Introduction to Algorithms

Lecture 1: Analysis of Algorithms

Shouzhen Gu



- **S**Course information
- **SAlgorithmic thinking**
- **SInsertion sort**
- **SAsymptotic analysis**
- **Merge sort**
- **Recurrences**



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Course Information

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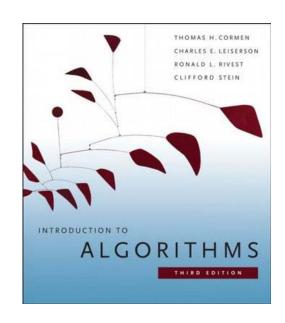
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- 10% Attendance + 15% Quiz + 15% Homework
- 60% Final Report

> Textbook

"Introduction to Algorithms (3.ed.)", Thomas H. Cormen,
 Charles E. Leiserson, Ronald L. Rivest, Clifford Stein





Course Overview

- The course is divided into 8 modules
 - Algorithmic Thinking
 - Sorting & Trees
 - Hashing
 - Numerics
 - Graphs
 - Shortest Paths
 - Dynamic Programming
 - Advanced Topics



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Peak Finder: One-dimensional Version

Position 2 is a peak if and only if $b \ge a$ and $b \ge c$. Position 9 is a peak if $i \ge h$.

- > Problem: Find a peak if it exists
- ➤ Does it always exist?

Straightforward Algorithm

> Start from left

 \triangleright Could look at *n* elements in the worst case

Straightforward Algorithm

> Start from left

 \triangleright Could look at *n* elements in the worst case

Can we do better?

Divide & Conquer

- \triangleright Look at n/2 position
 - If a[n/2] < a[n/2 1] then only look at left half 1...n/2-1 to look for peak
 - Else if a[n/2] < a[n/2 + 1] then only look at right half $n/2 + 1 \dots n$ to look for peak
 - Else n/2 position is a peak:

$$a[n/2] \ge a[n/2 - 1]$$

 $a[n/2] \ge a[n/2 + 1]$

What is the complexity?

T (n) = T (n/2)+
$$\Theta(1)$$

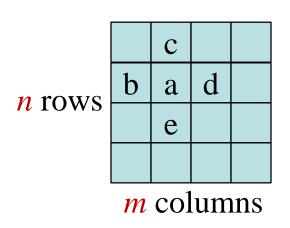
to compare a[n/2] to neighbors

Then,

$$T(n) = \Theta(1) + \ldots + \Theta(1) (\log_2(n) \text{ times}) = \Theta(\log_2(n))$$

- \triangleright If n = 1000000,
 - $-\Theta(n)$ algorithm needs 13 sec in python
 - $-\Theta(\log n)$ algorithm only need 0.001 sec in python

Peak Finder: Two-dimensional Version



- \triangleright a is a 2D-peak iff $a \ge b$, $a \ge d$, $a \ge c$, $a \ge e$
- \triangleright Greedy Ascent Algorithm: $\Theta(nm)$ complexity,
- $\triangleright \Theta(n^2)$ algorithm if m = n



Extend 1D Divide and Conquer to 2D

> Attempt #1:

- Pick middle column j = m/2
- Find a 1D-peak at i, j
- Use (i, j) as a start point on row i to find 1D-peak on row i

j=m/2

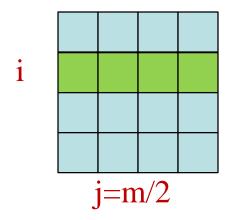
i	4	3	2		
	5	1			
	6	7	8	9	
	j=m/2				



Extend 1D Divide and Conquer to 2D

➤ Attempt #1:

- Pick middle column j = m/2
- Find a 1D-peak at i, j
- Use (i, j) as a start point on row i to find 1D-peak on row i



i	4	3	2		
	5	1			
	6	7	8	9	
	j=m/2				

End up with 4 which is not a 2D-peak Problem: 2D-peak may not exist on row i

Extend 1D Divide and Conquer to 2D

➤ Attempt #2:

