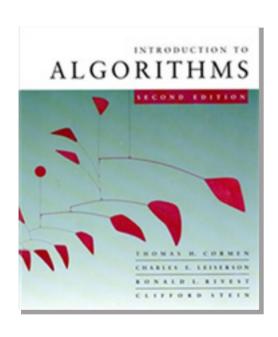
Introduction to Algorithms

6.046J/18.401J



LECTURE 2

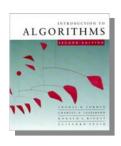
Asymptotic Notation

• O-, Ω -, and Θ -notation

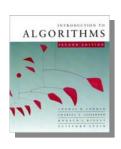
Recurrences

- Substitution method
- Iterating the recurrence
- Recursion tree
- Master method

Prof. Erik Demaine



O-notation (upper bounds):



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

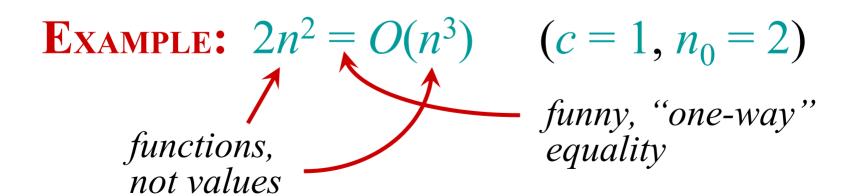


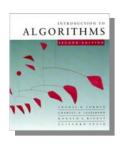
O-notation (upper bounds):

EXAMPLE:
$$2n^2 = O(n^3)$$
 $(c = 1, n_0 = 2)$ functions, not values



O-notation (upper bounds):





Set definition of O-notation

$$O(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{there exist constants}$$

 $c > 0, n_0 > 0 \text{ such}$
 $\text{that } 0 \le f(n) \le cg(n)$
 $\text{for all } n \ge n_0 \}$



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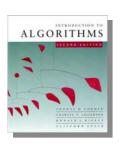
EXAMPLE: $2n^2 \in O(n^3)$

(Logicians: $\lambda n.2n^2 \in O(\lambda n.n^3)$, but it's convenient to be sloppy, as long as we understand what's really going on.)



Macro substitution

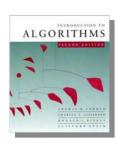
Convention: A set in a formula represents an anonymous function in the set.



Macro substitution

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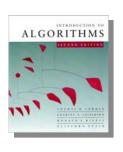
Example: $f(n) = n^3 + O(n^2)$ means $f(n) = n^3 + h(n)$ for some $h(n) \in O(n^2)$.



Macro substitution

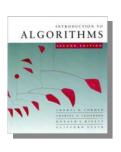
Convention: A set in a formula represents an anonymous function in the set.

Example:
$$n^2 + O(n) = O(n^2)$$
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)

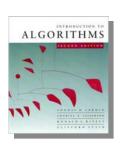
O-notation is an *upper-bound* notation. It makes no sense to say f(n) is at least $O(n^2)$.



Ω -notation (lower bounds)

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

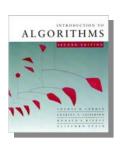


Ω -notation (lower bounds)

O-notation is an *upper-bound* notation. It makes no sense to say f(n) is at least $O(n^2)$.

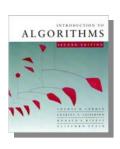
$$\Omega(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{there exist constants} \ c > 0, n_0 > 0 \text{ such} \ \text{that } 0 \le cg(n) \le f(n) \ \text{for all } n \ge n_0 \}$$

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



Θ-notation (tight bounds)

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



Θ-notation (tight bounds)

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

Example:
$$\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 2n = \Theta(n^2)$$

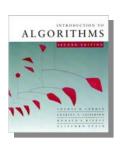


o-notation and ω -notation

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

$$o(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{ for any constant } c > 0, \\ \text{ there is a constant } n_0 > 0 \\ \text{ such that } 0 \le f(n) < cg(n) \\ \text{ for all } n \ge n_0 \}$$

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

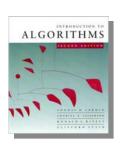


o-notation and ω-notation

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

$$\omega(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{ for any constant } c > 0, \\ \text{ there is a constant } n_0 > 0 \\ \text{ such that } 0 \le cg(n) < f(n) \\ \text{ for all } n \ge n_0 \}$$

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



Solving recurrences

- The analysis of merge sort from *Lecture 1* required us to solve a recurrence.
- Recurrences are like solving integrals, differential equations, etc.
 - Learn a few tricks.
- Lecture 3: Applications of recurrences to divide-and-conquer algorithms.



