ALGORITHMS & COMPLEXITY

Winter 2018

George Karakostas, Rm. ITB/218, karakos@mcmaster.ca

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

Other kinds of analysis: average case analysis,

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

Other kinds of analysis: average case analysis, amortized analysis,

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

Other kinds of analysis: average case analysis, amortized analysis, best case analysis...

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

Input size *N*: Typically the number of "atomic" objects handled by the algorithm. For example:

• For searching/sorting an array: N=# of keys n

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

- For searching/sorting an array: N=# of keys n
- For DFS: N=[# of nodes n] + [# of edges m] (adj. list)

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

- For searching/sorting an array: N=# of keys n
- For DFS: N=[# of nodes n] + [# of edges m] (adj. list) OR $N=n^2$ (adj. matrix)

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

- For searching/sorting an array: N=# of keys n
- For DFS: N=[# of nodes n] + [# of edges m] (adj. list) OR $N=n^2$ (adj. matrix)
- For integer multiplication alg: *N*=# of bits

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

- For searching/sorting an array: N=# of keys n
- For DFS: N=[# of nodes n] + [# of edges m] (adj. list) OR $N=n^2$ (adj. matrix)
- For integer multiplication alg: *N*=# of bits
- etc...

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

Recall the tilde approximation $T(N) \sim g(N)$ from CS 2C03:

$$\lim_{N\to\infty}\frac{T(N)}{g(N)}=1$$

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

Recall the tilde approximation $T(N) \sim g(N)$ from CS 2C03:

$$\lim_{N\to\infty}\frac{T(N)}{g(N)}=1$$

What does this tell us? That T(N) is actually of the form:

$$T(N) = g(N) + lower order terms...$$

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

Recall the tilde approximation $T(N) \sim g(N)$ from CS 2C03:

$$\lim_{N\to\infty}\frac{T(N)}{g(N)}=1$$

What does this tell us? That T(N) is actually of the form:

$$T(N) = g(N) + lower order terms...$$

so that we will have

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{T(N)}{g(N)} = \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{g(N) + lower order terms...}{g(N)}$$
$$= 1 + \lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{lower order terms...}{g(N)} = 1 + 0 = 1$$

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

...i.e., we may not know T(N) exactly, but we need to guess **exactly** its highest order component g(N).

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

...i.e., we may not know T(N) exactly, but we need to guess exactly its highest order component g(N). For example, if

$$T(N) = 3N^2 + 20\sqrt{N} - 40N \log N,$$

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

...i.e., we may not know T(N) exactly, but we need to guess exactly its highest order component g(N). For example, if

$$T(N) = 3N^2 + 20\sqrt{N} - 40N \log N,$$

we need to guess

$$g(N) = 3N^2.$$

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

...i.e., we may not know T(N) exactly, but we need to guess **exactly** its highest order component g(N). For example, if

$$T(N) = 3N^2 + 20\sqrt{N} - 40N \log N,$$

we need to guess

$$g(N) = 3N^2.$$

A guess $g(N) = cN^2$, with some constant $c \neq 3$ won't do!

Worst case analysis We try to estimate the largest possible running time T(N) of the algorithm over all inputs of size N.

...i.e., we may not know T(N) exactly, but we need to guess **exactly** its highest order component g(N). For example, if

$$T(N) = 3N^2 + 20\sqrt{N} - 40N \log N,$$

we need to guess

$$g(N) = 3N^2$$
.

A guess $g(N) = cN^2$, with some constant $c \neq 3$ won't do!

BIG problem: What if we can guess N^2 , but **not** the exact c?

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Tight bounds. T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$ if it is **both** O(f(n)) and $\Omega(f(n))$.

• We write T(n) = O(f(n)), $T(n) = \Omega(f(n))$, $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ (abuse of notation!).

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

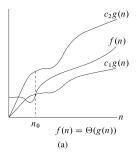
- We write $T(n) = O(f(n)), T(n) = \Omega(f(n)), T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ (abuse of notation!).
- Our analysis is still asymptotic, since it holds for large enough n (at least as big as n_0).

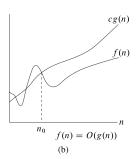
Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

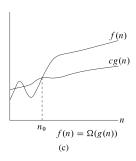
Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

- We write $T(n) = O(f(n)), T(n) = \Omega(f(n)), T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ (abuse of notation!).
- Our analysis is still asymptotic, since it holds for large enough n (at least as big as n₀).
- For input sizes $0 \le n < n_0$ we guarantee **nothing!**

Asymptotic growth of functions







Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Ex:
$$T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 32$$
.