- 1. Pick middle column j = m/2
- 2. Find global maximum on column j at (i, j)
- 3. Compare (i, j 1), (i, j), (i, j + 1)
- 4. Pick left columns of (i, j 1) > (i, j)
- 5. Pick right columns of (i, j + 1) > (i, j)
- 6. (i, j) is a 2D-peak if neither condition holds
- 7. Solve the new problem with half the number of columns
- 8. When you have a single column, find global maximum and you're done

Example of Attempt #2

10	8	10	10
14	13	12	11
15	9	11	21
16	17	19	20

10	10
12	11
11	21
19	20
1	

pick this column 17 global max for this column

pick this column 19 global max for this column

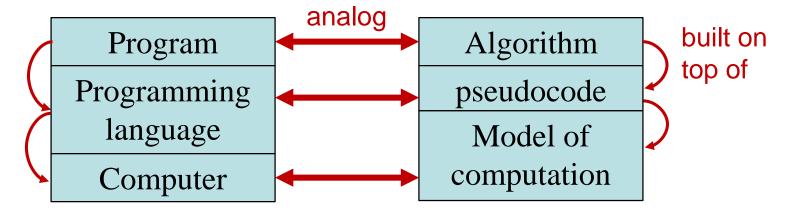
≻ Complexity

- T (n, m) = T (n, m/2) + Θ (n) (to find global maximum on a column—n rows)
- $T(n, m) = \Theta(n) + \ldots + \Theta(n)$
- $T(n, m) = \Theta(n \log m) = \Theta(n \log n) \text{ if } m = n$



What is an Algorithm?

- ➤ Mathematical abstraction of computer program
- > Computational procedure to solve a problem



- ➤ Model of computation specifies:
 - what operations an algorithm is allowed
 - cost (time, space, . . .) of each operation
 - cost of algorithm = sum of operation costs



Why study algorithms and performance?

- > Algorithms help us to understand scalability.
- ➤ Performance often draws the line between what is feasible and what is impossible.
- ➤ Algorithmic mathematics provides a **language** for talking about program behavior.
- > Performance is the **currency** of computing.
- The lessons of program performance generalize to other computing resources.
- > Speed is fun!



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The problem of sorting

- > *Input*: sequence $\langle a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \rangle$ of numbers
- ➤ Output: permutation $\langle a'_1, a'_2, ..., a'_n \rangle$ such that $a'_1 \le a'_2 \le ... \le a'_n$.
- > Example:
 - *Input*: 8 2 4 9 3 6
 - *Output*: 2 3 4 6 8 9

Insertion sort

"pseudocode"

```
Insertion-Sort (A, n) \triangleright A[1 ... n]
    for j \leftarrow 2 to n
         do key \leftarrow A[j]
             i \leftarrow j-1
             while i > 0 and A[i] > key
                   \operatorname{do} A[i+1] \leftarrow A[i]
                        i \leftarrow i-1
             A[i+1] = key
```



Loop invariants & correctness of insertion sort

- ➤ Loop invariant help us to understand why an algorithm is correct. We must show three things:
 - Initialization: It is true prior to the first iteration of the loop.
 - Maintenance: If it is true before an iteration of the loop, it remains true before the next iteration.
 - Termination: When the loop terminates, the invariant gives us a useful property that helps us show that the algorithm is correct.
- ➤ Prove a base case and an inductive step, such that we can prove the first two properties hold.
- ➤ We stop the "inductive" when the loop terminates, and prove the third property hold.



