

Introduction

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Algorithms

- Goal: map inputs to outputs
 - The mapping is usually defined by a “problem”
 - No “information” is generated... data is “processed”
- Correctness is critical
 - Should prove that the mapping will (almost?) always be performed correctly by your algorithm
- Efficiency is very important
 - What does “efficient” mean? What is being measured?
 - Running time, Space (memory), other resources...
 - Tradeoff: Efficiency vs. ease of design and elegance of implementation

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Example Problem: Sorting

- Input is a sequence of n items (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)
- The mapping we want is determined by a “comparison” operation, denoted by \leq
- Output is a sequence (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n) such that:
 - $\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\} = \{b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n\}$
(i.e. output is a permutation of the input sequence)
 - $b_1 \leq b_2 \leq \dots \leq b_n$
- Sorting is really only useful when it can improve the efficiency of subsequent operations...

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Insertion Sorting

- Insertion-Sort($A[1..n]$):


```
for j = 2 to n
    key = A[j]
    i = j - 1
    while i > 0 and key ≤ A[i]
        A[i + 1] = A[i]
        i = i - 1
    A[i + 1] = key
```
- Does this algorithm sort A correctly?
 - Compare this with page 17 of CLRS for notation...

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Correctness of Insertion Sort

Insertion-Sort($A[1..n]$):

```
for j = 2 to n
    key = A[j]
    i = j - 1
    while i > 0 and key ≤ A[i]
        A[i + 1] = A[i]
        i = i - 1
    A[i + 1] = key
```

- Use Loop Invariants

- Initialization
 - Like a “Base Case”
- Maintenance
 - Like “Inductive Step”
- Termination
 - True at end of loop

- Consider the for loop:

- Claim: At end of each loop, $A[1..j]$ is in sorted order
 - Initialization: $j = 2$, thus $A[1..j-1]$ is sorted at start
 - Maintenance: if $A[1..j-1]$ was sorted at the start of the loop, then $A[1..j]$ will be sorted at the end
 - Termination: At end of last loop, $A[1..n]$ is sorted

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Runtime of Insertion Sort

Insertion-Sort($A[1..n]$):

```
for j = 2 to n
    key = A[j]
    i = j - 1
    while i > 0 and key ≤ A[i]
        A[i + 1] = A[i]
        i = i - 1
    A[i + 1] = key
```

- What takes time?
 - CLRS counts each op...
 - We will count uses of \leq
- Easy to see the outer loop happens $n-1$ times, but what about the inner one?

- “Worst case” runtime analysis: how bad could it be?
- Worst case happens if input is exactly “anti-sorted”
 - The inner loop will run from $i = j-1$ to 0, total of j times
 - One \leq used per inner loop, total of $\sum_{j=2}^n j = ______$ uses
- What is the best case?

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Merge Sorting 1

- Observation: It is easy to merge two pre-sorted lists
- Merge($L[1..n_1]$, $R[1..n_2]$):
 - $n = n_1 + n_2$; $i, j = 1$
 - Create array $A[1..n]$
 - for $k = 1$ to n
 - if $L[i] \leq R[j]$ then // Out of bounds = ∞
 - $A[k] = L[i]$; $i = i + 1$
 - else
 - $A[k] = R[j]$; $j = j + 1$
 - return A // A is now a merge of L, R
- Uses exactly $n = n_1 + n_2$ comparisons

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Merge Sorting 2

- Intuition: “Divide and Conquer”. Chop input into smaller, easily sorted lists... then merge them
- Merge-Sort($A[1..n]$):
 - if $n > 1$ then
 - $p = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$
 - $L = \text{Merge-Sort}(A[1..p])$
 - $R = \text{Merge-Sort}(A[p+1..n])$
 - return Merge(L, R)
 - else return A
- Correctness follows from correctness of Merge
- How can we analyze the runtime?

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Runtime of Merge Sort

```
Merge-Sort( $A[1..n]$ ):
if  $n > 1$  then
   $p = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ 
   $L = \text{Merge-Sort}(A[1..p])$ 
   $R = \text{Merge-Sort}(A[p+1..n])$ 
  return Merge( $L, R$ )
else return  $A$ 
```

- Exactly n total comparison operations are performed by the call to Merge(L, R)
- How many comparisons due to the recursion?
- Write a recurrence eqn.

- $T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + n$
- $T(2) = 2$
 - To simplify, can consider only n of the form 2^i for some i
- How do we solve this?