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Tight bounds. T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$ if it is **both** O(f(n)) and $\Omega(f(n))$.

Ex:
$$T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 32$$
.

• T(n) is $O(n^2)$, $O(n^3)$, $\Omega(n^2)$, $\Omega(n)$, and $\Theta(n^2)$.

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Ex:
$$T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 32$$
.

- T(n) is $O(n^2)$, $O(n^3)$, $\Omega(n^2)$, $\Omega(n)$, and $\Theta(n^2)$.
- T(n) is not $O(n), \Omega(n^3), \Theta(n)$, or $\Theta(n^3)$.

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Ex:
$$T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 32$$
.

- T(n) is $O(n^2)$, $O(n^3)$, $\Omega(n^2)$, $\Omega(n)$, and $\Theta(n^2)$.
- T(n) is not $O(n), \Omega(n^3), \Theta(n)$, or $\Theta(n^3)$.
- T(n) = O(1) means T(n) = constant.

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Ex:
$$T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 32$$
.

- T(n) is $O(n^2)$, $O(n^3)$, $\Omega(n^2)$, $\Omega(n)$, and $\Theta(n^2)$.
- T(n) is not O(n), $\Omega(n^3)$, $\Theta(n)$, or $\Theta(n^3)$.
- T(n) = O(1) means T(n) = constant.
- Common meaningless statement: "Any comparison-based sorting algorithm requires at least $O(n \log n)$ comparisons!"



Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$.

Lower bounds. T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist **constants** c > 0 and $n_0 \ge 0$ such that for all $n \ge n_0$ we have $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$.

Ex:
$$T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 32$$
.

- T(n) is $O(n^2)$, $O(n^3)$, $\Omega(n^2)$, $\Omega(n)$, and $\Theta(n^2)$.
- T(n) is not $O(n), \Omega(n^3), \Theta(n)$, or $\Theta(n^3)$.
- T(n) = O(1) means T(n) = constant.
- Common meaningful statement: "Any comparison-based sorting algorithm requires $\Omega(n \log n)$ comparisons!"



Properties

Transitivity.

- If f = O(g) and g = O(h) then f = O(h).
- If $f = \Omega(g)$ and $g = \Omega(h)$ then $f = \Omega(h)$.
- If $f = \Theta(g)$ and $g = \Theta(h)$ then $f = \Theta(h)$.

Properties

Transitivity.

- If f = O(g) and g = O(h) then f = O(h).
- If $f = \Omega(g)$ and $g = \Omega(h)$ then $f = \Omega(h)$.
- If $f = \Theta(g)$ and $g = \Theta(h)$ then $f = \Theta(h)$.

Additivity.

- If f = O(h) and g = O(h) then f + g = O(h).
- If $f = \Omega(h)$ and $g = \Omega(h)$ then $f + g = \Omega(h)$.
- If $f = \Theta(h)$ and g = O(h) then $f + g = \Theta(h)$.

Properties

Transitivity.

- If f = O(g) and g = O(h) then f = O(h).
- If $f = \Omega(g)$ and $g = \Omega(h)$ then $f = \Omega(h)$.
- If $f = \Theta(g)$ and $g = \Theta(h)$ then $f = \Theta(h)$.

Additivity.

- If f = O(h) and g = O(h) then f + g = O(h).
- If $f = \Omega(h)$ and $g = \Omega(h)$ then $f + g = \Omega(h)$.
- If $f = \Theta(h)$ and g = O(h) then $f + g = \Theta(h)$.

Other.

• If $f = O(c \cdot h)$ for some constant c then f = O(h). Same for Ω, Θ .

Comparison between O, Ω, Θ estimates and tilde estimates:

Comparison between O, Ω, Θ estimates and tilde estimates:

• Both are **asymptotic**.

Comparison between O, Ω, Θ estimates and tilde estimates:

- Both are **asymptotic**.
- O, Ω, Θ estimates are **weaker** than tilde estimates:

Comparison between O, Ω, Θ estimates and tilde estimates:

- Both are asymptotic.
- O, Ω, Θ estimates are **weaker** than tilde estimates:

Theorem

(2.1) Suppose that for two functions f(n) and g(n) we have:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{f(n)}{g(n)}=c$$

for some **constant** c. Then $f(n) = \Theta(cg(n)) = \Theta(g(n))$.

