

Welcome to Data Structures(ECE20010/ITP20001)

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ITP20001/ECE 20010 Data Structures

Data Structures

Chapter 1

- overview
 - pointers and dynamic memory allocation*
- **algorithm specification**
 - recursive algorithm***
- *data abstraction*
- *performance analysis - time complexity*

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.3 Recursive algorithms

Example: Recursive binary search – revisited

Exercise:



compare with 0



compare with 5



compare with 1



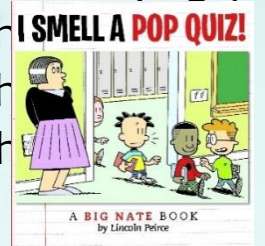
`int binarySearch(int list[], int wally, int left, int right)`

`main(args)`

`binarySearch`

`binarySearch`

`binarySearch`



```
int binarySearch(int list[], int wally, int left, int right)
```

```
if (left > right) return FAILURE; // base case
```

```
mid = (left + right)/2;
```

```
if (wally == list[mid]) return mid; // base case
```

```
if (wally < list[mid])  
    return binarySearch(list, wally, mid, right); // recursive
```

```
else  
    return binarySearch(list, wally, left, mid); // recursive
```

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Data Structures

Chapter 1

- overview
 - pointers and dynamic memory allocation*
- algorithm specification
 - recursive algorithm*
- **data abstraction**
- *performance analysis - time complexity*

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.4 Data abstraction

A **data type** is a collection of **objects** and a set of **operations** that act on those objects.

Ex. **int** – integer numbers, the operations on integers are + - / * %

Three kind of data types in C;

- (1) **primitives** - int, short, long, float, double, char
- (2) **arrays** – collections of elements of the same primitive data type
- (3) **struct** - collections of elements whose data types may be different (p.19, p59)

```
struct student {  
    char lastName[10];  
    int studentID;  
    char grade;  
}
```

```
typedef struct humanBeing {  
    char name[10];  
    int age;  
    int sex;  
}
```

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.4 Data abstraction

A **data type** is a collection of **objects** and a set of **operations** that act on those objects.

Why so many data types or many different programming languages?

- facing with large programs in the real world
- new requirements or constraints

Example:

- **stack, queue, search structure:**

Operations are "insert/delete an item" at least;

Implementation may be as array, linked list, tree, hash table, ...

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.4 Data abstraction

A **data type** is a collection of **objects** and a set of **operations** that act on those objects.

An **abstract data type (ADT)** is a data type that is organized in such a way that the object **specification** is **separated from** the object **implementation**.

Why?

The object-oriented languages such as java may assist the programmer in implementing **abstract data types** through **class**. It is called the **encapsulation** which is one of the major characteristics built in Java. .

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.4 Data abstraction

What makes a program good?

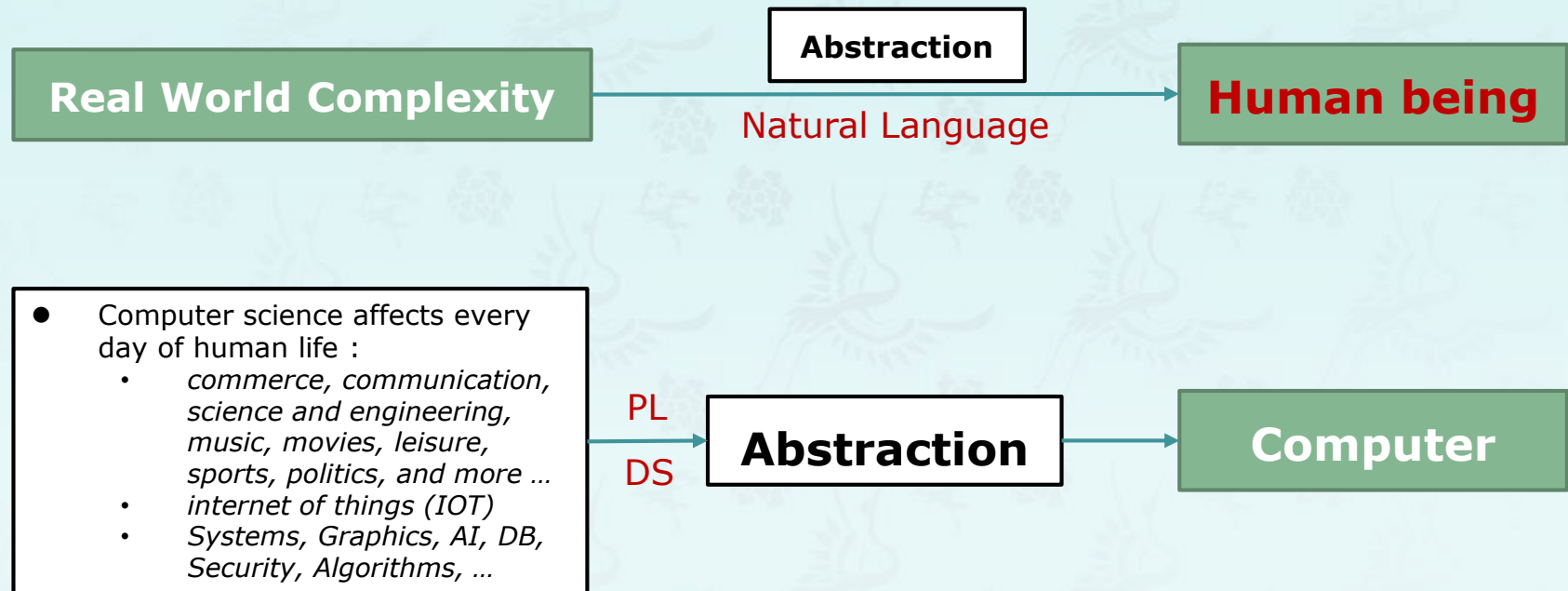
- (1) It works as specified.
- (2) It is easy to understand and modify.
- (3) It is reasonably efficient.