Substitution method

The most general method:

- 1. Guess the form of the solution.
- 2. Verify by induction.
- 3. Solve for constants.



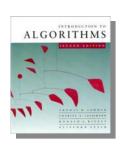
Substitution method

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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

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

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

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

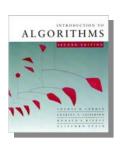
$$= cn^3 - ((c/2)n^3 - n) \leftarrow desired - residual$$

$$\leq cn^3 \leftarrow desired$$
whenever $(c/2)n^3 - n \geq 0$, for example,
if $c \geq 2$ and $n \geq 1$.
$$residual$$



Example (continued)

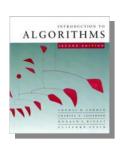
- We must also handle the initial conditions, that is, ground the induction with base cases.
- **Base:** $T(n) = \Theta(1)$ for all $n < n_0$, where n_0 is a suitable constant.
- For $1 \le n < n_0$, we have " $\Theta(1)$ " $\le cn^3$, if we pick c big enough.



Example (continued)

- We must also handle the initial conditions, that is, ground the induction with base cases.
- **Base:** $T(n) = \Theta(1)$ for all $n < n_0$, where n_0 is a suitable constant.
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This bound is not tight!



We shall prove that $T(n) = O(n^2)$.



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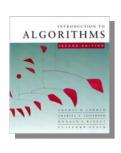
Assume that $T(k) \le ck^2$ for k < n:

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

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

$$= cn^{2} + n$$

$$= O(n^{2})$$



We shall prove that $T(n) = O(n^2)$.

Assume that $T(k) \le ck^2$ for $k \le n$:

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Assume that $T(k) \le ck^2$ for k < n:

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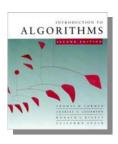
$$\leq 4c(n/2)^{2} + n$$

$$= cn^{2} + n$$

= Wrong! We must prove the I.H.

$$=cn^2-(-n)$$
 [desired – residual]

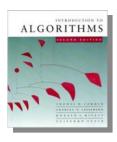
 $\leq cn^2$ for **no** choice of c > 0. Lose!



IDEA: Strengthen the inductive hypothesis.

• Subtract a low-order term.

Inductive hypothesis: $T(k) \le c_1 k^2 - c_2 k$ for $k \le n$.



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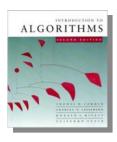
$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

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

$$= c_1n^2 - 2c_2n + n$$

$$= c_1n^2 - c_2n - (c_2n - n)$$

$$\leq c_1n^2 - c_2n \quad \text{if } c_2 \geq 1.$$



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Inductive hypothesis: $T(k) \le c_1 k^2 - c_2 k$ for k < n.

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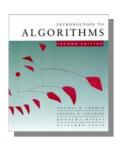
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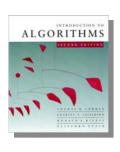
$$\leq c_1n^2 - c_2n \quad \text{if } c_2 \geq 1.$$

Pick c_1 big enough to handle the initial conditions.

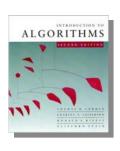


Recursion-tree method

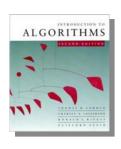
- A recursion tree models the costs (time) of a recursive execution of an algorithm.
- The recursion-tree method can be unreliable, just like any method that uses ellipses (...).
- The recursion-tree method promotes intuition, however.
- The recursion tree method is good for generating guesses for the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



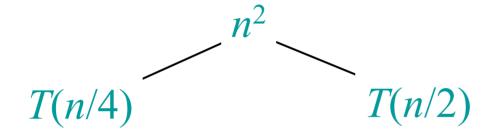
Solve
$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
:

