

# COMP20007 Workshop Week 3

1 Prerequisites: Pseudocode, Sigma Notation, Q1  
2 (Asymptotic) Complexity, Q2-3

5-min break

3 (time permits) mergesort & k-way merge

## Important Note

- A1 will be done in W4 and W5
- start early
- bring questions to W4 workshop

Lab:

**new & important:** multi-file program, **make & Makefile**  
implement linked lists

# Notes on Pseudocodes



Pseudocode: some statements

- *indentation is important*, just like in Python codes
- is not Python or C (so don't use specific stuffs like `i++`)
- assignment: `←` (or `:=`), but *better be consistent*
- if & loops (**light blue** can be omitted, but *better be consistent*)

```
if a > b then  
    max ← a  
else  
    max ← b
```

```
while i < n do  
    S ← S + i  
    ...
```

```
for i ← 1 to n do  
    S ← S + i  
    ...
```

```
for i ← n downto 1 do  
    S ← S + i  
    ...
```

```
for each x in set_X do  
    S ← S + x  
    ...
```

```
S ← 0  
for n ← 2 to 5 do  
    S ← S + n
```

```
S := 0  
for n:= 2 to 5  
    S := S + n
```

```
S ← 0  
for n ← 2 to 5 do  
    S ← S + n
```



# Sigma Notation

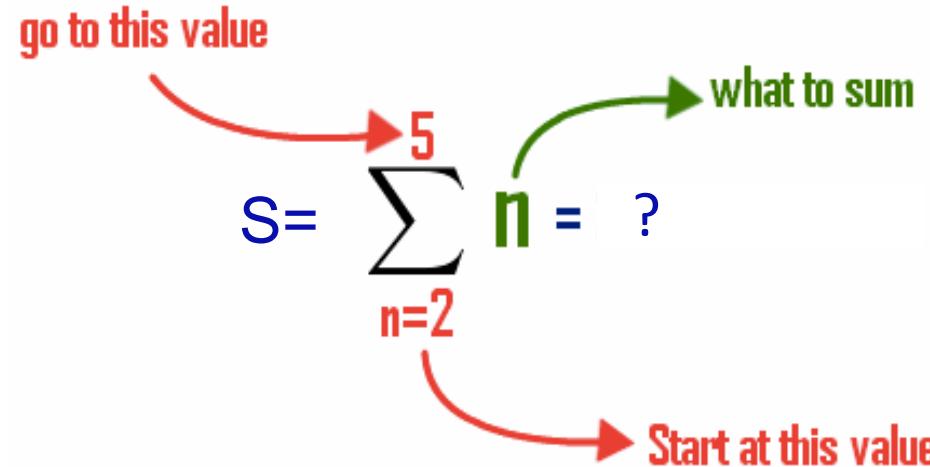
A diagram illustrating the components of the sigma notation  $S = \sum_{n=2}^5 n = ?$ . Red arrows point to each part: one to the upper limit '5' labeled 'go to this value', one to the lower limit 'n=2' labeled 'Start at this value', and one to the variable 'n' in the summand labeled 'what to sum'.

$$S = \sum_{n=2}^5 n = ?$$

How do we interpret the above sigma:

- using high-school math?  
 $S = ?$
- using pseudocode?

# Sigma Notation



- using high-school math:  
$$S = 2+3+4+5 = 14$$
- using pseudocode?

```
S ← 0
for n ← 2 to 5
    S ← S + n
```

### Q3.1: Sums

Give closed form expressions for the following sums.

(a)  $\sum_{i=1}^n 1$

(b)  $\sum_{i=1}^n i$

(c)  $\sum_{i=1}^n (2i + 3)$

(d)  $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sum_{j=0}^i 1$

(e)  $\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m ij$

(f)  $\sum_{k=0}^n x^k$

### Sum Manipulation Rules

1.  $\sum_{i=l}^u ca_i = c \sum_{i=l}^u a_i$

2.  $\sum_{i=l}^u (a_i \pm b_i) = \sum_{i=l}^u a_i \pm \sum_{i=l}^u b_i$

# Big-O definition

The complexity of an algorithm is the number of operations/steps and is expressed as **a function  $f(n)$  of the *input size n***

