $O(n^2)$

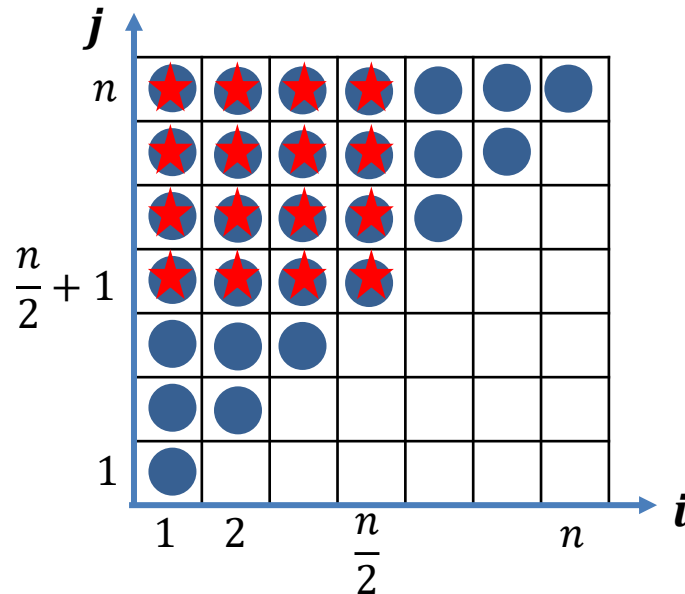
Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

- Second strategy: **lower bound** for **Test1**

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c$$

- Remove** iterations to make sum easier to work out

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} \sum_{j=1+n/2}^n c = \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} c \frac{n}{2} = c \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} \frac{n}{2} = c \left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^2$$



- Test1** is $\Omega(n^2)$

Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

- Second strategy: **lower bound** for **Test1**

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c$$

- Remove** iterations to make sum easier to work out
- Can get the same result without visualization
- To remove iterations, increase lower or increase upper range bounds, or both

- Examples: $\sum_{k=10}^{100} c \geq \sum_{k=20}^{80} c$ $\sum_{k=i}^j 1 \geq \sum_{k=i+1}^{j-1} 1$

- In our case:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} \sum_{j=i}^n c \geq \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} \sum_{j=1+n/2}^n c = c \left(\frac{n}{2}\right)^2$$

now $i \leq n/2$

- Test1** is $\Omega(n^2)$, previously concluded that **Test1** is $O(n^2)$
- Therefore **Test1** is $\Theta(n^2)$

Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

Test1(*n*)

```
1.  sum ← 0
2.  for i ← 1 to n do
3.      for j ← i to n do
4.          sum ← sum + (i - j)2
5.  return sum
```

- Annoying to carry constants around $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c$
- Running time is proportional to the number of iterations
- Can first compute the number of iterations

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

- And then say running time is c times the number of iterations

Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

- Inner **while** loop
 - iteration 1: $j = 0$
 - iteration 2: $j = 1 \cdot i$
 - iteration k : $j = (k - 1) \cdot i$
 - terminate when $(k - 1) \cdot i \geq i^2$
 - $k \geq 1 + i$
 - inner while loop takes $(1 + i)c$ time
- Outer **while** loop
 - iteration 1: $i = n$
 - iteration 2: $i = n/2^{2-1}$
 - iteration t : $i = n/2^{t-1}$
 - terminates when $\frac{n}{2^{t-1}} < 2$
 - $t > \log n$ (more precisely, last iteration is at $t = \lceil \log n \rceil - 1$)

Algorithm *Test2*(n)

$sum \leftarrow 0$

$i = n$

while $i \geq 2$ **do**

$j = 0$

while $j < i^2$ **do**

$sum \leftarrow sum + 1$

$j = j + i$

$i = i/2$

return sum

$O(1)$

- Total time, ignoring multiplicative c

$$\sum_{t=1}^{\log n} (1 + n/2^{t-1}) = \sum_{t=1}^{\log n} 1 + n \sum_{t=1}^{\log n} 1/2^t < \log n + n \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} 1/2^t \in O(n)$$

some constant

Worst Case Time Complexity

- Can have different running times on two instances of equal size

```
insertion-sort(A, n)
```

```
A: array of size n
```

```
1.   for i ← 1 to n - 1 do  
2.       j ← i  
3.       while j > 0 and A[j] < A[j - 1] do  
4.           swap A[j] and A[j - 1]  
5.           j ← j - 1
```

