

# Foundations

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# Outline

- 1 **Course Information**
- 2 **Getting Started**
- 3 **Growth of Functions**
- 4 **Recurrences**

# Staff

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# Prerequisites

## Textbook

1. CLRS, **Introduction to Algorithms (3rd edition)**, (2009), The MIT Press.

## Reference

- Anany Levitin, **算法分析与设计基础**, 潘彦译, (2004), 清华大学出版社
- 王晓东, **计算机算法设计与分析**, 第四版, (2012), 电子工业出版社

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## Reference

- Donald E. Knuth(高德纳), The Art of Computer Programming (TAOCP), vol 1, 2, 3, 4A, addison-wesley publishing company.
- <http://www-cs-staff.stanford.edu/~uno/>

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## Reference

- <http://poj.org/>
- <http://en.wikipedia.org/>
- <http://www.github.com/>

# Topics

## Course Schedule

- 1 Foundations & Divide-and-Conquer.
- 2 Sorting algorithms.
- 3 Dynamic programming.
- 4 Greedy algorithm.
- 5 Amortized analysis, Heaps.
- 6 Graph Algorithms.
- 7 String match.
- 8 NPC, Approximation algorithms.
- 9 Multithreaded Algorithms.

# Policy

## Grading Policy

- 考勤(10%)
- 平时作业(30%)
- 期末考试(60%)

## Collaboration Policy

- 不能抄袭
- 引用他人成果需指明出处



# Policy

## Homework Policy

- 编程语言：C/C++/C #/Java/Python; 作业文档：Latex/Doc;
- 没有在规定时间内提交作业者，每迟交一天，扣10分，扣完为止;
- 交作业时漏交某些题目，每迟交一天，扣漏交题目分数的10%，扣完为止;
- 如果提交时网络学堂有故障，请在半小时内发邮件给助教，超过半小时按迟交处理.

# What's algorithm?

## Definition

**An algorithm** is any well-defined computational procedure that takes some value, or set of values, as **input** and produces some value, or set of values, as **output**. An algorithm is thus a sequence of computational steps that transform the input into the output.

# What's algorithm?

## Example

### Sorting problem:

- **Input:** A sequence of  $n$  numbers  $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$ .
- **Output:** A permutation (reordering)  $\langle a'_1, a'_2, \dots, a'_n \rangle$  of the input sequence such that  $a'_1 \leq a'_2 \leq \dots \leq a'_n$ .

# Analysis of algorithms

## Definition

The theoretical study of computer-program performance and resource usage.

## What's more important than performance?

- correctness
- programmer time
- maintainability
- robustness
- user-friendliness

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## Why study algorithms and performance?

- Performance often draws the line between what is feasible and what is impossible.
- Analysis of algorithms helps us to understand scalability.
- Algorithmic mathematics provides a language for talking about program behavior.
- The lessons of program performance generalize to other computing resources.

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# Analysis of algorithms

## Practical Use of algorithm

- The Human Genome Project has the goals of identifying all the **100,000 genes** in human DNA, determining the sequences of the **3 billion chemical base pairs** that make up human DNA, storing this information in databases, and developing tools for data analysis.

# Analysis of algorithms

## Practical Use of algorithm

- The Internet enables people all around the world to quickly access and retrieve large amounts of information.
- Electronic commerce enables goods and services to be negotiated and exchanged electronically.

# Some questions

**Given a problem, can we find an algorithm to solve it?**

**Not always!**

**Hilbert's 10th Problem**

What is a good algorithm?

Time is important!

Is a “good” algorithm always exist?

Not clear now!

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# The problem of sorting

## Input

A sequence of  $n$  numbers  $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$ .

## Output

A permutation (reordering)  $\langle a'_1, a'_2, \dots, a'_n \rangle$  of the input sequence such that  $a'_1 \leq a'_2 \leq \dots \leq a'_n$ .

