To go from city "*A*" to city "*B*", there can be many ways of accomplishing this: by flight, by bus, by train and also by bicycle. Depending on the availability and convenience, we choose the one that suits us. Similarly, in computer science, multiple algorithms are available for solving the same problem (for example, a sorting problem has many algorithms, like insertion sort, selection sort, quick sort and many more). Algorithm analysis helps us to determine which algorithm is most efficient in terms of time and space consumed.

1.7 Goal of the Analysis of Algorithms

The goal of the *analysis of algorithms* is to compare algorithms (or solutions) mainly in terms of running time but also in terms of other factors (e.g., memory, developer effort, etc.)

1.8 What is Running Time Analysis?

It is the process of determining how processing time increases as the size of the problem (input size) increases. Input size is the number of elements in the input, and depending on the problem type, the input may be of different types. The following are the common types of inputs.

- Size of an array
- Polynomial degree
- Number of elements in a matrix
- Number of bits in the binary representation of the input
- Vertices and edges in a graph.

1.9 How to Compare Algorithms

To compare algorithms, let us define a *few objective measures:*

Execution times? *Not a good measure* as execution times are specific to a particular computer.

Number of statements executed? *Not a good measure*, since the number of statements varies with the programming language as well as the style of the individual programmer.

Ideal solution? Let us assume that we express the running time of a given algorithm as a function of the input size n (i.e., $f(n)$) and compare these different functions corresponding to running times. This kind of comparison is independent of machine time, programming style, etc.

1.10 What is Rate of Growth?

The rate at which the running time increases as a function of input is called *rate of growth*. Let us

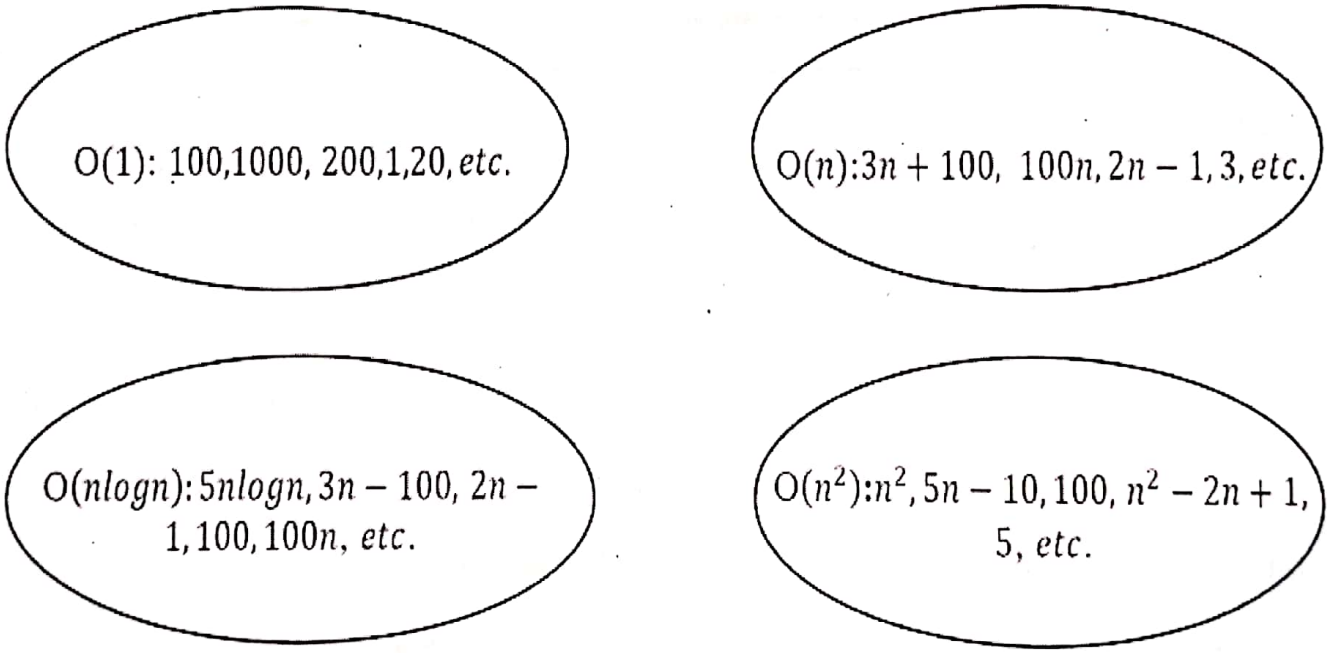
Let us see the O–notation with a little more detail. O–notation defined as $O(g(n)) = \{f(n)$: there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that $0 \le f(n) \le cg(n)$ for all $n > n_0\}$. $g(n)$ is an asymptotic tight upper bound for $f(n)$. Our objective is to give the smallest rate of growth $g(n)$ which is greater than or equal to the given algorithms' rate of growth $f(n)$.

