



Data Structures and Algorithms Design (DSECLZG519)

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SESSION 2 -PLAN



Online Sessions(#)	List of Topic Title	Text/Ref Book/external resource
1 (Covered Already)	<i>Algorithms and it's Specification, Experimental Analysis, Analytical model-Random Access Machine Model, Counting Primitive Operations, Basic Operation method, Analyzing non recursive algorithms, Order of growth</i>	T1: 1.1, 1.2
2	<p>Notion of best case, average case and worst case. Use of asymptotic notations- Big-Oh, Omega and Theta Notations. Correctness of Algorithms.</p> <p>Analyzing Recursive Algorithms: Recurrence relations, Iteration Method.</p>	T1: 1.4, 2.1

Order of growth-Refresher!

	<i>constant</i>	<i>logarithmic</i>	<i>linear</i>	<i>N-log-N</i>	<i>quadratic</i>	<i>cubic</i>	<i>exponential</i>
<i>n</i>	$O(1)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(n^3)$	$O(2^n)$
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2
2	1	1	2	2	4	8	4
4	1	2	4	8	16	64	16
8	1	3	8	24	64	512	256
16	1	4	16	64	256	4,096	65536
32	1	5	32	160	1,024	32,768	4,294,967,296
64	1	6	64	384	4,069	262,144	1.84×10^{19}

Refresher!!



- Which kind of growth best characterizes each of these functions?
- $(3/2)^n$
- $3n$
- 1
- $(3/2)n$
- $2n^3$
- 2^n
- $3n^2$
- 1000

Refresher!!



- Which kind of growth best characterizes each of these functions?

	Constant	Linear	Polynomial	Exponential
$(3/2)^n$				✓
$3n$		✓		
1	✓			
$(3/2)n$		✓		
$2n^3$			✓	
2^n				✓
$3n^2$			✓	
1000	✓			

Refresher!!



Consider a program with time complexity $O(n^2)$.

- For the input of size n , it takes 5 seconds.
- If the input size is doubled ($2n$). –
- **then it takes 20 seconds.**

Consider a program with time complexity $O(n)$.

- For the input of size n , it takes 5 seconds.
- If the input size is doubled ($2n$). –
- **then it takes 10 seconds.**

Consider a program with time complexity $O(n^3)$.

- For the input of size n , it takes 5 seconds.
- If the input size is doubled ($2n$). –
- **then it takes 40 seconds.**

Refresher!!



What is the order of growth of the below function?

```
int fun1(int n)
{
    int count = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++)
        for (int j = i; j > 0; j--)
            count = count + 1;
    return count;
}
```

Ans: $O(n^2)$

Exercises-Analysis of algorithms



Adobe Acrobat
Document

Time Complexity- Why should we care?



*for $i = 2$ to $n-1$
If i divides n
 n is not prime*

1 ms for a division
In worst case $(n-2)$
times.

$n = 11$ -----?

$n = 101$ -----?

*for $i \leftarrow 2$ to \sqrt{n}
if i divides n
 n is not prime*

1 ms for a division
In worst case $(\sqrt{n}-1)$ times.

$n=11, (3-1) = 2\text{ms}$

$n=101, (\sqrt{101}-1)$ times = 9ms

Notion of best case and worst case



- Best case: where algorithm takes the least time to execute.
 - In arrayMax ex, occurs when $A[0]$ is the maximum element.
 - $T(n)=5n$
- Worst case :where algorithm takes maximum time.
 - Occurs when elements are sorted in increasing order so that variable *currentMax* is reassigned at each iteration of the loop.
 - $T(n)=7n-2$

Algorithm *arrayMax*(A, n)

```
currentMax ←  $A[0]$ 
for ( $i = 1; i < n; i++$ )
  if  $A[i] > \textit{currentMax}$  then
    currentMax ←  $A[i]$ 
return currentMax
```

Use of asymptotic notation

- How the running time of an algorithm increases with the input size, as the size of the input increases without bound?
- Used to compare the algorithms based on the order of growth of their basic operations.

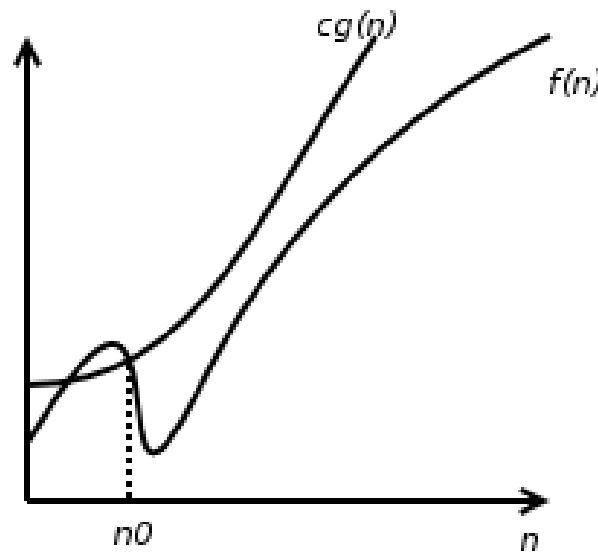
Informal Introduction

- $O(g(n))$ is the set of all functions with a lower or same order of growth as $g(n)$ (to within a constant multiple, as n goes to infinity)
- $\Omega(g(n))$, stands for the set of all functions with a higher or same order of growth as $g(n)$ (to within a constant multiple, as n goes to infinity).
- $\Theta(g(n))$ is the set of all functions that have the same order of growth as $g(n)$ (to within a constant multiple, as n goes to infinity).