- Let $T(I)$ be running time of an algorithm on instance I
- Let $I_n = \{I: \text{Size}(I) = n\}$
- Worst-case complexity of an algorithm:** take the worst I
- Formal definition: the worst-case running time of algorithm A is a function $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ mapping n (the input size) to the *longest* running time for any input instance of size n

$$T_{\text{worst}}(n) = \max_{I \in I_n} \{T(I)\}$$

Worst Case Time Complexity

- **Worst-case complexity of an algorithm:** take worst instance I

```
insertion-sort(A, n)
```

```
A: array of size n
```

```
1.  for i ← 1 to n - 1 do
2.      j ← i
3.      while j > 0 and A[j] < A[j - 1] do
4.          swap A[j] and A[j - 1]
5.          j ← j - 1
```

worst I is reverse sorted array

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=1}^i c = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} ci = c(n-1)n/2$$

- $T_{worst}(n) = c(n-1)n/2$
 - this is primitive operation count as a function of input size n
 - after primitive operation count, apply asymptotic analysis
 - $\Theta(n^2)$ or $O(n^2)$ or $\Omega(n^2)$ are all valid statements about the worst case running time of *insertion-sort*

Best Case Time Complexity

```
insertion-sort(A, n)
A: array of size n
1.  for i ← 1 to n - 1 do
2.      j ← i
3.      while j > 0 and A[j] < A[j - 1] do
4.          swap A[j] and A[j - 1]
5.          j ← j - 1
```

best instance is sorted array

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} c = c(n-1)$$

- **Best-case complexity of an algorithm:** take the best instance /
- Formal definition: the best-case running time of an algorithm A is a function $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ mapping n (the input size) to the *smallest* running time for any input instance of size n

$$T_{best}(n) = \min_{I \in I_n} \{T(I)\}$$

- $T_{best}(n) = c(n-1)$
 - this is primitive operation count as a function of input size n
 - after primitive operation count, apply asymptotic analysis
 - $\Theta(n)$ or $O(n)$ or $\Omega(n)$ are all valid about best case running time

Best Case Time Complexity

- Note that best-case complexity is a **function of input size n**
- Think of the best instance of **size n**
- For *insertion-sort*, best instance is sorted (non-increasing) array A of size n
- **Best instance is not an array of size 1**
- Best-case complexity is $\Theta(n)$

```
insertion-sort( $A, n$ )  
A: array of size  $n$   
1.   for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n - 1$  do  
2.      $j \leftarrow i$   
3.     while  $j > 0$  and  $A[j] < A[j - 1]$  do  
4.       swap  $A[j]$  and  $A[j - 1]$   
5.        $j \leftarrow j - 1$ 
```

- For *hasNegative*, best instance is array A of size n where $A[0] < 0$
- **Best instance is not an array of size 1**
- Best-case complexity is $\Theta(1)$

```
hasNegative( $A, n$ )  
Input: array  $A$  of  $n$  integers  
for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n - 1$  do  
  if  $A[i] < 0$   
    return True  
return False
```


Best Case Running Time Exercise

- $T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n = 5 \\ cn & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Algorithm *Mystery*(A, n)

Input: array A of n integers

if $n = 5$

return $A[0]$

else

for $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

print($A[i]$)

return

- Best case running time?

a) $\Theta(1)$

b) $\Theta(n)$

Average Case Time Complexity

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

$$T_{avg}(n) = \frac{1}{|I_n|} \sum_{I \in I_n} T(I)$$

- Will assume $|I_n|$ is finite
- If all instances are used equally often, $T_{avg}(n)$ gives a good estimate of a running time of an algorithm on average in practice

Average vs. Worst vs. Best Case Time Complexity

- Sometimes, best, worst, average time complexities are the same
- If there is a difference, then best time complexity could be overly optimistic, worst time complexity could be overly pessimistic, and average time complexity is most useful
- However, average case time complexity is usually hard to compute
- Therefore, most often, we use worst time complexity
 - worst time complexity is useful as it gives bound on the maximum amount of time one will have to wait for the algorithm to complete
 - default in this course
 - unless stated otherwise, whenever we mention time complexity, assume we mean worst case time complexity
- 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

