

# Analysis of Algorithms, I

## CSOR W4231

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Asymptotic notation, mergesort, recurrences

- 1 Asymptotic notation
- 2 The divide & conquer principle; application: mergesort
- 3 Solving recurrences and running time of mergesort

# Review of the last lecture

- ▶ Introduced the problem of **sorting**.
- ▶ Analyzed **insertion-sort**.
  - ▶ Worst-case running time:  $T(n) = \frac{3n^2}{2} + \frac{7n}{2} - 4$
  - ▶ Space: **in-place** algorithm
- ▶ **Worst-case running time analysis**: a reasonable measure of algorithmic efficiency.
- ▶ Defined polynomial-time algorithms as “efficient”.
- ▶ Argued that detailed characterizations of running times are not convenient for understanding scalability of algorithms.

# Running time in terms of # primitive steps

We need a coarser classification of running times of algorithms; exact characterizations

- ▶ are **too detailed**;
- ▶ do not reveal similarities between running times in an immediate way as  $n$  grows large;
- ▶ are often **meaningless**: high-level language steps will **expand** by a constant factor that depends on the hardware.

# Today

- 1 Asymptotic notation
- 2 The divide & conquer principle; application: mergesort
- 3 Solving recurrences and running time of mergesort

# Asymptotic analysis

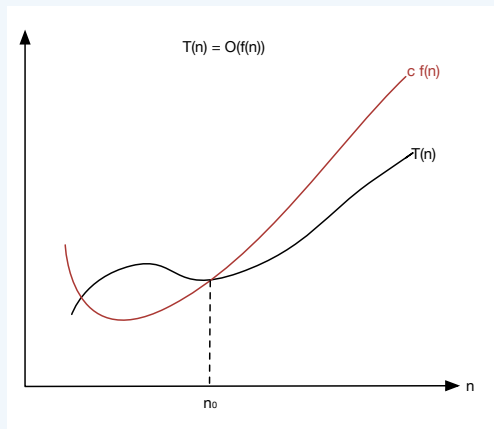
A framework that will allow us to compare the **rate of growth** of different running times as the input size  $n$  grows.

- ▶ We will express the running time as a function of the number of primitive steps; the latter is a function of the input size  $n$ .
- ▶ To compare functions expressing running times, **we will ignore their low-order terms and focus solely on the highest-order term.**

# Asymptotic upper bounds: Big- $O$ notation

## Definition 1 ( $O$ ).

We say that  $T(n) = O(f(n))$  if there exist constants  $c > 0$  and  $n_0 \geq 0$  s.t. for all  $n \geq n_0$ , we have  $T(n) \leq c \cdot f(n)$ .



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Examples: Show that  $T(n) = O(f(n))$  when

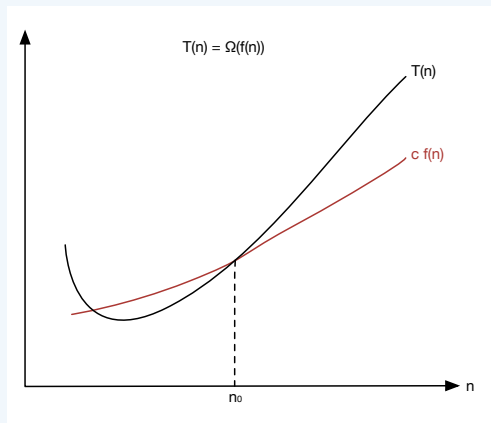
- ▶  $T(n) = an^2 + b$ ,  $a, b > 0$  constants and  $f(n) = n^2$ .
- ▶  $T(n) = an^2 + b$  and  $f(n) = n^3$ .



# Asymptotic lower bounds: Big- $\Omega$ notation

## Definition 2 ( $\Omega$ ).

We say that  $T(n) = \Omega(f(n))$  if there exist constants  $c > 0$  and  $n_0 \geq 0$  s.t. for all  $n \geq n_0$ , we have  $T(n) \geq c \cdot f(n)$ .