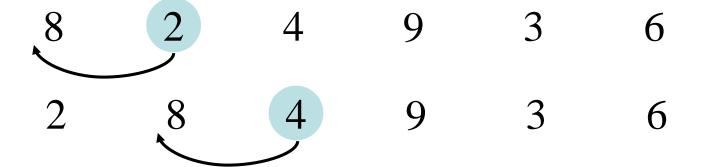




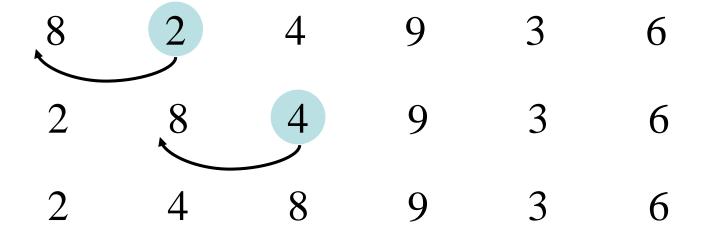


8 2

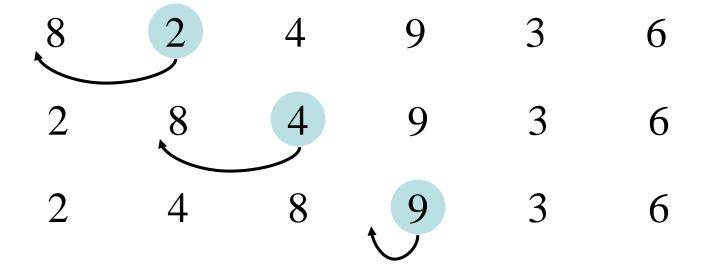




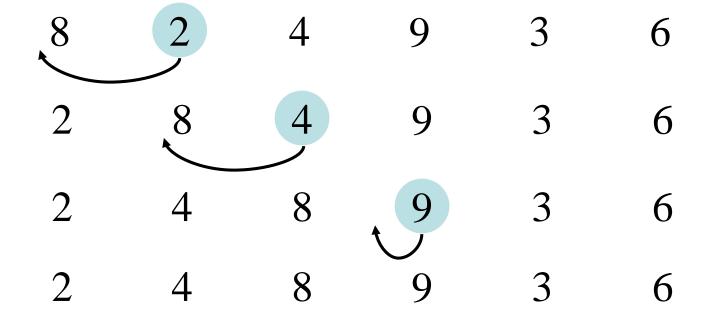




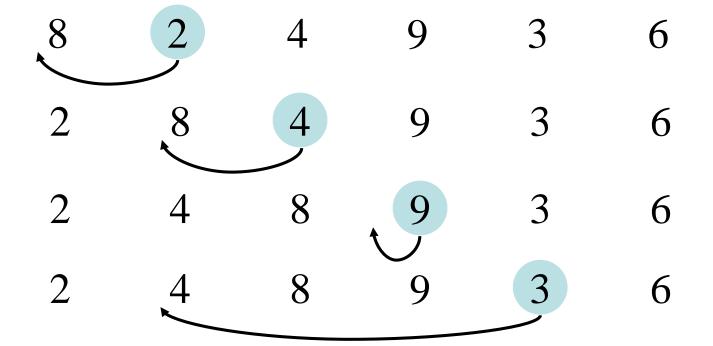




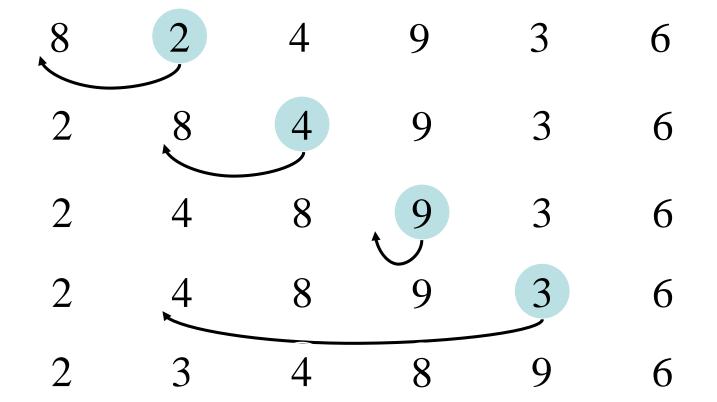




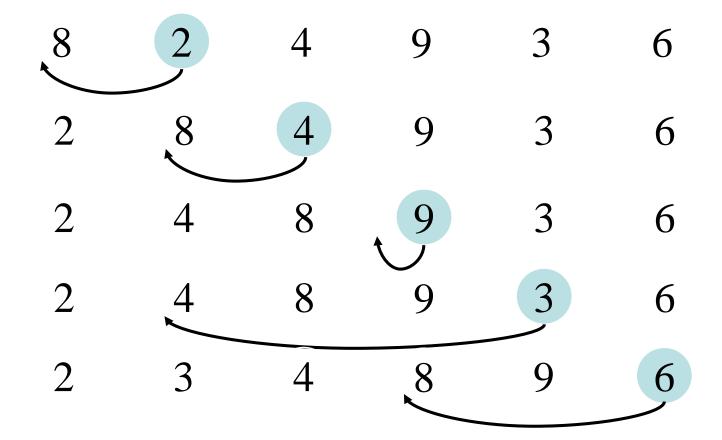




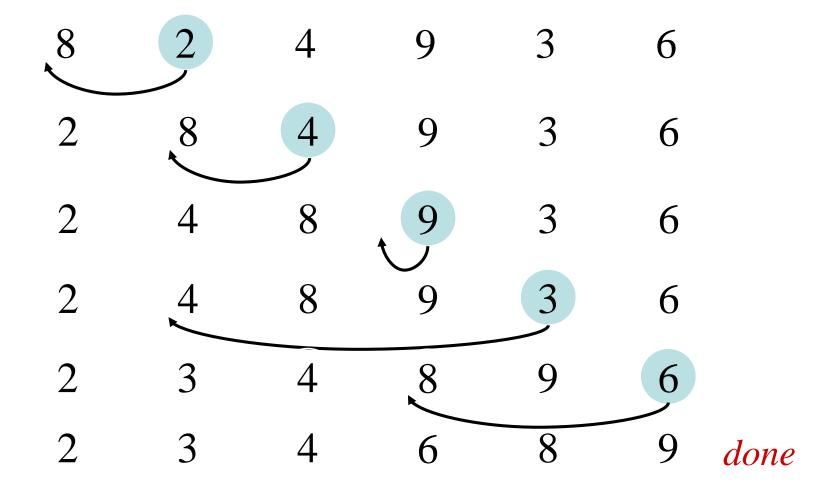














- The running time depends on the input: an already sorted sequence is easier to sort.
- ➤ Parameterize the running time by the size of the input, since short sequences are easier to sort than long ones.
- ➤ Generally, we seek upper bounds on the running time, because everybody likes a guarantee.



Kinds of analyses

- ➤ Worst-case: (usually)
 - -T(n) =maximum time of algorithm on any input of size n.
- > Average-case: (sometimes)
 - -T(n) = expected time of algorithm over all inputs of size n.
 - Need assumption of statistical distribution of inputs.
- **Best-case:** (bogus)
 - Cheat with a slow algorithm that works fast on *some* input.



Machine-independent time

- ➤ What is insertion sort's worst-case time?
- > It depends on the speed of our computer:
 - relative speed (on the same machine),
 - absolute speed (on different machines).