**Def:** We say  $f(n)$  belongs to the class  $O(g(n))$ , that is,  $f(n) O(g(n))$ , iif

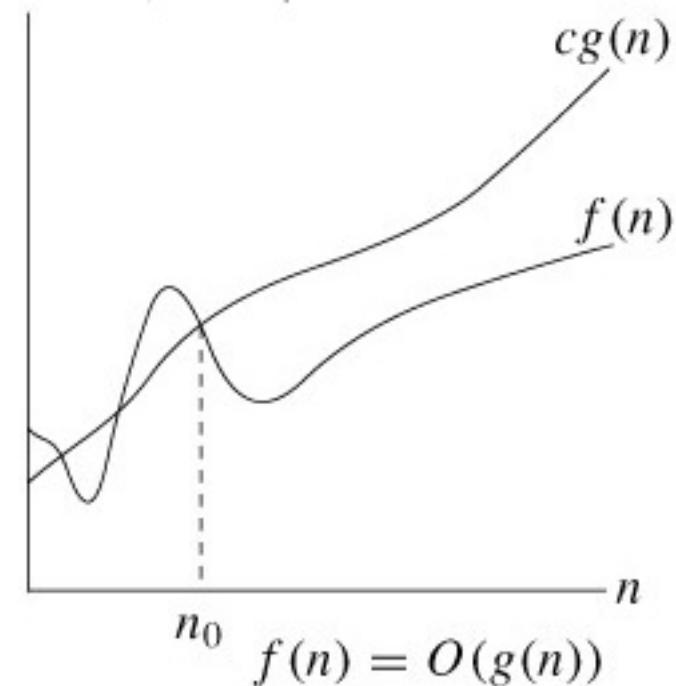
- There are constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $f(n) < c.g(n)$  for all  $n > n_0$

*Underlying meaning:*

- $f(n)$  grows slower than, or as the same rate as,  $g(n)$
- $f(n) \leq c.g(n)$  for some  $c$  and all large enough  $n$

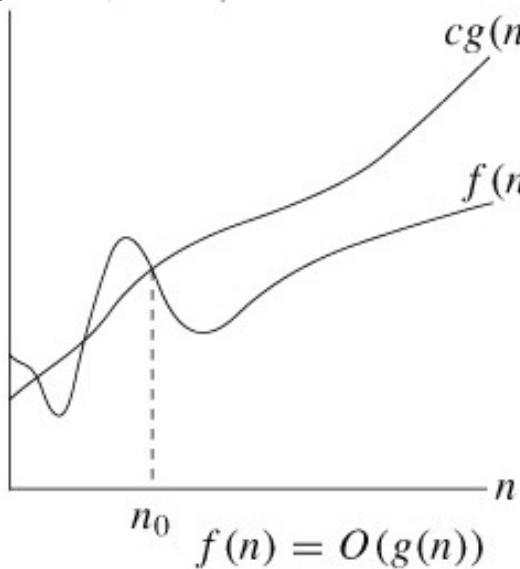
Example:  $f(n) = 3n^2 + 6n + 20$

*prove* that  $f(n) \in O(n^2)$



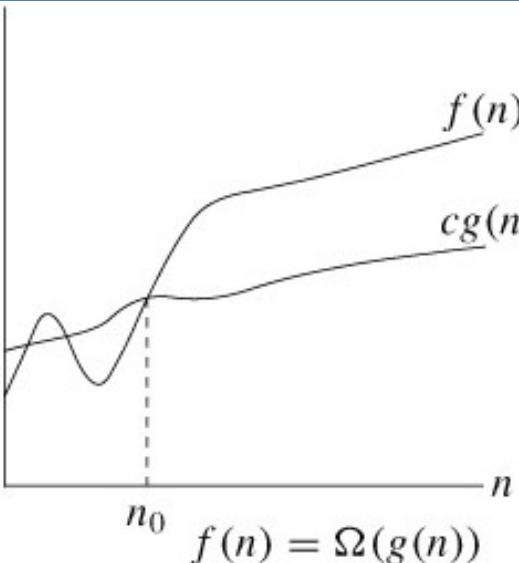
<https://web.engr.oregonstate.edu/~huanlian/teaching/cs570/>