Generally we discard lower values of n. That means the rate of growth at lower values of n is not important. In the figure, n_0 is the point from which we need to consider the rate of growth for a given algorithm. Below n_0, the rate of growth could be different. n_0 is called threshold for the given function.

Big-O Visualization

$O(g(n))$ is the set of functions with smaller or the same order of growth as $g(n)$. For example; $O(n^2)$ includes $O(1)$, $O(n)$, $O(nlogn)$, etc.

Note: Analyze the algorithms at larger values of n only. What this means is, below n_0 we do not care about the rate of growth.



Big-O Examples

Example-1 Find upper bound for $f(n) = 3n + 8$

Solution: $3n + 8 \le 4n$, for all $n \ge 8$

$\therefore 3n + 8 = O(n)$ with $c = 4$ and $n_0 = 8$

Example-2 Find upper bound for $f(n) = n^2 + 1$

Solution: $n^2 + 1 \leq 2n^2$, for all $n \geq 1$

$\therefore n^2 + 1 = O(n^2)$ with $c = 2$ and $n_0 = 1$

Example-3 Find upper bound for $f(n) = n^4 + 100n^2 + 50$

Solution: $n^4 + 100n^2 + 50 \leq 2n^4$, for all $n \geq 11$

$\therefore n^4 + 100n^2 + 50 = O(n^4)$ with $c = 2$ and $n_0 = 11$

Example-4 Find upper bound for $f(n) = 2n^3 - 2n^2$

Solution: $2n^3 - 2n^2 \leq 2n^3$, for all $n > 1$

$\therefore 2n^3 - 2n^2 = O(n^3)$ with $c = 2$ and $n_0 = 1$

Example-5 Find upper bound for $f(n) = n$

Solution: $n \leq n$, for all $n \geq 1$

$\therefore n = O(n)$ with $c = 1$ and $n_0 = 1$

Example-6 Find upper bound for $f(n) = 410$

Solution: $410 \leq 410$, for all $n > 1$

$\therefore 410 = O(1)$ with $c = 1$ and $n_0 = 1$

No Uniqueness?

There is no unique set of values for n_0 and c in proving the asymptotic bounds. Let us consider, $100n + 5 = O(n)$. For this function there are multiple n_0 and c values possible.

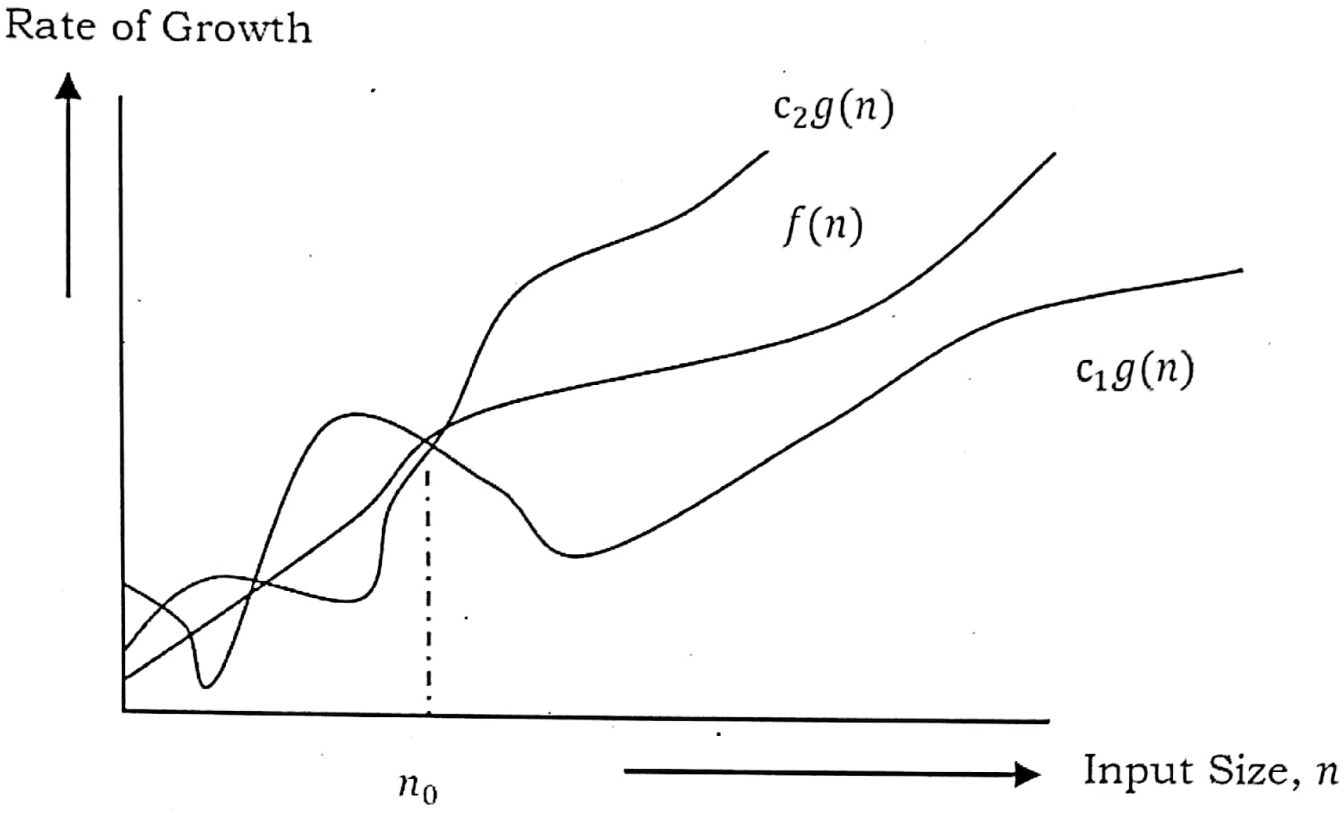
Solution1: $100n + 5 \leq 100n + n = 101n \leq 101n$, for all $n \geq 5$, $n_0 = 5$ and $c = 101$ is a solution.