BIG IDEA:

- ➤ Ignore machine-dependent constants
- \triangleright Look at **growth** of T(n) as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

"Asymptotic Analysis"



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Asymptotic notation

> O-notation (upper bounds):

We write f(n) = O(g(n)) if there exist constants c > 0, $n_0 > 0$ such that $0 \le f(n)$ $\le cg(n)$ for all $n \ge n_0$.

EXAMPLE: $2n^2 = O(n^3)$ (c = 1, $n_0 = 2$)

funny, "one-way" equality

functions, not values

Engineering: Drop low-order terms; ignore leading constants

Set definition of O-notation

```
O(g(n))=\{f(n): \text{ there exist constants } c>0, n_0>0 \text{ such that } 0\leq f(n)\leq cg(n) for all n\geq n_0\}
```

ightharpoonup EXAMPLE: $2n^2 \in O(n^3)$



Macro substitution

- **Convention:** A set in a formula represents an anonymous function in the set.
- **EXAMPLE:**

$$f(n) = n^3 + O(n^2)$$

means
 $f(n) = n^3 + h(n)$
for some $h(n) \subseteq O(n^2)$

```
n^{2}+ O(n) = O(n^{2})

means

for any f(n) \in O(n):

n^{2}+f(n) = h(n)

for some h(n) \in O(n^{2})
```

Ω -notation (lower bounds)

 $\triangleright \Omega$ -notation is an *lower-bound* notation. It makes no sense to say f(n) is at least $\Omega(n^2)$.

