

ICS 103

Data Structures and Algorithms

International Institute of Information Technology

Hyderabad, India

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# The Need for Analysis

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- From the previous lecture, 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

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- What to measure? Several resources possible.
  - Time

# The Need for Analysis

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- What to measure? Several resources possible.
  - Time
  - Space

# The Need for Analysis

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- What to measure? Several resources possible.
  - Time
  - Space
  - Power

# The Need for Analysis

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- What to measure? Several resources possible.
  - Time
  - Space
  - Power
  - Physical facility cost
  - ....

# The Need for Analysis

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- 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.

# The Need for Analysis

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- 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**.



# How to Analyze?

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- 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

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- 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.
  - 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 first abstract out a machine model.

# A Three Step Approach

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

# A Three Step Approach

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

# Step 1 – Abstracting the Machine

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- What is a good machine model?
- How do you describe your computer?

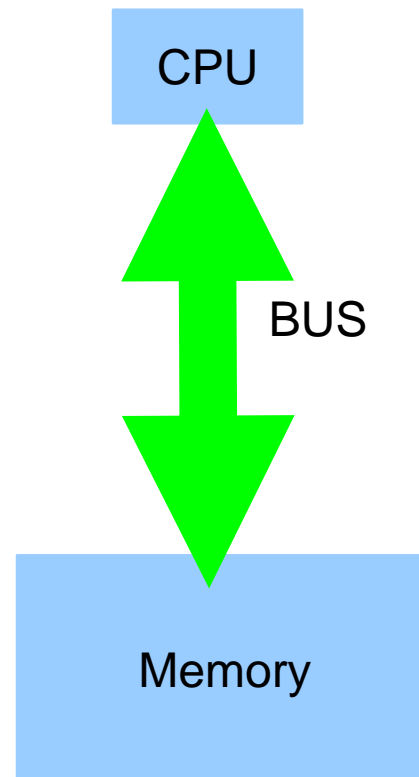
# Step 1 – Abstracting the Machine

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- 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 is closely related to the von Neumann model of computation also.

# The RAM Model

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- 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

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

# The RAM Model

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- 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

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- 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.

## Step 2 : Measuring the Time Taken

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- In reality, each of these operators take different number of machine cycles.
  - A LOAD typically takes more time than an ADD
- 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**.
- Measure the time taken also as a function of the input size.
- To measure input size, we count the number of bits required by the input.

## Step 2 : Measuring the Time Taken

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## Step 2: Measuring the Time Taken

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- Finally, the time taken is measured as a function of the input size.
  - $n$  denotes 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  $T'(n)$ .
- Question: How to find  $T(n)$  for a given algorithm?

## Step 2: Measuring the Time Taken

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- 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.

# An Example

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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.



# An Example

- 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.

## 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.

# An Example

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- 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 time of  $3n+3$  units on an input of size  $n$ .
- Let us look at another example.

# A Second Example

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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?

# A Second Example

- 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)

```
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.
```

## A Second Example

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- How to know the number of times line 9 is executed?
  - Depends on the input, and not just its size.
- No easy way to resolve the question.

## A Second Example

---

- How to know the number of times line 9 is executed?
  - 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**.

# A Second Example

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- Later, we will see other notions such as
  - best case, and
  - average case
- 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.

## A Second Example

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- Time taken by the second program is
  - $T(n) = 1 + (2n+1) + (2n+1) + \sum_i (2(n-i+1)+1) + 3(2n+1)$
  - 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.



## Step 2 – A Generalization

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- 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

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- 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.

# An Example

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```
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  $C = B \cdot A$ , each of dimension  $n \times n$ .

# An Example

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- 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.

# An Example

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- 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 =  $n \cdot (2n+1)$ .
- 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.

# An Example

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- 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.

## Step 3 – Asymptotic Analysis

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- Step 2 is useful but a bit too high on detail.
- Can we do away with some detail and focus on the big picture?
  - What is the big picture?
- Advantage with the big picture style
  - Hides unnecessary detail.
  - Good from an analytical view point.
- A word of caution: Even small detail is useful from a practical or empirical view point.

## Step 3 – Asymptotic Analysis

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- 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.



## Step 3 – Asymptotic Analysis

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- Consider our earlier examples and their runtimes
  - $3n+3$  for the sum of an array of integers
  - $3n^2/2 + 7n + ?$  for the maximum contiguous sum
  - $\text{sqrt}(n)$  for the prime factorization of  $n$
  - $3n^3+4n^2+3n+1$  for matrix multiplication
  - $\text{Log}^2 n$  operations for the modular exponentiation
  - ....
- 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.