Comparison between O, Ω, Θ estimates and tilde estimates:

- Both are asymptotic.
- O, Ω, Θ estimates are **weaker** than tilde estimates:

Theorem

(2.1) Suppose that for two functions f(n) and g(n) we have:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{f(n)}{g(n)}=c$$

for some **constant** c. Then $f(n) = \Theta(cg(n)) = \Theta(g(n))$.

Proof: By the definition of lim.

Asymptotic Bounds for Some Common Functions

Polynomials. $a_0 + a_1 n + \ldots + a_d n^d = \Theta(n^d)$ if $a_d > 0$.

Logarithms. $O(\log_a n) = O(\log_b n)$ for any constants a, b > 0.

Logarithms. For every x > 0, $\log n = O(n^x)$.

Exponentials. For every r > 1 and every d > 0, $n^d = O(r^n)$.

Examples: Constant time O(1)

- INSERT(x,A) in an unsorted array A.
- FINDMIN(H) in a heap H.
- FIND(x,S) in a quick-find Union-Find structure S.

Examples: Logarithmic time $O(\log n)$

- Binary search in a *sorted* array.
- SEARCH(X,T) in a red-black tree T.
- Union, Find in a weighted quick-find Union-Find structure.

Examples: Linear time O(n)

- FINDMAX(A) in an unsorted array A.
- Search in a hash table with chaining.
- BFS, DFS run in time O(N) = O(n + m)

Examples: Linearithmetic time $O(n \log n)$

- Sorting. MERGESORT and HEAPSORT make $O(n \log n)$ comparisons. We have shown that no comparison-based sorting alg makes fewer than $1/2(n \log n)$, hence MERGESORT and HEAPSORT make $\Theta(n \log n)$ comparisons.
- MST takes $O(m \log n)$ time by Kruskal's or Prim's alg.
- DIJSTRA runs in $O(m + n \log n)$ time.

Examples: Quadratic time $O(n^2)$

- Multiplication of $1 \times N$ vector with $N \times N$ matrix takes $O(N^2)$ arithmetic ops.
- QUICKSORT makes $O(n^2)$ comparisons in the worst case. It also requires $\Omega(n \log n)$ comparisons (notice the gap).

Examples: Cubic time $O(n^3)$

- Bellman-Ford is $O(n^3)$.
- (Naive) multiplication of two $N \times N$ matrices takes $O(N^3)$ arithmetic ops.

Examples: Cubic time $O(n^3)$

- Bellman-Ford is $O(n^3)$.
- (Naive) multiplication of two $N \times N$ matrices takes $O(N^3)$ arithmetic ops.

...but can do it with $O(N^{\log_2 7})$ ops with Strassen's alg

Definition

pseudo /'sōodô/ adj. not genuine; sham.

Definition

pseudo /'sōodô/ adj. not genuine; sham.

Example:

INPUT: Integer *n*

OUTPUT: 'Yes' if n is prime

Definition

pseudo /'sōodô/ adj. not genuine; sham.

Example:

INPUT: Integer *n*

OUTPUT: 'Yes' if n is prime

Q: Algorithm: Divide n by $2, 3, \ldots, \sqrt{n}$; if non evenly, then 'Yes'.

Is it polynomial?

Definition

pseudo /'sōodô/ adj. not genuine; sham.

Example:

INPUT: Integer *n*

OUTPUT: 'Yes' if n is prime

Q: Algorithm: Divide n by $2, 3, \ldots, \sqrt{n}$; if non evenly, then 'Yes'.

Is it polynomial?

A: **NO!** The input size is $\log_2 n$

Definition

pseudo /'sōodô/ adj. not genuine; sham.

Example:

INPUT: Integer *n*

OUTPUT: 'Yes' if *n* is prime

Q: Algorithm: Divide n by $2, 3, \ldots, \sqrt{n}$; if non evenly, then 'Yes'. Is it polynomial?

A: **NO!** The input size is $\log_2 n$...and $n = 2^{\log_2 n}$ is exponential on the size of the input.

Definition

pseudo /'sōodô/ adj. not genuine; sham.

Example:

INPUT: Integer *n*

OUTPUT: 'Yes' if n is prime

Q: Algorithm: Divide n by $2, 3, \ldots, \sqrt{n}$; if non evenly, then 'Yes'. Is it polynomial?

A: **NO!** The input size is $\log_2 n$...and $n = 2^{\log_2 n}$ is exponential on the size of the input.