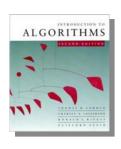


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$$T(n)$$

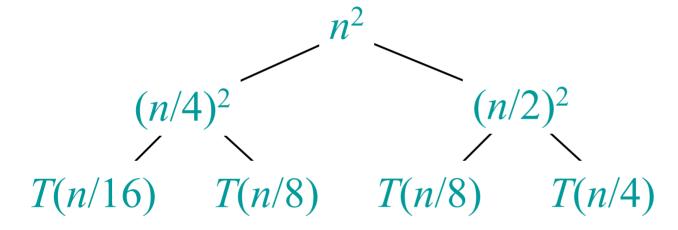


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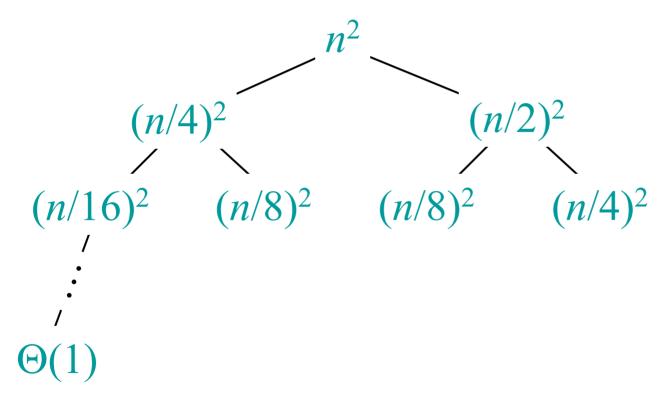


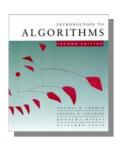
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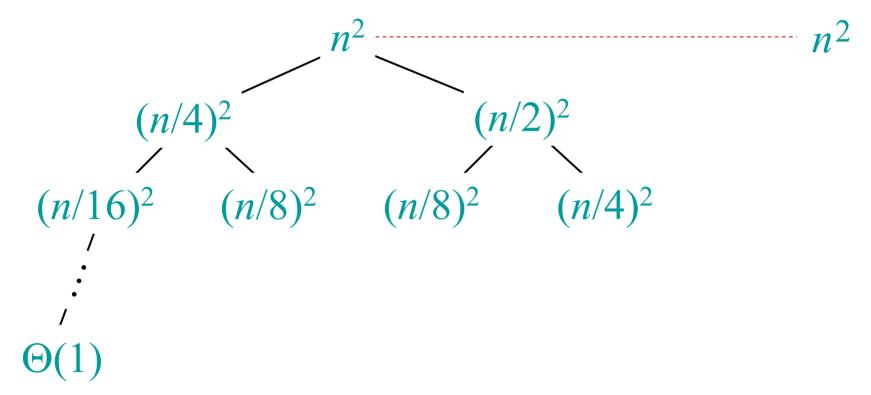


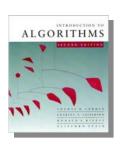
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$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
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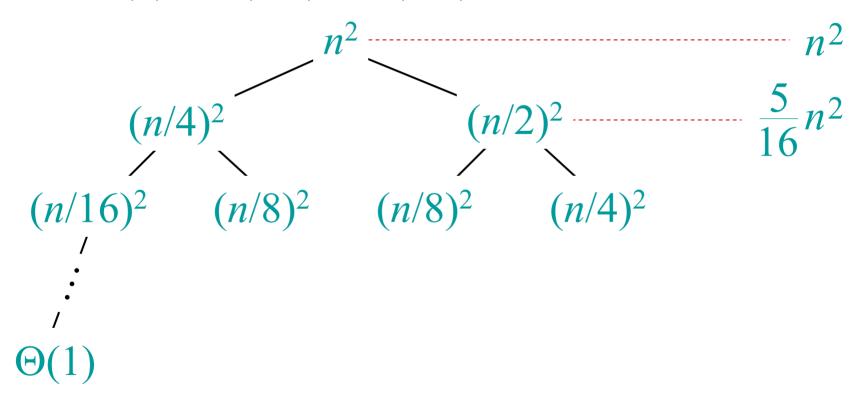


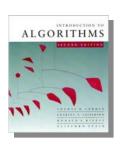
Solve
$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
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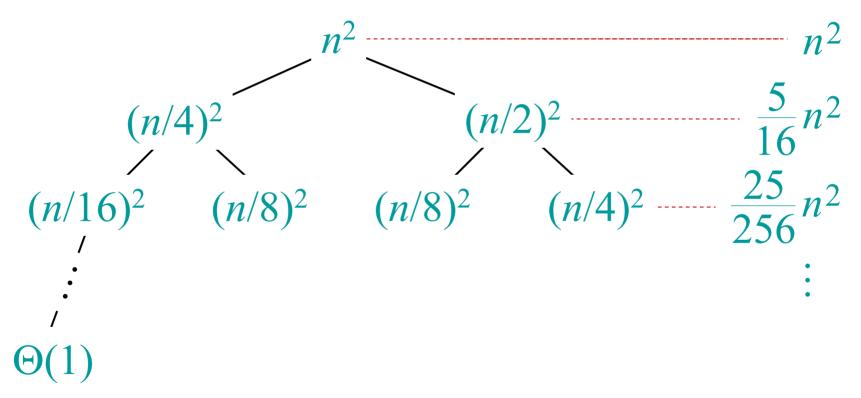