The benefits of using ADTs:

- ❖ The program is easier to understand since it is easier to see "high-level" steps being performed, not obscured by low-level code.
- ❖ Implementations of ADTs can be changed (e.g., for efficiency) without requiring changes to the program that uses the ADTs.
- ❖ ADTs can be reused in future programs.

❖ **Good programmers who make good programs use ADTs^^**

Course overview



Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.4 Data abstraction

Example: ADT Natural Number

ADT Natural Number

Object: an ordered subrange of the integer from 0 to INT_MAX

Functions: for all $x, y \in \text{Natural number}$, $\text{TRUE}, \text{FALSE} \in \text{Boolean}$ and where $+$, $-$, $<$, and $==$ are the usual integer operations

[illegible]

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.4 Data abstraction

Example: ADT in C

1. **.c** - the implementation view
 - declaration of data types, code that implements its operations
2. **.h** - the abstract view
 - declaration for functions, pointer types, and globally accessible data

stack.h

```
#ifndef STACK
#define STACK
// Return a pointer to an empty stack.
extern StackType InitStack ( );

// Push value onto the stack,
// returning success flag.
extern boolean Push (int k);

// Pop value from the stack,
// returning success flag.
extern boolean Pop ( );

// Print the elements of the stack.
extern PrintStack (StackType stack);
#endif
```

stack.c

```
#include "stack.h"
#define STACKSIZE 5
struct StackStructType {
    int stackItems [STACKSIZE];
    int nItems;
};
typedef struct StackStructType *StackType;

// Return a pointer to an empty stack.
StackType InitStack ( ) {
    char *calloc( );
    StackType stack;
    stack = (StackType)
        calloc (1, sizeof (struct StackStructType));
    stack->nItems = 0;
    return (stack);
}
.....
```

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Data Structures

Chapter 1

- overview
 - pointers and dynamic memory allocation*
- *algorithm specification*
 - recursive algorithm*
- *data abstraction*
- ***performance analysis - time complexity***

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

The program we write should

1. meet the specification.
2. work correctly.
3. be documented properly.
4. run effectively
5. be readable.

6. use the storage effectively – **space**

7. run timely – **time**

} space & time complexity

The **space complexity** of a program is the amount of **memory** that it needs to run to completion.

The **time complexity** of a program is the amount of computer **time** that it needs to run to completion.

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

Space complexity:

1. Fixed space requirements : c
 - that do not depend on input size, simple or fixed-size variables
2. Variable space requirements : $S_p(I)$
 - that depend on the instance I , stack, variable

The total space requirement for the program P :

$$S(P) = c + S_p(I)$$

where c is a constant for fixed space and variable space for the instance I .

We are concerned about only $S_p(I)$, but not c . **Why?**

Because we usually **compare** the algorithms of the programs.

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

Space complexity: $S(P) = c + S_p(I)$

Example: $S_{\text{sum}}(n) = ?$

Program1.11

```
float sum(float list[], int n) {  
    float tempsum = 0;  
    for (int i=0; i<n; i++)  
        tempsum += list[i];  
    return tempsum;  
}
```

$S_{\text{sum}}(n) = 0$ since the C passes list[] by its address.

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

Space complexity: $S(P) = c + S_p(I)$

Example: $S_{\text{sum}}(\text{MAX_SIZE}) = ?$

Program1.12

```
float rsum(float list[], int n) {  
    if (n)  
        return rsum(list, n-1) + list[n-1];  
    return 0;  
}
```

The variable space requirement are for **two** parameters and **one** return address are saved in the system stack **per recursive call**:

$$\text{sizeof}(n) + \text{list[]} \text{ address} + \text{return address} = 12$$

$$S_{\text{sum}}(\text{MAX_SIZE}) = 12 * \text{MAX_SIZE}$$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

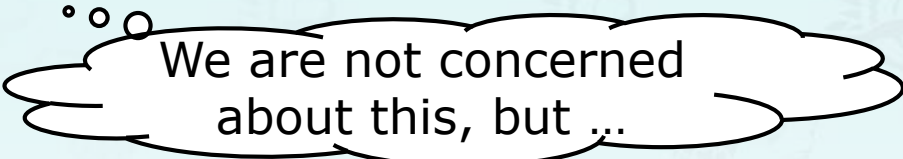
Time complexity: The time taken by the program P:

$$T(P) = \text{compile time } c + \text{execution time } T_p(n)$$

Similarly, we are concerned about only $T_p(n)$, but not c .