## Step 3 – Asymptotic Analysis

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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  $3n^2/2$ , and so on.
- But, how to study "dominating" runtimes such as  $3n^2/2$  and  $n^2/2$ .
  - Can we treat them as similar?
- Need a better definition that does not even care for constants.

## Step 3 – Asymptotic Analysis

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- Definition (Big-O) : Given two functions  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , we say that  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  if there exists two **positive constants**  $c; n_0$  such that  $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ .
- How to view this definition?
  - We are interested to see whether  $g(n)$  dominates  $f(n)$ , but  $c \cdot g(n)$  dominates  $f(n)$  for a positive constant  $c$ .
  - Also, beyond a certain fixed point  $n_0$ .
  - Leaves the order between  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$  before  $n_0$  completely unspecified.

## Step 3 – Asymptotic Analysis

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- A picture to illustrate the definition.
- The above definition lets us write  $f(n) = 1000n + 100$  as belonging to  $O(g(n))$  where  $g(n) = n$ .
  - What are  $c$ , and  $n_0$  in this case?
  - So the growth rate of  $f(n)$  in this example is of the order of  $n$ , also called **linear**.

## Step 3 : Asymptotic Analysis

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- Another example:
  - $f(n) = 165n^2 + n^{1/3}$ , and  $g(n) = 0.01n^2$ .
  - In this case also, it holds that  $f(n) \not\in O(g(n))$ .
  - What are  $c$  and  $n_0$ ?
  - Here, we say that  $f(n)$  has a **quadratic** growth rate.
- More examples and general rules follow.

## Step 3 : Asymptotic Analysis

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- $\log^k n \in O(n)$  for any constant  $k > 0$ .
- If  $f(n)$  is a polynomial of degree  $k$ , then  $f(n) \in O(n^k)$ .
- $\log(n^k) \in O(\log n)$  for any constant  $k$ .
- If  $f(n)$  is a constant independent of  $n$ , then  $f(n) \in O(1)$ .
- Simple style: Write  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  instead of  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ .
  - Analogy to real analysis: Big-O like  $<$ .

## Step 3 : Asymptotic Analysis

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- 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  $O(n^3+n^2) = O(n^3)$ .

## Step 3 : Asymptotic Analysis

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- The O-notation helps one to bound a function from the above.
- Sometimes, it is helpful to bound a function also from the below.
  - Need a notation for this.



## Step 3 : Asymptotic Analysis

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- Definition (Big-Omega): Given two functions  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , we say that  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$  if there exists two **positive constants**  $c; n_0$  such that  $f(n) \in c \cdot g(n)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- How to view this definition?
  - We are interested to see whether  $f(n)$  dominates not just  $g(n)$ , but  $c \cdot g(n)$  for a positive constant  $c$ .
  - Also, beyond a certain fixed point  $n_0$ .
  - Leaves the order between  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$  before  $n_0$  completely unspecified.

## Step 3 : Asymptotic Analysis

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- The notation conveys that  $f()$  grows at a faster rate than  $g(n)$  for large values of  $n$ .
- Example 1
  - $f(n) = n^2$  and  $g(n) = 1000n+500$
  - It holds that  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ .
  - What are  $c, n_0$  in this case?
- Example 2
  - $f(n) = n^{1/2}$  and  $g(n) = \log_2 n$
  - $n^{1/2} \in \Omega(\log_2 n)$
  - What are  $c, n_0$  in this case?

## Step 3 : Asymptotic Analysis

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- The  $\Omega$  notation suggests that  $f(n) > g(n)$ , analogically.
- In this case, it indicates that  $f(n)$  grows faster than  $g(n)$  asymptotically.
- To simplify notation, we also write  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$  instead of  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ .
- What if  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$  have similar growth rates?
  - One more definition.

## Step 3: Asymptotic Analysis

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- Definition (Big-Theta): Given two functions  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ , we say that  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$  if it holds that  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$  and  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ .
- If  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ , by definition we can say that  $f$  and  $g$  grow at the same rate.
- To simplify matters, we also write that  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  instead of  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ .

## Step 3: Asymptotic Analysis

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- Example 1
  - $f(n) = 3n^2 - 3n + 5$  ,  $g(n) = n^2$
  - $f(n) = \Theta(n^2)$ .
  - What are  $c$ ,  $n_0$  for each of the two relations?
- Example 2
- The  $\Theta$  notation suggests that  $f(n) = g(n)$  as far as asymptotic growth rates are concerned.