Solution2: $100n + 5 \leq 100n + 5n = 105n \leq 105n$, for all $n > 1$, $n_0 = 1$ and $c = 105$ is also a solution.

1.15 Omega-Q Notation [Lower Bounding Function]

Similar to the O discussion, this notation gives the tighter lower bound of the given algorithm and we represent it as $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$. That means, at larger values of n, the tighter lower bound of $f(n)$ is $g(n)$. For example, if $f(n) = 100n^2 + 10n + 50$, $g(n)$ is $\Omega(n^2)$.

1.16 Theta-Θ Notation [Order Function]



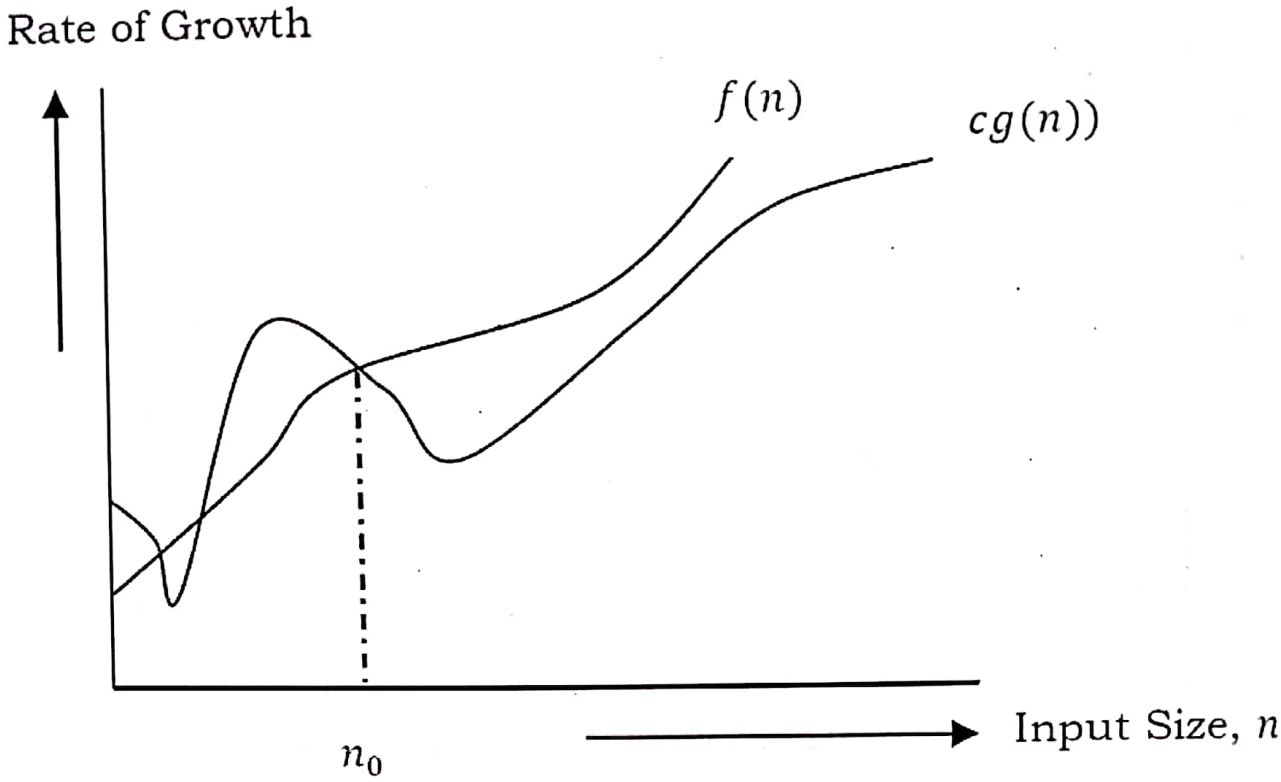
This notation decides whether the upper and lower bounds of a given function (algorithm) are the same. The average running time of an algorithm is always between the lower bound and the upper bound. If the upper bound (O) and lower bound (Ω) give the same result, then the Θ notation will also have the same rate of growth.