Example: $T_p(n) = c_a ADD(n) + c_s SUB(n) + c_l LDA(n) + c_{st} STA(n)$

where n – number of execution, c for constant time for operation



We are not concerned
about this, but ...

Program step: a meaningful program segment whose execution time is independent of the instance characteristics.

Example:

$a = 2;$

⇒ 1 step!!

$a = 2 * b + 3 * c/d - e + f/g/a/b/c;$

⇒ 1 step!!

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

Example: How many **program steps** required?

Program 1.11	$2n+3$
<pre>float sum(float list[], int n) { float tempsum = 0; int i; for (i=0; i<n; i++) tempsum += list[i]; return tempsum; }</pre>	<div>1</div> <div>n+1</div> <div>n</div> <div>1</div>

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

Example: How many **program steps** required?

Program 1.11	$2n+3$
<pre>float sum(float list[], int n) { float tempsum = 0; int i; for (i=0; i<n; i++) tempsum += list[i]; return tempsum; }</pre>	 1 $n+1$ n 1

Program 1.13	$2n + 3$
<pre>float sum(float list[], int n) { float tempsum = 0; count++; // for assignment int i; for(i=0; i<n; i++) { count++; // for the for loop tempsum += list[i]; count++; // for assignment } count++; // last execution of for count++; // for return return tempsum; }</pre>	 1 n n 1 1

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

Exercise: How many **program steps** required?

Program 1.12	$2n + 2$
<pre>float rsum(float list[], int n) { if (n) return rsum(list, n-1) + list[n-1]; return 0; }</pre>	$n + 1$ n 1

Program 1.15	$2n + 2$
<pre>float rsum(float list[], int n) { count++; // for if conditional if (n) { // if n == 0, called once, if n>0, n times count++; // for return & rsum invocation n times return rsum(list, n-1) + list[n-1]; } count++; return list[0]; // if n == 0, called once }</pre>	

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

Comparison:

Program 1.11

```
float sum(float list[], int n) {  
    float tempsum = 0;  
    int i;  
    for (i=0; i<n; i++)  
        tempsum += list[i];  
    return tempsum;  
}
```

Program 1.12

```
float rsum(float list[], int n) {  
    if (n)  
        return rsum(list, n-1) + list[n-1];  
    return 0;  
}
```

✖ $2n + 3$ (iterative) > $2n + 2$ (recursive)

⇒ $T_{\text{iterative}} > T_{\text{recursive}}$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

Example: How many **program steps** required?

Program 1.16 – sum of matrix	
<pre>void add(int a[][MAX_SIZE], int b[][MAX_SIZE], int c[][MAX_SIZE], int rows, int cols) { int i, j; for(i=0; i<rows; i++) for(j=0; j<cols; j++) c[i][j] = a[i][j] + b[i][j]; }</pre>	<pre>rows + 1 rows * (cols+1) rows * cols</pre>

❖ Can we try it without adding "count"?

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance analysis

Example: How many **program steps** required?

Program 1.16 – sum of matrix	
<pre>void add(int a[][MAX_SIZE], int b[][MAX_SIZE], int c[][MAX_SIZE], int rows, int cols) { int i, j; for(i=0; i<rows; i++) for(j=0; j<cols; j++) c[i][j] = a[i][j] + b[i][j]; }</pre>	<pre>rows + 1 rows * (cols+1) rows * cols</pre>

❖ Can we try it without adding "count"?

Program 1.16	
<pre>void add(int a[][MAX_SIZE], int b[][MAX_SIZE], int c[][MAX_SIZE], int rows, int cols) { int i, j; for(i=0; i<rows; i++) // including the last loop for(j=0; j<cols; j++) // including the last loop c[i][j] = a[i][j] + b[i][j]; // rows * cols }</pre>	<pre>rows + 1 rows * (cols + 1) rows * cols</pre>

// step count = 2 rows*cols + 2 rows + 1

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점 금 표 기 법

Why step count?

It is to compare the **time complexities** of two programs that compute the same function and also to predict the **growth rate** in run time.

Example: Let's compute the step count for three programs and compare their time complexities.

1. $T_{\text{add}}(n)$ – adding two numbers
2. $T_{\text{sum}}(n)$ – adding list of numbers
3. $T_{\text{mtx}}(n)$ – adding two matrix

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1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

Program add	step count	cost
<pre>float add(int a, int b) { return a + b; }</pre>	1	2
Program 1.11 sum of list	step count	cost
<pre>float sum(float list[], int n) { float total = 0; int i; for (i=0; i<n; i++) total += list[i]; return total; }</pre>	1 $n + 1$ n 1	1, c_1 2, c_2 2, c_3 1, c_4

Program 1.16 **sum of matrix**

```
void add(int a[][MAX_SIZE], int b[][MAX_SIZE],  
         int c[][MAX_SIZE], int rows, int cols) {  
    for(int i=0; i<rows; i++)           // (rows + 1) include last loop  
        for(int j=0; j<cols; j++)       // rows*(cols+1) include last loop  
            c[i][j] = a[i][j] + b[i][j]; // rows * cols  
}  
// step count = 2 rows*cols + 2 rows + 1
```