Big-Oh Notation



- Let f and g be functions from nonnegative numbers to nonnegative numbers. Given functions $f(n)$ and $g(n)$, we say that $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there is a real constant $c > 0$ and an integer constant $n_0 \geq 1$ such that $f(n) \leq cg(n)$ for every integer $n \geq n_0$



Big-Oh Notation

- Big-Oh notation provides an upper bound on a function to within a constant factor.
- To prove big-Oh, find witnesses, specific values for C and n_0 , and prove $n \geq n_0$ implies $f(n) \leq C * g(n)$.

One Approach for Finding Witnesses



- *Generate a table for $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ using $n = 1$, $n = 10$ and $n = 100$. [Use values smaller than 10 and 100 if you wish.]*
- *Guess $C = \lceil f(1)/g(1) \rceil$ (or $C = \lceil f(10)/g(10) \rceil$).*
- *Check that $f(10) \leq C * g(10)$ and $f(100) \leq C * g(100)$. [If this is not true, $f(n)$ might not be $O(g(n))$.]*
- *Choose $n_0 = 1$ (or $n_0 = 10$).*
- *Prove that $\forall n (n \geq n_0 \rightarrow f(n) \leq C * g(n))$.*
- *[It's ok if you end up with a larger, but still constant, value for C .]*

One Approach for Finding Witnesses



- Assume $n > 1$ if you chose $n_0 = 1$ (or $n > 10$ if you chose $n_0 = 10$).
- To prove $f(n) \leq C * g(n)$, you need to find expressions larger than $f(n)$ and smaller than $C * g(n)$.
- If the lowest-order term is negative, just eliminate it to obtain a larger expression.
- Repeatedly use $n > k$ and $2n > 2k$ and $3n > 3k$ and so on to “convert” the lowest-order term into a higher-order term.
- Check that your expressions are less than $C * g(n)$ by using $n = 100$.

Big-Oh Notation

Example 1



Show that $3n + 7$ is $O(n)$.

- In this case, $f(n) = 3n + 7$ and $g(n) = n$.

n	f(n)	g(n)	Ceil(f(n)/g(n))
1	10	1	10
10	37	10	4
100	307	100	4

- This table suggests trying $n_0 = 1$ and $c = 10$ or
- $n_0 = 10$ and $c = 4$.
- Proving either one is good enough to prove big-Oh.

Big-Oh Notation

Example 1



Try $n_0 = 1$ and $c = 10$.

- Want to prove ***$n > 1$ implies $3n + 7 \leq 10n$.***
- Assume $n > 1$. Want to show ***$3n + 7 \leq 10n$.***
- 7 is the lowest-order term, so work on that first.
- ***$n > 1$ implies $7n > 7$, which implies***
- $3n + 7 < 3n + 7n = 10n$.
- This finishes the proof.

Big-Oh Notation

Example 2



- Show that $n^2 + 2n + 1$ is $O(n^2)$.
 - In this case, $f(n) = n^2 + 2n + 1$ and $g(n) = n^2$.

n	f(n)	g(n)	Ceil(f(n)/g(n))
1	4	1	4
10	121	100	2
100	10201	10000	2

- This table suggests trying $n_0 = 1$ and $C = 4$
- or $n_0 = 10$ and $C = 2$.

Big-Oh Notation

Example 2



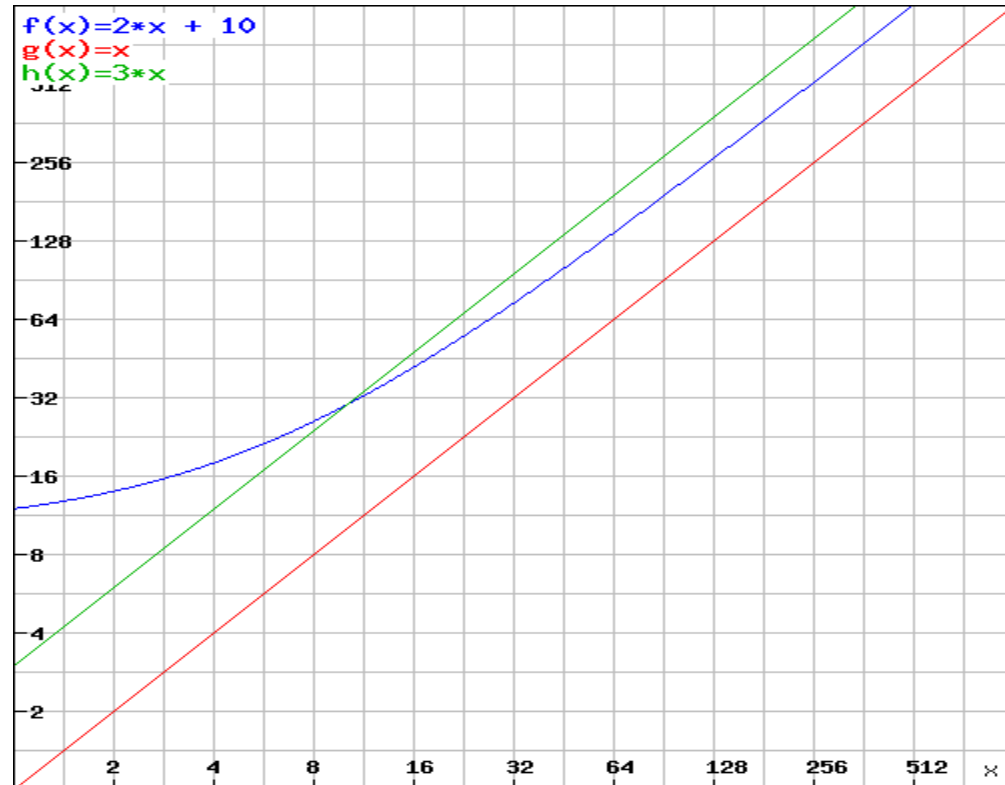
- Try $n_0 = 1$ and $c = 4$.
 - Want to prove $n > 1$ implies $n^2 + 2n + 1 \leq 4n^2$.
 - Assume $n > 1$.
 - Want to show $n^2 + 2n + 1 \leq 4n^2$.
 - Work on the lowest-order term first.
 - $n > 1$ implies
 - $n^2 + 2n + 1$
 $< n^2 + 2n + n$
 $= n^2 + 3n$
 - Now $3n$ is the lowest-order term.
 - $n > 1$ implies $3n > 3$ and $3n^2 > 3n$, which implies
 - $n^2 + 3n$
 $< n^2 + (3n)n$
 $= n^2 + 3n^2 = 4n^2$. This finishes the proof.