As an example, let us assume that $f(n) = 10n + n$ is the expression. Then, its tight upper bound $g(n)$ is $O(n)$. The rate of growth in the best case is $g(n) = O(n)$.

In this case, the rates of growth in the best case and worst case are the same. As a result, the average case will also be the same. For a given function (algorithm), if the rates of growth (bounds) for O and Ω are not the same, then the rate of growth for the Θ case may not be the same. In this case, we need to consider all possible time complexities and take the average of those (for example, for a quick sort average case, refer to the *Sorting* chapter).

Now consider the definition *of* Θ notation. It is defined as $\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n)$: there exist positive constants c_1, c_2 and n_0 such that $0 \leq c_1g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2g(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0\}$. $g(n)$ is an asymptotic tight bound for $f(n)$. $\Theta(g(n))$ is the set of functions with the same order of growth as $g(n)$.

Θ Examples



The Ω notation can be defined as Ω(g(n)) = {f(n): there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that $0 \le cg(n) \le f(n)$ for all $n \ge n_0$}. $g(n)$ is an asymptotic tight lower bound for $f(n)$. Our objective is to give the largest rate of growth $g(n)$ which is less than or equal to the given algorithm's rate of growth $f(n)$.

Ω Examples

Example-1 Find lower bound for $f(n) = 5n^2$.

Solution: ∃ c, n_0 Such that: $0 \le cn^2 \le 5n^2 \Rightarrow cn^2 \le 5n^2 \Rightarrow c = 5$ and $n_0 = 1$

$\therefore 5n^2 = \Omega(n^2)$ with $c = 5$ and $n_0 = 1$

Example-2 Prove $f(n) = 100n + 5 \neq \Omega(n^2)$.

Solution: ∃ c, n_0 Such that: $0 \le cn^2 \le 100n + 5$

$100n + 5 \le 100n + 5n (\forall n \ge 1) = 105n$

$cn^2 \le 105n \Rightarrow n(cn - 105) \le 0$

Since n is positive $\Rightarrow cn - 105 \le 0 \Rightarrow n \le 105/c$

⇒ Contradiction: n cannot be smaller than a constant

Example-3 $2n = Q(n)$, $n^3 = Q(n^3)$, $= O(logn)$.

Example 1 Find Θ bound for $f(n) = \frac{n^2}{2} - \frac{n}{2}$

Solution: $\frac{n^2}{5} \leq \frac{n^2}{2} - \frac{n}{2} \leq n^2$ for all, $n \geq 2$

$\therefore \frac{n^2}{2} - \frac{n}{2} = \Theta(n^2)$ with $c_1 = 1/5, c_2 = 1$ and $n_0 = 2$

Example 2 Prove $n \neq \Theta(n^2)$

Solution: $c_1 n^2 \leq n \leq c_2 n^2 \Rightarrow$ only holds for: $n \leq 1/c_1$

$\therefore n \neq \Theta(n^2)$

Example 3 Prove $6n^3 \neq \Theta(n^2)$

Solution: $c_1 n^2 \leq 6n^3 \leq c_2 n^2 \Rightarrow$ only holds for: $n \leq c_2/6$

$\therefore 6n^3 \neq \Theta(n^2)$

Example 4 Prove $n \neq \Theta(logn)$

Solution: $c_1 logn \leq n \leq c_2 logn \Rightarrow c_2 \geq \frac{n}{\log n}$, $\forall n \geq n_0$ – Impossible

1.17 Important Notes

For analysis (best case, worst case and average), we try to give the upper bound (O) and lower bound (Ω) and average running time (Θ). From the above examples, it should also be clear that, for a given function (algorithm), getting the upper bound (O) and lower bound (Ω) and average running time (Θ) may not always be possible. For example, if we are discussing the best case of an algorithm, we try to give the upper bound (O) and lower bound (Ω) and average running time (Θ).