O-notation and Running Time of Algorithms

- It is important not to try make *comparisons* between algorithms using O -notation
- Suppose algorithm **A** and **B** both solve the same problem
 - **A** has worst-case runtime $O(n^3)$
 - **B** has worst-case runtime $O(n^2)$
- Cannot conclude that **B** is more efficient than **A**
- O -notation is only an upper bound
 - **A** could have worst case runtime $O(n)$
 - while for **B** the bound of $O(n^2)$ could be tight
- To compare algorithms, it is better to use Θ notation

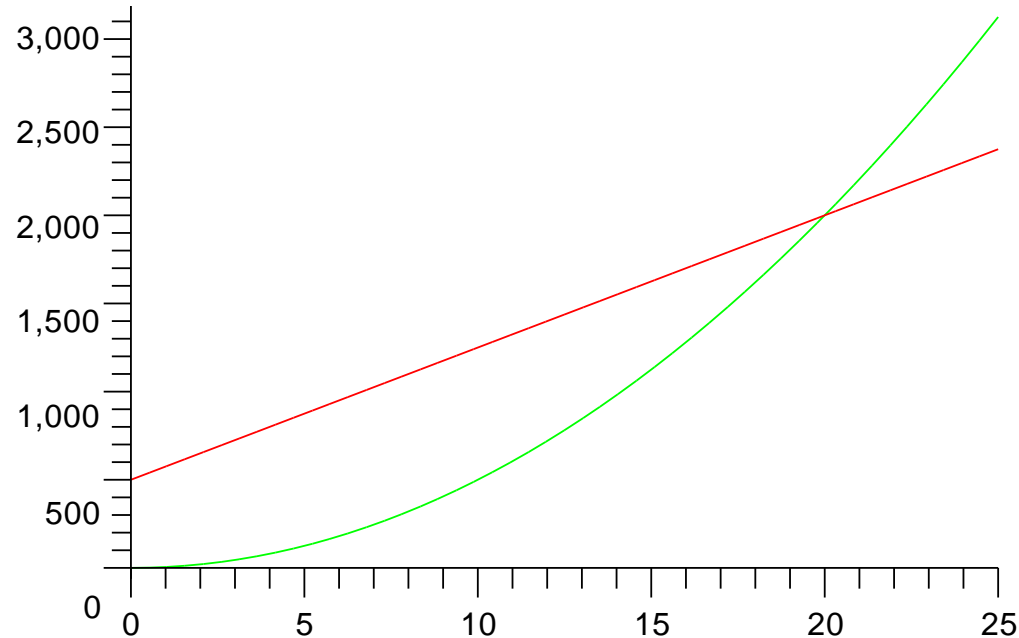
Θ -notation and Running Time of Algorithms

- Have to be careful with Θ -notation
- Suppose algorithm **A** and **B** both solve the same problem
 - **A** has worst-case runtime $\Theta(n^3)$
 - **B** has worst-case runtime $\Theta(n^2)$
- Cannot conclude that **B** is more efficient than **A** for **all inputs**
 - the worst case runtime may be achieved only on some instances

Running Time: Theory and Practice, Multiplicative Constants

- Algorithm **A** has runtime $T(n) = 10000n^2$
- Algorithm **B** has runtime $T(n) = 10n^2$
- Theoretical efficiency of **A** and **B** is the same, $\Theta(n^2)$
- In practice, algorithm **B** will run faster (for most implementations)
 - multiplicative constants matter in practice, given two algorithms with the same growth rate
 - but we are concerned with theory (mostly), and multiplicative constants do not matter in asymptotic analysis

Running Time: Theory and Practice, Small Inputs



- Algorithm **A** running time $T(n) = 75n + 500$
- Algorithm **B** running time $T(n) = 5n^2$
- Then **B** is faster for $n \leq 20$
 - use this fact for practical implementation of recursive sorting algorithms

Theoretical Analysis of Space

- Interested in *auxiliary* space
 - space used in addition to the space used by the input data
- To find *space* used by an algorithm, count total number of auxiliary memory cells ever accessed (for reading or writing or both) by algorithm
 - as a function of input size n
 - space used must always be initialized, although it may not be stated explicitly in pseudocode
- *arrayMax* uses 2 memory cells
 - $T(n) = 2$
 - space efficiency is $O(1)$

Algorithm *arrayMax*(A, n)

