ICS 103

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The Need for Analysis

- From the previous week, we agree that efficiency of representation and efficiency of operation are both important.
- How to measure efficiency?
- What parameters are important in measuring efficiency?
- Need a standard notion.

The Need for Analysis

- We should first try to standardize our description of operations.
 - States what is allowed, how to describe an operation,
- Such a standard description is called an algorithm.
 - The word is attributed to an Arabian mathematician called al-Khowrazimi.
- An algorithm is a recipe for a solution and has input, output, definiteness, and finiteness.

The Need for Analysis

- What to measure? Several resources possible.
 - Time
 - Space
 - Power
 - Physical facility cost
 -
- Depending on the situation, one, or a combination, of the above assumes significance.
- In our discussion, let us focus on time.

How to Analyze?

- How do we measure the time taken?
- Most computers allow one to measure the time taken by a command to execute.
 - Use the time command on Unix/Linux based systems.
- A naïve approach is as follows:
 - Implement the algorithm on a given machine
 - Run it on a given input
 - Measure the time taken.

Several Pitfalls

- The naïve approach suffers from several pitfalls.
- For instance, say binary search on an array of 1 M entries on an Intel machine takes 0.1 microsecond.
 - How the program is written may also have an influence
 - Time taken on a given input may not hold a clue to time for some other input.
 - Size of input may affect the runtime
 - Machine model
 - System behaviour
- Need to be a bit more abstract.

A Three Step Approach

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- We will then abstract out a notion of measuring time.

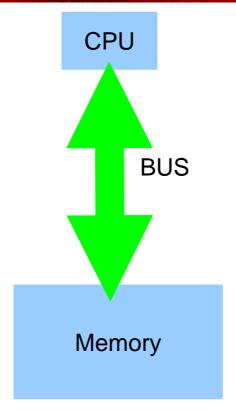
A Three Step Approach

- We will first abstract out a machine model.
- We will then abstract out a notion of measuring time.
- 3. We will then extend it to asymptotic behaviour.

Step 1 – Abstracting the Machine

- What is a good machine model?
- An abstract machine model should be able to generalize several existing models.
- A generally accepted model is the so called Random Access Machine (RAM) model.

The RAM Model



- A CPU and a memory connected by a bidirectional bus.
- Access to any cell of the memory possible, and has the same access time.

The RAM Model

The CPU has

- a limited set of registers
- a program counter
- supports program constructs such as
 - looping
 - recursion
 - jumping
 - branching

The RAM Model

- The CPU has a standard instruction set including:
 - Arithmetic operators : +, -, *, /
 - Logical operators : AND, OR, NOT
 - Conditional operators : =, <, >, <=, >=
 - Shift operators : <<, >>
 - Memory access operators : LOAD, STORE.

Today's Computers

- You will learn in CSO that today's computers are far from the kind we described in the abstraction.
- This abstraction however serves us well for now.
- Plus, better models are really complicated.

- In reality, each of these operators take different number of machine cycles.
 - LOAD typically takes more cycles than ADD.

- In reality, each of these operators take different number of machine cycles.
- We will assume however that each takes the same number of cycles, or 1 unit of time.
 - For this reason, also called as the unit cost model.

- Finally, the time taken is measured as a function of the input size.
 - T(n) denotes the time taken on input of size n.
- Several advantages in this approach.
 - Can know the time taken for any input.
 - Can compare different algorithms A and A' for the same problem using their time taken, T(n) and T'(n).
 - Can do this exercise without being constrained to any particular machine
- Essentially, we want to find T(n) for a given algorithm?

- Write the algorithm in reasonable pseudo-code
 - using only the operations provided on the RAM.
 - these are sometimes called as basic operations.
- Basic approach is to count the number of operations as a function of the input size.

Algorithm Sum-Integers(A)

- 1.//A is an array of n integers.
- 2. int i; sum = 0;
- 3. for i = 1 to n do
 - 4. sum = sum + A[i];
- 5. end-for

End Algorithm.

- The above example shows a program that adds n integers.
- We will count the time as a function of n.