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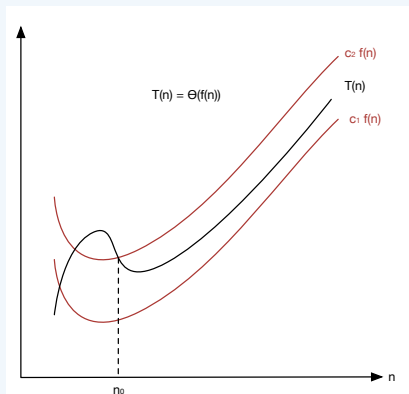
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# Asymptotic tight bounds: $\Theta$ notation

## Definition 3 ( $\Theta$ ).

We say that  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$  if there exist constants  $c_1, c_2 > 0$  and  $n_0 \geq 0$  s.t. for all  $n \geq n_0$ , we have

$$c_1 \cdot f(n) \leq T(n) \leq c_2 \cdot f(n).$$



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## Equivalent definition

$T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$  if  $T(n) = O(f(n))$  and  $T(n) = \Omega(f(n))$

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**Notational convention:**  $\log n$  stands for  $\log_2 n$

Examples: Show that  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$  when

- ▶  $T(n) = an^2 + b$ ,  $a, b > 0$  constants and  $f(n) = n^2$
- ▶  $T(n) = n \log n + n$  and  $f(n) = n \log n$

## Asymptotic upper bounds that are **not** tight: little- $o$

### Definition 4 ( $o$ ).

We say that  $T(n) = o(f(n))$  if, **for any** constant  $c > 0$ , there exists a constant  $n_0 \geq 0$  such that for all  $n \geq n_0$ , we have  $T(n) < c \cdot f(n)$  .

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- ▶ Proof by showing that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{T(n)}{f(n)} = 0$  (if the limit exists).

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Examples: Show that  $T(n) = \omega(f(n))$  when

- ▶  $T(n) = n^2$  and  $f(n) = n \log n$ .
- ▶  $T(n) = 2^n$  and  $f(n) = n^5$ .

# Basic rules for omitting low order terms from functions

1. Ignore **multiplicative** factors: e.g.,  $10n^3$  becomes  $n^3$
  2.  $n^a$  dominates  $n^b$  if  $a > b$ : e.g.,  $n^2$  dominates  $n$
  3. Exponentials dominate polynomials: e.g.,  $2^n$  dominates  $n^4$
  4. Polynomials dominate logarithms: e.g.,  $n$  dominates  $\log^3 n$
- $\Rightarrow$  For large enough  $n$ ,

$$\log n < n < n \log n < n^2 < 2^n < 3^n < n^n$$

# Properties of asymptotic growth rates

## 1. Transitivity

1.1 If  $f = O(g)$  and  $g = O(h)$ , then  $f = O(h)$ .

1.2 If  $f = \Omega(g)$  and  $g = \Omega(h)$ , then  $f = \Omega(h)$ .

1.3 If  $f = \Theta(g)$  and  $g = \Theta(h)$ , then  $f = \Theta(h)$ .

## 2. Sums of up to a constant number of functions

2.1 If  $f = O(h)$  and  $g = O(h)$ , then  $f + g = O(h)$ .

2.2 Let  $k$  be a fixed constant, and let  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_k, h$  be functions such that for all  $i$ ,  $f_i = O(h)$ . Then  
$$f_1 + f_2 + \dots + f_k = O(h).$$

## 3. Transpose symmetry

►  $f = O(g)$  if and only if  $g = \Omega(f)$ .

►  $f = o(g)$  if and only if  $g = \omega(f)$ .

# Today

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- 2 The divide & conquer principle; application: mergesort
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# The divide & conquer principle

- ▶ **Divide** the problem into a number of subproblems that are smaller instances of the same problem.
- ▶ **Conquer** the subproblems by solving them recursively.
- ▶ **Combine** the solutions to the subproblems to get the solution to the overall problem.

# Divide & Conquer applied to sorting

- ▶ **Divide** the problem into a number of subproblems that are smaller instances of the same problem.  
Divide the input array into two lists of equal size.
- ▶ **Conquer** the subproblems by solving them recursively.  
Sort each list recursively. (Stop when lists have size 2.)
- ▶ **Combine** the solutions to the subproblems into the solution for the original problem.  
Merge the two sorted lists and output the sorted array.