***currentMax* ← $A[0]$**

for i ← 1 to $n - 1$ do

if $A[i] > currentMax$ then

$currentMax$ ← $A[i]$

return *currentMax*

Theoretical Analysis of Space

- *arrayCumSum* uses $1 + n$ memory cells
 - $T(n) = 1 + n$
 - space efficiency is $O(n)$

Algorithm *arrayCumSum*(A, n)

Input: array A of n integers

initialize array B of size n to 0

$B[0] \leftarrow A[0]$

for $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

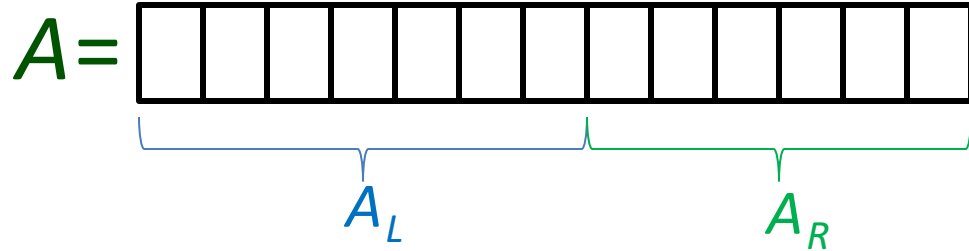
$B[i] \leftarrow B[i - 1] + A[i]$

return B

Outline

- CS240 overview
 - Course objectives
 - Course topics
- **Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis**
 - algorithm design
 - pseudocode
 - measuring efficiency
 - asymptotic analysis
 - analysis of algorithms
 - **analysis of recursive algorithms**
 - helpful formulas

MergeSort: Overall Idea



Input: Array A of n integers

1: split A into two subarrays

- A_L consists of the first $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor$ elements
- A_R consists of the last $\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor$ elements

2: *Recursively* run *MergeSort* on A_L and A_R

3: After A_L and A_R are sorted, use function *Merge* to merge them into a single sorted array

MergeSort: Pseudo-code

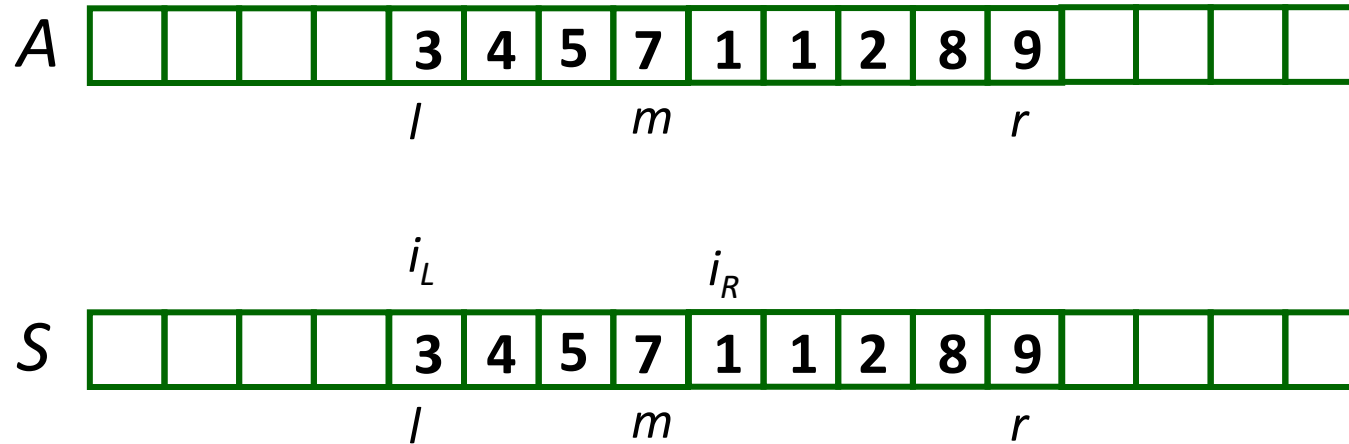
```
merge-sort( $A, n, \ell \leftarrow 0, r \leftarrow n - 1, S \leftarrow \text{NIL}$ )
```