## from Big-O to Big- $\Omega$ and Big- $\Theta$



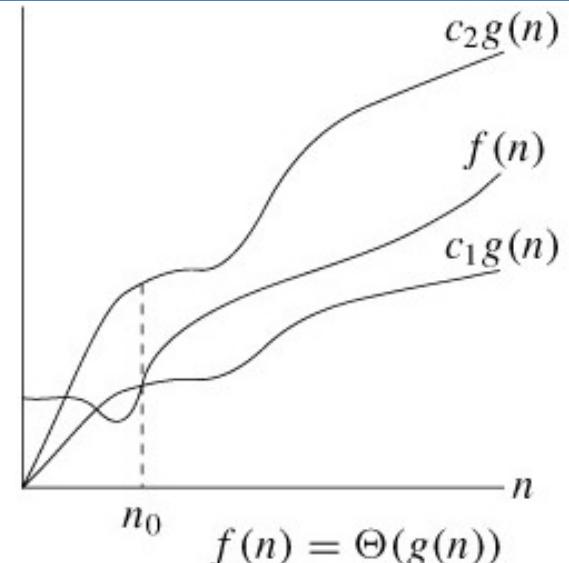
$$f(n) \in O(g(n))$$

- **Def:** There are constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $f(n) < c.g(n)$  for all  $n > n_0$
- $f(n)$  grows slower than, or as the same rate as,  $g(n)$
- $f(n) \leq c.g(n)$



$$f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$$

- **Def:** There are constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $f(n) > c.g(n)$  for all  $n > n_0$
- $f(n)$  grows faster than, or as the same rate as,  $g(n)$
- $f(n) \geq c.g(n)$



$$f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$$

- **Def:** There are constants  $c_1, c_2$  and  $n_0$  such that  $c_1.g(n) < f(n) < c_2.g(n)$  for all  $n > n_0$
- $f(n)$  grows as the same rate as  $g(n)$
- $c_1.g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2.g(n)$

Notes: if you want to **prove** that  $f(n)$  is  $O$ , or  $\Omega$ , or  $\Theta$  of some function, you need to use these definitions, you need to work out the value for the constants  $n_0$  and  $c$ .

# A simpler method for getting Big- $\Theta$ (or Big-O)

- Reduce  $f(n)$  to its simplest form (ie. complexity classes) using Big-O Reasoning

## Big-O Reasoning

- $\Theta(f(n)+g(n)) = \Theta(\max(f(n), g(n)))$
- $\Theta(c f(n)) = \Theta(f(n))$
- $\Theta(f) * \Theta(g) = \Theta(f*g)$

Notes: The above reasonings are correct for Big-O and Big- $\Theta$ .  
For Big- $\Omega$ , need to change **max** to **min**.

For a complexity function, we can:

- Rule 1: keep the most dominant term only
- Rule 2: drop constants

Example:

- $f(n)= 2n^2 + 1000000n + 200$
- $g(n)= 5n + 9n\log n + 8$

# Panorama 1: Complexity Analysis for an Algorithm

Problem	Show the time efficiency of a given algorithm
Expected Solution	Point out the complexity class that the algorithm belongs to, using $\Theta$ or $O$ . Some basic complexity classes: $1 \prec \log n \prec n^\epsilon \prec n^c \prec n^{\log n} \prec c^n \prec n^n$

Step 1	count $t(n)$ = number of executions of the basic operations Notes: If $t(n)$ also depends on data arrangement, we need to find $t(n)$ for 2 different cases: the worst case (Big-O) and the best case (Big-
--------	--

algorithm max	algorithm having_duplicates
<pre>function num_duplicates(A[0..n-1])     count= 0     for i := 0 to n-1         for j := i+1 to n-1             if A[i]=A[j]                 count := count+1     return count</pre>	<pre>function having_duplicates(a<sub>0..n-1</sub>)     for i ← 0 to n-1 do         for j ← i+1 to n-1 do             if a<sub>i</sub> = a<sub>j</sub> then                 return YES     return NO</pre>
?	?