# mergesort: pseudocode

```
mergesort ( $A, left, right$ )  
  if  $right == left$  then return  
  end if  
   $mid = left + \lfloor (right - left)/2 \rfloor$   
  mergesort ( $A, left, mid$ )  
  mergesort ( $A, mid + 1, right$ )  
  merge ( $A, left, right, mid$ )
```

## Remarks

- ▶ mergesort is a recursive procedure (*why?*)
- ▶ Initial call: mergesort( $A, 1, n$ )
- ▶ Subroutine merge merges two **sorted** lists of sizes  $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor, \lceil n/2 \rceil$  into one sorted list of size  $n$ . *How can we accomplish this?*

**Intuition:** To merge two sorted lists of size  $n/2$  repeatedly

- ▶ compare the two items in the front of the two lists;
- ▶ extract the smaller item and append it to the output;
- ▶ update the front of the list from which the item was extracted.

Example:  $n = 8$ ,  $L = \{1, 3, 5, 7\}$ ,  $R = \{2, 6, 8, 10\}$

## merge: pseudocode

**merge** ( $A, left, right, mid$ )

$L = A[left, mid]$

$R = A[mid + 1, right]$

Maintain two pointers  $p_L, p_R$ , initialized to point to the first elements of  $L, R$ , respectively

**while** both lists are nonempty **do**

    Let  $x, y$  be the elements pointed to by  $p_L, p_R$

    Compare  $x, y$  and append the smaller to the output

    Advance the pointer in the list with the smaller of  $x, y$

**end while**

Append the remainder of the non-empty list to the output.

**Remark:** the output is stored directly in  $A[left, right]$ , thus the subarray  $A[left, right]$  is sorted after  $\text{merge}(A, left, right, mid)$ .

## merge: optional exercises

**Optional exercise 1:** write detailed pseudocode or actual code for merge

**Optional exercise 2:** write a recursive merge

# Analysis of merge

1. **Correctness**
2. **Running time**
3. **Space**

# Analysis of merge: correctness

1. **Correctness:** by induction on the size of the two lists  
(recommended exercise)
2. **Running time**
3. **Space**

## merge: pseudocode

**merge** ( $A, left, right, mid$ )

$L = A[left, mid]$   $\rightarrow$  **not** a primitive computational step!

$R = A[mid + 1, right]$   $\rightarrow$  **not** a primitive computational step!

Maintain two pointers  $p_L, p_R$  initialized to point to the first elements of  $L, R$ , respectively

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Append the remainder of the non-empty list to the output.

**Remark:** the output is stored directly in  $A[left, right]$ , thus the subarray  $A[left, right]$  is sorted after  $\text{merge}(A, left, right, mid)$ .

# Analysis of merge: running time

1. **Correctness:** by induction on the size of the two lists  
(recommended exercise)
2. **Running time:**
  - ▶ Suppose  $L, R$  have  $n/2$  elements each
  - ▶ *How many iterations before all elements from both lists have been appended to the output?*
  - ▶ *How much work within each iteration?*
3. **Space**



# Analysis of merge: space

1. **Correctness:** by induction on the size of the two lists  
(recommended exercise)
2. **Running time:**
  - ▶  $L, R$  have  $n/2$  elements each
  - ▶ *How many iterations before all elements from both lists have been appended to the output?* At most  $n - 1$ .
  - ▶ *How much work within each iteration?* Constant. $\Rightarrow$  merge takes  $O(n)$  time to merge  $L, R$  (*why?*).
3. **Space:** extra  $\Theta(n)$  space to store  $L, R$  (the output of merge is stored directly in  $A$ ).

# Refreshing your memory on recursive algorithms

**Exercise (recommended):** run mergesort on input  
1, 7, 4, 3, 5, 8, 6, 2.

# Analysis of mergesort

1. **Correctness**
2. **Running time**
3. **Space**

## mergesort: correctness

For simplicity, assume  $n = 2^k$  for integer  $k \geq 0$ .

We will use induction on  $k$ .