## Example

**Input:** 8, 2, 4, 9, 3, 6.

**Output:** 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 9.



# The problem of sorting

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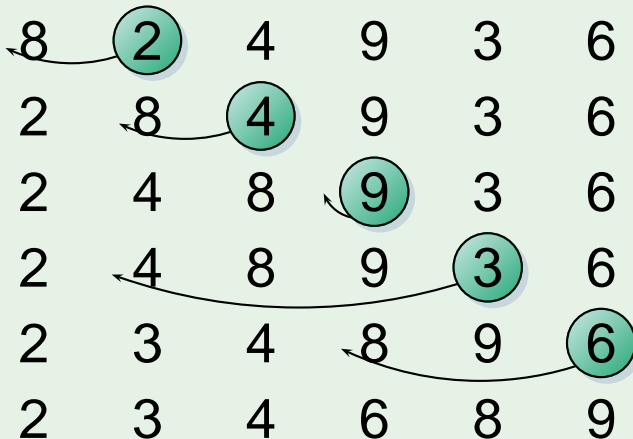
# Insertion sort

## INSERT-SORT( $A$ )

```
1  for  $j = 2$  to  $A.length$ 
2       $key = A[j]$ 
   // Insert  $A[j]$  into the sorted sequence  $A[1..j - 1]$ 
3       $i = j - 1$ 
4      while  $i > 0$  and  $A[i] > key$ 
5           $A[i + 1] = A[i]$ 
6           $i = i - 1$ 
7       $A[i + 1] = key$ 
```

# Insertion sort

## Example



# Insertion sort

**Table:** Analysis of INSERT-SORT

INSERT-SORT( $A$ )	<i>cost times</i>	
<b>for</b> $j = 2$ <b>to</b> $A.length$	$c_1$	$n$
<b>do</b> $key = A[j]$	$c_2$	$n - 1$
// Insert $A[j]$	0	0
$i = j - 1$	$c_4$	$n - 1$
<b>while</b> $i > 0$ and $A[i] > key$	$c_5$	$\sum_{j=2}^n t_j$
<b>do</b> $A[i + 1] = A[i]$	$c_6$	$\sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$
$i = i - 1$	$c_7$	$\sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$
$A[i + 1] = key$	$c_8$	$n - 1$

# Insertion sort

## Analysis of INSERT-SORT

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) = & c_1 n + c_2(n-1) + c_4(n-1) \\ & + c_5 \sum_{j=2}^n t_j + c_6 \sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1) \\ & + c_7 \sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1) + c_8(n-1) \end{aligned}$$

# Insertion sort

## Best case

In **INSERT-SORT**, the best case occurs if the array is already sorted.

$$T(n) = (c_1 + c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8)n \\ - (c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8)$$

The time can be expressed as  $an + b$ ; it is thus a **linear function** of  $n$ .

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# Insertion sort

## Worst-cse

If the array is in reverse sorted order, the worst case results.

$$\begin{aligned}T(n) = & \left(\frac{c_5}{2} + \frac{c_6}{2} + \frac{c_7}{2}\right)n^2 \\ & + \left(c_1 + c_2 + c_4 + \frac{c_5}{2} - \frac{c_6}{2} - \frac{c_7}{2} + c_8\right)n \\ & - (c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8)\end{aligned}$$

The time can be expressed as  $an^2 + bn + c$ ; it is thus a **quadratic function** of  $n$ .

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# Insertion sort

## Running time

- The running time depends on the input: an already sorted sequence is easier to sort.
- Parameterize the running time by the size of the input, since short sequences are easier to sort than long ones.
- Generally, we seek upper bounds on the running time, because everybody likes a guarantee.

# Machine-independent time

## Random-access machine(RAM) model

- No concurrent operations.
- Each instruction takes a constant amount of time.

## Asymptotic Analysis

- Ignore machine-dependent constants.
- Look at the **growth** of  $T(n)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

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# $\Theta$ -notation

## Definition

$$\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \exists c_1, c_2, n_0 \in \mathbb{R}^+, \text{ s.t.} \\ \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n)\}$$

We say that  $g(n)$  is an **asymptotically tight bound** for  $f(n)$ . Denoted as  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  or  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ .

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# $\Theta$ -notation

## Example

$$\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 3n = \Theta(n^2), \quad 0.001n^3 \neq \Theta(n^2),$$

$$c_0 = \Theta(1), \quad \sum_{i=0}^d a_i n^i = \Theta(n^d) \quad (a_d > 0).$$

# $\Theta$ -notation

## Example

For all  $n \geq n_0$ ,

$$c_1 n^2 \leq \frac{1}{2} n^2 - 3n \leq c_2 n^2,$$

Dividing by  $n^2$  yields,

$$c_1 \leq \frac{1}{2} - \frac{3}{n} \leq c_2.$$

Choosing  $c_1 = 1/14$ ,  $c_2 = 1/2$ , and  $n_0 = 7$ .

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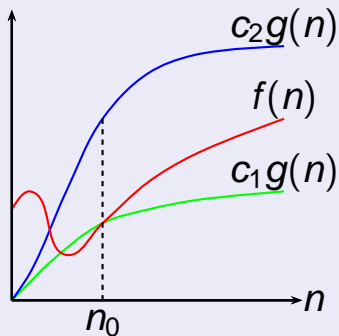
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Choosing  $c_1 = 1/14$ ,  $c_2 = 1/2$ , and  $n_0 = 7$ .

# $\Theta$ -notation

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



# O-notation and $\Omega$ -notation

## Definition

When we have only an **asymptotically upper bound**, we use O-notation.

$$O(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \exists c, n_0 \in \mathbb{R}^+, \text{ s.t.} \\ \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n)\}$$

Denoted as  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  or  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ .

# O-notation and $\Omega$ -notation

## Definition

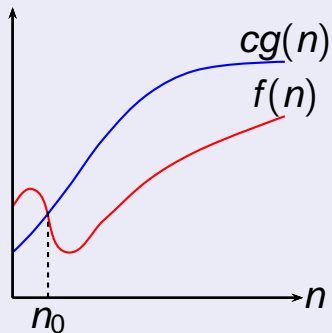
$\Omega$ -notation provides an **asymptotically lower bound**.

$$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \exists c, n_0 \in \mathbb{R}^+, \text{ s.t.} \\ \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n)\}$$

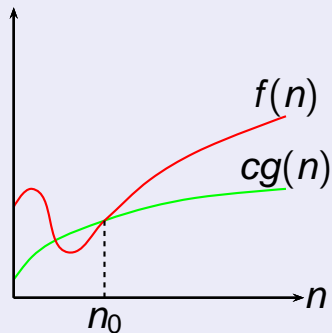
Denoted as  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$  or  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ .

# O-notation and $\Omega$ -notation

$$f(n) = O(g(n))$$



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



# $O$ -notation and $\Omega$ -notation

## Example

$$\begin{aligned}n &= O(n^2), & 2n^2 &= O(n^2), \\2n^2 &= \Omega(n), & 2n^2 &= \Omega(n^2).\end{aligned}$$



# $O$ -notation and $\Omega$ -notation

## Theorem 3.1

For any two functions  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$ , we have  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  if and only if  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ .

## Asymptotic notation in equations

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

$$\Theta(n^2) + O(n^2)$$

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## Asymptotic notation in equations

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

$$\Theta(n^2) + O(n^2) = \Theta(n^2)$$

# $o$ -notation and $\omega$ -notation

## Definition

$$o(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \forall c > 0, \exists n_0 > 0, \\ \text{s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq f(n) < cg(n)\}$$

Denoted as  $f(n) = o(g(n))$ . Intuitively,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0.$$

$$\omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \forall c > 0, \exists n_0 > 0, \\ \text{s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq cg(n) < f(n)\}$$

The relation  $f(n) = \omega(g(n))$  implies that

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$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \infty.$$

# $o$ -notation and $\omega$ -notation

## Example

$$\begin{aligned} 2n &= o(n^2), & 2n^2 &\neq o(n^2), \\ 2n^2 &= \omega(n), & 2n^2 &\neq \omega(n^2). \end{aligned}$$

# Comparison of functions

## Transitivity

$f(n) = \gamma(g(n))$  and  $g(n) = \gamma(h(n))$  imply  
 $f(n) = \gamma(h(n))$ ,  $\gamma = \Theta, O, \Omega, o, \omega$

## Reflexivity

$f(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ ,  $f(n) = O(f(n))$ ,  $f(n) = \Omega(f(n))$



# Comparison of functions

## Symmetry

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \iff g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$$