Bottom line: Always consider the input size! (stay tuned for flow algorithms, new appreciation for Dijkstra, Kruskal, Prim...)

Find a clique of size k in an undirected graph.

INPUT: Graph G = (V, E), an integer k

OUTPUT: 'Yes' if there is a clique with k nodes

Find a clique of size k in an undirected graph.

INPUT: Graph G = (V, E), an integer k

OUTPUT: 'Yes' if there is a clique with k nodes

Brute force: Try all $\binom{n}{k}$ subsets of V; if clique found, output 'Yes'

Find a clique of size k in an undirected graph.

INPUT: Graph G = (V, E), an integer k

OUTPUT: 'Yes' if there is a clique with k nodes

Brute force: Try all $\binom{n}{k}$ subsets of V; if clique found, output 'Yes'

Running time: About $O(\binom{n}{k}) = O(k^2 \cdot n^k/k!) = O(n^k)$.

Find a clique of size k in an undirected graph.

INPUT: Graph G = (V, E), an integer k

OUTPUT: 'Yes' if there is a clique with k nodes

Brute force: Try all $\binom{n}{k}$ subsets of V; if clique found, output 'Yes'

Running time: About $O(\binom{n}{k}) = O(k^2 \cdot n^k/k!) = O(n^k)$.

In general, our algorithms search a huge (e.g., exponential on the size of the input) space for a solution; therefore, brute force searching takes exponential time (worst case).

Find a clique of size k in an undirected graph.

INPUT: Graph G = (V, E), an integer k

OUTPUT: 'Yes' if there is a clique with k nodes

Brute force: Try all $\binom{n}{k}$ subsets of V; if clique found, output 'Yes'

Running time: About $O(\binom{n}{k}) = O(k^2 \cdot n^k/k!) = O(n^k)$.

In general, our algorithms search a huge (e.g., exponential on the size of the input) space for a solution; therefore, brute force searching takes exponential time (worst case).

Big complexity problem: For many problems, our currently best is brute force. *Can we do better?*

Efficient algorithms: Algorithms that run in polynomial time $O(n^d)$ are much better than brute force, and the only practical(?) ones (especially when the degree d is small, usually smaller than 3).

Efficient algorithms: Algorithms that run in polynomial time $O(n^d)$ are much better than brute force, and the only practical(?) ones (especially when the degree d is small, usually smaller than 3).

Definition

A **complexisy class** is a set of problems.

Efficient algorithms: Algorithms that run in polynomial time $O(n^d)$ are much better than brute force, and the only practical(?) ones (especially when the degree d is small, usually smaller than 3).

Definition

A **complexisy class** is a set of problems.

Example: All problems that can be solved by an algorithm belong to the class of **Decidable** problems. The HALTING problem doesn't belong to this class.

Efficient algorithms: Algorithms that run in polynomial time $O(n^d)$ are much better than brute force, and the only practical(?) ones (especially when the degree d is small, usually smaller than 3).

Definition

A **complexisy class** is a set of problems.

Example: All problems that can be solved by an algorithm belong to the class of **Decidable** problems. The HALTING problem doesn't belong to this class.

Definition

P is the class of all problems that can be solved by a polynomial algorithm.

Efficient algorithms: Algorithms that run in polynomial time $O(n^d)$ are much better than brute force, and the only practical(?) ones (especially when the degree d is small, usually smaller than 3).

Definition

A **complexisy class** is a set of problems.

Example: All problems that can be solved by an algorithm belong to the class of **Decidable** problems. The HALTING problem doesn't belong to this class.

Definition

P is the class of all problems that can be solved by a polynomial algorithm.

Example: Essentially all the problems we studied in CS 2C03 belong in $\bf P$.

Efficient algorithms: Algorithms that run in polynomial time $O(n^d)$ are much better than brute force, and the only practical(?) ones (especially when the degree d is small, usually smaller than 3).

Definition

A **complexisy class** is a set of problems.

Example: All problems that can be solved by an algorithm belong to the class of **Decidable** problems. The HALTING problem doesn't belong to this class.

Definition

 ${f P}$ is the class of all problems that can be solved by a polynomial algorithm.

Example: Essentially all the problems we studied in CS 2C03 belong in **P**. This is no coincidence: **P** is the set of problems that can be solved efficiently.