- ▶ **Base case:** For  $k = 0$ , the input consists of 1 item; `mergesort` returns the item.
- ▶ **Induction Hypothesis:** For  $k \geq 0$ , assume that `mergesort` correctly sorts any list of size  $2^k$ .
- ▶ **Induction Step:** We will show that `mergesort` correctly sorts any list  $A$  of size  $2^{k+1}$ .

From the pseudocode of `mergesort`, we have:

- ▶ Line 3: *mid* takes the value  $2^k$
  - ▶ Line 4: `mergesort`( $A, 1, 2^k$ ) correctly sorts the leftmost half of the input, by the induction hypothesis.
  - ▶ Line 5: `mergesort`( $A, 2^k + 1, 2^{k+1}$ ) correctly sorts the rightmost half of the input, by the induction hypothesis.
  - ▶ Line 6: `merge` correctly merges its two sorted input lists into one sorted output of size  $2^k + 2^k$ .
- ⇒ `mergesort` correctly sorts any input of size  $2^{k+1}$ .

# Running time of mergesort

The running time of `mergesort` satisfies:

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn, \text{ for } n \geq 2, \text{ constant } c > 0$$

$$T(1) = c$$

This structure is typical of **recurrence relations**

- ▶ an **inequality** or **equation** bounds  $T(n)$  in terms of an expression involving  $T(m)$  for  $m < n$
- ▶ a base case generally says that  $T(n)$  is constant for small constant  $n$

## Remarks

- ▶ We ignore floor and ceiling notations.
- ▶ A recurrence does **not** provide an asymptotic bound for  $T(n)$ : to this end, we must **solve** the recurrence.

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# Solving recurrences, method 1: recursion trees

The technique consists of three steps

1. Analyze the first few levels of the tree of recursive calls
2. Identify a pattern
3. Sum the work spent over all levels of recursion

**Example:** give an asymptotic bound for the recurrence describing the running time of `mergesort`

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn, \text{ for } n \geq 2, \text{ constant } c > 0$$

$$T(1) = c$$

# A general recurrence and its solution

The running times of many recursive algorithms can be expressed by the following recurrence

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + cn^k, \text{ for } a, c > 0, b > 1, k \geq 0$$

*What is the recursion tree for this recurrence?*

- ▶  $a$  is the branching factor
- ▶  $b$  is the factor by which the size of each subproblem shrinks
- ⇒ at level  $i$ , there are  $a^i$  subproblems, each of size  $n/b^i$
- ⇒ each subproblem at level  $i$  requires  $c(n/b^i)^k$  work
- ▶ the height of the tree is  $\log_b n$  levels
- ⇒ Total work:  $\sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} a^i c(n/b^i)^k = cn^k \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} \left(\frac{a}{b^k}\right)^i$



# Solving recurrences, method 2: Master theorem

## Theorem 6 (Master theorem).

If  $T(n) = aT(\lceil n/b \rceil) + O(n^k)$  for some constants  $a > 0$ ,  $b > 1$ ,  $k \geq 0$ , then

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^{\log_b a}) & , \text{ if } a > b^k \\ O(n^k \log n) & , \text{ if } a = b^k \\ O(n^k) & , \text{ if } a < b^k \end{cases}$$

Example: running time of mergesort

- ▶  $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$ :  
 $a = 2, b = 2, k = 1, b^k = 2 = a \Rightarrow T(n) = O(n \log n)$

# Solving recurrences, method 3: the substitution method

The technique consists of two steps

1. Guess a bound
2. Use (strong) induction to prove that the guess is correct

(See your textbook for more details on this technique.)

## Remark 1 (simple vs strong induction).

1. **Simple induction:** *the induction step at  $n$  requires that the inductive hypothesis holds at step  $n - 1$ .*
2. **Strong induction** *is just a variant of simple induction where the induction step at  $n$  requires that the inductive hypothesis holds **at all previous steps**  $1, 2, \dots, n - 1$ .*

## *How would you solve...*

1.  $T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1, T(1) = 2$

2.  $T(n) = 2T^2(n-1), T(1) = 4$

3.  $T(n) = T(2n/3) + T(n/3) + cn$