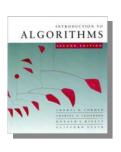
Solve
$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
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Solve
$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
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Solve
$$T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$$
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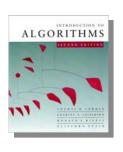
$$(n/4)^{2} \qquad (n/2)^{2} \qquad \frac{5}{16}n^{2}$$

$$(n/16)^{2} \qquad (n/8)^{2} \qquad (n/8)^{2} \qquad (n/4)^{2} \qquad \frac{25}{256}n^{2}$$

$$\vdots \qquad \vdots \qquad \vdots$$

$$\Theta(1) \qquad \text{Total} = n^{2} \left(1 + \frac{5}{16} + \left(\frac{5}{16}\right)^{2} + \left(\frac{5}{16}\right)^{3} + \cdots\right)$$

$$= \Theta(n^{2}) \qquad \text{geometric series} \ \blacksquare$$

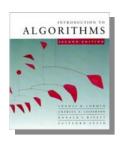


The master method

The master method applies to recurrences of the form

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

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



Three common cases

Compare f(n) with $n^{\log_b a}$:

- 1. $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for some constant $\varepsilon > 0$.
 - f(n) grows polynomially slower than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^{ϵ} factor).

```
Solution: T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}).
```



Three common cases

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- 1. $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a \varepsilon})$ for some constant $\varepsilon > 0$.
 - f(n) grows polynomially slower than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^{ϵ} factor).

Solution:
$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$$
.

- 2. $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^k n)$ for some constant $k \ge 0$.
 - f(n) and $n^{\log_b a}$ grow at similar rates.

Solution:
$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^{k+1} n)$$
.



Three common cases (cont.)

Compare f(n) with $n^{\log_b a}$:

- 3. $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for some constant $\varepsilon > 0$.
 - f(n) grows polynomially faster than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^{ϵ} factor),

and f(n) satisfies the regularity condition that $af(n/b) \le cf(n)$ for some constant c < 1.

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.



Ex. T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n.$ Case 1: $f(n) = O(n^{2-\epsilon})$ for $\epsilon = 1.$ $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^2).$



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

 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n.$
Case 1: $f(n) = O(n^{2-\epsilon})$ for $\epsilon = 1$.
 $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^2).$

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

 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^2.$
Case 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^2 \lg^0 n)$, that is, $k = 0$.
 $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^2 \lg n)$.

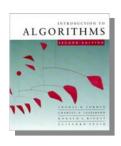


Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$ $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^3.$ Case 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{2+\epsilon})$ for $\epsilon = 1$ and $4(n/2)^3 \le cn^3$ (reg. cond.) for c = 1/2. $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^3).$

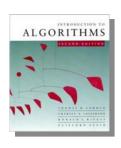


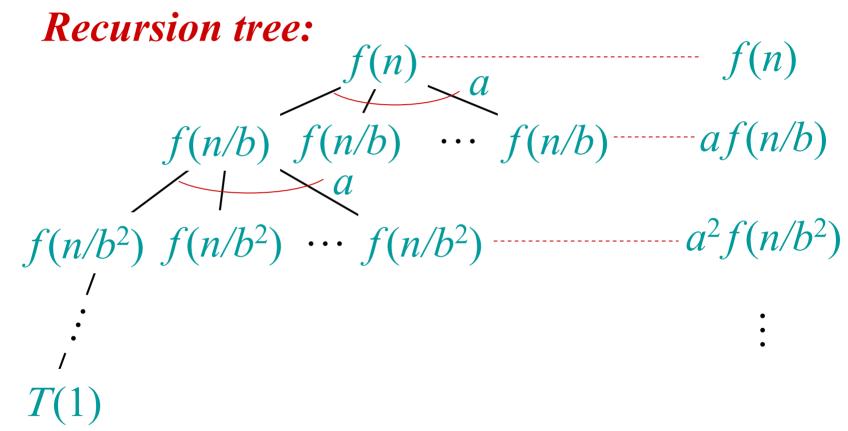
Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$ $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^3.$ Case 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{2+\epsilon})$ for $\epsilon = 1$ and $4(n/2)^3 \le cn^3$ (reg. cond.) for c = 1/2. $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^3).$

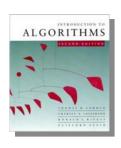
Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2/\lg n$ $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^2/\lg n.$ Master method does not apply. In particular, for every constant $\varepsilon > 0$, we have $n^{\varepsilon} = \omega(\lg n)$.