Big-Oh Notation

Example 3



- Example
- $2n+10$ is $O(n)$
ie.
 $2n+10 \leq c*n$
 $10/n \leq (c-2)$
 $10/c-2 \leq n$
 $n \geq 10/(c-2)$
ie .If $c=3, n=10$



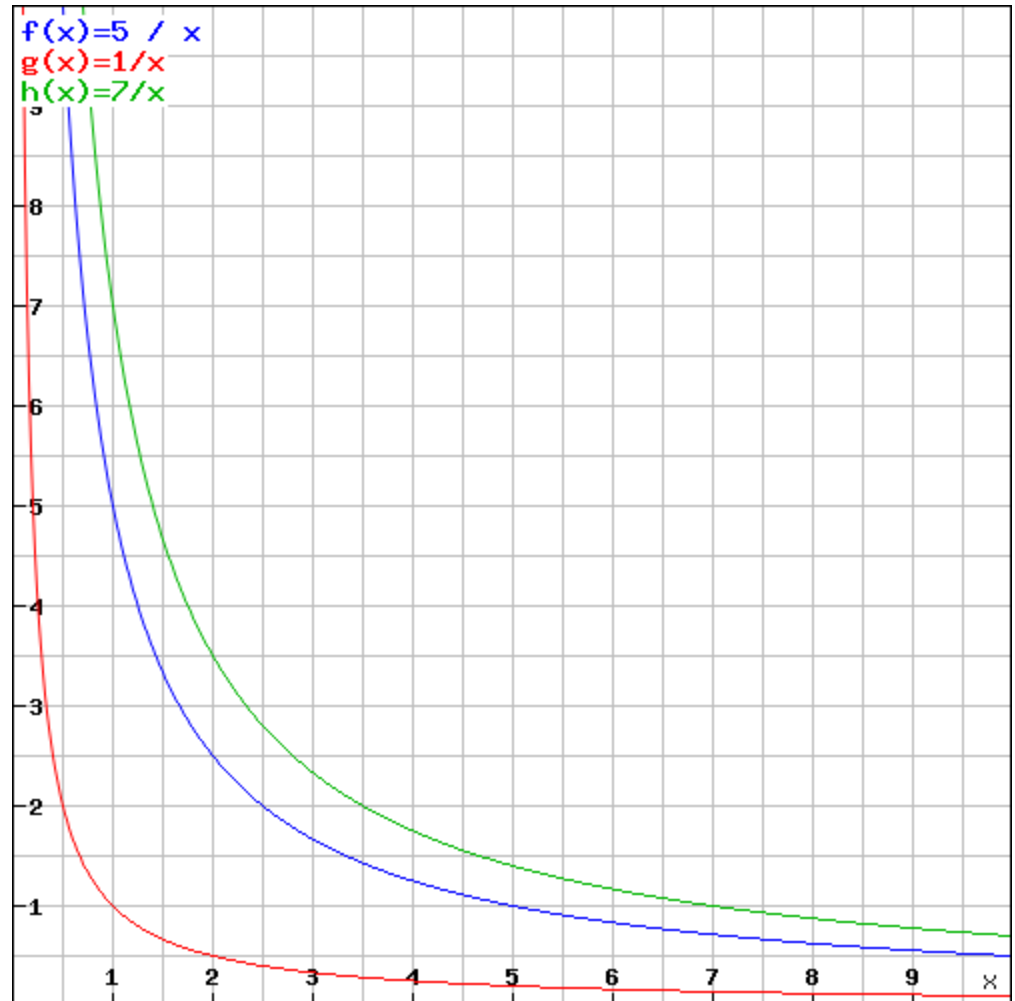
<https://rechneronline.de/function-graphs/>

Big-Oh Notation

Example 4



- Example
- $5/x$ is $O(1/x)$
- $5/x \leq c \cdot 1/x$
- $c \geq 5$ for $x \geq 1$