## Step 3: Asymptotic Analysis

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- We have notation for  $f(n) = g(n)$ ,  $f(n) < g(n)$ , and  $f(n) > g(n)$ .
  - Analogous to law of trichotomy for real numbers.
  - So does it hold that for any two functions  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$ , one of the above three holds?
  - The answer is NO.
  - There are functions  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$  such that neither  $f(n) = O(g(n))$ ,  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ , and  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ .
  - **HW:** Find such a pair of functions.

# Dealing with Recursive Programs

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

# Recursive Programs

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Algorithm FindMinimum(A)

1. candidate1 = A(1);

2. candidate2 = FindMinimum(A[2..n]);

3. return min{candidate1, 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

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- 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

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- 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  $T(n)$  as  $T(n-1) + O(1)$ .
- 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

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- 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

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- The Substitution Method
  - 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.

# The Substitution Method

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- Consider for recurrence relation  $T(n) = T(n-1) + O(1)$ .
- Let us try to guess that the solution is  $T(n) = O(n)$ .
  - which means that  $T(n) \leq c.n$  for some constant  $c$ .
- Verification proceeds as follows.
  - Let the above hold for all inputs up to  $n$ .
  - 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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- Consider,  $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n$ .
- Guess,  $T(n) = O(n \log n)$ 
  - Meaning that there exists a positive constant  $c$ , such that  $T(n) \leq c n \log n$ .
- Verification proceeds as follows.
- Base case:
- Step: Need to verify that  $T(n) \leq cn \log n$ .
  - $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n \leq 2c(n/2) \log (n/2) + n = cn (\log n - 1) + n = cn \log n - (c-1)n \leq cn \log n$  if  $c > 1$ .
  - hence, we showed that  $T(n) = O(n \log n)$ .

# Another Solution Method

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- The Recursion Tree Method
  - Imagine a tree where each internal node represents the cost of a subproblem.
  - The root represents the cost of the entire problem.
  - Leaf nodes represent boundary values.
  - Summing up the costs of all the problems at a level gives us the per-level cost.
  - Adding up all the per-level costs gives us the total cost of the entire problem.
  - One can use the recursion tree to arrive at a good guess and then verify the guess as in the substitution method.

# The Recursion Tree Method – Example

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- $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)$



# A General Method

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- There is a general way to solve recurrence relations.
- (Masters Theorem) Let  $a \geq 1$ ,  $b > 1$  be constants and  $f(n)$  be a function. Let  $T(n)$  be defined as  $T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$ . Then  $T(n)$  can be bounded as follows.
  - If  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$  for some constant  $\epsilon > 0$ , then  $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$ .
  - If  $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$  then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \log n)$ .
  - If  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$  for some constant  $\epsilon > 0$ , and if  $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$  for some constant  $c < 1$  all sufficiently large  $n$  then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ .

# Master's Theorem

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- Compares  $f(n)$  with  $n^{\log_b a}$  and decides which term dominates the solution to  $T(n)$ .
- If  $f(n)$  is smaller than  $n^{\log_b a}$  by a significant margin, then  $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$ .
- If  $f(n)$  has the same growth rate as  $n^{\log_b a}$  then,  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \cdot \log n)$ .
- If  $f(n)$  has a higher growth rate than  $n^{\log_b a}$  then, and certain conditions hold, then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ .

# Examples to Master's Theorem

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- Consider our earlier recurrence  $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n$ .
  - Here,  $f(n) = n$ ,  $a = 2$ ,  $b = 2$ .
  - $n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_2 2} = n$ . This indicates that  $f(n)$  and  $n^{\log_b a}$  have the same growth rate.
  - So, case ii of the theorem applies.
  - The solution is therefore,  $T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$ .

# Another Example

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- Consider  $T(n) = 7T(n/2) + 8n^2$ .
  - We have,  $f(n) = 8n^2$ ,  $a = 7$ , and  $b = 2$ .
  - $n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_2 7}$ . Notice that  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_2 7})$ .
  - Hence, case i of the theorem applies.
  - Therefore,  $T(n) = O(n^{\log_b a})$ .
  - Note: There is a matrix multiplication algorithm with the above recurrence. Read about the four Russian's algorithm or Strassen's algorithm.

# Master's Theorem

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- Does not apply to all cases.
  - It may happen that none of the three conditions hold.
  - Or the recurrence relation is not in the given form.
- But, a useful tool in most cases.

# Lab Session

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- The lab shall be used to implement a few algorithms with orders  $O(n)$ ,  $O(\log n)$ ,  $O(n^2)$ ,  $O(n \log n)$ , and  $O(n^3)$  and try to time these algorithms and plot them on a common plot.