Step 2	Reduce $t(n)$ to an efficiency class using the rules from Big-O reasoning: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>If there are no distinct worst/best cases, we will find <math>g(n)</math> so that <math>t(n) \in \Theta(g(n))</math>, otherwise</li> <li>if and the best case is <math>\Theta(f(n))</math> and the worst case is <math>\Theta(g(n))</math> then <math>t(n) \in \Omega(f(n))</math> and <math>t(n) \in O(g(n))</math></li> </ul>
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# examples

algorithm max	algorithm having_duplicates
<pre>function num_duplicates(A[0..n-1])     count= 0     for i := 0 to n-1         for j := i+1 to n-1             if A[i]=A[j]                 count := count+1     return count</pre>	<pre>function having_duplicates(a_0..n-1)     for i ← 0 to n-1 do         for j ← i+1 to n-1 do             if a<sub>i</sub> = a<sub>j</sub> then                 return YES     return NO</pre>
basic op= key comparison $t(n) = n(n-1)/2$ $t(n) \in O(?) \quad \Omega(?) \quad \Theta(?)$	basic op= key comparison best case $t(n) =$ worst case $t(n) =$ $t(n) \in O(?) \quad \Omega(?) \quad \Theta(?)$

### Q3.3: Sequential Search & Complexity

Use  $O$ ,  $\Omega$  and/or  $\Theta$  to make *strongest possible claims* about the runtime complexity of sequential search in:

a) the best case

?

b) the worst case

?

c) the average case

?

d) general

?

sequential search

```
function search(A0..n-1, key)
    for i ← 0 to n-1
        if Ai = key
            return i
    return NOTFOUND
```

?

$\Omega/0/\Theta$ ?

What is the most important?

- Big- $\Theta$ , if available,  
otherwise:
- Big-0

## Panorama 2: comparing 2 function $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ in terms of Big-O ...

### Method 1:

- Simplify  $t(n)$  and  $f(n)$  using the Big-O rules, then
- Using well-known classes to compare

$$1 \prec \log n \prec n^\epsilon \prec n^c \prec n^{\log n} \prec c^n \prec n^n$$

### Method 2:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t(n)}{g(n)} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{implies } t \text{ grows asymptotically slower than } g, \text{ ie. } t(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ & } t(n) \neq \Omega(g(n)) \\ c & \text{implies } t \text{ grows asymptotically as the same rate as } g, \text{ ie. } t(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \\ \infty & \text{implies } t \text{ grows asymptotically faster than } g, \text{ ie. } t(n) = \Omega(g(n)) \text{ & } t(n) \neq O(g(n)) \end{cases}$$

### Method 3:

- Using definition of Big-O, Big- $\Omega$ , Big- $\Theta$  by pointing out the constants  $n_0$  and  $c$
- Example: To prove that  $t(n) \in O(f(n))$ , we need to point out 2 constants  $n_0$  and  $c$  so that  $f(n) < c.g(n)$  for all  $n > n_0$

## Q3.2 – Group Work Please!

For each of the pairs of functions  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$ , determine if  $f \in O(g)$ , or  $f \in \Omega(g)$ , or both (ie.,  $f \in \Theta(g)$ ). Show your workout.