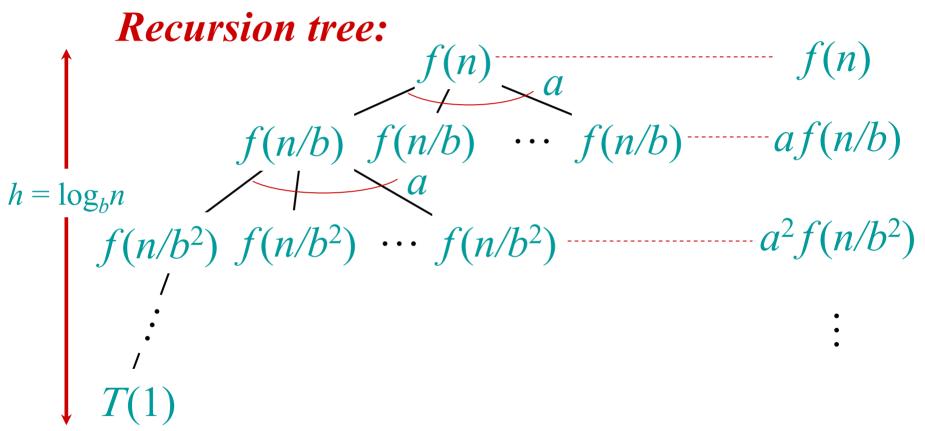


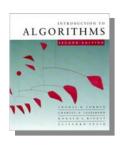
Recursion tree: $f(n/b^2) f(n/b^2) \cdots f(n/b^2)$