$$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{there exist constants } c > 0,$$
 $n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \le cg(n) \le f(n)$
for all $n \ge n_0\}$

 \triangleright EXAMPLE: $\sqrt{n} = \Omega(\lg n)$ (c = 1, n_0 = 16)

Θ-notation (tight bounds)

$$\Theta(g(n)) = O(g(n)) \cap \Omega(g(n))$$

 \triangleright EXAMPLE: $n^2 + 2n = \Theta(n^2)$



o-notation and ω -notation

- \triangleright *O*-notation and Ω -notation are like \leq and \geq .
- \triangleright o-notation and ω -notation are like < and >.

```
o(g(n))=\{f(n): \text{ there exist constants } c>0, n_0>0 \text{ such that } 0\leq f(n)< cg(n) for all n\geq n_0\}
```

ightharpoonup EXAMPLE: $2n^2 = o(n^3) (n_0 = 2/c)$

o-notation and ω -notation

- \triangleright *O*-notation and Ω -notation are like \leq and \geq .
- \triangleright o-notation and ω -notation are like < and >.

```
\omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{there exist constants } c > 0,
n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \le cg(n) < f(n)
for all n \ge n_0\}
```

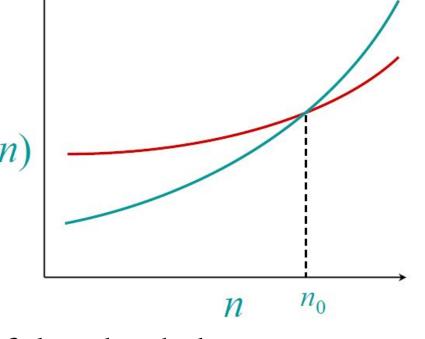
 \triangleright EXAMPLE: $\sqrt{n} = \omega(\lg n) \ (n_0 = 1 + 1/c)$



Asymptotic performance

When *n* gets large enough, a $\Theta(n^2)$ algorithm *always* beats a $\Theta(n^3)$ algorithm.

- ➤ We shouldn't ignore asymptotically slower algorithms, however.
- Real-world design situations often call for a careful balancing of engineering objectives.



Asymptotic analysis is a useful tool to help to structure our thinking.

Insertion sort analysis

➤ Worst case: Input reverse sorted

$$T(n) = \sum_{j=2}^{n} \theta(j) = \theta(n^2)$$

> Average case: All permutations equally likely

$$T(n) = \sum_{j=2}^{n} \theta(j/2) = \theta(n^2)$$

- ➤ Is insertion sort a fast sorting algorithm?
 - Moderately so, for small *n*.
 - − Not at all, for large *n*



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Merge-Sort A[1 ... n]

- 1. If n=1, done.
- 2. Recursively sort A[1...|n/2|] and $A[\lceil n/2 \rceil + 1...n \rceil$.
- 3."Merge"the 2 sorted lists.

Key subroutine: MERGE



20 12

13 11

7 9

2 1



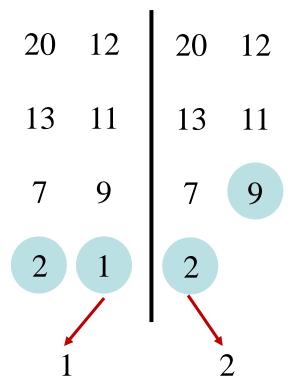
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13 11

