

# COMP 6651 Algorithm Design Techniques Week 2

Reductions. Recurrences. Divide and Conquer

(some material is taken from web or other various sources with permission)

## Algorithm Analysis

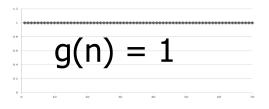
Asymptotic Analysis Questions we want answered:

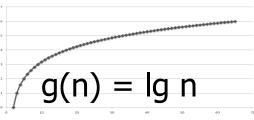
- 1. What algorithm is faster in the limit (as N (the size of input) grows towards infinity)
- 2. How practical is the algorithm (what category)
- 3. Is it possible to do better

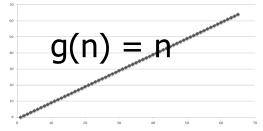


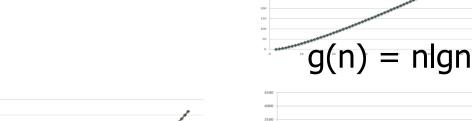
## Algorithm Analysis

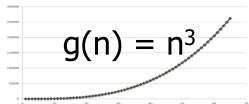
1. How practical is the algorithm (what category)

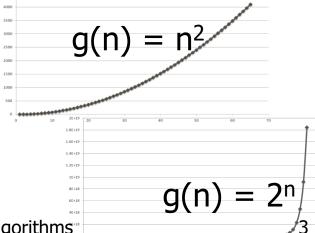










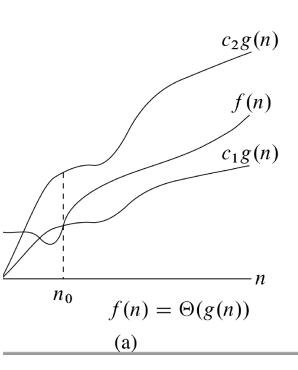


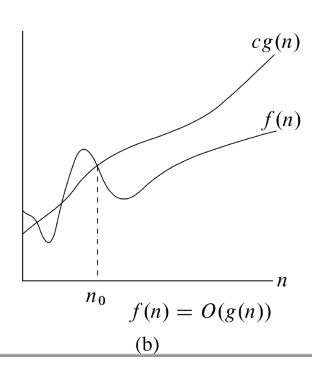


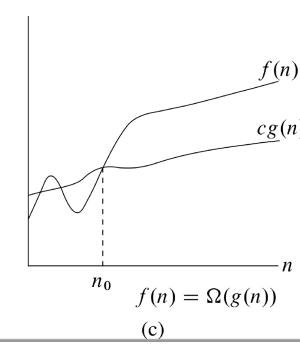
- $O(g(n)) = \{f(n) | \exists c > 0, n_o > 0 \text{ s.t. } 0 \le f(n) \le c(g(n)) \forall n > n_0 \}$
- · OK, but what is it? Looks like ancient greek
- $O()\rightarrow$  is a SET of functions
  - Domain: space of functions
  - Input is a function
  - Co-domain/output: set of function
- For example:
  - What is O(n)?
  - (.... on the board ....)



## Algorithm Analysis









- $O(g(n)) = \{f(n) | \exists c > 0, n_o > 0 \text{ s.t. } 0 \le f(n) \le c \cdot g(n). \forall n > n_0 \}$
- Difficult to compute all functions belonging to this class
- More useful to ask if a function f(n) belongs to O(g(n))
- Examples:
  - Is  $f(n) = 2n + 1 \in O(n)$ ? Abuse of notation we say
    - IS f(n) O(n)?
  - Is  $f(n) = 2n + \log(n) \in O(n)$ ?
  - Is  $f(n) = n^2 + n \in O(n)$ ?
  - Is  $f(n) = 2^{n+7} + n \in O(2^n)$ ?
  - Is  $f(n) = n + 1 \in O(nlog n)$ ?
  - Is O(n) == O(3n + 15)?
  - Is  $O(n) == O(an + b), a \neq 0$ ?