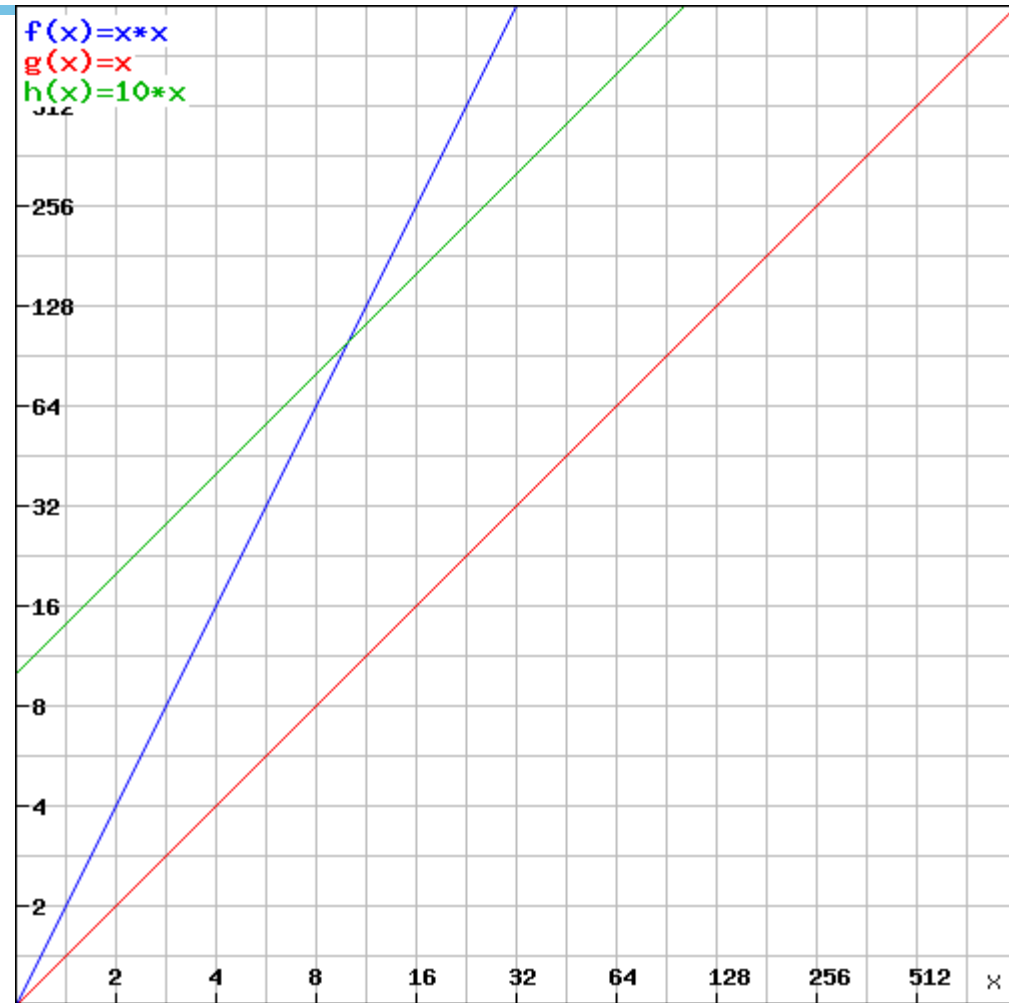


Big-Oh Notation

Example 5



- Example:
- The function n^2 is not $O(n)$
 - $n^2 \leq cn$
 - $n \leq c$
 - The above inequality cannot be satisfied since c must be a positive constant



Big-Oh Notation

Example 6



- Show that $8n^3 - 12n^2 + 6n - 1$ is $O(n^3)$.
 - In this case, $f(n) = 8n^3 - 12n^2 + 6n - 1$ and $g(n) = n^3$

n	f(n)	g(n)	Ceil(f(n)/g(n))
1	1	1	1
10	6859	1000	7
100	7880599	1000000	8

- This table suggests trying $n_0 = 100$ and $C = 8$.

Big-Oh Notation

Example 6



- Try $n_0 = 100$ and $c = 8$.
 - Want to prove $n > 100$ implies $8n^3 - 12n^2 + 6n - 1 \leq 8n^3$
 - Assume $n > 100$. Want to show $f(n) \leq 8n^3$.
 - The lowest-order term is negative, so eliminate it.
 - $8n^3 - 12n^2 + 6n - 1 < 8n^3 - 12n^2 + 6n$.
 - $n > 100$ implies $n > 6$, $n^2 > 6n$ which implies
 - $8n^3 - 12n^2 + 6n < 8n^3 - 12n^2 + n^2 = 8n^3 - 11n^2$.
 - Now lowest-order term is negative, so eliminate.
 - $n > 100$ implies $8n^3 - 11n^2 \leq 8n^3$.
 - This finishes the proof.

Big-Oh Notation

-More examples



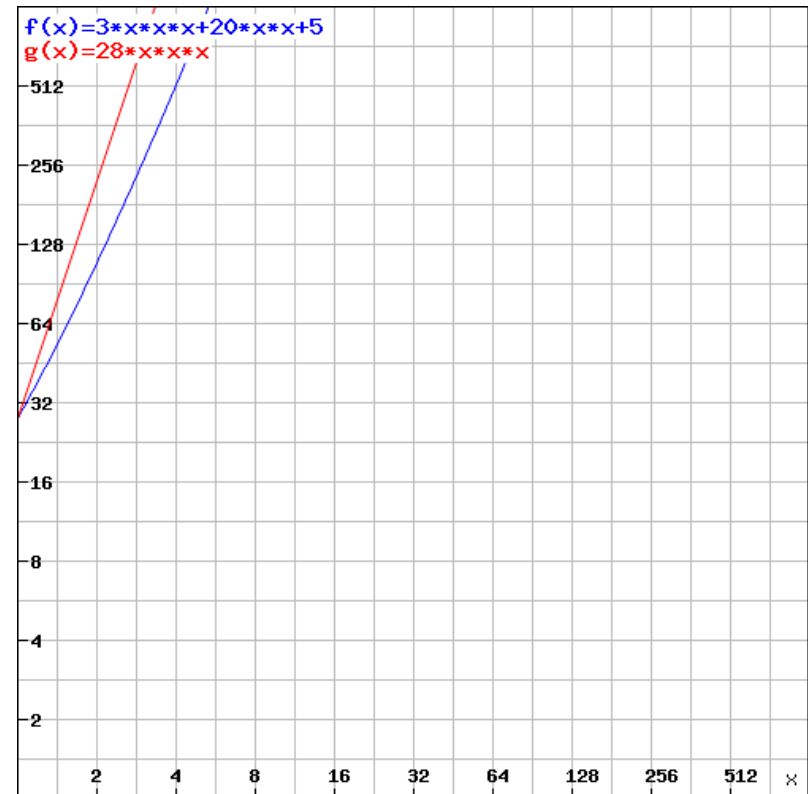
- $7n-2$ is $O(n)$
- $3n^3 + 20n^2 + 5$ is $O(n^3)$
- $3 \log n + \log \log n$ is $O(\log n)$
- Solution using one method is given below. Try other one.