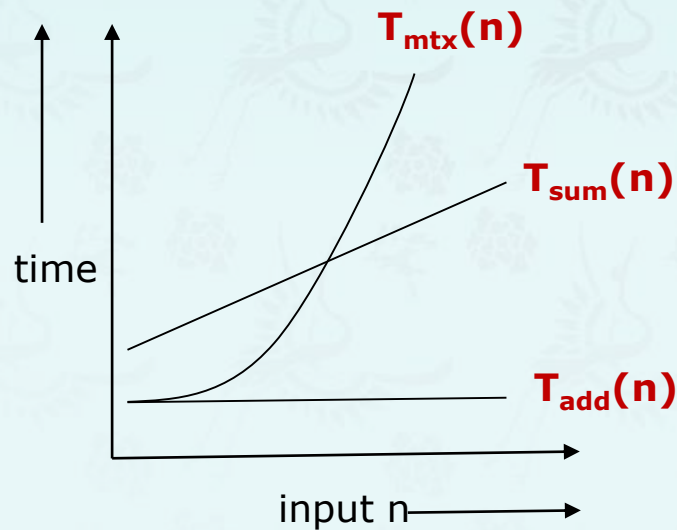
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1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

$$T_{add}(n) = 2 \rightarrow O(1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} T_{sum}(n) &= 1 + 2(n + 1) + 2n + 1 = 4n + 4 \\ &= c * n + c' \end{aligned} \rightarrow O(n)$$

$$\begin{aligned} T_{mtx}(n) &= 2 \text{ rows} * \text{cols} + 2 \text{ rows} + 1 \\ &= a * n^2 + b * n + c \end{aligned} \rightarrow O(n^2)$$



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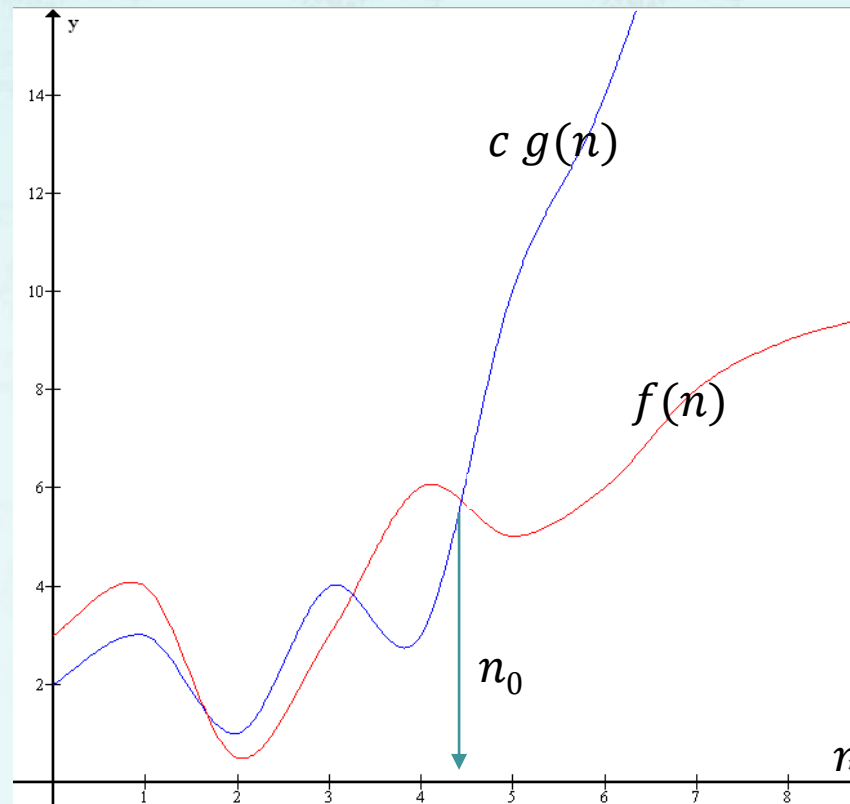
1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

The "Big-Oh" Notation:

Let $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ be functions mapping nonnegative integers to real numbers.

We say that $f(n)$ **is** $O(g(n))$ iff there are positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$f(n) \leq c g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$



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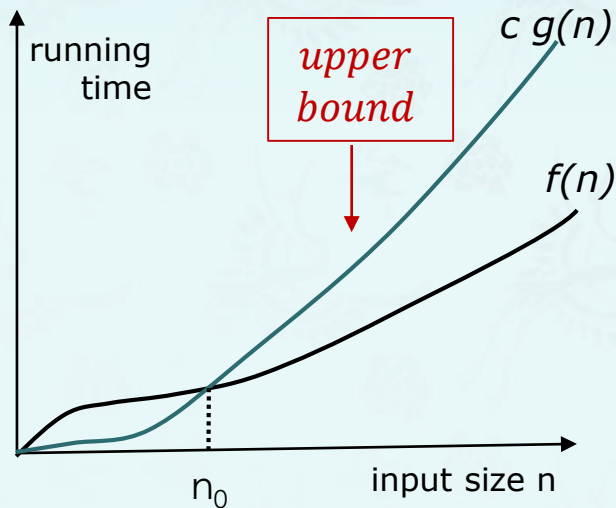
1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

The "Big-Oh" Notation:

Let $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ be functions mapping nonnegative integers to real numbers. We say that $f(n)$ **is** $O(g(n))$ iff there are positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$f(n) \leq c g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$

Then it is pronounced as " $f(n)$ **is** big Oh of $g(n)$ or $f(n) = O(g(n))$ ".