a.  $f(n) = \frac{1}{2}n^2$  and  $g(n) = 3n$

b.  $f(n) = n^2 + n$  and  $g(n) = 3n^2 + \log n$

c.  $f(n) = n \log n$  and  $g(n) = \frac{n}{4}\sqrt{n}$

d.  $f(n) = \log(10n)$  and  $g(n) = \log(n^2)$

e.  $f(n) = (\log n)^2$  and  $g(n) = \log(n^2)$

f.  $f(n) = \log_{10} n$  and  $g(n) = \ln n$

g.  $f(n) = 2^n$  and  $g(n) = 3^n$

h.  $f(n) = n!$  and  $g(n) = n^n$

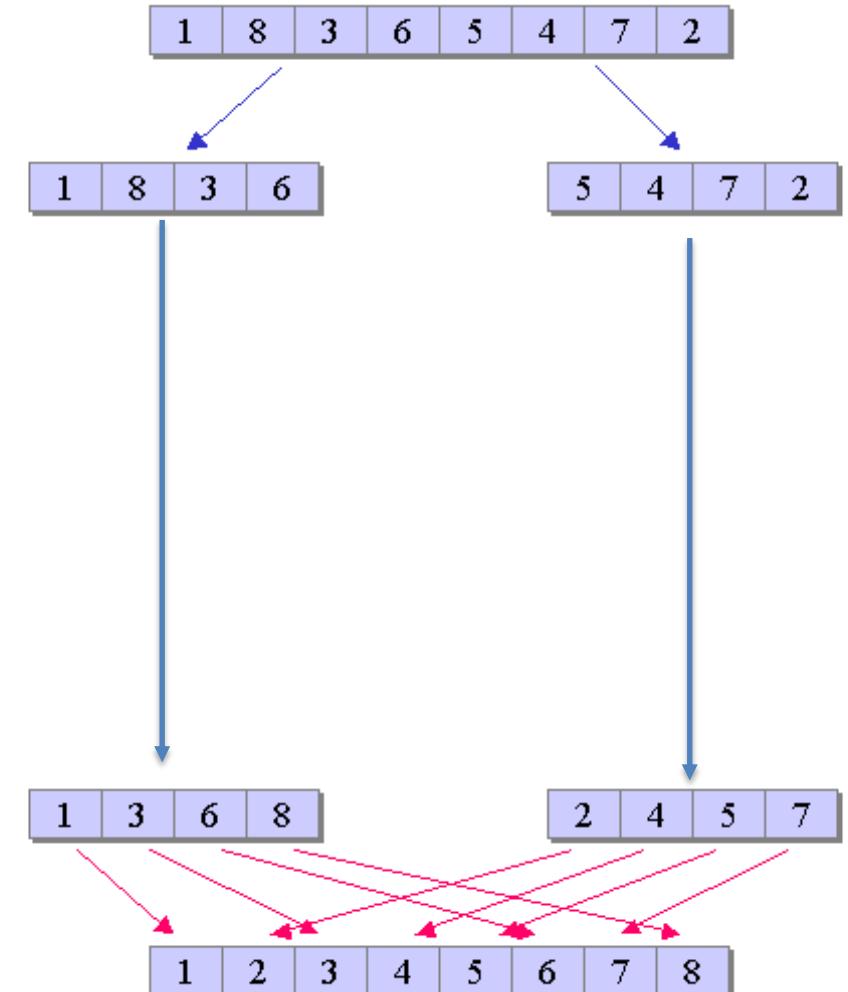
# Divide & Conquer (if time permits)



To solve a size- $n$  problem:

- Break the problem into a set of similar sub-problems, each of a *smaller-than- $n$*  size,
- Solve each sub-problem in the same way (if simple enough, solve it directly), and
- Combine the solutions of sub-problems into the total solution.