Big-Oh Notation

-More examples



- $7n-2$ is $O(n)$
 - $7n-2 \leq cn$
 - $7-2/n \leq c$
 - $c \geq 7-2/n$
 - **$n_0=1$ and $c=7$ is true .**
- $3n^3 + 20n^2 + 5$ is $O(n^3)$
 - $3n^3+20n^2+5 \leq c.n^3$
 - $3+20/n+5/n^3 \leq c$
 - $c \geq 3+20/n+5/n^3$
 $c \geq 28$ and $n_0 \geq 1$ is true



Big-Oh Notation

-More examples



- $3 \log n + \log \log n$ is $O(\log n)$
 - $3 \log n + \log \log n < c \cdot \log n$
 - Let $n=8$,
 - $3 \cdot 3 + \log 3 \leq 3c$
 - $9 + 1.58 \leq 3c$
 - $c \geq 4$

OR

- $3 \log n + \log \log n \leq 4 \log n$, for $n \geq 2$.
 - Note that $\log \log n$ is not even defined for $n = 1$. That is why we use $n \geq 2$.

- If $f(n)$ is a polynomial of degree d , then $f(n)$ is $O(n^d)$, i.e.,
 1. Drop lower-order terms
 2. Drop constant factors
- Use the smallest possible class of functions
 - Say “ $2n$ is $O(n)$ ” instead of “ $2n$ is $O(n^2)$ ”
- Use the simplest expression of the class
 - Say “ $3n + 5$ is $O(n)$ ” instead of “ $3n + 5$ is $O(3n)$ ”

Big-Oh Notation

Theorem 1.7



Let $d(n)$, $e(n)$, $f(n)$, and $g(n)$ be functions mapping nonnegative integers to nonnegative reals. Then

- 1. If $d(n)$ is $O(f(n))$, then $ad(n)$ is $O(f(n))$, for any constant $a > 0$.***
- 2. If $d(n)$ is $O(f(n))$ and $e(n)$ is $O(g(n))$, then $d(n) + e(n)$ is $O(f(n) + g(n))$.***
- 3. If $d(n)$ is $O(f(n))$ and $e(n)$ is $O(g(n))$, then $d(n)e(n)$ is $O(f(n)g(n))$.***
- 4. If $d(n)$ is $O(f(n))$ and $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$, then $d(n)$ is $O(g(n))$.***
- 5. n^x is $O(a^n)$ for any fixed $x > 0$ and $a > 1$.***
- 6. $\log n^x$ is $O(\log n)$ for any fixed $x > 0$.***

Big-Oh Notation

Proof of Theorem 1.7



1. If $d(n)$ is $O(f(n))$, then $a \cdot d(n)$ is $O(f(n))$ for any constant $a > 0$.

- $d(n) \leq C \cdot f(n)$ where C is a constant
- $a \cdot d(n) \leq a \cdot C \cdot f(n)$
- $a \cdot d(n) \leq C_1 \cdot f(n)$ where $a \cdot C = C_1$
- Therefore $a \cdot d(n) = O(f(n))$

Big-Oh Notation

Proof of Theorem 1.7



2.If $d(n)$ is $O(f(n))$ and $e(n)$ is $O(g(n))$, then $d(n)+e(n)$ is $O(f(n)+g(n))$. The proof will extend to orders of growth

$d(n) \leq C1 * f(n)$ for all $n \geq n1$ where $C1$ is a constant

$e(n) \leq C2 * g(n)$ all $n \geq n2$ where $C2$ is a constant

$d(n) + e(n) \leq C1 * f(n) + C2 * g(n)$

$\leq C3 (f(n) + g(n))$ where $C3=\max\{C1,C2\}$

and $n \geq \max\{n1,n2\}$

Big-Oh Notation

Proof of Theorem 1.7



6. $\log n^x$ is $O(\log n)$ for any fixed $x > 0$.