In the remaining chapters, we generally focus on the upper bound (O) because knowing the lower bound (Ω) of an algorithm is of no practical importance, and we use the Θ notation if the upper bound (O) and lower bound (Ω) are the same.

1.18 Why is it called Asymptotic Analysis?

From the discussion above (for all three notations: worst case, best case, and average case), we can easily understand that, in every case for a given function $f(n)$ we are trying to find another function $g(n)$ which approximates $f(n)$ at higher values of n. That means $g(n)$ is also a curve which approximates $f(n)$ at higher values of n.

In mathematics we call such a curve an *asymptotic curve*. In other terms, $g(n)$ is the asymptotic

curve for $f(n)$. For this reason, we call algorithm analysis *asymptotic analysis.*

1.19 Guidelines for Asymptotic Analysis

There are some general rules to help us determine the running time of an algorithm.

1) **Loops:** The running time of a loop is, at most, the running time of the statements inside the loop (including tests) multiplied by the number of iterations.

```
// executes n times
for (i=1; i<=n; i++)
    m = m + 2; // constant time, c
```

Total time = a constant $c \times n = c\,n = O(n)$.

2) **Nested loops:** Analyze from the inside out. Total running time is the product of the sizes of all the loops.

```
//outer loop executed n times
for (i=1; i<=n; i++) {
    // inner loop executes n times
    for (j=1; j<=n; j++)
        k = k+1; //constant time
}
```

Total time = $c \times n \times n = cn^2 = O(n^2)$.

3) **Consecutive statements:** Add the time complexities of each statement.

```
x = x +1; //constant time
// executes n times
for (i=1; i<=n; i++)
    m = m + 2; //constant time
//outer loop executes n times
for (i=1; i<=n; i++) {
    //inner loop executed n times
    for (j=1; j<=n; j++)
        k = k+1; //constant time
}
```

Total time = $c_0 + c_1 n + c_2 n^2 = O(n^2)$.

4) **If-then-else statements:** Worst-case running time: the test, plus *either* the *then* part *or* the *else* part (whichever is the larger).

```
//test: constant
if(length( ) == 0 ) {
    return false; //then part: constant
}
else {// else part: (constant + constant) * n
    for (int n = 0; n < length( ); n++) {
      // another if : constant + constant (no else part)
      if(!list[n].equals(otherList.list[n]))
          //constant
        return false;
    }
}
```

Total time = $c_0 + c_1 + (c_2 + c_3) * n = O(n)$.

5) **Logarithmic complexity:** An algorithm is O(*logn*) if it takes a constant time to cut the problem size by a fraction (usually by ½). As an example let us consider the following program:

```
for (i=1; i<=n;)
    i = i*2;
```

If we observe carefully, the value of i is doubling every time. Initially $i = 1$, in next step $i = 2$, and in subsequent steps $i = 4,8$ and so on. Let us assume that the loop is executing some k times. At k^{th} step $2^k = n$, and at $(k + 1)^{th}$ step we come out of the *loop*. Taking logarithm on both sides, gives

$$log(2^k) = logn$$
$$klog2 = logn$$
$$k = logn \qquad //\text{if we assume base-2}$$

Total time = O(*logn*).

Note: Similarly, for the case below, the worst case rate of growth is O(*logn*). The same discussion holds good for the decreasing sequence as well.

```
for (i=n; i>=1;)
    i = i/2;
```

Another example: binary search (finding a word in a dictionary of n pages)

- Look at the center point in the dictionary
- Is the word towards the left or right of center?
- Repeat the process with the left or right part of the dictionary until the word is found.

1.20 Simplyfying properties of asymptotic notations

- Transitivity: $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ and $g(n) = \Theta(h(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = \Theta(h(n))$. Valid for O and Ω as well.
- Reflexivity: $f(n) = \Theta(f(n))$. Valid for O and Ω.
- Symmetry: $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if and only if $g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.
- Transpose symmetry: $f(n) = O(g(n))$ if and only if $g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$.
- If $f(n)$ is in $O(kg(n))$ for any constant $k > 0$, then $f(n)$ is in $O(g(n))$.
- If $f_1(n)$ is in $O(g_1(n))$ and $f_2(n)$ is in $O(g_2(n))$, then $(f_1 + f_2)(n)$ is in $O(\max(g_1(n)), (g_1(n)))$.
- If $f_1(n)$ is in $O(g_1(n))$ and $f_2(n)$ is in $O(g_2(n))$ then $f_1(n)\ f_2(n)$ is in $O(g_1(n)\ g_1(n))$.