Example: Justify that the function $8n - 2$ is $O(n)$.

Given $f(n) = 8n - 2$, $g(n) = n$, we need to find c and n_0 such that $8n - 2 \leq c n$ for every integer $n \geq n_0$.

An easy choice among many is $c = 8$ and $n_0 = 1$. Therefore, $f(n) = 8n - 2$ is $O(n)$.

↓
 $g(n) = n$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

[Big 'Oh'] $f(n) = O(g(n))$ iff there are positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$f(n) \leq c g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$

Examples:

1) $3n + 2 =$ 

2) $3n + 3 =$ 

3) $100n + 6 =$ 

4) $10n^2 + 4n + 2 =$ 

5) $6 * 2^n + n^2 =$ 

✖ 6) $3n + 3 =$ 

✖ 7) $10n^2 + 4n + 2 =$ 

8) $3n + 2 \neq O(1)$ 

9) $10n^2 + 4n + 2 \neq O(n)$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

[Big 'Oh'] $f(n) = O(g(n))$ iff there are positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$f(n) \leq c g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$

Preferred Big-Oh usage:

- **Pick the tightest bound.** If $f(N) = 5N$, then:

$$f(N) = O(N^5)$$

$$f(N) = O(N^3)$$

$$f(N) = O(N \log N)$$

$$f(N) = O(N) \quad \leftarrow \text{preferred or right!}$$

- **Ignore constant factors and low order terms:**

$$f(N) = O(N), \quad \text{not } f(N) = O(5N)$$

$$f(N) = O(N^3), \quad \text{not } f(N) = O(N^3 + N^2 + 15)$$

- Wrong: $f(N) \leq O(g(N))$
- Wrong: $f(N) \geq O(g(N))$
- **Right:** $f(N) = O(g(N))$

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1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

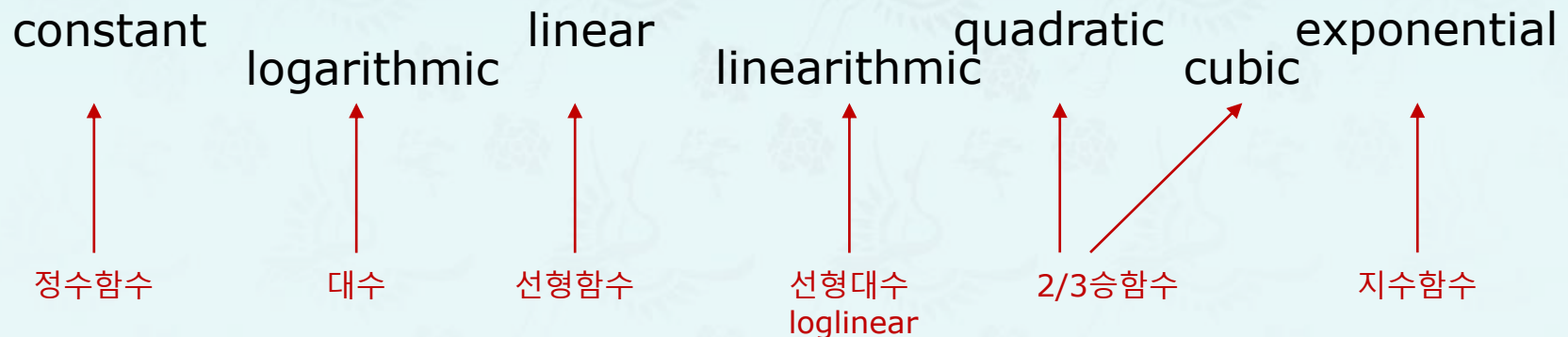
[Big 'Oh'] $f(n) = O(g(n))$ iff there are positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$f(n) \leq c g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$

Suppose two algorithms, A and B, solving the same problem have the running time of $O(n)$ and $O(n^2)$, respectively.

Then algorithm A is asymptotically better than algorithm B.

$$\times O(1) < O(\log n) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n^2) < O(n^3) < O(2^n)$$



Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

[Omega] $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ iff there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$f(n) \geq c g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$

Example: Let's suppose we have

$$f(n) = 5n^2 + 2n + 1$$

$$g(n) = n^2$$

For all $n \geq 0$, this $(2n + 1)$ will be \geq to 1, **if** we have $c = 5$ and $n_0 = 0$.