## Transpose symmetry

$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \iff g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$$

$$f(n) = o(g(n)) \iff g(n) = \omega(f(n))$$

# An analogy between functions and real numbers

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Asymptotic Relation  
between functions

---

$$f(n) = O(g(n))$$

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

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

$$f(n) = o(g(n))$$

$$f(n) = \omega(g(n))$$

---

Relations between  
real numbers

---

$$a \leq b$$

$$a \geq b$$

$$a = b$$

$$a < b$$

$$a > b$$

---

# History of notation

## History of notation

- $O$ -notation was presented by P. Bachmann in 1892.
- $o$ -notation was invented by E. Landau in 1909 for his discussion of the distribution of prime numbers.
- $\Omega$  and  $\Theta$  notations were advocated by D. Knuth in 1976.

# Standard notations and common functions

## Floors and ceilings

$$x - 1 < \lfloor x \rfloor \leq x \leq \lceil x \rceil < x + 1$$

For any integer  $n$ ,  $\lceil n/2 \rceil + \lfloor n/2 \rfloor = n$ ,  
and for integers  $a, b > 0$

$$\lceil a/b \rceil \leq (a + (b - 1))/b, \lfloor a/b \rfloor \geq ((a - (b - 1))/b)$$

# Standard notations and common functions

## Logarithms

For all real  $a > 0$ ,  $b > 0$ ,  $c > 0$ , and  $n$ .

$$\log_b a = \frac{1}{\log_a b}, a^{\log_b c} = c^{\log_b a}$$

$$\frac{x}{1+x} \leq \ln(1+x) \leq x$$

# Standard notations and common functions

## Factorials

**Stirling's approximation:**

$$n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \left(1 + \Theta\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right)$$

# Standard notations and common functions

## Factorials

**Stirling's approximation:**

$$n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \left(1 + \Theta\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right)$$

$$n! = o(n^n), n! = \omega(2^n), \lg(n!) = \Theta(n \lg n)$$

# Standard notations and common functions

## Functional iteration

$$f^{(i)}(n) = \begin{cases} n & i = 0 \\ f(f^{(i-1)}(n)) & i > 0 \end{cases}$$

**The iterated logarithm function:**

$$\lg^* n = \min\{i \geq 0 : \lg^{(i)} n \leq 1\}$$



# Standard notations and common functions

## Functional iteration

$$f^{(i)}(n) = \begin{cases} n & i = 0 \\ f(f^{(i-1)}(n)) & i > 0 \end{cases}$$

## The iterated logarithm function:

$$\lg^* n = \min\{i \geq 0 : \lg^{(i)} n \leq 1\} \quad \lg^* 2 = 1, \lg^* 4 = 2, \lg^* 16 = 3, \lg^* 65536 = 4, \lg^*(2^{65536}) = 5.$$

# Exercises

## Sorting the speed of growth

$(n-2)!$ ,  $5 \lg(n+100)^{10}$ ,  $2^{2n}$ ,  $0.001n^4 + 3n^3 + 1$ ,  $\ln^2 n$ ,  $\sqrt[3]{n}$ ,  $2^n$ ,  $n!$

## Which is asymptotically larger

$\lg(\lg^* n)$  or  $\lg^*(\lg n)$

# What is recurrences?

## Fibonacci numbers

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, ...

$$F(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 1, \\ F(n-1) + F(n-2) & \text{if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

## FIBONNACI( $n$ )

```
1  if ( $n = 0$ ) return 0
2  if ( $n = 1$ ) return 1
3  return FIBONNACCI( $n - 1$ ) + FIBONNACCI( $n - 2$ )
```

# What is recurrences?

## Definition

A recurrence is an equation or inequation that describes a function in terms of its value on smaller inputs.

# What is recurrences?

## History of recurrences

- In 1202, recurrences were studied by Leonardo Fibonacci (1170-1250).
- A. De Moivre (1667-1754) introduced the method of generating functions for solving recurrences.
- Bentley, Haken and Saxe presented the Master Theorem in 1980.

# The substitution method

## General method

- 1 **Guess** the form of the solution.
- 2 **Verify** by mathematical induction.