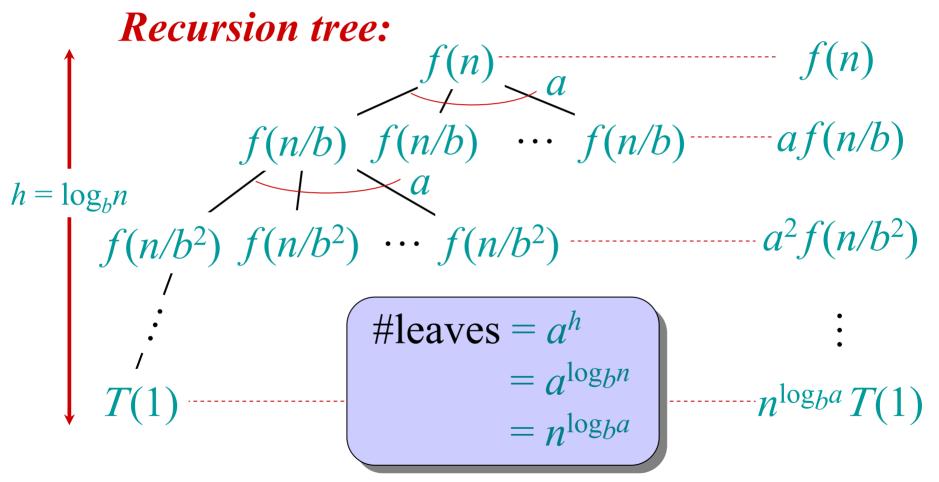


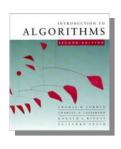


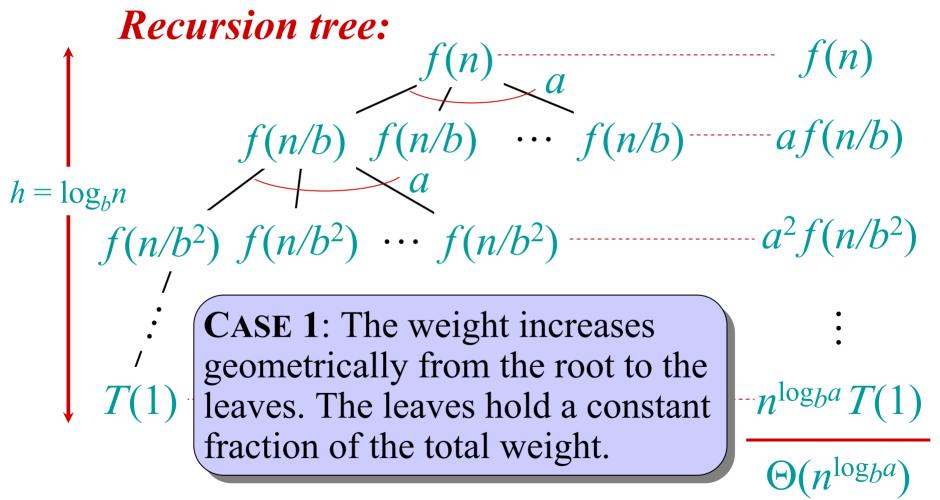


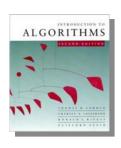


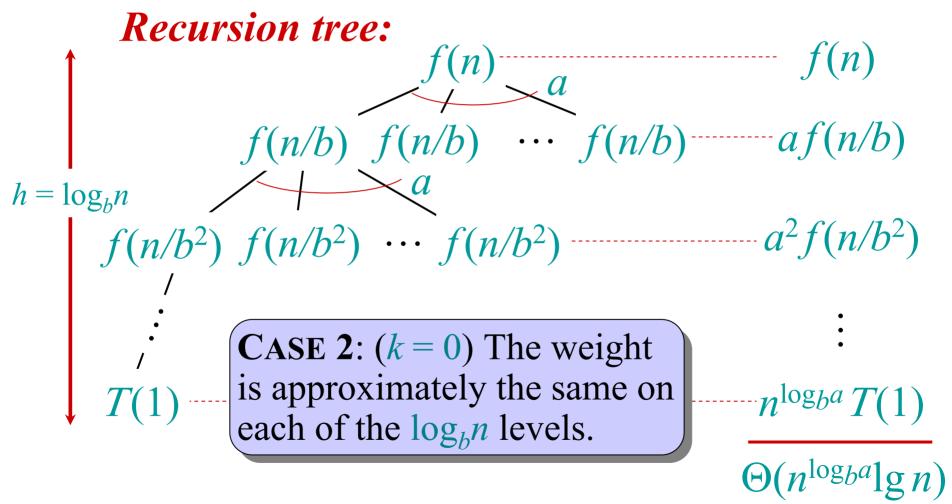


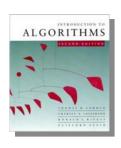


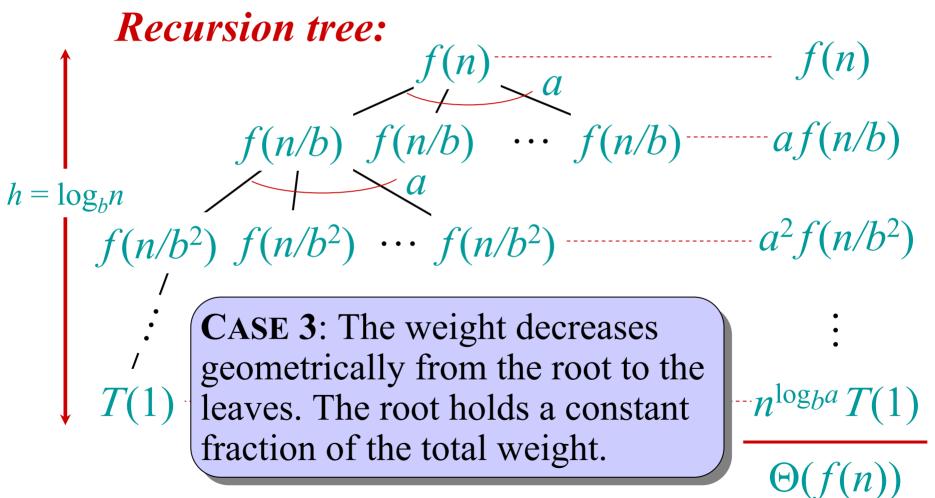














Appendix: geometric series

$$1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n = \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$$
 for $x \ne 1$

$$1 + x + x^2 + \dots = \frac{1}{1 - x}$$
 for $|x| < 1$

Return to last slide viewed.