- Line 1 is a comment and hence does not take any time.
- Line 2 declares two integers. If each takes a unit time, time for line 2 is 2 units.
- Line 3 starts a for loop running for n iterations. Let us assume that it takes 2 units to check the loop condition for every iteration.
 - Time for line 3 is 2n+1 units.
- Line 4 does 1 operation, hence takes 1 unit
 - For n iterations, line 4 takes n units.
- Line 5 takes no time as it indicates the end of the for loop.

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- 5. end-for
- End Algorithm.

- Total time is the sum of the times for each line.
 - -T(n) = 0 + 2 + 2n+1 + n + 0 = 3n+3.
- So the above algorithm has a run time of 3n+3 units on an input of size n.
- Let us look at another example.

Algorithm MaximumSumContiguousSubsequence(A)

- 1. // A is an array of n integers.
- 2. int maxSum = 0;
- 3. for i = 1 to n do
 - 4. int sum = 0
 - 5. for j = i to n do
 - 6. sum = sum + A[j];
 - 7. end-for
 - 8. if(sum > maxSum)
 - 9. maxSum = sum
- 10. end-for

End Algorithm.

– What does the above program do?

- Let us count the time for every line.
- Line 1 0 time
- Line 2 1 unit
- Line 3 2n+1 units
- Line 4 1 unit for every iteration
- Line 5 2(n-i+1)+1
- Line 6 1 unit for every iteration
- Line 7 1 unit for every iteration
- Line 8 1 unit for every iteration
- Line 10 no time

Algorithm MSCS(A)

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- 3. for i = 1 to n do
 - 4. int sum = 0
 - 5. for j = i to n do
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End Algorithm.

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 - Depends on the input, and not just its size.
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 - Depends on the input, and not just its size.
- No easy way to resolve the question.
- Accepted notion: Worst case behavior
 - Consider the situation when the input forces the algorithm to take the maximum possible amount of time.
 - In the present case, it amounts to saying that line 9 is executed in every iteration.
 - Sometimes referred to as worst-case analysis.

- Advantage of worst-case analysis:
 - Removes any assumption on the nature of the input
 - need to consider only the size of the input.
 - Also, gives a fair basis for comparison.
 - Other notions are also important, but this notion is more prevalent.

- Time taken by the second program is
 - $T(n) = 1 + (2n+1) + (2n+1) + \Sigma_i (2(n-i+1)+1) + 3(2n+1)$
 - Simplifying yields T(n) = .
- So, the runtime of this program is said to be a quadratic function of the input size.
- If time permits, we shall see that there is a better solution for this problem.
 - Solution uses dynamic programming technique.

- Time taken by the second program is
 - $T(n) = 1 + (2n+1) + (2n+1) + \Sigma_i (2(n-i+1)+1) + 3(2n+1)$
 - Simplifying yields $T(n) = n^2 + 13n + 6$.
- So, the runtime of this program is said to be a quadratic function of the input size.
- If time permits, we shall see that there is a better solution for this problem.
 - Solution uses dynamic programming technique.

Step 2 – A Generalization

- We can propose a few rules for the second step.
- Simple Statement : unit time
 - includes arithmetic, logical, Boolean, ...
 - conditional statement :

if condition then
Statement1
else
Statement2

 Time taken is the time to execute the condition + the maximum time taken between Statement1 and Statement2.

Step 2 – A Generalization

Loop statement

```
for (loop init., condition, increment) statement;
```

- The time taken equals the product of the number of iterations and the time taken by the statement plus the time for loop condition and the increment evaluation.
- What about nested loops?
 - Consider a nested product.

```
1.for i = 1 to n do
2.for j = 1 to n do
3.C[i,j] = 0;
4.for k = 1 to n do
5.C[i,j] = C[i,j] + A[i,k].B[k,j]
6.end-for
7.end-for
8.end-for
```

- Consider the matrix multiplication code.
- Matrix C = B . A, each of dimension nxn.

 Let us use the above example and the generalizations.

• Line 3

- takes one unit time per iteration.
- nested loop of $n.n = n^2$ iterations.
- Total time for line $3 = n^2$ units.

Line 5

- takes one unit time per iteration.
- nested loop of n.n.n = n^3 iterations.
- Total time for line $5 = n^3$ units.