# The substitution method

## Example

$$T(n) = 9T(\lfloor n/3 \rfloor) + n$$

- Assume that  $T(1) = \Theta(1)$
- Guess  $O(n^3)$ . (Prove  $O$  and  $\Omega$  separately.)
- Assume that  $T(k) \leq ck^3$  for  $k < n$ .
- Prove  $T(n) \leq cn^3$  by induction.

# The substitution method

## Example

$$T(n) = 9T(\lfloor n/3 \rfloor) + n$$

- Assume that  $T(1) = \Theta(1)$
- Guess  $O(n^3)$ . (Prove  $O$  and  $\Omega$  separately.)
- Assume that  $T(k) \leq ck^3$  for  $k < n$ .
- Prove  $T(n) \leq cn^3$  by induction.



# The substitution method

## Example

$$\begin{aligned}T(n) &= 9T(n/3) + n \\&\leq 9c(n/3)^3 + n \\&= (c/3)n^3 + n \\&= cn^3 - ((2c/3)n^3 - n) \\&\quad \nwarrow \text{desired} - \text{residual} \\&\leq cn^3 \leftarrow \text{desired}\end{aligned}$$

When  $((2c/3)n^3 - n) \geq 0$ , it is true.

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When  $((2c/3)n^3 - n) \geq 0$ , it is true. **not tight!**

# The substitution method

## Example

***A tighter upper bound ?***

Assume  $T(k) \leq ck^2$  for  $k < n$

$$\begin{aligned}T(n) &= 9T(n/3) + n \\&\leq 9c(n/3)^2 + n \\&= cn^2 + n \\&= cn^2 - (-n) \\&\leq cn^2\end{aligned}$$

We can never get  $-n > 0$ !

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**Wrong!**

We can never get  $-n > 0$ !

# The substitution method

## Example

***A tighter upper bound !***

**Strengthen the inductive hypothesis:**

Assume  $T(k) \leq c_1 k^2 - c_2 k$  for  $k < n$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 9T(n/3) + n \\ &\leq 9(c_1(n/3)^2 - c_2(n/3)) + n \\ &= c_1 n^2 - 3c_2 n + n \\ &= (c_1 n^2 - c_2 n) - (2c_2 n - n) \\ &\leq c_1 n^2 - c_2 n \end{aligned}$$

# The substitution method

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# The substitution method

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Pick  $c_2 > 1/2$

# The recursion-tree method

## Definition

- A **recursion tree** models the costs of a execution of an recursive algorithm.
- Each node of a recursion tree represents the cost of a single subproblem.
- A recursion tree is good for generating a good guess, which is then verified by the substitution method.

## Example

$$T(n) = T(\lfloor n/4 \rfloor) + T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + \Theta(n^2)$$

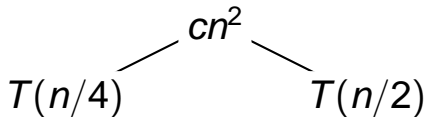
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$$T(n)$$