$$\log n^x \leq c \cdot \log n$$

$$x \cdot \log n \leq c \cdot \log n$$

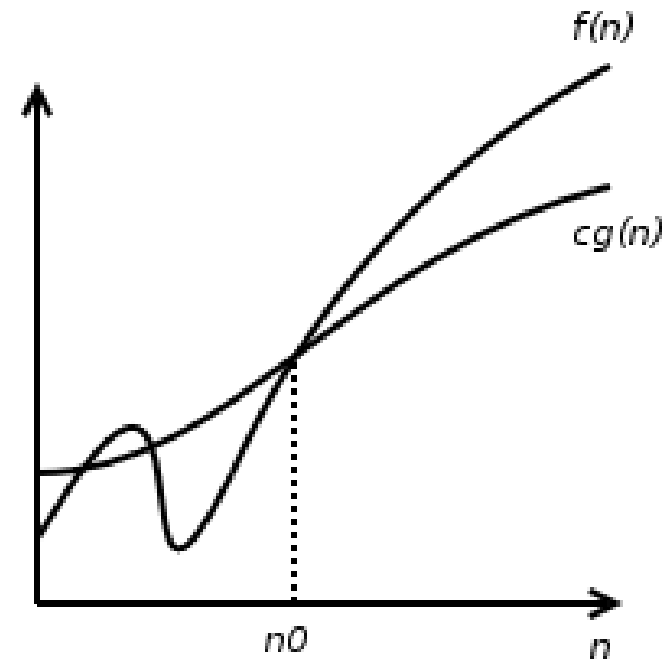
$$c \geq x.$$

Big-Omega Notation

- The function $f(n)$ is said to be in $\Omega(g(n))$ iff there exists a positive constant c and a positive integer n_0 such that

$$f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0.$$

- Asymptotic lower bound
- $n^3 \in \Omega(n^2)$
- $n^5 + n + 3 \in \Omega(n^4)$



Big-Omega Notation

- Big-Omega notation provides a lower bound on a function to within a constant factor.
- To prove big-Omega, find witnesses, specific values for C and n_0 , and prove $n > n_0$ implies $f(n) \geq C * g(n)$.

Tricks for Proving Big-Omega

- Assume $n > 1$ if you chose $n_0 = 1$ (or $n > 10$ if you chose $n_0 = 10$).
- To prove $f(n) \geq C * g(n)$, you need to find expressions smaller than $f(n)$ and larger than $C * g(n)$.
- If the lowest-order term is positive, just eliminate it to obtain a larger expression.
- Repeatedly use $-n_0 > -n$ and $-0.1n_0 > -0.1n$ and so on to “convert” the lowest-order term into a higher-order term.
- Check that your expressions are greater than $C * g(n)$ by using $n = 100$.

Tricks for Proving Big-Omega

- Generate a table for $f(n)$ and $g(n)$. using $n = 1$, $n = 10$ and $n = 100$. [Use values smaller than 10 and 100 if you wish.]
- Guess $1/C = \lceil g(1)/f(1) \rceil$ (or more likely $1/C = \lceil g(10)/f(10) \rceil$).
- Check that $f(10) \geq C * g(10)$ and $f(100) \geq C * g(100)$. [If this is not true, $f(n)$ might not be $(g(n))$.]
- Choose $n_0 = 1$ (or $n_0 = 10$).
- Prove that $\forall n (n > n_0 \rightarrow f(n) \geq C * g(n))$. [It's ok if you end up with a smaller, but still positive, value for C .]

Big-Omega

Example 1



- Show that $3n + 7$ is $\Omega(n)$.
 - In this case, $f(n) = 3n + 7$ and $g(n) = n$.

n	f(n)	g(n)	Ceil(g(n)/f(n))	C
1	10	1	1	1
10	37	10	1	1
100	307	100	1	1

- This table suggests trying $n_0 = 1$ and $C = 1$.
- Want to prove **$n > 1$ implies $3n + 7 \geq n$** .
- $n > 1$ implies $3n + 7 > 3n > n$.

Big-Omega

Example 3



- Show that $n^2 - 2n + 1$ is $\Omega(n^2)$.
- In this case, $f(n) = n^2 - 2n + 1$ and $g(n) = n^2$.

n	f(n)	g(n)	Ceil(g(n)/f(n))	C
1	10	1	1	1
10	81	100	2	1/2
100	9801	10000	1	1/2

- This table suggests trying $n_0 = 10$ and $C = 1/2$.

Big-Omega

Example 2



- Try $n_0 = 10$ and $C = 1/2$.
 - Want to prove $n > 10$ implies $n^2 - 2n + 1 \geq n^2/2$.
 - Assume $n > 10$. Want to show $f(n) \geq n^2/2$.
 - The lowest-order term is positive, so eliminate.
 - $n^2 - 2n + 1 > n^2 - 2n$
 - $n > 10$ implies $-10 > -n$, implies $-2 > -0.2n$.
 - $-2 > -0.2n$ implies $n^2 - 2n > n^2 - 0.2n^2 = 0.8n^2$.
 - $n > 10$ implies $0.8n^2 > n^2/2$.
 - This finishes the proof.

Big-Omega

Example 3



- Show that $n^3/8 - n^2/12 - n/6 - 1$ is $O(n^3)$.
- In this case, $f(n) = n^3/8 - n^2/12 - n/6 - 1$ and $g(n) = n^3$.

n	f(n)	g(n)	Ceil(g(n)/f(n))	C
1	-8	1	-1	-1
10	117.3	1000	9	1/9
100	124,182.3	1000000	9	1/9