Then, $5n^2 \leq f(n)$, for all $n \geq 0$

Therefore, we can say that the time complexity of $f(n)$ is $\Omega(n^2)$;

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1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

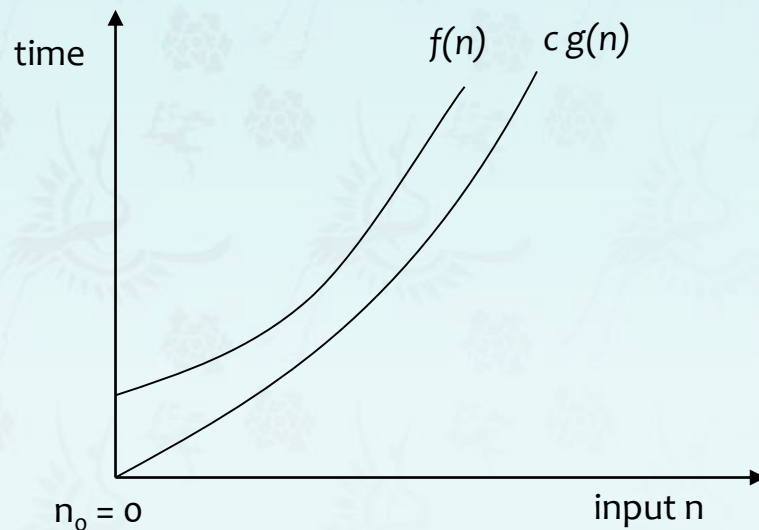
[Omega] $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ iff there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$f(n) \geq c g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$

Example: Let's suppose we have

$$f(n) = 5n^2 + 2n + 1$$

$$g(n) = n^2$$



❖ **Omega** notation gives us the **lower bound** of the growth rate of a function.

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

[Omega] $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ iff there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$f(n) \geq c g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$

Example:

1) $3n + 2 = \Omega(n)$ since $3n + 2 \geq 3n$ for $n \geq 1$

2) $3n + 3 = \Omega(n)$ since $3n + 3 \geq 3n$ for $n \geq 1$

3) $100n + 6 = \Omega(n)$ since $100n + 6 \geq 100n$ for $n \geq 1$

4) $100n^2 + 4n + 2 = \Omega(n^2)$ since $100n^2 + 4n + 2 \geq n^2$ for $n \geq 1$

5) $6 * 2^n + n^2 = \Omega(2^n)$ since $6 * 2^n + n^2 \geq 2^n$ for $n \geq 1$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

[**Theta**] $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ iff there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$

Example: Let's suppose we have

$$f(n) = 5n^2 + 2n + 1$$

$$g(n) = n^2$$

Then, we can choose $c_1 = 5$, $c_2 = 8$, and $n_0 = 1$; and our inequality will hold.

Therefore we can say that the time complexity of

$$f(n) = 5n^2 + 2n + 1 = \Theta(n^2)$$

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1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점 금표기 법

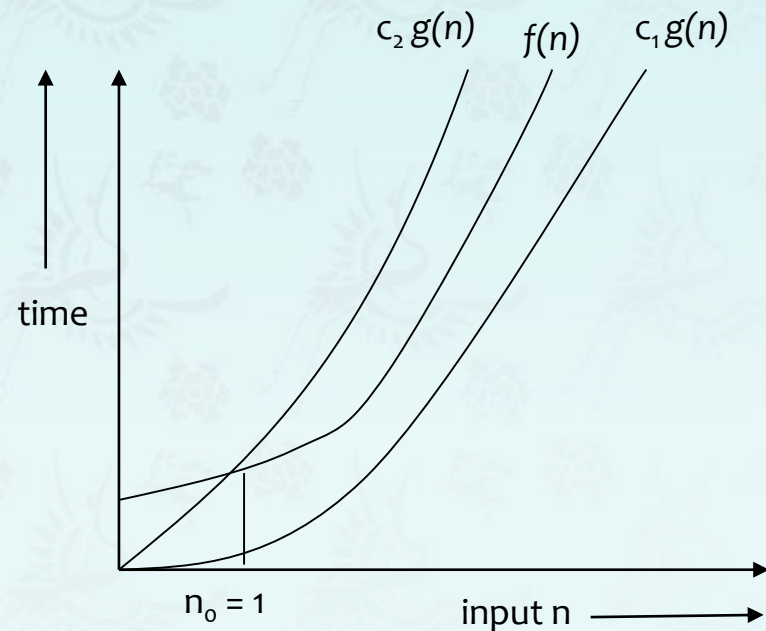
[Theta] $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ iff there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$

Example: Let's suppose we have

$$f(n) = 5n^2 + 2n + 1$$

$$g(n) = n^2$$



- ❖ **Θ notation** best describes or give the best idea about the growth rate of the function because it gives us a **tight bound** unlike **O and Ω** which give us **upper bound** and **lower bound**, respectively.

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

[Theta] $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ iff there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n), \text{ for } n \geq n_0.$$

Example:

1) $3n + 2 = \Theta(n)$

since $3n \leq 3n + 2 \leq 4n$ for all $n \geq 2$, $c_1 = 3$, $c_2 = 4$, and $n_0 = 2$

2) $3n + 3 = \Theta(n)$

3) $10n^2 + 4n + 2 = \Theta(n^2)$

4) $6 * 2^n + n^2 = \Theta(2^n)$

5) $10 * \log n + 4 = \Theta(\log n)$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis

Recurrence Relations is an equation that recursively defines a sequence or multidimensional array of values, once one or more initial terms are given: each further term of the sequence or array is defined as a function of the preceding terms.