A : array of size n , $0 \leq \ell \leq r \leq n - 1$

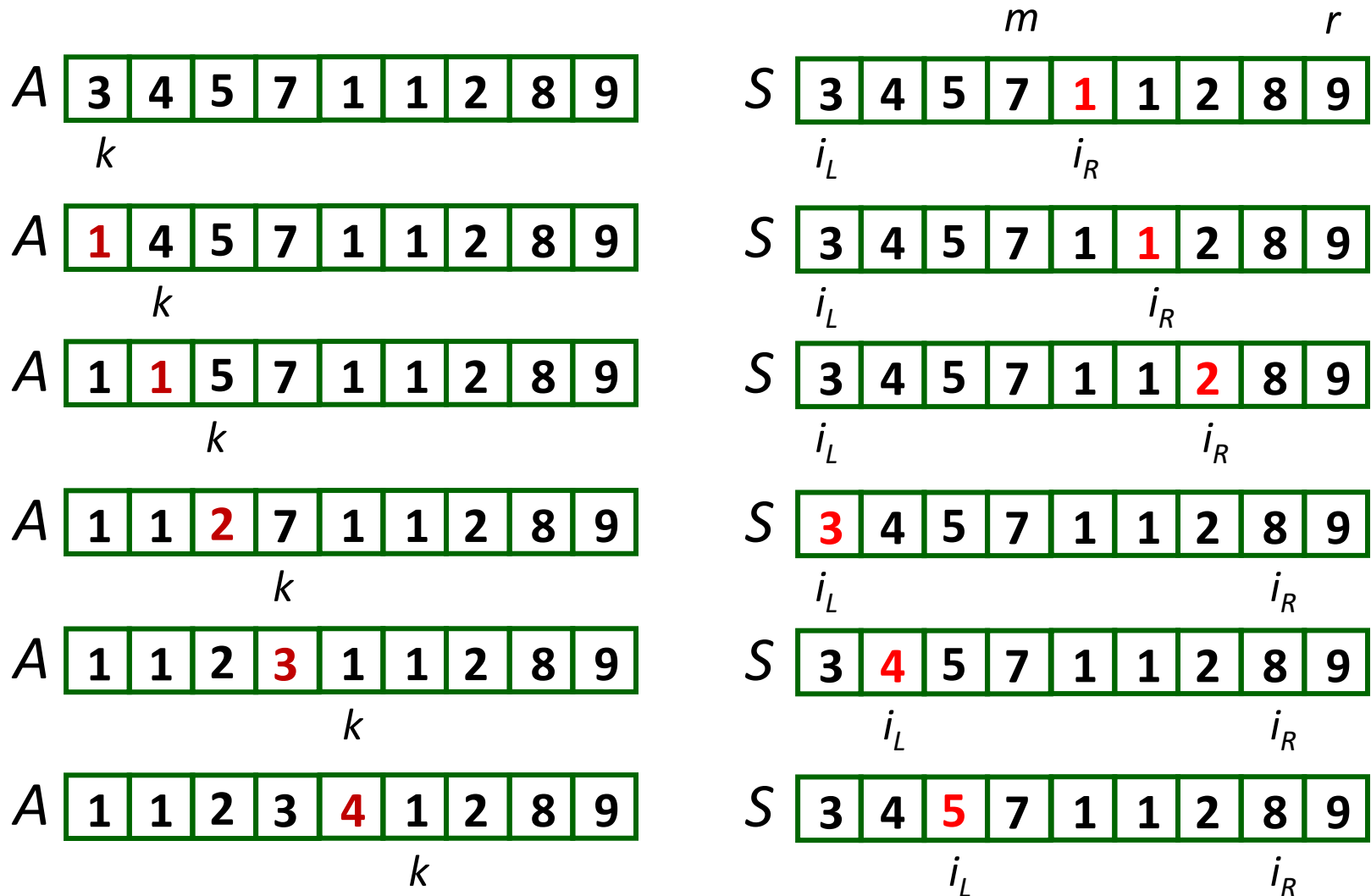
1. **if** S is NIL initialize it as array $S[0..n - 1]$
2. **if** ($r \leq \ell$) **then**
3. **return**
4. **else**
5. $m = \lfloor (r + \ell) / 2 \rfloor$
6. *merge-sort*(A, n, ℓ, m, S)
7. *merge-sort*($A, n, m + 1, r, S$)
8. *merge*(A, ℓ, m, r, S)

- Two tricks to avoid copying/initializing too many arrays
 - recursion uses parameters that indicate the range of the array that needs to be sorted
 - array S used for merging is passed along as parameter