1.21 Commonly used Logarithms and Summations

Logarithms

$\log x^y = y \log x$ $\quad\quad$ $\log n = \log_{10}^n$

$\log xy = \log x + \log y$ $\quad\quad$ $\log^k n = (\log n)^k$

$\log \log n = \log(\log n)$ $\quad\quad$ $\log \frac{x}{y} = \log x - \log y$

$a^{\log_b^x} = x^{\log_b^a}$ $\quad\quad$ $\log_b^x = \frac{\log_a^x}{\log_a^b}$

Arithmetic series

$$\sum_{K=1}^{n} k = 1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Geometric series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} x^k = 1 + x + x^2 \ldots + x^n = \frac{x^{n+1} - 1}{x - 1} (x \neq 1)$$

Harmonic series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \ldots + \frac{1}{n} \approx \log n$$

Other important formulae

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \log k \approx n \log n$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^p = 1^p + 2^p + \cdots + n^p \approx \frac{1}{p+1} n^{p+1}$$

1.22 Master Theorem for Divide and Conquer Recurrences

All divide and conquer algorithms (also discussed in detail in the *Divide and Conquer* chapter) divide the problem into sub-problems, each of which is part of the original problem, and then perform some additional work to compute the final answer. As an example, a merge sort algorithm [for details, refer to *Sorting* chapter] operates on two sub-problems, each of which is half the size of the original, and then performs O(n) additional work for merging. This gives the

running time equation:

$$T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n)$$

The following theorem can be used to determine the running time of divide and conquer algorithms. For a given program (algorithm), first we try to find the recurrence relation for the problem. If the recurrence is of the below form then we can directly give the answer without fully solving it. If the recurrence is of the form $T(n) = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + \Theta(n^k log^p n)$, where $a \geq 1, b > 1, k \geq 0$ and p is a real number, then:

1) If $a > b^k$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{log_b^a})$
2) If $a = b^k$
   a. If $p > -1$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{log_b^a} log^{p+1} n)$
   b. If $p = -1$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{log_b^a} loglogn)$
   c. If $p < -1$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^{log_b^a})$
3) If $a < b^k$
   a. If $p \geq 0$, then $T(n) = \Theta(n^k log^p n)$
   b. If $p < 0$, then $T(n) = O(n^k)$

1.23 Divide and Conquer Master Theorem: Problems & Solutions

For each of the following recurrences, give an expression for the runtime $T(n)$ if the recurrence can be solved with the Master Theorem. Otherwise, indicate that the Master Theorem does not apply.

Problem-1 $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + n^2$
Solution: $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + n^2 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$ (Master Theorem Case 3.a)

Problem-2 $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$
Solution: $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2 logn)$ (Master Theorem Case 2.a)

Problem-3 $T(n) = T(n/2) + n^2$
Solution: $T(n) = T(n/2) + n^2 \Rightarrow \Theta(n^2)$ (Master Theorem Case 3.a)

Problem-4 $T(n) = 2^n T(n/2) + n^n$
Solution: $T(n) = 2^n T(n/2) + n^n \Rightarrow$ Does not apply (a is not constant)

Problem-5 $T(n) = 16T(n/4) + n$
Solution: $T(n) = 16T(n/4) + n \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$ (Master Theorem Case 1)

Problem-6 $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + nlogn$

Solution: $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + nlogn \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(nlog^2n)$ (Master Theorem Case 2.a)

Problem-7 $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n/logn$
Solution: $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n/logn \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(nloglogn)$ (Master Theorem Case 2. b)

Problem-8 $T(n) = 2T(n/4) + n^{051}$
Solution: $T(n) = 2T(n/4) + n^{051} \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{0.51})$ (Master Theorem Case 3.b)

Problem-9 $T(n) = 0.5T(n/2) + 1/n$
Solution: $T(n) = 0.5T(n/2) + 1/n$ => Does not apply ($a < 1$)

Problem-10 $T(n) = 6T(n/3) + n^2 logn$
Solution: $T(n) = 6T(n/3) + n^2logn \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2logn)$ (Master Theorem Case 3.a)

Problem-11 $T(n) = 64T(n/8) - n^2logn$
Solution: $T(n) = 64T(n/8) - n^2logn$ => Does not apply (function is not positive)