- Line 1 takes 2n+1 units of time.
- Line 2 takes 2n+1 units of time per iteration.
 - No. of iterations = n.
 - Total time for line 4 = n.(2n+1).
- Line 4 takes 2n+1 units of time per iteration.
 - No. of iterations = n^2 .
 - Total time for line $4 = n^2 \cdot (2n+1)$.
- Lines 6, 7, 8, take no time.

- Total time taken by the program = $2n+1 + n(2n+1) + n^2 + n^2(2n+1) + n^3 = 3n^3 + 4n^2 + 3n + 1$ units.
- So, matrix multiplication takes time proportional to the cube of the matrix dimensions.

Practice Exercises

- What is the time taken by binary search on an array of size n, in the worst case?
- What about bubble sort? Insertion sort? Imagine you are sorting n elements.

Step 3 – Asymptotic Analysis

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- Can we do away with some detail and focus on the big picture?
 - What is the big picture?

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- Advantage with the big picture style
 - Hides unnecessary detail.
 - Good from a analytical view point.
- A word of caution: Even small detail is useful from a practical or empirical view point.

- As part of the big picture, we will study the asymptotic behavior of the runtime.
- Asymptotic behavior tells us the behavior for large inputs, ignoring any aberrations for small inputs.
- A neat way to compare run-times of algorithms.
- Need a few definitions in this direction.

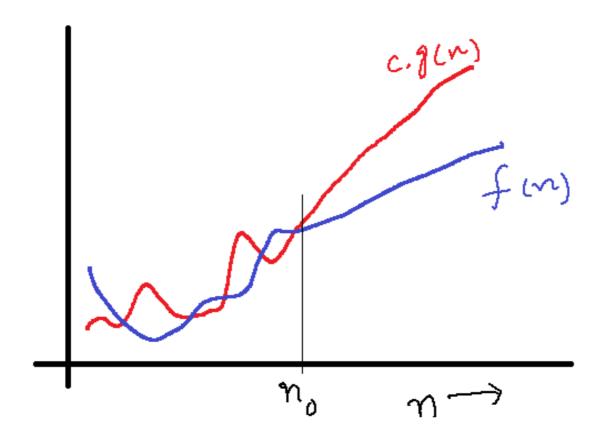
- Consider our earlier examples and their runtimes
 - 3n+3 for the sum of an array of integers
 - 3n²/2 + 7n + ? for the maximum contiguous sum
 - sqrt(n) for the prime factorization of n
 - 3n³+4n²+3n+1 for matrix multiplication
 - Log n operations for binary search
 - **—**
- Need a way to simplify representing these runtimes further.
- Focus on how they grow with respect to n.
 Need not worry about the small detail.

- Imagine the following definition. Take the higher order term, or the dominating term as the big picture.
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- Imagine the following definition. Take the higher order term, or the dominating term as the big picture.
- So, the first runtime is 3n, the second is 3n²/2, and so on.
- But, how to study "dominating" runtimes such as 3n²/2 and n²/2.
 - Can we treat them as similar?
- Need a better definition that does not even care for such constants.

Definition (Big-O): Given two functions f, g: N -> N, we say that f(n) ∈ O(g(n)) if there exists two positive constants c; n₀ such that f(n) ≤ c. g(n) for all n ≥ n₀.

- Definition (Big-O): Given two functions f, g: N -> N, we say that f(n) ∈ O(g(n)) if there exists two positive constants c; n₀ such that f(n) ≤ c. g(n) for all n ≥ n₀.
- How to view this definition?
 - We are interested to see whether g(n) dominates f(n), but
 c.g(n) dominates f(n) for a positive constant c.
 - Also, beyond a certain fixed point n₀.
 - Leaves the order between f(n) and g(n) before n₀
 completely unspecified.



 As the picture shows, the behaviour of f and g before n₀ is not important.

Example

- The above definition lets us write f(n) = 1000n + 100 as belonging to O(g(n)) where g(n) = n.
 - What are c, and n₀ in this case?
 - So the growth rate of f(n) in this example is of the order of n, also called linear.