Why it matters

Table 2.1 The running times (rounded up) of different algorithms on inputs of increasing size, for a processor performing a million high-level instructions per second. In cases where the running time exceeds 10²⁵ years, we simply record the algorithm as taking a very long time.

	n	n log ₂ n	n^2	n^3	1.5 ⁿ	2 ⁿ	n!
n = 10	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	4 sec
n = 30	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	18 min	10^{25} years
n = 50	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	11 min	36 years	very long
n = 100	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	1 sec	12,892 years	10^{17} years	very long
n = 1,000	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	1 sec	18 min	very long	very long	very long
n = 10,000	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	2 min	12 days	very long	very long	very long
n = 100,000	< 1 sec	2 sec	3 hours	32 years	very long	very long	very long
n = 1,000,000	1 sec	20 sec	12 days	31,710 years	very long	very long	very long

A typical algorithm:

A typical algorithm:

Algorithm makes some decision(s)

A typical algorithm:

- Algorithm makes some decision(s)
- **2** Problem is broken into k subproblems (n_1, \ldots, n_k)

A typical algorithm:

- Algorithm makes some decision(s)
- **2** Problem is broken into k subproblems (n_1, \ldots, n_k)
- Solve k subproblems recursively

How to analyze algorithms

A typical algorithm:

- Algorithm makes some decision(s)
- **2** Problem is broken into k subproblems (n_1, \ldots, n_k)
- Solve k subproblems recursively
- Algorithm combines decision(s) from (1) with solutions from (3), to output solution

How to analyze algorithms

A typical algorithm:

- Algorithm makes some decision(s)
- **2** Problem is broken into k subproblems (n_1, \ldots, n_k)
- Solve k subproblems recursively
- Algorithm combines decision(s) from (1) with solutions from (3), to output solution

Recurrence:
$$T(n) = [\text{work done in } (1),(2),(4)] + \sum_{i=1}^{K} T(n_i)$$

A typical D&C algorithm:

- Algorithm makes some decision(s)
- ② Divide: Problem is broken into k subproblems (n_1, \ldots, n_k)
- Onquer: Solve k subproblems recursively
- Algorithm combines solutions from (3), to output solution

A typical D&C algorithm:

- Algorithm makes some decision(s)
- ② Divide: Problem is broken into k subproblems (n_1, \ldots, n_k)
- Onquer: Solve k subproblems recursively
- Algorithm combines solutions from (3), to output solution

Recurrence:
$$T(n) = [\text{work done in } (2), (4)] + \sum_{i=1}^{k} T(n_i)$$

Example of D&C: MERGESORT

- 4 Algorithm makes some decision(s)
- 9 MergeSort(A[1...\frac{n}{2}]), MergeSort(A[\frac{n}{2}..n])
- **3** Merge(A[1..n/2], A[n/2..n])

Example of D&C: MERGESORT

- 4 Algorithm makes some decision(s)
- **2** MergeSort($A[1...\frac{n}{2}]$), MergeSort($A[\frac{n}{2}..n]$)
- **3** Merge(A[1..n/2], A[n/2..n])

Recurrence:
$$T(n) \le cn + 2T(n/2), T(1) = 0$$

First method: unrolling the recurrence

Try to find the recurrence pattern by unrolling it:

$$T(n) \le cn + 2T(n/2)$$
 (level 1)
 $\le cn + (2c(n/2) + 4T(n/4)) = 2cn + 4T(n/4)$ (level 2)
 $\le 2cn + (4c(n/4) + 8T(n/8)) = 3cn + 8T(n/8)$ (level 3)
...
 $\le kcn + 2^k T(n/2^k)$ (level k)
...
 $\le (\log n)cn + 2^{\log n} T(n/2^{\log n}) = cn \log n$ (level log n)

First method: unrolling the recurrence

Try to find the recurrence pattern by *unrolling* it:

$$T(n) \le cn + 2T(n/2)$$
 (level 1)
 $\le cn + (2c(n/2) + 4T(n/4)) = 2cn + 4T(n/4)$ (level 2)
 $\le 2cn + (4c(n/4) + 8T(n/8)) = 3cn + 8T(n/8)$ (level 3)
...
 $\le kcn + 2^k T(n/2^k)$ (level k)
...
 $\le (\log n)cn + 2^{\log n} T(n/2^{\log n}) = cn \log n$ (level log n)

$\mathsf{Theorem}$

$$T(n) = O(n \log n)$$

Second method: substitution

- Try to guess the recurrence solution
- Prove that substituting your guess for the recurrence verifies the guess

Second method: substitution

- Try to guess the recurrence solution
- Prove that substituting your guess for the recurrence verifies the guess

Example: $T(n) \le cn + 2T(n/2), T(1) = 0$

Second method: substitution

- Try to guess the recurrence solution
- Prove that substituting your guess for the recurrence verifies the guess

Example: $T(n) \le cn + 2T(n/2), T(1) = 0$

• We guess that $T(n) = O(n \log n)$, i.e., $T(n) \le kn \log n$ for some constant k=(?)