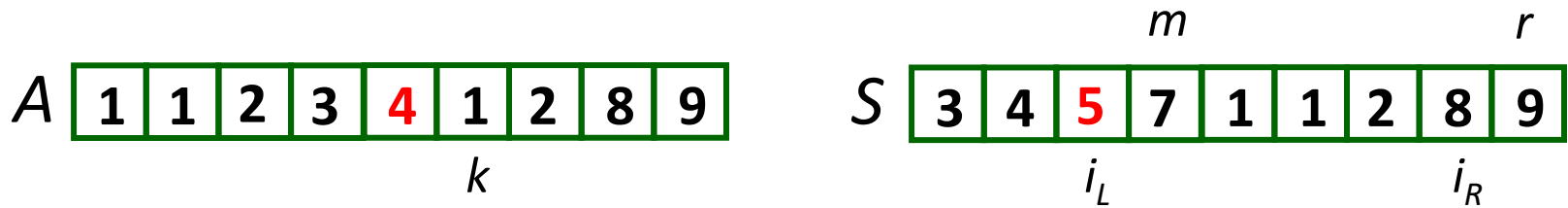
Merging Two Sorted Subarrays: Initialization



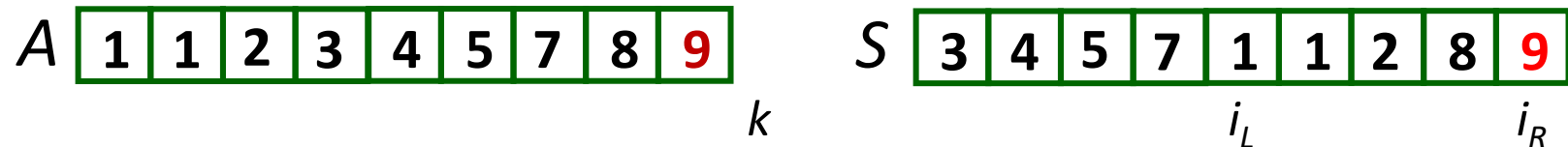
Merging Two Sorted Subarrays: Merging Starts



Merging Two Sorted Subarrays: Merging Cont.



$i_L > m$, done with the first subarray



Merge: Pseudocode

Merge(A, l, m, r, S)

$A[0..n - 1]$ is an array, $A[l..m]$ is sorted, $A[m + 1..r]$ is sorted

$S[0..n - 1]$ is an array

1. copy $A[l..r]$ into $S[l..r]$
2. $(i_L, i_R) \leftarrow (l, m + 1)$;
3. **for** ($k \leftarrow l$; $k \leq r$; $k++$) **do**
4. **if** ($i_L > m$) $A[k] \leftarrow S[i_R++]$
5. **else if** ($i_R > r$) $A[k] \leftarrow S[i_L++]$
6. **else if** ($S[i_L] \leq S[i_R]$) $A[k] \leftarrow S[i_L++]$
7. **else** $A[k] \leftarrow S[i_R++]$

- **Merge** takes $\Theta(r - l + 1)$ time
 - this is $\Theta(n)$ time for merging n elements

Analysis of MergeSort

- Let $T(n)$ be time to run *MergeSort* on an array of length n

<pre><i>merge-sort</i>($A, n, l \leftarrow 0, r \leftarrow n - 1, S \leftarrow NULL$) A: array of size $n, 0 \leq l \leq r \leq n - 1$ if $r \leq l$ then \\ base case return if S is $NULL$ initialize it as array $S[0 \dots n - 1]$ $m = \lfloor (l + r) / 2 \rfloor$ <i>merge-sort</i>(A, n, l, m, S) <i>merge-sort</i>($A, n, m + 1, r, S$) <i>merge</i>(A, l, m, r, S)</pre>	<p>c</p> <p>cn</p> <p>c</p> <p>$T\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right)$</p> <p>$T\left(\left\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \right\rfloor\right)$</p> <p>$cn$</p>
--	---

- Recurrence relation for *MergeSort*

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

Analysis of MergeSort

- Recurrence relation for *MergeSort*

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

- *Sloppy recurrence* with floors and ceilings removed

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

- Exact and sloppy recurrences are *identical* when n is a power of 2
- Recurrence easily solved when $n = 2^j$