For example:

$$T(1) = c$$

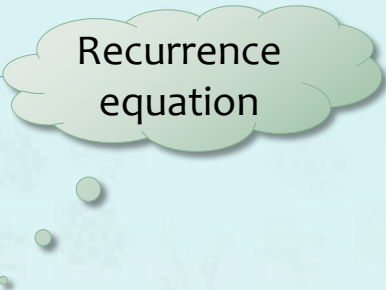
$$T(n) = T(n - 1) + c$$

Useful formulas:

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + N = N(N+1)/2$$

$$1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts



Recurrence equation

1.5 Performance Analysis – Linear search

The time complexity of the linear search:

- **Best Case:** Find at first place - one comparison
- **Worst Case:** Find at n th place or not at all - n comparisons
- **Average Case:** It is shown below that this case takes - $(n+1)/2$ comparisons
- In considering the average case there are n cases that can occur, i.e. find at the first place, the second place, the third place and so on up to the n th place. If found at the i th place then i comparisons are required. Hence the average number of comparisons over these n cases is:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{average} &= (1 + 2 + 3 \dots + n) / n \\ &= (n + 1) / n,\end{aligned}$$

where $(1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n)$ is equal to $(n + 1)n/2$.

Hence linear search is an order(n) process or $T(n) = O(n)$.

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis – Linear search

Recurrence
equation

We may describe that the time complexity of the linear search is

$$T(1) = c$$

$$T(n) = T(n - 1) + c$$

- The cost of searching **n** elements is the cost of looking at **1** element, plus the cost of searching **n - 1** elements.
- Let's "telescoping" a few of these...

$$T(n) = T(n - 1) + c$$

$$T(n - 1) = T(n - 2) + c$$

$$T(n - 2) = T(n - 3) + c$$

...

$$T(2) = T(1) + c$$

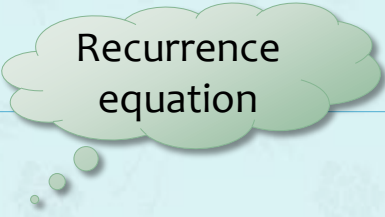
- Then add each side,

$$T(n) = T(1) + (n - 1)c$$

$$T(n) = c + nc - c$$

$$T(n) = O(n)$$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts



Recurrence equation

1.5 Performance Analysis – Selection sort

$$T(1) = 1$$

$$T(n) = n + T(n - 1)$$

- **Unfolding** makes repeated substitutions applying the recursive rule until the base case is reached.

Substitute $n-1$ everywhere we see an n in the recurrence relation:

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

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

Making this substitution one more time we get

$$T(n) = n + (n - 1) + (n - 2) + T(n - 3)$$

We repeat this process until we reaches $T(1)$, base case

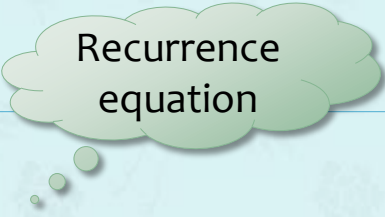
$$= n + (n - 1) + \dots + (n - (n - 1)) + T(n - (n - 1))$$

$$= n + (n - 1) + \dots + 2 + T(1)$$

$$= \frac{n(n + 1)}{2} - 1 + T(1)$$

$$= O(n^2)$$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts



Recurrence
equation

1.5 Performance Analysis – Selection sort

$$T(1) = 1$$

$$T(n) = n + T(n - 1)$$

- **Telescoping**

$$T(n) = n + T(n - 1)$$

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

$$T(n - 2) = n - 2 + T(n - 3)$$

...

$$T(2) = 2 + T(1)$$

- **Add all terms in each side and cancel the equal terms, then it becomes**

$$T(n) = n + (n - 1) + \dots + 2 + T(1)$$

$$= \frac{n(n + 1)}{2} - 1 + T(1)$$

$$= O(n^2)$$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis – Binary search

Recurrence equation

Best case: Let suppose that 3 steps = $T(1) = O(1) = 1$

Worst case: Let suppose that $T(n) = 1 + T(\text{mid})$ where n is $hi - lo$

- $O(\log n)$ where n is *array.length*
- Solve recurrence equation to know that...

```
// requires array a is sorted
// returns whether k is in array
boolean find(int[]a, int k){
    return binarySearch(a,k,0,a.length-1); // Java syntax
}

boolean binarySearch(int[]a, int k, int lo, int hi) {
    int mid = (hi+lo)/2;
    if (lo==hi) return false;
    if (a[mid]==k) return true;
    if (a[mid]< k) return binarySearch(a,k,mid+1,hi);
    else return binarySearch(a,k,lo,mid-1);
}
```