Second method: substitution

- Try to guess the recurrence solution
- Prove that substituting your guess for the recurrence verifies the guess

Example:
$$T(n) \le cn + 2T(n/2)$$
, $T(1) = 0$

• We guess that $T(n) = O(n \log n)$, i.e., $T(n) \le kn \log n$ for some constant k=(?)

2

$$T(n) \le cn + 2T(n/2)$$

$$\le cn + 2k(n/2)\log(n/2)$$

$$= cn + kn(\log n - 1)$$

$$= kn\log n + cn - kn$$

$$\le kn\log n$$

...provided we pick a k > c.



Theorem (Master Theorem)

Let $a \ge 1, b > 1$ be constants, and

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

- **1** $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- (3) $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0$ and $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Theorem (Master Theorem)

Let $a \ge 1, b > 1$ be constants, and

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

- **1** $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- **3** $f(n) = Ω(n^{\log_b a + ε})$ for constant ε > 0 and af(n/b) ≤ cf(n) for some constant c < 1 ⇒ T(n) = Θ(f(n))

Examples

• $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$

Theorem (Master Theorem)

Let $a \ge 1, b > 1$ be constants, and

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

- **1** $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$
- **3** $f(n) = Ω(n^{\log_b a + ε})$ for constant ε > 0 and af(n/b) ≤ cf(n) for some constant c < 1 ⇒ T(n) = Θ(f(n))

Examples

•
$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$$

 $a = 2, b = 2, f(n) = \Theta(n) = \Theta(n^{log_2 2})$
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{log_2 2} \log n) = \Theta(n \log n)$ (Case 2)

Theorem (Master Theorem)

Let $a \ge 1, b > 1$ be constants, and

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

- **1** $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- ③ $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0$ and $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Examples

• $T(n) = T(2n/3) + \Theta(1)$

Theorem (Master Theorem)

Let $a \ge 1, b > 1$ be constants, and

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

- **1** $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$
- **3** $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0$ and $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Examples

•
$$T(n) = T(2n/3) + \Theta(1)$$

 $a = 1, b = 3/2, f(n) = \Theta(1) = \Theta(n^{log_{3/2}1})$
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{log_{3/2}1} \log n) = \Theta(\log n)$ (Case 2)

Theorem (Master Theorem)

Let $a \ge 1, b > 1$ be constants, and

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

- $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- ③ $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0$ and $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Examples

• $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + \Theta(n \log n)$

Theorem (Master Theorem)

Let $a \ge 1, b > 1$ be constants, and

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

- $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- **3** $f(n) = Ω(n^{\log_b a + ε})$ for constant ε > 0 and af(n/b) ≤ cf(n) for some constant c < 1 ⇒ T(n) = Θ(f(n))

Examples

• $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + \Theta(n \log n)$ $a = 3, b = 4, f(n) = n \log n = \Omega(n^{\log_4 3 + 0.2}), af(n/b) = 3(n/4) \log(n/4) \le n \log n = 1 \cdot f(n)$



Theorem (Master Theorem)

Let $a \ge 1, b > 1$ be constants, and

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

- **1** $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$
- $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$
- **3** $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for constant $\varepsilon > 0$ and $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Examples

• $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + \Theta(n \log n)$ $a = 3, b = 4, f(n) = n \log n = \Omega(n^{\log_4 3 + 0.2}), af(n/b) = 3(n/4) \log(n/4) \le n \log n = 1 \cdot f(n) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$ (Case 3)

A typical D&C algorithm:

- Algorithm makes some decision(s)
- ② Divide: Problem is broken into k subproblems (n_1, \ldots, n_k)
- Onquer: Solve k subproblems recursively
- Algorithm combines solutions from (3), to output solution

A typical D&C algorithm:

- Algorithm makes some decision(s)
- ② Divide: Problem is broken into k subproblems (n_1, \ldots, n_k)
- Onquer: Solve k subproblems recursively
- Algorithm combines solutions from (3), to output solution

Other examples of D&C: QUICKSORT, counting inversions, integer multiplication, closest points, ...