Visual proof via Recursion Tree

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

tree levels #nodes

0 2^0

1 2^1

2 2^2

⋮

i 2^i

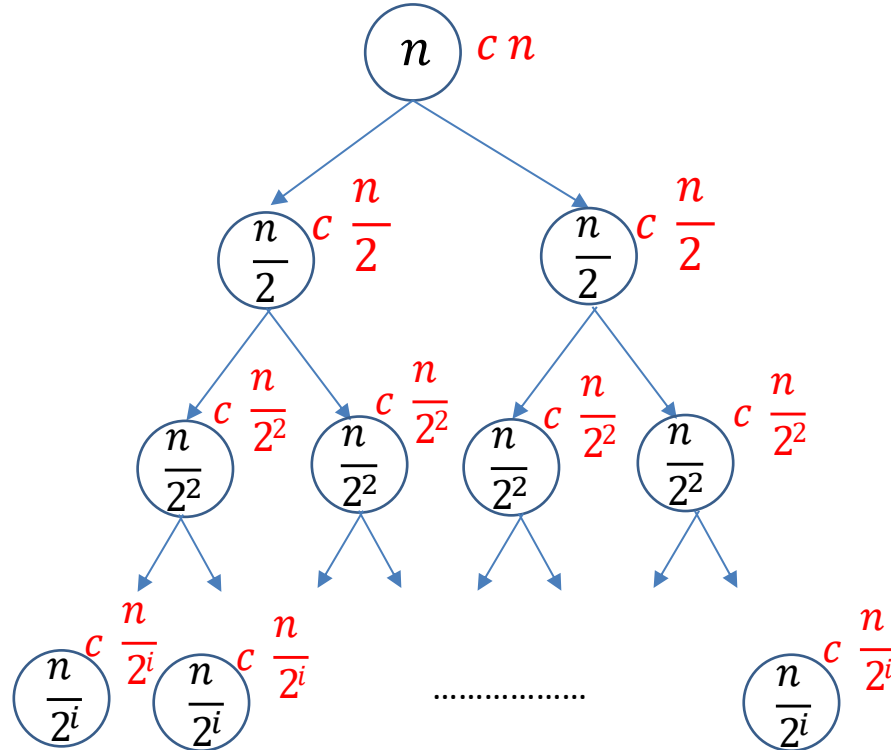
work per level

cn

cn

cn

cn



- Stop recursion when node size is 1 $\Rightarrow \frac{n}{2^i} = 1 \Rightarrow n = 2^i \Rightarrow i = \log n$
- cn operations on each tree level, $\log n$ levels, total time is $cn \log n \in \Theta(n \log n)$

Analysis of MergeSort

- Can show $T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$ for all n by analyzing exact (not sloppy) recurrence
 - sloppy recurrence is good enough for this course

Explaining Solution of a Problem

- For Merge-sort design, we had four steps
 1. describe the overall idea
 2. give pseudocode or detailed description
 3. argue correctness
 - key ingredients, no need for a formal proof
 - sometimes obvious enough from idea-description
 4. analyze runtime
- Follow these 4 steps when asked to ‘solve a problem’

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 (*)
$T(n) \leq cT(n-1) + O(1)$ for some $c < 1$	$T(n) \in O(1)$	avg-case analysis (*)
$T(n) \leq 2T(n/4) + O(1)$	$T(n) \in O(\sqrt{n})$	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
- You can use these facts without a proof, unless asked otherwise
- Many more recursions, and some methods to solve, in cs341

Outline

- CS240 overview
 - Course objectives
 - Course topics
- **Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis**
 - algorithm design
 - pseudocode
 - measuring efficiency
 - asymptotic analysis
 - analysis of algorithms
 - analysis of recursive algorithms
 - **helpful formulas**

Useful Sums

- Arithmetic

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

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

- Geometric

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

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} ar^i = \begin{cases} a \frac{r^n - 1}{r - 1} \in \Theta(r^{n-1}) & \text{if } r > 1 \\ na \in \Theta(n) & \text{if } r = 1 \\ a \frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r} \in \Theta(1) & \text{if } 0 < r < 1 \end{cases}$$

- Harmonic

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

- A few more

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \in \Theta(1)$$

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

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

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} ip(1-p)^{i-1} = \frac{1}{p} \text{ for } 0 < p < 1$$

- You can use these without a proof, unless asked otherwise

Useful Math Facts

Logarithms:

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

Factorial:

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

Probability:

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