- $O(g(n)) = \{f(n) | \exists c > 0, n_o > 0 \text{ s.t. } 0 \le f(n) \le c \cdot g(n). \forall n > n_0 \}$
- Difficult to compute all functions belonging to this class
- More useful to ask if a function f(n) belongs to O(g(n))
- Examples:
  - Is  $O(n) == O(n^2)$ ?
  - Is  $f(n) = n^2 + n \in \Omega(n)$ ?
  - Is  $f(n) = n^2 + n \in \Theta(n)$ ?



$$\begin{split} O(g(n)) &= \{f(n) | \ \exists \ c > 0, n_o > 0 \ s. \ t. \ 0 \leq f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n). \ \forall \ n > n_0 \} \\ \mathbf{o}(g(n)) &= \{f(n) | \ \forall c > 0, n_o > 0 \ s. \ t. \ 0 \leq f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n). \ \forall \ n > n_0 \} \\ \Omega\left(g(n)\right) &= \{f(n) | \ \exists \ c > 0, n_o > 0 \ s. \ t. \ f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n) \geq 0. \ \forall \ n > n_0 \} \\ \omega\left(g(n)\right) &= \{f(n) | \ \forall c > 0, n_o > 0 \ s. \ t. \ f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n) \geq 0. \ \forall \ n > n_0 \} \\ \theta\left(g(n)\right) &= \{f(n) | \ \exists \ c_2, c_2 > 0, n_o > 0 \ s. \ t. \ 0 \leq c_1 \cdot g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 \cdot g(n). \ \forall \ n > n_0 \} \end{split}$$

#### Notes:

- O and  $\Omega$  opposites
  - O upper bound
  - $\Omega$  lower bound
  - $\theta$  is both (sandwich)





- In this class we use "mostly" O,  $\Omega$  and  $\theta$
- O and  $\Omega$  opposites
  - O upper bound
  - $\Omega$  lower bound
  - $\theta$  is both (sandwich)
- Why do we care about the lower bound?
- Gives a theoretical limit
- Stop looking at faster algorithms
- Useful in reductions





- Classical Example: sorting
  - You can prove that is O(nlogn) by providing an algorithm that is O(nlogn)
  - For instance: merge sort O(nlogn)
  - If you can prove that is also  $\Omega(nlogn)$ 
    - nlogn → optimal algorithm
  - Exercise: prove that f = O(g) and  $f = \Omega(g)$  iff  $f = \theta(g)$



```
/* n input size, n>0 */
/* v - array of integers of size n */
/* returns the smallest difference in the absolute
value between all pairs of elements of v */
int smallest = -1;
for(int i=0;i<n;++i)</pre>
    for(int j=i+1; j<n;++j){</pre>
        int d = abs(v[i]-v[j]);
        if(smallest < 0 || smallest > d)
             smallest = d;
return smallest;
```

```
/* n input size, n>0 */
/* v - sorted array of integers of size n */
/* x - integer number */
/* return an index k whose value v[k] == x \ OR \ -1 otherwise */
int findElement(v, x){
    return findElementI(v, 0, n-1, x);
}
int findElementI(v, int i1, int i2, x){
    if(i1==i2){
        if(v[i1]==x){
            return i1;
        return -1:
    int middle = (i1+i2)/2;
    if(x<=v[middle]){</pre>
      return findElementI(v, i1, middle, x);
    } else {
      return findElementI(v, middle + 1, i2, x)
```

```
for(int i=0;i<n;i=i+100)
    for(int j=0;j<n;j=j+100000){
        ... (constant time)
    }

for(int i=0;i<n;i=i+100)
    for(int j=1;j<n;j=j*2){
        ... (constant time)
    }
}</pre>
```



 Process of defining a problem of solution in terms of simpler versions of itself





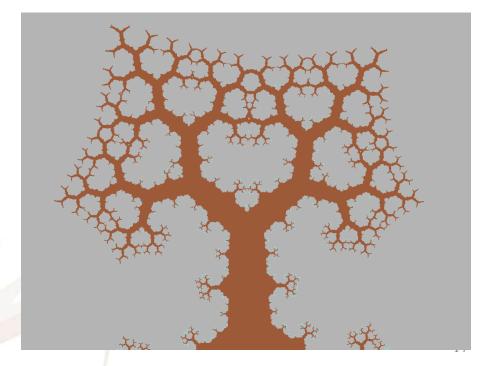
- Process of defining a problem of solution in terms of simpler versions of itself
- Examples:
  - n! = n\*(n-1)!