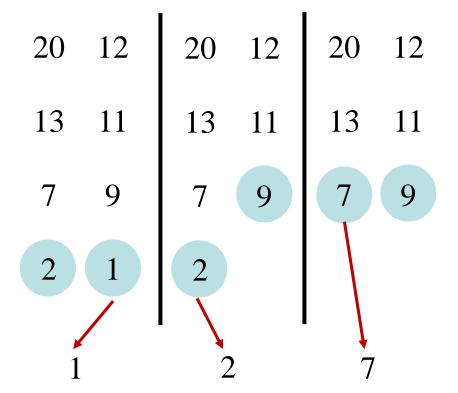
7 9

2 1

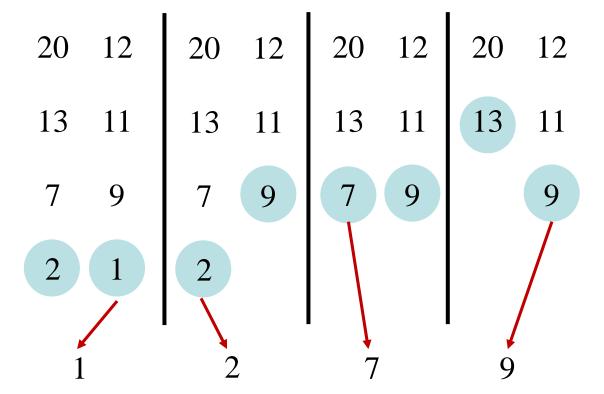




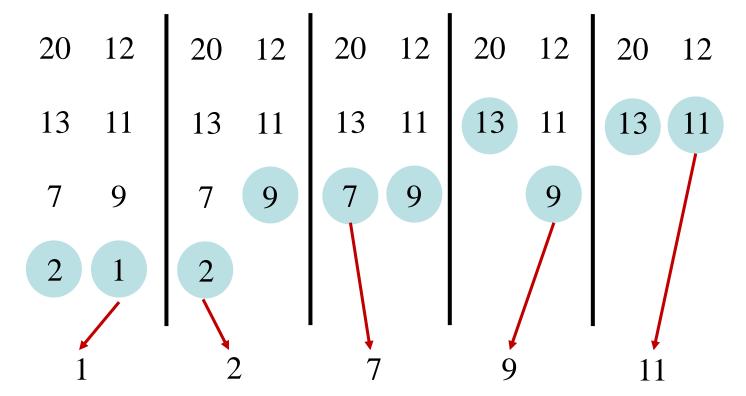




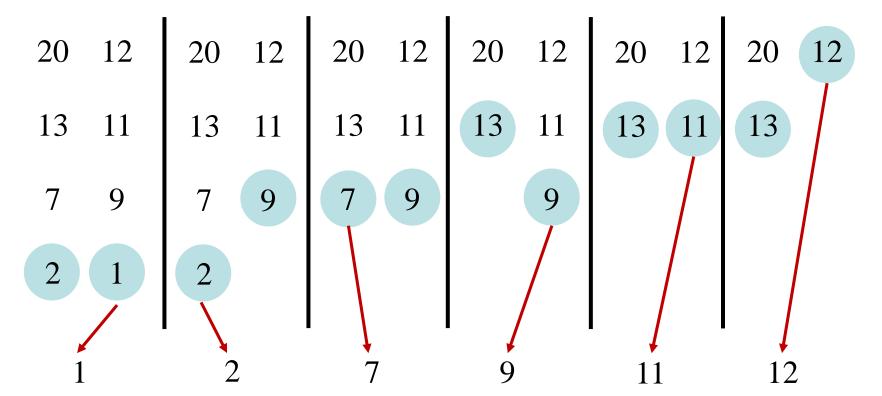




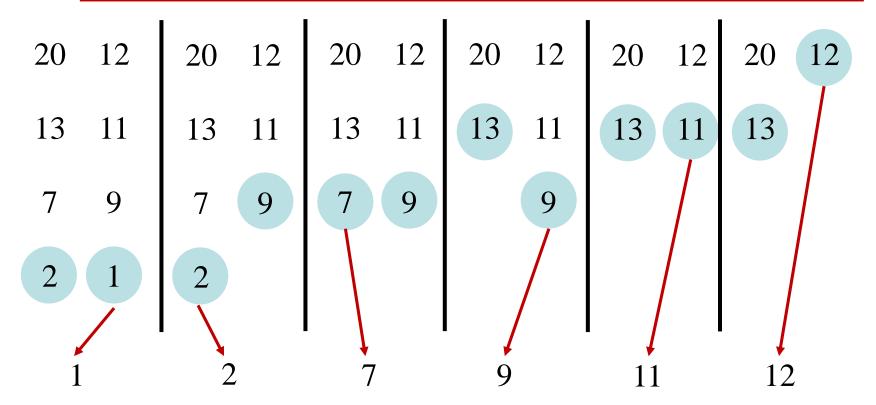












Time = $\Theta(n)$ to merge a total of n elements (linear time)