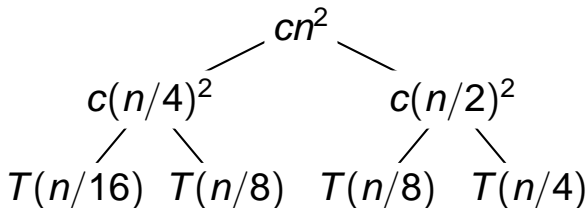
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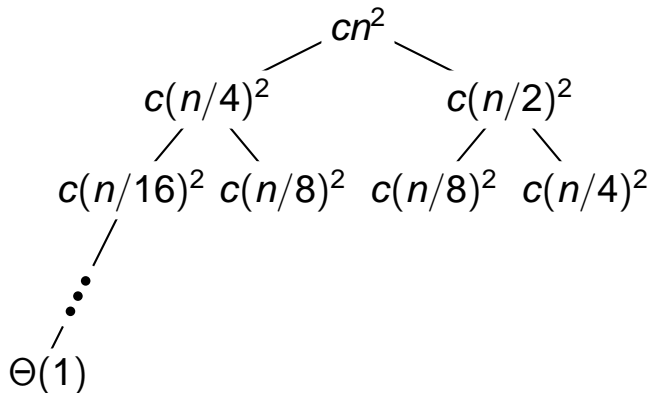
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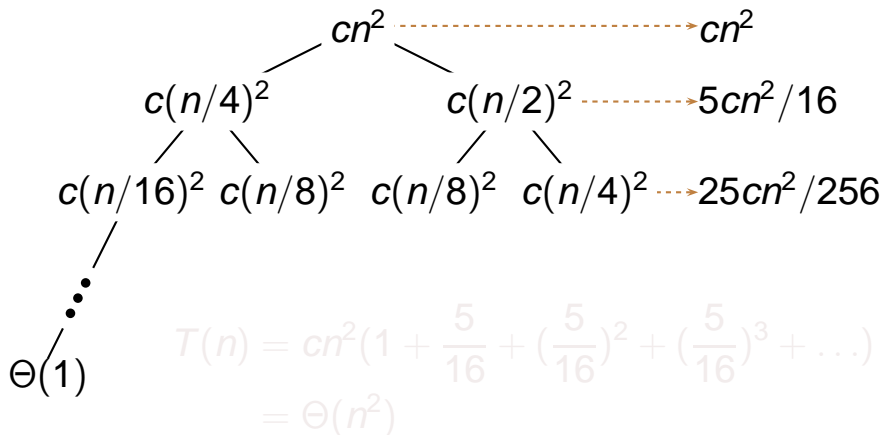
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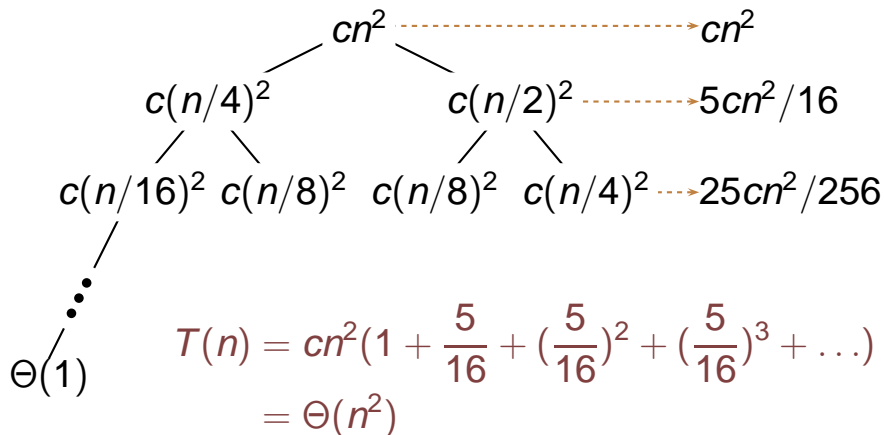
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# Changing Variables

## Changing variables

$$T(n) = 2T(\lfloor \sqrt{n} \rfloor) + \lg n$$

- Let  $m = \lg n$ , then  $T(2^m) = 2T(2^{m/2}) + m$ .
- Let  $S(m) = T(2^m)$ , then  
 $S(m) = 2S(m/2) + m$ .
- $T(n) = T(2^m) = S(m) = \Theta(m \lg m) = \Theta(\lg n \lg \lg n)$ .

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# The master method

The master method applies to recurrences of the form

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n),$$

where  $a \geq 1$ ,  $b > 1$ , and  $f$  is asymptotically positive.

# The master method

## Three common cases

Compare  $f(n)$  with  $n^{\log_b a}$ :

- 1 If  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$  for some constant  $\epsilon > 0$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ .
- 2 If  $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg n)$ .
- 3 If  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$  for some constant  $\epsilon > 0$ , and if  $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$  for some constant  $c < 1$  and all sufficiently large  $n$ , then  $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ .

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# The master method

## Example

- $T(n) = 9T(n/3) + n$

We have  $a = 9$ ,  $b = 3$ ,  $f(n) = n$ , and thus we have that  $n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_3 9} = n^2$ . Since  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_3 9 - \epsilon})$ , where  $\epsilon = 1$ , we can apply **case 1**. The solution is  $T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$ .

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$a = 1$ ,  $b = 3/2$ ,  $f(n) = 1$ ,  $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) = \Theta(1)$ .