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis – Binary search

Best case: Let suppose that 3 steps, $T(1) = O(1) = 1$

Worst case: Let suppose that $T(n) = 1 + T(n/2)$ where n is $hi - lo$

- Show $O(\log n)$ where n is *array.length*

1. Determine the recurrence relation. What is the base case?

$$T(n) = 1 + T(n/2)$$

$$T(n/2) = 1 + T(n/4)$$

$$T(n/4) = 1 + T(n/8)$$

telescoping \longrightarrow

...

$$T(4) = 1 + T(2)$$

$$T(2) = 1 + T(1)$$

2. Sum up the left and right sides of the equations above:

$$T(n) + T(n/2) + T(n/4) + \dots + T(2) = (1 + 1 + \dots + 1) + T(n/2) \dots + T(2) + T(1)$$

3. Cross out the equal terms to simplify. How many 1's on the right side?

$$T(n) = \log_2 n + T(1)$$

$$= \log_2 n + 1$$

Therefore the time complexity of binary search is $T(n)$ is $O(\log n)$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis – Binary search

Best case: Let suppose that 3 steps, $T(1) = O(1) = 1$

Worst case: Let suppose that $T(n) = 1 + T(n/2)$ where n is $hi - lo$

- Show $O(\log n)$ where n is *array.length*

1. Determine the recurrence relation. What is the base case?

$$T(n) = 1 + T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) \quad T(1) = 1$$

2. "**Unfolding**" the original relation to find an equivalent general expression in terms of the number of expansions.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 1 + 1 + T(n/4) \\ &= 1 + 1 + 1 + T(n/8) \\ &= 1 + \dots + 1 + T(n/n) \end{aligned}$$



How many 1's here?

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis – Binary search

Best case: Let suppose that 3 steps, $T(1) = O(1) = 1$

Worst case: Let suppose that $T(n) = 1 + T(n/2)$ where n is $hi - lo$

- Show $O(\log n)$ where n is *array.length*

1. Determine the recurrence relation. What is the base case?

$$T(n) = 1 + T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) \quad T(1) = 1$$

2. "**Unfolding**" the original relation to find an equivalent general expression in terms of the number of expansions.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 1 + 1 + T(n/4) \\ &= 1 + 1 + 1 + T(n/8) \\ &= 1 + \dots + 1 + T(n/n) \\ &= \mathbf{1k} + T\left(\frac{n}{2^k}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis – Binary search

Best case: Let suppose that 3 steps, $T(1) = O(1) = 1$

Worst case: Let suppose that $T(n) = 1 + T(n/2)$ where n is $hi - lo$

- Show $O(\log n)$ where n is *array.length*

1. Determine the recurrence relation. What is the base case?

$$T(n) = 1 + T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) \quad T(1) = 1$$

2. "**Unfolding**" the original relation to find an equivalent general expression in terms of the number of expansions.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 1 + 1 + T(n/4) \\ &= 1 + 1 + 1 + T(n/8) \\ &= 1 + \dots + 1 + T(n/n) \\ &= 1k + T\left(\frac{n}{2^k}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Find a closed-form expression by setting the number of expansions to a value which reduces the problem to a base case

$$n/(2^k) = 1 \text{ means } n = 2^k \rightarrow k = \log_2 n$$

So $T(n) = 1 \log_2 n + 1$ (get to base case and do it)

So $T(n)$ is $O(\log n)$

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점금표기법

Asymptotic Analysis:

Suppose that two algorithms, A and B, solving the same problem have the running time of $O(n)$ and $O(n^2)$, respectively. Then this implies that algorithm A is **asymptotically better** than algorithm B.

We can use the **big-Oh** notation to order classes of functions by **asymptotic growth rate**. Seven functions below are often used and ordered by increasing growth rate.

※ $O(1) < O(\log n) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n^2) < O(n^3) < O(2^n)$

n	log n	n	n log n	n^2	n^3	2^n
1	0	1	0	1	1	2
2	1	2	2	4	8	4
4	2	4	8	16	64	16
8	3	8	24	64	512	256
16	4	16	64	256	4,096	65,536
32	5	32	160	1,024	32,768	4,294,967,296
64	6	64	384	4,096	262,144	1.84×10^{19}
128	7	128	896	16,384	2,097,152	3.40×10^{38}
256	8	256	2,048	65,536	16,777,216	1.15×10^{77}

※ Even if we achieve a dramatic speed-up in hardware, we still cannot overcome the handicap of an asymptotically slow program.

Chapter 1 – Basic concepts

1.5 Performance Analysis - Asymptotic notation (O, Ω, Θ) - 점 금 표 기 법

Example: Running time estimates - empirical analysis

- Laptop executes 10^8 compares/second
- Supercomputer executes 10^{12} compares/second

use a reasonable time unit

	Insertion sort (N^2)			Merge sort ($N \lg N$)		
N	Thousand	Million	Billion	Thousand	Million	Billion
Laptop	Instant	2.8 hours		Instant	1 sec	
Super Com	Instant	1 sec		Instant	Instant	Instant

※ **Bottom line:** Good algorithms are better than supercomputers.

ECE 20010 Data Structures

Data Structures

Chapter 1

- overview
 - *pointers and dynamic memory allocation*
- *algorithm specification*
 - *homework02*
 - *recursive algorithm*
- *data abstraction*
- *performance analysis - time complexity*