Analyzing merge sort

```
T(n) MERGE-SORT A[1 ... n]

\Theta(1) 1.If n=1, done.

2.Recursively sort A[1 ... [n/2]]

and A[[n/2]+1 ... n].

\Theta(n) 3."Merge"the 2 sorted lists.
```

Sloppiness: Should be $T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil)$, but it turns out not to matter asymptotically



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Recurrence for merge sort

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1), & \text{if } n = 1; \\ 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n), & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

We shall usually omit stating the base case when $T(n) = \Theta(1)$ for sufficiently small n, but only when it has no effect on the asymptotic solution to the recurrence.



Solving recurrences

- The analysis of merge sort required us to solve a recurrence.
- Recurrences are like solving integrals, differential equations, etc.
 - Learn a few tricks.

Substitution method

- The most general method:
- 1. Guess the form of the solution.
- 2. Verify by induction.
- 3. Solve for constants.
- **EXAMPLE:** T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n
 - [Assume that $T(1) = \Theta(1)$.]
 - Guess $O(n^3)$. (Prove O and Ω separately.)
 - Assume that $T(k) \le ck^3$ for k < n.
 - Prove $T(n) \le cn^3$ by induction.



Example of substitution

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

$$\leq 4c(n/2)^3 + n$$

$$= (c/2)n^3 + n$$

$$= cn^3 - ((c/2)n^3 - n) \quad \leftarrow \text{desired-residual}$$

$$\leq cn^3 \leftarrow \text{desired}$$

- whenever $(c/2)n^3 n \ge 0$, for example, if $c \ge 0$ and $n \ge 1$
- ➤ We must also handle the initial conditions, that is, ground the induction with base cases.
- $ightharpoonup Base: T(n) = \Theta(1)$ for all $n < n_0$, where n_0 is a suitable constant.
- For $1 \le n < n_0$, we have " $\Theta(1)$ " $\le cn^3$, if we pick c big enough.

 This bound is not tight!

A tighter upper bound?

- \triangleright We shall prove that $T(n) = O(n^2)$.
- \triangleright Assume that $T(k) \le ck^2$ for k < n:

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

$$\leq 4c(n/2)^2 + n$$

$$= cn^2 + n$$

$$= O(n^2)$$



A tighter upper bound?

- \triangleright We shall prove that $T(n) = O(n^2)$.
- \triangleright Assume that $T(k) \le ck^2$ for k < n:

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

$$\leq 4c(n/2)^2 + n$$

$$= cn^2 + n$$



Wrong! We must prove the I.H.



A tighter upper bound?

- \triangleright We shall prove that $T(n) = O(n^2)$.
- \triangleright Assume that $T(k) \le ck^2$ for k < n:

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

$$\leq 4c(n/2)^2 + n$$

$$= cn^2 + n$$

- Wrong! We must prove the I.H.
- $= cn^2 (-n)$ [desired—residual]
- for **no** choice of c > 0. **Lose!**



A tighter upper bound!

- > IDEA: Strengthen the inductive hypothesis
- > Subtract a low-order term
- \triangleright Inductive hypothesis: $T(k) \le c_1 k^2 c_2 k$ for k < n.

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

$$\leq 4(c_1(n/2)^2 - c_2(n/2) + n$$

$$= c_1 n^2 - 2c_2 n + n$$

$$= c_1 n^2 - c_2 n - (c_2 n - n)$$

$$\leq c_1 n^2 - c_2 n \text{ if } c_2 \geq 1$$

 \triangleright Pick c_1 big enough to handle the initial conditions.