- Another example:
 - $f(n) = 165n^2 + n^{1/3}$, and $g(n) = 0.01n^2$.
 - In this case also, it holds that $f(n) \in O(g(n))$.
 - What are c and n₀?
 - Here, we say that f(n) has a quadratic growth rate.
- More examples and general rules follow.

- As an example, our matrix multiplication program can be now analyzed as follows:
 - It has one addition that is nested in three for loops
 - It has one initialization that is nested in two for loops.
 - So, the total time is $O(n^3+n^2) = O(n^3)$.

- The O-notation helps one to bound a function from the above.
- For our purposes, we will limit ourselves to basic calculations and rules such as:
 - $log^k n \in O(n)$ for any constant k > 0.
 - If f(n) is a polynomial of degree k, then f(n) ∈ O(n^k).
 - log(n^k) ∈ O(log n) for any constant k.
 - If f(n) is a constant independent of n, then $f(n) \in O(1)$.

Practice Problems

Check the following:

- $-\log_b n = O(\log_2 n)$, b is a constant
- $n^{\log n} = O(2^{\log^2 n})$
- $-\log n! = O(n\log n)$
- $n^{1.3} log^{100} n = O(n^{1.4}).$
- $(\log n)^{\log \log n} = O((\log \log n)^{2.5}).$

Dealing with Recursive Programs

- So far, our programs are iterative in nature.
 - nested loops, etc.
- Several natural recursive programs
 - Binary search, merge sort, quick sort, etc..
- How can we analyze such programs?

Recursive Programs

Algorithm FindMinimum(A)

- 1. candidate1 = A(1);
- 2. candidate2 = FindMinimum(A[2..n]);
- return min{candiate1, candidate2};

End Algorithm.

- Start with the above example.
- Line 1 and 3 are an O(1) time operation.
- How to represent the time taken for line 2?
 - recurrence relations to the rescue.

Recurrence Relations

- A recurrence relation is a way of specifying a function or a sequence where the value of the function at a given input is defined in terms of one or more function outputs at smaller input values.
- Imagine that T(n), the time taken by the above program for an input of size n, is a function.
- We can write a recurrence relation for T(n) as follows.

Recurrence Relations

- Notice that in Line 2, we are calling the same function recursively for an input of size n-1.
 - So, T(n-1) will be the time taken for that recursive call.
 - Using this, we can write T(n) = T(n-1) + O(1).
- To solve this recurrence relation, we need to know some initial values, say T(1) or so.
 - But this is the case when we need an exact solution.
 - Do we need an exact solution?

Recurrence Relations

- We actually need an asymptotic analysis.
 - This means that we may not need exact initial values.
 - Typically, we assume that initial values are all O(1)
 - Justified because of the fact on inputs of size O(1), the runtime is also O(1).
- We'll now propose a few solution strategies for solving recurrence relations.

Solving Recurrence Relations

- Try to guess a solution to the recurrence relation.
- Verify whether our guess is correct. The verification is often done using mathematical induction.
- we substitute the guessed value in to the recurrence and hence the name.
- An example follows.

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 - Let the above hold for all inputs up to n.
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 - For n+1, T(n+1) = T(n) + O(1) according to the recurrence relation.
 - Substituting for T(n), we need to show that T(n+1) \leq cn+O(1) \leq c(n+1) for a large c.
 - Hence, our guess is correct.

Another Example

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 - Meaning that there exists a positive constant c, such that T(n) ≤ c n log n.
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- Guess, $T(n) = O(n \log n)$
 - Meaning that there exists a positive constant c, such that T(n) ≤ c n log n.
- Verification proceeds as follows.
- Step: Need to verify that T(n) ≤ cn log n.
 - $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n \le 2c(n/2) \log (n/2) + n = cn (\log n 1) + n = cn \log n (c-1)n \le cn \log n if c > 1.$
 - hence, we showed that $T(n) = O(n \log n)$.

How to Guess?

- That is where practice matters.
- Plus, there are other tools which we will over time.

Practice Problems

Recursive version to find the nth Fibonacci number

```
Algorithm Fibonacci(n)

Begin

if n = 0 return 0;

if n = 1 return 1;

return Fibonacci(n-1) + Fibonacci(n-2);

End.
```

Recursive version to find the factorial of n.