- $C = -1$ is useless, so try $n_0 = 10$ and $C = 1/9$

Big-Omega

Example 3



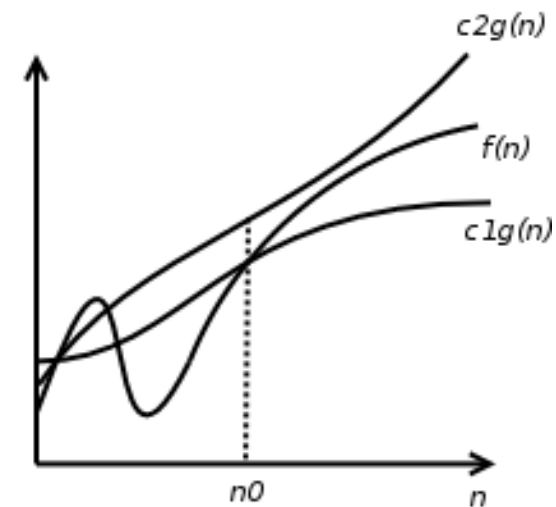
- Try $n_0 = 10$ and $C = 1/9$.
 - Want to prove $n > 10$ implies $n^3/8 - n^2/12 - n/6 - 1 \geq n^3/9$
 - Assume $n > 10$, which implies the following:
 - $n^3/8 - n^2/12 - n/6 - 1$
 - $= (3n^3 - 2n^2 - 4n - 24)/24$
 - $> (3n^3 - 2n^2 - 4n - 2.4n)/24$
 - $> (3n^3 - 2n^2 - 7n)/24$
 - $> (3n^3 - 2n^2 - 0.7n^2)/24$
 - $> (3n^3 - 3n^2)/24$
 - $> (3n^3 - 0.3n^3)/24$
 - $> (3n^3 - n^3)/24$
 - $= (2n^3)/24 = n^3/12$
 - Ended up with $n_0 = 10$ and $C = 1/12$, proving
 - $n > 10$ implies $n^3/8 - n^2/12 - n/6 - 1 \geq n^3/12$

Big-Theta Notation

- The function $f(n)$ is said to be in $\Theta(g(n))$ iff there exists some positive constants c_1 and c_2 and a non negative integer n_0 such that

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

- Asymptotic tight bound**
- $an^2 + bn + c \in \Theta(n^2)$
- $n^2 \in \Theta(n^2)$



Examples – Ω and Θ



- **$f(n)=5n^2$.Prove that $f(n)$ is $\Omega(n)$**
 - $5n^2 \geq c.n$
 - $c.n \leq 5n^2$
 - $c \leq 5n$
 - If $n=1, c \leq 5$
 - $5*1 \leq 4*1$ hence the proof.

Examples – Ω and Θ



- **$f(n)=5n^2$.Prove that $f(n)$ is $\Omega(n)$**
 - $5n^2 \geq c.n$
 - $c.n \leq 5n^2$
 - $c \leq 5n$
 - If $n=1, c \leq 5$
 - $5*1 \leq 4*1$ hence the proof.
- Prove that $f(n)$ is $\Theta(n^2)$

Little-Oh and little omega Notation



- $f(n)$ is $o(g(n))$ (or $f(n) \in o(g(n))$) if for any real constant $c > 0$, there exists an integer constant $n_0 \geq 1$ such that
 - $f(n) < c * g(n)$ for every integer $n \geq n_0$.
- $f(n)$ is $\omega(g(n))$ (or $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$) if for any real constant $c > 0$, there exists an integer constant $n_0 \geq 1$ such that
 - $f(n) > c * g(n)$ for every integer $n \geq n_0$.

Little-Oh and Little omega Notation



- $12n^2 + 6n$ is $o(n^3)$
- $4n+6$ is $o(n^2)$
- $4n+6$ is $\omega(1)$
- $2n^9 + 1$ is $o(n^{10})$
- n^2 is $\omega(\log n)$

USING LIMITS

Little Oh- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$

Little Omega $= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \infty$

Correctness of algorithm

- An algorithm is said to be correct if, for every input instance, it halts with the correct output.
- When it can be incorrect?
 - Might not halt on all input instances
 - Might halt with an incorrect answer
- Does it makes sense to think of incorrect algorithm?
 - Might be useful if we can control the error rate and can be implemented very fast

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms



- Recursive calls:-A procedure P calling itself-calls to P are for solving sub problems of smaller size.
- Recursive procedure call should always define a *base case*.
- Base case-small enough that it can be solved directly without using recursion.

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms



- Algorithm recursiveMax(A,n)
// Input : An array A storing $n \geq 1$ integers
// Output: The maximum element in A
if $n = 1$ then
 return A[0]
return max{ recursiveMax(A,n-1),A[n-1]}

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms



- A ***recurrence*** is an equation or inequality that describes a function in terms of its value on smaller inputs.
- ***Recurrence equation***: defines mathematical statements that the running time of a recursive algorithm must satisfy
- Analysis of ***recursiveMax***
 - T(n)-Running time of algorithm on an input size n

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 3 & \text{if } n=1 \\ T(n-1) + 7 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Solving recurrences : Iterative Method

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms- Iterative method



- **General Plan-Iterative Method**
 - Identify the parameter to be considered based on the size of the input.
 - Identify the basic operation in the algorithm
 - Obtain the number of times the basic operation is executed.
 - Obtain an initial condition-base case
 - Obtain a recurrence relation
 - Solve the recurrence relation and obtain the order of growth and express using asymptotic notations.