Problem-12 $T(n) = 7T(n/3) + n^2$
Solution: $T(n) = 7T(n/3) + n^2 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$ (Master Theorem Case 3.as)

Problem-13 $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + logn$
Solution: $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + logn \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$ (Master Theorem Case 1)

Problem-14 $T(n) = 16T(n/4) + n!$
Solution: $T(n) = 16T(n/4) + n! \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n!)$ (Master Theorem Case 3.a)

Problem-15 $T(n) = \sqrt{2}T(n/2) + logn$
Solution: $T(n) = \sqrt{2}T(n/2) + logn \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(\sqrt{n})$ (Master Theorem Case 1)

Problem-16 $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + n$
Solution: $T(n) = 3T(n/2) + n \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{log3})$ (Master Theorem Case 1)

Problem-17 $T(n) = 3T(n/3) + \sqrt{n}$
Solution: $T(n) = 3T(n/3) + \sqrt{n} \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n)$ (Master Theorem Case 1)

Problem-18 $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + cn$
Solution: $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + cn \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$ (Master Theorem Case 1)

Problem-19 $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + nlogn$
Solution: $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + nlogn \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(nlogn)$ (Master Theorem Case 3.a)

Problem-20 $T(n) = 3T(n/3) + n/2$
Solution: $T(n) = 3T(n/3) + n/2 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(nlogn)$ (Master Theorem Case 2.a)

1.24 Master Theorem for Subtract and Conquer Recurrences

Let $T(n)$ be a function defined on positive n, and having the property

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c, & \text{if } n \leq 1 \\ aT(n-b) + f(n), & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

for some constants $c, a > 0, b \geq 0, k \geq 0$, and function $f(n)$. If $f(n)$ is in $O(n^k)$, then

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^k), & \text{if } a < 1 \\ O(n^{k+1}), & \text{if } a = 1 \\ O\left(n^k a^{\frac{n}{b}}\right), & \text{if } a > 1 \end{cases}$$

1.25 Variant of Subtraction and Conquer Master Theorem

The solution to the equation $T(n) = T(\alpha n) + T((1-\alpha)n) + \beta n$, where $0 < \alpha < 1$ and $\beta > 0$ are constants, is $O(nlogn)$.

1.26 Method of Guessing and Confirming

Now, let us discuss a method which can be used to solve any recurrence. The basic idea behind this method is:

guess the answer; and then *prove* it correct by induction.

In other words, it addresses the question: What if the given recurrence doesn't seem to match with any of these (master theorem) methods? If we guess a solution and then try to verify our guess inductively, usually either the proof will succeed (in which case we are done), or the proof will fail (in which case the failure will help us refine our guess).

As an example, consider the recurrence $T(n) = \sqrt{n}\, T(\sqrt{n}) + n$. This doesn't fit into the form required by the Master Theorems. Carefully observing the recurrence gives us the impression that it is similar to the divide and conquer method (dividing the problem into $\sqrt{n}$ subproblems each with size $\sqrt{n}$). As we can see, the size of the subproblems at the first level of recursion is n. So, let us guess that $T(n) = O(nlogn)$, and then try to prove that our guess is correct.

Let's start by trying to prove an *upper* bound $T(n) < cnlogn$:

2.3 Why Recursion?

Recursion is a useful technique borrowed from mathematics. Recursive code is generally shorter and easier to write than iterative code. Generally, loops are turned into recursive functions when they are compiled or interpreted.

Recursion is most useful for tasks that can be defined in terms of similar subtasks. For example, sort, search, and traversal problems often have simple recursive solutions.

2.4 Format of a Recursive Function

A recursive function performs a task in part by calling itself to perform the subtasks. At some point, the function encounters a subtask that it can perform without calling itself. This case, where the function does not recur, is called the *base case*. The former, where the function calls itself to perform a subtask, is referred to as the *ecursive case*. We can write all recursive functions using the format:

```
if(test for the base case)
   return some base case value
else if(test for another base case)
   return some other base case value
// the recursive case
else
   return (some work and then a recursive call)
```

As an example consider the factorial function: $n!$ is the product of all integers between n and 1. The definition of recursive factorial looks like:

$$n! = 1, \quad \text{if } n = 0$$
$$n! = n * (n-1)! \text{ if } n > 0$$

This definition can easily be converted to recursive implementation. Here the problem is determining the value of $n!$, and the subproblem is determining the value of $(n - 1)!$. In the recursive case, when n is greater than 1, the function calls itself to determine the value of $(n - 1)!$ and multiplies that with n.