Example: mergesort

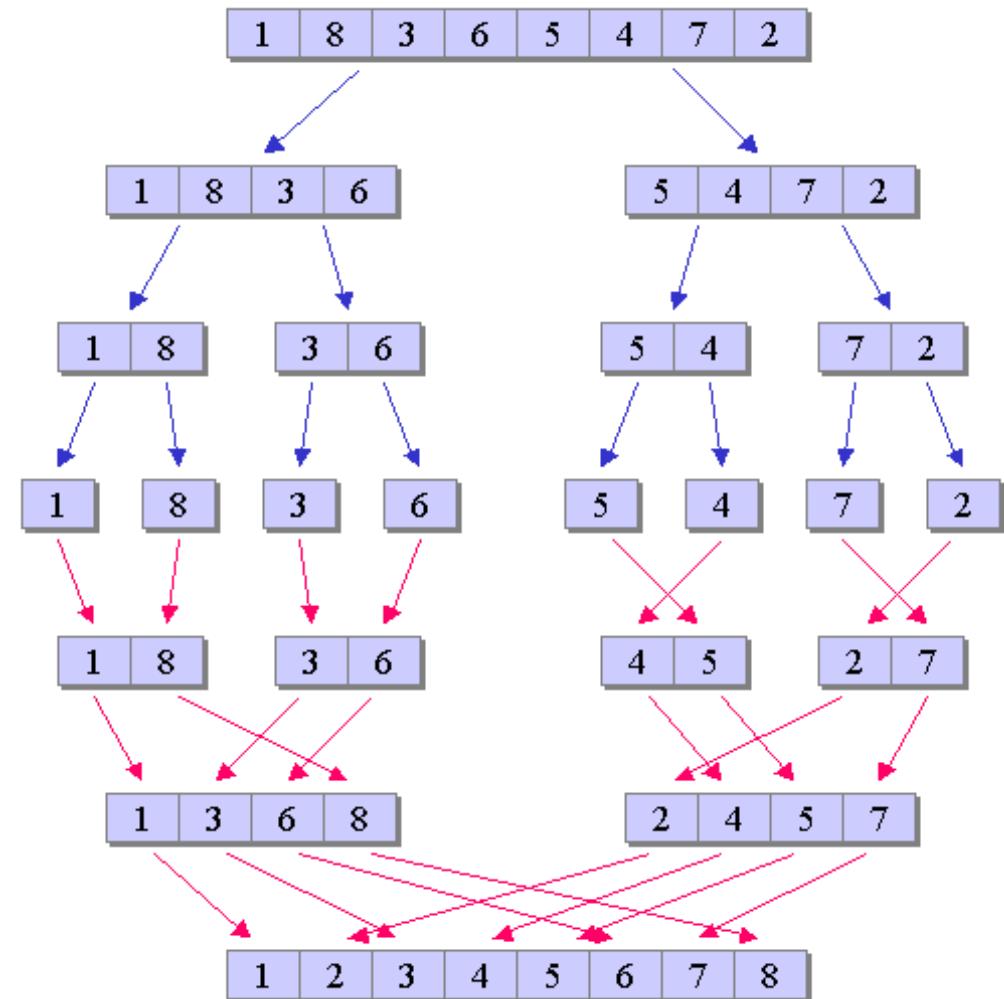


## Q3.5 on Mergesort

Mergesort is a divide-and-conquer sorting algorithm made up of three steps (in the recursive case):

- Sort the left half of the input (using mergesort)
- Sort the right half of the input (using mergesort)
- Merge the two halves together (using a merge **operation**)

Using your intuition, see what you might expect **the complexity of mergesort** to be.



### Q3.4: $k$ -merge (aka. $k$ -way merge)

Consider a modified sorting problem where the goal is to merge  $k$  lists of  $n$  sorted elements into one list of  $kn$  sorted elements.

One approach is to merge the first two lists, then merge the third with those, and so on until all  $k$  lists have been combined. What is the time complexity of this algorithm? Can you design a faster algorithm using a divide-and-conquer approach?

? complexity of merging one-by-one

? a faster algorithm using divide-and-conquer

## 5-min break

# Peer Activity: Dynamic Arrays

What is the right ordering for these code snippets to implement a function

```
int ensure_array_size(struct array *arr)
```

that expands a struct array's data space when it is full? Assume that there is a “`return 0;`” at the end of the function body.

- A. 3–2–5–1–4
- B. 3–2–5–4–1
- C. 2–5–1–4–3
- D. 2–5–4–1–3

```
/* Snippet 1 */  
arr->data = res;  
  
/* Snippet 2 */  
arr->size *= 2;  
  
/* Snippet 3 */  
if (arr->used < arr->size) return 0;  
  
/* Snippet 4 */  
if (res == NULL) {  
    arr->size /= 2;  
    return 1;  
}  
  
/* Snippet 5 */  
void *res =  
    realloc(arr->data, arr->size*sizeof(void*));
```

## Peer Activity: Linked Lists - deleteHead

What is the correct ordering for these code snippets to implement a function void delete\_head(struct list \*lst) that deletes a struct list's head node?

- a. 2-5-3-4-1
- b. 5-2-3-4-1
- c. 2-5-4-1-3
- d. 5-2-4-1-3

```
/* Snippet 1 */
free(old);
(lst->size)--;

/* Snippet 2 */
if ((lst->head == NULL) && (lst->tail == NULL))
    return;

/* Snippet 3 */
if (new == NULL) lst->tail = NULL;

/* Snippet 4 */
lst->head = new;

/* Snippet 5 */
struct lnode *old = lst->head,
            *new = old->next;
```

# Modular Programming



**Modular programming:** breaking down a large program into smaller, independent modules or functions that can be developed and tested separately.