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Solving the Recurrence: Method 1

- Know the answer... then prove it using induction
 - Helps to be a psychic. Since you probably aren't, I will tell you the answer is: $T(n) = n \lg n$
- Proof:
- 1) Check basis step first: $T(2) = 2 \lg 2 = 2 \checkmark$
 - 2) Assume: $T(2^i) = 2^i \lg 2^i$ (inductive hypothesis)

Need to show: $T(2^{i+1}) = 2^{i+1} \lg 2^{i+1}$

By definition: $T(2^{i+1}) = T(2^i) + T(2^i) + 2^{i+1}$
 $= 2 \cdot (2^i \lg 2^i) + 2^{i+1} = 2^{i+1}(\lg 2^i + 1)$
 $= 2^{i+1} \lg 2^{i+1} \checkmark$

- $T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + n$, $T(2) = 2$
 - Consider only n of the form 2^i for some i

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Solving the Recurrence: Method 2

- Recursion Trees
 - See diagram in CLRS (I will draw this for you)
 - Much more intuitive, but somewhat error prone
 - Also easy to show that we don't really need n of the form 2^i ...

- $T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + n$, $T(2) = 2$
 - Consider only n of the form 2^i for some i

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Solving the Recurrence: Method 3

- Algebraic Techniques (more on these in the next class)
 - Yield exact solutions
 - Less error prone
 - Much harder for most people
- In general, main techniques are
 - Telescoping
 - Domain Transformations
 - Range Transformations
- Can often “cheat”, and apply the “Master Theorem”

- $T(n) = T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + T(\lceil n/2 \rceil) + n$, $T(2) = 2$
 - Consider only n of the form 2^i for some i

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Asymptotic Behavior

- Theoretically, constant factors don't matter much...
 - e.g. what is faster, $4n^2 + 10$ or n^3 operations?
 - In practice, they often do matter though
- Primarily, we will consider the design of "scalable" algorithms that must be efficient for large inputs
 - Bio-informatics, Google, etc.
- Thus, our primary concern is the behavior of algorithms as the input size tends towards ∞
 - This means we should consider the asymptotic behavior of efficiency measures such as runtime

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O-Notation

- Asymptotic Upper Bound
 - Definition: $f(n) = O(g(n))$ iff there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that:

$$0 \leq f(n) \leq c g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$
 - Intuitively, this states that some constant multiple of $g(n)$ eventually grows faster than $f(n)$ as n gets larger
 - Be careful, the "=" operator here is *not* equality!
- Observe that c can be arbitrary, so any constant factors in $g(n)$ are irrelevant. Just omit them.
- Example: $2n + \lg n = O(n)$

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Ω -Notation

- Asymptotic Lower Bound
 - Definition: $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ iff there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that:

$$0 \leq c g(n) \leq f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$
 - Intuitively, this states that $f(n)$ eventually grows faster than some constant multiple of $g(n)$ as n gets larger
 - Again, the "=" operator here is *not* equality!
- Observe that c can be arbitrary, so any constant factors in $g(n)$ are irrelevant. Just omit them.
- Example: $2n + \lg n = \Omega(n)$

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Θ -Notation

- Asymptotically Tight Bound
 - Definition: $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ iff there exist positive constants c_1 , c_2 , and n_0 such that:

$$0 \leq c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$
 - Intuitively, this states that $f(n)$ eventually grows like a constant multiple of $g(n)$ as n gets larger
 - Again, the "=" operator here is *not* equality!
- Observe that c can be arbitrary, so any constant factors in $g(n)$ are irrelevant. Just omit them.
- Example: $2n + \lg n = \Theta(n)$

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o -Notation

- Strict Asymptotic Upper Bound
 - Definition: $f(n) = o(g(n))$ iff for any positive constant c there exists a positive constant n_0 such that:

$$0 \leq f(n) \leq c g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$
 - Intuitively, this states that *any* constant multiple of $g(n)$ eventually grows faster than $f(n)$ as n gets larger
 - Again, the "=" operator here is *not* equality!
- Observe that c can be arbitrary, so any constant factors in $g(n)$ are irrelevant. Just omit them.
- Example: $2n + \lg n = o(n^2)$

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ω -Notation

- Asymptotic Lower Bound
 - Definition: $f(n) = \omega(g(n))$ iff for any positive constant c there exists a positive constant n_0 such that:

$$0 \leq c g(n) \leq f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$
 - Intuitively, this states that $f(n)$ eventually grows faster than *any* constant multiple of $g(n)$ as n gets larger
 - Again, the "=" operator here is *not* equality!
- Observe that c can be arbitrary, so any constant factors in $g(n)$ are irrelevant. Just omit them.
- Example: $2n + \lg n = \omega(\lg n)$

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Useful Relationships

- Transitivity: $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $g(n) = O(h(n))$ implies that $f(n) = O(h(n))$ (similarly for all...)
- Reflexivity: $f(n) = O(f(n))$ (similarly for Θ, Ω)
- $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ iff $g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
- $f(n) = O(g(n))$ iff $g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$
- $f(n) = o(g(n))$ iff $g(n) = \omega(f(n))$
- $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ iff $f(n) = O(g(n))$ and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$