In the base case, when n is 0 or 1, the function simply returns 1. This looks like the following:

```
// calculates factorial of a positive integer
int Fact(int n) {
  if(n == 1)   // base cases: fact of 0 or 1 is 1
    return 1;
  else if(n == 0)
    return 1;
  else    // recursive case: multiply n by (n – 1) factorial
    return n*Fact(n-1);
}
```

2.5 Recursion and Memory (Visualization)

Each recursive call makes a new copy of that method (actually only the variables) in memory. Once a method ends (that is, returns some data), the copy of that returning method is removed from memory. The recursive solutions look simple but visualization and tracing takes time. For better understanding, let us consider the following example.

```
//print numbers 1 to n backward
int Print(int n) {
 if( n = = 0) // this is the terminating base case
    return 0;
 else {
    printf ("%d",n);
    return Print(n-1);       // recursive call to itself again
 }
}
```

For this example, if we call the print function with n=4, visually our memory assignments may look like:

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= \sqrt{n}\, T(\sqrt{n}) + n \\ &\leq \sqrt{n}.\, c\sqrt{n}\, log\sqrt{n} + n \\ &= n.\, c\, log\sqrt{n} + n \\ &= n.c.\frac{1}{2}.logn + n \\ &\leq cnlogn \end{aligned}$$

The last inequality assumes only that $1 \leq c.\frac{1}{2}.logn$. This is correct if n is sufficiently large and for any constant c, no matter how small. From the above proof, we can see that our guess is correct for the upper bound. Now, let us prove the *lower* bound for this recurrence.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= \sqrt{n}\, T(\sqrt{n}) + n \\ &\geq \sqrt{n}.\, k\sqrt{n}\, log\sqrt{n} + n \\ &= n.\, k\, log\sqrt{n} + n \\ &= n.k.\frac{1}{2}.logn + n \\ &\geq knlogn \end{aligned}$$

The last inequality assumes only that $1 \geq k.\frac{1}{2}.logn$. This is incorrect if n is sufficiently large and for any constant k. From the above proof, we can see that our guess is incorrect for the lower bound.

From the above discussion, we understood that $\Theta(nlogn)$ is too big. How about $\Theta(n)$? The lower bound is easy to prove directly:

$$T(n) = \sqrt{n}\, T(\sqrt{n}) + n \quad \geq n$$

Now, let us prove the upper bound for this $\Theta(n)$.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= \sqrt{n}\, T(\sqrt{n}) + n \\ &\leq \sqrt{n}.c.\sqrt{n} + n \\ &= n.\, c + n \\ &= n\,(c + 1) \\ &\not\leq cn \end{aligned}$$

From the above induction, we understood that $\Theta(n)$ is too small and $\Theta(nlogn)$ is too big. So, we need something bigger than n and smaller than $nlogn$. How about $n\sqrt{logn}$?

Proving the upper bound for $n\sqrt{logn}$:

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(n) &= \sqrt{n}\,T(\sqrt{n}) + n \\
&\leq \sqrt{n}.c.\sqrt{n}\sqrt{log\sqrt{n}} + n \\
&= n.\ c.\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\ log\sqrt{n} + n \\
&\leq cnlog\sqrt{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proving the lower bound for $n\sqrt{logn}$:

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(n) &= \sqrt{n}\,T(\sqrt{n}) + n \\
&\geq \sqrt{n}.k.\sqrt{n}\sqrt{log\sqrt{n}} + n \\
&= n.\ k.\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\ log\sqrt{n} + n \\
&\not\geq knlog\sqrt{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

The last step doesn't work. So, $\Theta(n\sqrt{logn})$ doesn't work. What else is between *n* and *nlogn*? How about *nloglogn*? Proving upper bound for *nloglogn:*

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(n) &= \sqrt{n}\,T(\sqrt{n}) + n \\
&\leq \sqrt{n}.c.\sqrt{n}loglog\sqrt{n} + n \\
&= n.\ c.loglogn\text{-}c.n + n \\
&\leq cnloglogn, \text{ if } c \geq 1
\end{aligned}
$$

Proving lower bound for *nloglogn:*

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(n) &= \sqrt{n}\,T(\sqrt{n}) + n \\
&\geq \sqrt{n}.k.\sqrt{n}loglog\sqrt{n} + n \\
&= n.\ k.loglogn\text{-}k.n + n \\
&\geq knloglogn, \text{ if } k \leq 1
\end{aligned}
$$

From the above proofs, we can see that $T(n) \leq cnloglogn$, if $c \geq 1$ and $T(n) \geq knloglogn$, if $k \leq 1$. Technically, we're still missing the base cases in both proofs, but we can be fairly confident at this point that $T(n) = \Theta(nloglogn)$.

1.27 Amortized Analysis