Each module is designed to perform a specific task or set of tasks. A module communicates with application programs or other modules through well-defined interfaces.

**Compiling multi-file programs** can be done automatically using command [make](#).

# Modular Programming: Example

## module “dynamic\_array”

- interface (.h): data type defs, and function prototypes
- source (.c) : implementation of all functions in the interface

## module “list”

- interface (.h): data type defs, and function prototypes
- source (.c) : implementation of all functions in the interface

## application program

```
#include <stdio.h> ...
// include the interface of module list
// include the interface of module dynamic array

int main(...) {
...
//using dynamic arrays & linked list facilities
...
}
```

### Benefits:

- each module can be developed and tested separately
- modules are reusable
- ...

1. Understand stuffs in W3.1
2. Do W3.2, need to know
  - how to compile `racecar.c` and `racecar_test.c` into the executable `racecar_test`

## 2 methods to compile `racecar.c` and `racecar_test.c` into the executable `racecar_test`

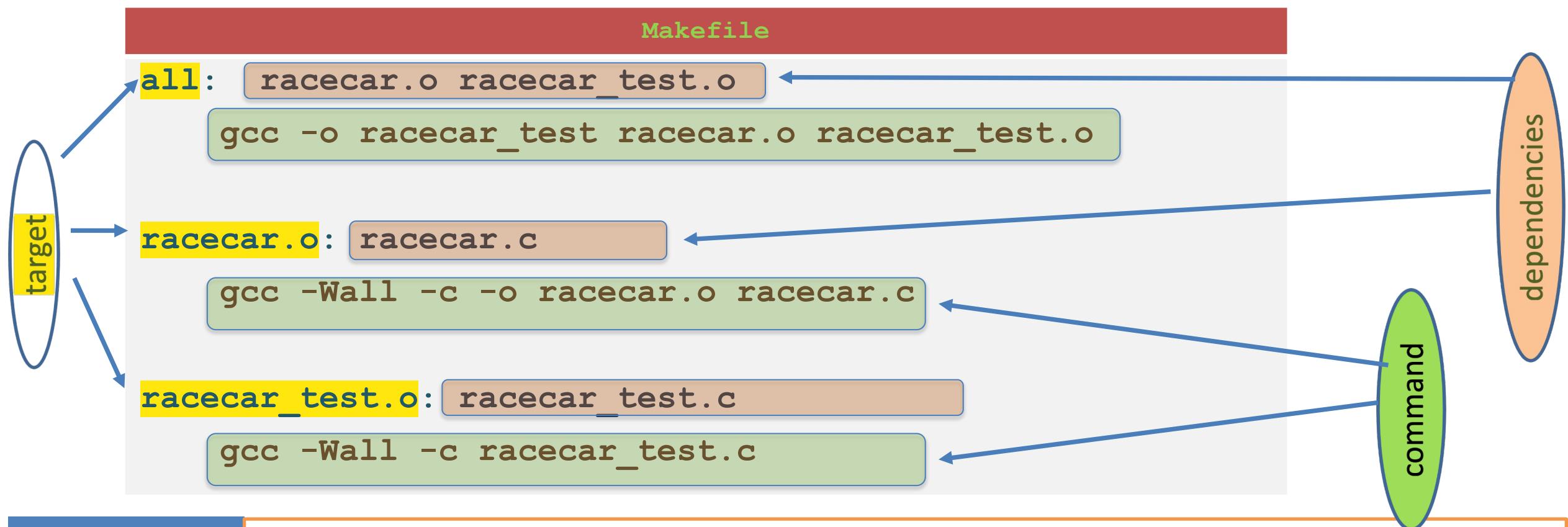
- Method 1

```
gcc -o racecar_test racecar.c racecar_test.c
```
- Method 2

```
gcc -c -o racecar.o racecar.c
gcc -c -o racecar_test.o racecar_test.c
gcc -o racecar_test racecar.o racecar_test.o
```