$$-\binom{n}{k}=\binom{n-1}{k-1}+\binom{n-1}{k}$$
 for all integers  $n,k:1\leq k\leq n-1,$ 

- Process of defining a problem of solution in terms of simpler versions of itself
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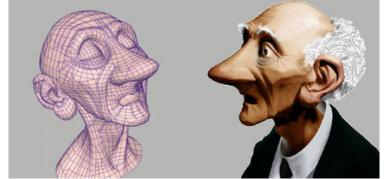
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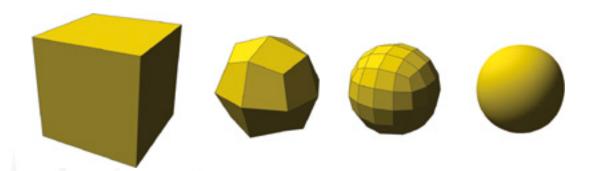
- Process of defining a problem of solution in terms of simpler versions of itself
- Examples:
  - Fractals





- Process of defining a problem of solution in terms of simpler versions of itself
- Examples:
  - Subdivision surfaces:







```
int findmax(std::vector<int> v){
    int max = v[0];
    for(int i=1;i<v.size();++i)
        if(max<v[i])
        max = v[i];
}</pre>
```



```
int findmax(std::vector<int> v){
    return findmaxI(v, 0, v.size()-1);
int findmaxI(std::vector<int> v, int i1, int i2){
    if(i1==i2){
        return v[i1];
    } else {
        int middle = (i1 + i2)/2;
        int m1 = findmaxI(v, i1, middle);
        int m2 = findmaxI(v, middle+1, i2);
        if(m1<m2)
            return m2;
        else
           return m1;
```

- First major algorithmic paradigm
- Simple idea since the beginning of time
- · Smaller problems are easier than large ones
- Break it down
- Divide/Conquer/Combine



· Divide/Conquer/Combine

```
MERGE-SORT(A, p, r)

if p < r  // check for base case q = \lfloor (p+r)/2 \rfloor  // divide  
MERGE-SORT(A, p, q)  // conquer  
MERGE-SORT(A, q+1, r)  // complete  
MERGE(A, p, q, r)  // combine
```



#### · Divide/Conquer/Combine

```
MERGE(A, p, q, r)
 n_1 = q - p + 1
 n_2 = r - q
 let L[1..n_1 + 1] and R[1..n_2 + 1] be new arrays
 for i = 1 to n_1
     L[i] = A[p+i-1]
 for j = 1 to n_2
     R[j] = A[q+j]
 L[n_1+1]=\infty
 R[n_2+1]=\infty
 i = 1
 i = 1
 for k = p to r
     if L[i] \leq R[j]
         A[k] = L[i]
         i = i + 1
     else A[k] = R[j]
         j = j + 1
```

- · Is it always recursive
  - Well... yeah... sort-of
  - What is the problem with recursive calls?
  - Can we do it no—recursive?
  - Yes! -
  - Not only we can, but we should (especially when working in the industry)



```
\binom{n}{k} = \binom{n-1}{k-1} + \binom{n-1}{k} for all integers n, k : 1 \le k \le n-1,
/* compute n choose k */
int n_choose_k(int n, int k){
       if(k==0)
               return 1;
         if(n==k)
               return 1;
     int a = n_{choose}(n-1, k-1);
     int b = n_{choose_k(n-1, k)};
     return a + b;
```

```
/* compute n choose k */
int n choose k(int n, int k){
    Matrix M(n+1, k+1);
    // base case
    for(int i=0;i<n+1;++i)</pre>
        M(i, 0) = 1;
    for(int i=0; i<k+1;++i)
        M(i,i) = 1;
    for(int i=1;i<n+1;++i){
        int l = min(k+1, i);
        for(int j=1;j<l;++j)</pre>
            M(i,j) = M(i-1, j-1) + M(i-1, j);
    return M(n,k);
```