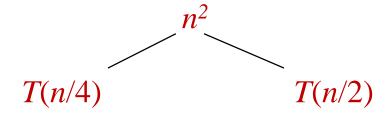


Recursion-tree method

- A recursion tree models the costs (time) of a recursive execution of an algorithm.
- The recursion-tree method can be unreliable, just like any method that uses ellipses (...).
- The recursion-tree method promotes intuition, however.
- The recursion tree method is good for generating guesses for the substitution method

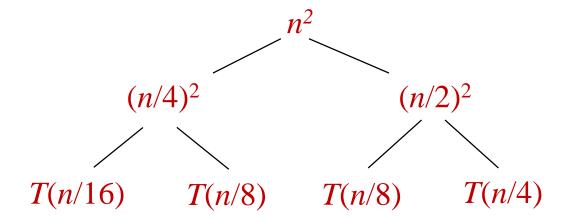
Solve
$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
:
$$T(n)$$

> Solve
$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
:



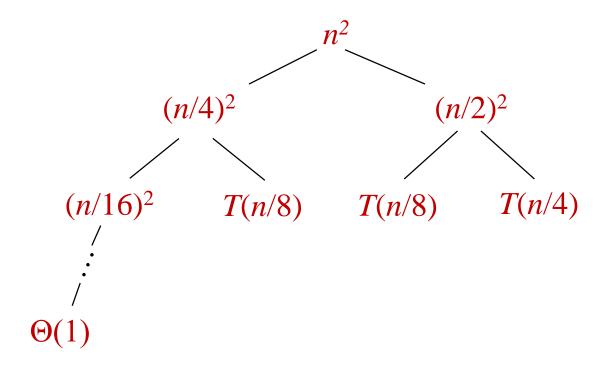


> Solve
$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
:



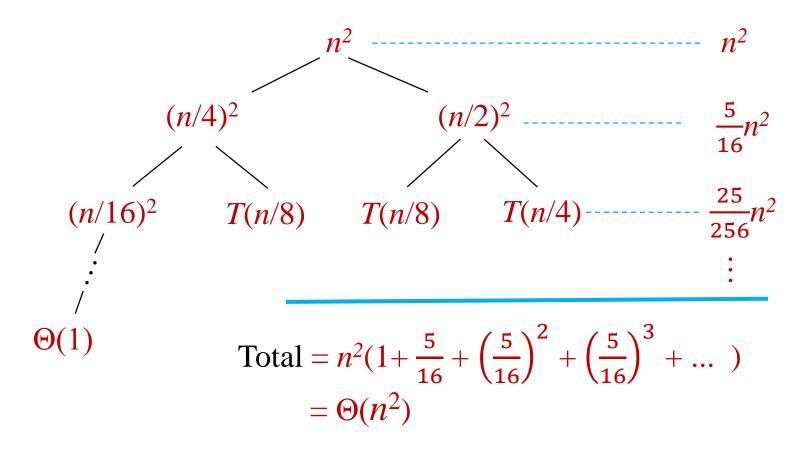


> Solve
$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
:





> Solve
$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
:



The master method

The master method applies to recurrences of the form

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

 \triangleright where $a \ge 1$, b > 1, and f is asymptotically positive.

Three common cases

- \triangleright Compare f(n) with $n^{\log_b a}$:
- 1. $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$.
 - -f(n) grows polynomially slower than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^{ε} factor)
 - Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$
- 2. $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$ for some constant $k \ge 0$.
 - -f(n) and $n^{\log_b a}$ grow at similar rates.
 - Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon} \lg^{k+1} n)$
- 3. $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$.
 - -f(n) grows polynomially faster than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^{ε} factor)
 - and f(n) grows satisfies the regularity condition that $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ for some constant c < 1.
 - Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

Examples

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

$$a=4, b=2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a}=n^2; f(n)=n.$$

Case1:
$$f(n) = O(n^{2-\varepsilon})$$
 for $\varepsilon = 1$.

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$$

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$$

$$a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^2.$$

Case2:
$$f(n) = O(n^2 l g^0 n)$$
, that is, $k = 0$.

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^2 \lg n)$$

Examples

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$$

 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^3.$
 $CASE3: f(n) = \Omega(n^{2+\epsilon}) \text{ for } \epsilon = 1$
 $and \ 4(n/2)^3 \le cn^3 \text{ (reg. cond.) for } c = 1/2.$
 $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^3)$

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2/\lg n$$

 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^2/\lg n.$

Master method does not apply. In particular, for every constant $\varepsilon > 0$, we have $n^{\varepsilon} = \omega(\lg n)$.