Notes:

- Method 2 is preferable for big project, and is used with make
- Components `-o racecar.o` and `-o racecar_test.o` can be omitted



auto-compiling  
with  
make

\$make reads file **Makefile** and executes the first target (**all**, in this case)

- ⌚ target **all** depends on 2 targets **racecar.o**, **racecar\_test.o**
- ▶ first, executes 2 targets one-by-one
  - ⌚ target **racecar.o** depends on **racecar.c**, which is ready as a file
  - ▶ executes command `gcc -Wall -c -o racecar.o racecar.c`
  - ▶ does similarly for **racecar\_test.o**,
- ▶ second, runs the accompanied command to build **racecar\_test**:
   
`gcc -o racecar_test racecar.o racecar_test`

## Work to do right now

1. Understand stuffs in W3.1
2. Do W3.2, need to know
  - how to compile `racecar.c` and `racecar_test.c` into the executable `racecar_test`
3. Do Problem 3 together with Anh, need to know
  - how to build a **Makefile** for automatic compilation
4. [time permitting] Start Problem W3.4
  - build `list.c` and `list.h` (you can start with Alistair's `listops.c`, just google "`listops.c`", or use `list.c` and `list.h` from last week, but PLEASE at least implement function `deleteHead`)
  - build `list_test.c` (say, build and print the list `1→2→3→4→5`)
  - build **Makefile** accordingly

## Homework

1. Finish outstanding work of the lab today
2. Complete W3.4

# Additional Slides

# Important Sums & Rules

$$\sum_{i=1}^n 1 = n$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \approx \frac{1}{2}n^2$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \approx \frac{1}{3}n^3$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a + \cdots + a^n = \frac{a^{n+1} - 1}{a - 1} \quad (a \neq 1);$$

could be more familiar as:

$$\sum_{i=0}^n x^i = \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1 - x}$$

## Sum Manipulation Rules

$$1. \quad \sum_{i=l}^u c a_i = c \sum_{i=l}^u a_i$$

$$2. \quad \sum_{i=l}^u (a_i \pm b_i) = \sum_{i=l}^u a_i \pm \sum_{i=l}^u b_i$$

# Useful Exponent/Logarithm Rules

$\log_a b \times \log_b n = \log_a n$  where  $\log_a b$  could be considered as just a constant

→ in the Big-O classes, base of logarithms is not important :  
 $\log_{10} n$ ,  $\ln(n)$ , or  $\log_2 n$  is just  $\Theta(\log n)$

---

## Exponent Rules

---

$$a^m \cdot a^n = a^{m+n}$$

---

$$\frac{a^m}{a^n} = a^{m-n}$$

---

$$(ab)^n = a^n b^n$$

---

$$(a^m)^n = a^{mn}$$

---

## Logarithm Rules

---

$$\log a + \log b = \log(ab)$$

---

$$\log a - \log b = \log\left(\frac{a}{b}\right)$$

---

$$\log(a^n) = n \log a$$

---

$$a^{\log_b n} = n^{\log_b a}$$

---

# Notes on basic operation (from Levitin's sections 2.1, 2.3, 2.4)

Section 2.1: The thing to do is to identify the most important operation of the algorithm, called the ***basic operation***, the operation contributing the most to the total running time, and compute the number of times the basic operation is executed.

As a rule, it is not difficult to identify the basic operation of an algorithm: it is usually the most time-consuming operation in the algorithm's innermost loop. For example, most sorting algorithms work by comparing elements (keys) of a list being sorted with each other; for such algorithms, the basic operation is a key comparison. As another example, algorithms for mathematical problems typically involve some or all of the four arithmetical operations: addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. Of the four, the most time-consuming operation is division, followed by multiplication and then addition and subtraction, with the last two usually considered together

See Section 2.3: for non-recursive algorithms. As a rule, it is located in the inner-most loop.

Section 2.4: for recursive algorithms

if  $n=0$  return 1 else return  $F(n-1)*n$ : The basic operation of the algorithm is multiplication.

Alternatively, we could count the number of times the comparison  $n = 0$  is executed, which is the same as counting the total number of calls made by the algorithm