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms- RecursiveMax



- Analysis of *recursiveMax*
 - T(n)-Running time of algorithm on an input size n
- $$T(n) = \begin{cases} 3 & \text{if } n=1 \\ T(n-1) + 7 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

```
Algorithm recursiveMax(A,n)
// Input : An array A storing n>=1 in
//Output: The maximum element in A
if n = 1 then
return A[0]
return max{ recursiveMax(A,n-1),A[n]}
```

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms-

Example 1:-Factorial of a number



– *Algorithm fact(n)*

//Purpose: Computes factorial of n

//Input: A positive integer n

//Output: factorial of n

If(n=0)

return 1

return n*fact(n-1)

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms-

Example 1:-Factorial of a number



- **Analysis**

- Parameter to be considered –n
- Basic operation –Multiplication
- $T(n) = 0$ if $n=0$

$1+T(n-1)$ Otherwise

Time taken to compute $\text{fact}(n-1)$
Time to multiply $n * \text{fact}(n-1)$

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms-

Example 1:-Factorial of a number



- **Solve the recurrence**

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + 1$$

$$[T(n-2) + 1] + 1 = T(n-2) + 2 \quad \text{substituted } T(n-2) \text{ for } T(n-1)$$

$$[T(n-3) + 1] + 2 = T(n-3) + 3 \quad \text{substituted } T(n-3) \text{ for } T(n-2)$$

.. a pattern evolves

$$T(n) = 1 + T(n-1)$$

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

$$= 3 + T(n-3)$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= i + T(n-i)$$

When $n=0$ $T(0)=0$, No multiplications

$$\text{When } i=n, T(n) = n + T(n-n)$$

$$= n + 0$$

$$= n \quad \underline{T(n) \in \Theta(n)}$$

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms-

Example 2:-Tower of hanoi



Step 1 – Move $n-1$ disks from **source** to **temp**

Step 2 – Move n^{th} disk from **source** to **dest**

Step 3 – Move $n-1$ disks from **temp** to **dest**

Algorithm Hanoi(n , source, dest, temp)

//Input: n :number of disks

//Output :All n disks on dest

If disk = 1

move disk from source to dest

Hanoi($n - 1$, source, temp, dest) // Step 1

move n^{th} disk from source to dest // Step 2

Hanoi($n - 1$, temp, dest, source) // Step 3



Tower of hanoi

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms-

Example 2:-Tower of hanoi



1. Problem size is n , the number of discs
2. The basic operation is moving a disc from rod to another
3. Base case $M(1) = 1$
4. Recursive relation for moving n discs

$$M(n) = M(n-1) + 1 + M(n-1) = 2M(n-1) + 1$$

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms-

Example 2: Tower of hanoi



Solve using backward substitution

$$\begin{aligned}M(n) &= 2M(n-1) + 1 \\&= 2[2M(n-2) + 1] + 1 = 2^2M(n-2) + 2 + 1 \\&= 2^2[2M(n-3) + 1] + 2 + 1 \\&= 2^3M(n-3) + 2^2 + 2 + 1\end{aligned}$$

...

$$M(n) = 2^iM(n-i) + \underbrace{2^{i-1} + 2^{i-2} + \dots + 2^3 + 2^2 + 2^1 + 2^0}$$

$$M(n) = 2^iM(n-i) + (2^i - 1) \quad \text{It's a GP with } a=1, r=2, n=i$$

$$= 2^iM(n-i) + 2^i - 1$$

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms-

Example 2:- Tower of hanoi



• When $i=n-1$

$$\begin{aligned}M(n) &= 2^{n-1} M(n-(n-1)) + 2^{n-1} - 1 \\&= 2^{n-1} M(1) + 2^{n-1} - 1 \\&= 2^{n-1} + 2^{n-1} - 1 \\&= 2 * 2^{n-1} - 1 \\&= 2 * (2^n / 2) - 1 \\&= 2^n - 1\end{aligned}$$

$M(n) \in O(2^n)$

- Time complexity is exponential
- More computations even for smaller value of n
- Doesn't necessarily mean algorithm is poor
- Nature of the problem itself is computationally expensive.

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms-

Example 3:Exercise



ALGORITHM *BinRec*(n)

//Input: A positive decimal integer n

//Output: The number of binary digits in n 's binary representation

if $n = 1$ **return** 1

else return *BinRec*($n/2$) + 1

Let us set up a recurrence and an initial condition for the number of additions $A(n)$ made by the algorithm. The number of additions made in computing

BinRec($n/2$) is $A(n/2)$, plus one more addition is made by the algorithm to increase the returned value by 1. This leads to the recurrence

$$A(n) = A(n/2) + 1 \text{ for } n > 1.$$

$$A(1)=0$$

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms-

Example 3: Exercise



Base condition $A(1) = 0$

$$A(n) = 2A(n/2) + 1$$

The presence of $n/2$ in the function's argument makes the method of backward substitutions stumble on values of n that are not powers of 2. Therefore, the standard approach to solving such a recurrence is to solve it only for $n = 2^k$ and then take advantage of the theorem called the *smoothness rule*, which claims that under very broad assumptions the order of growth observed for $n = 2^k$ gives a correct answer about the order of growth for all values of n .

Analyzing Recursive Algorithms-

Example 3: Exercise



$$A(2^k) = A(2^{k-1}) + 1 \text{ for } k > 0,$$

$$A(2^0) = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} A(2^k) &= A(2^{k-1}) + 1 && \text{substitute } A(2^{k-1}) = A(2^{k-2}) + 1 \\ &= [A(2^{k-2}) + 1] + 1 = A(2^{k-2}) + 2 && \text{substitute } A(2^{k-2}) = A(2^{k-3}) + 1 \\ &= [A(2^{k-3}) + 1] + 2 = A(2^{k-3}) + 3 && \dots \\ &\dots && \\ &= A(2^{k-i}) + i && \\ &\dots && \\ &= A(2^{k-k}) + k. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we end up with

$$A(2^k) = A(1) + k = k,$$

or, after returning to the original variable $n = 2^k$ and hence $k = \log_2 n$,

$$A(n) = \log_2 n \in \Theta(\log n).$$



THANK YOU!

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