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# The master method

## Example

- $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + n \lg n$   
 $a = 3, b = 4, f(n) = n \lg n, f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_4 3 + \epsilon})$ , where  $\epsilon \approx 0.2$ . For sufficiently large  $n$ ,  
 $af(n/b) = 3(n/4) \lg(n/4) \leq (3/4)n \lg n$  for  $c = 3/4$ .  
By **case 3**,  $T(n) = \Theta(n \lg n)$ .

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## Is master method omnipotent?

Master Theorem fails in the following cases:

- When  $f(n)$  is smaller than  $n^{\log_b a}$  but not **polynomially** smaller. This is a gap between cases 1 and 2.
- When  $f(n)$  is larger than  $n^{\log_b a}$  but not **polynomially** larger. This is a gap between cases 2 and 3.
- When the regularity condition in case 3 fails to hold.



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# The master method

## Example

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + n \lg n$$

$a = 2, b = 2, f(n) = n \lg n$ , and  $n^{\log_b a} = n$ .  
 $f(n) = n \lg n$  is asymptotically larger than  $n$ , but not **polynomially** larger. The ratio  $f(n)/n = \lg n$  is asymptotically less than  $n^\epsilon$  for any positive constant  $\epsilon$ .

# The master method

## A more general method

In 1998, Mohamad Akra and Louay Bazzi presented a more general master method:

$$T(n) = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i T(\lfloor n/b_i \rfloor) + f(n)$$

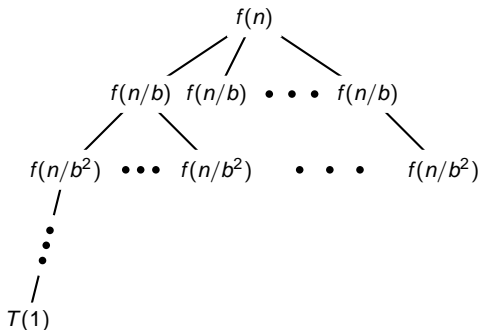
# The master method

## A more general method

This method would work on a recurrence such as  $T(n) = T(\lfloor n/3 \rfloor) + T(\lfloor 2n/3 \rfloor) + O(n)$ . We first find the value of  $p$  such that  $\sum_{i=1}^p a_i b_i^{-p} = 1$ . The solution to the recurrence is then

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^p) + \Theta\left(n^p \int_{n'}^n \frac{f(x)}{x^{p+1}} dx\right)$$

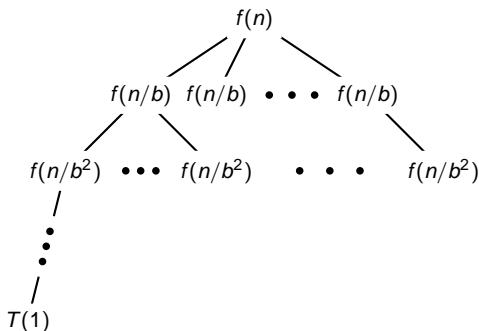
# Idea of master theorem



Number of leaves

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

# Idea of master theorem

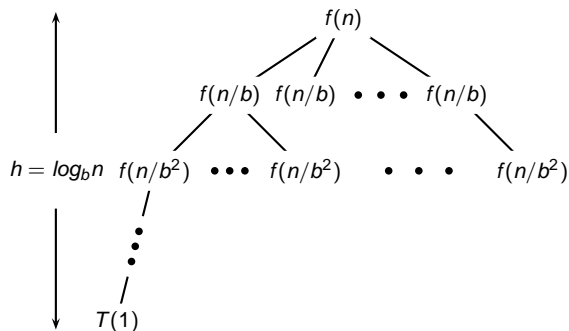


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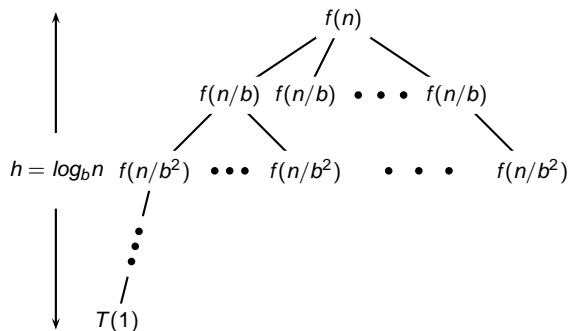
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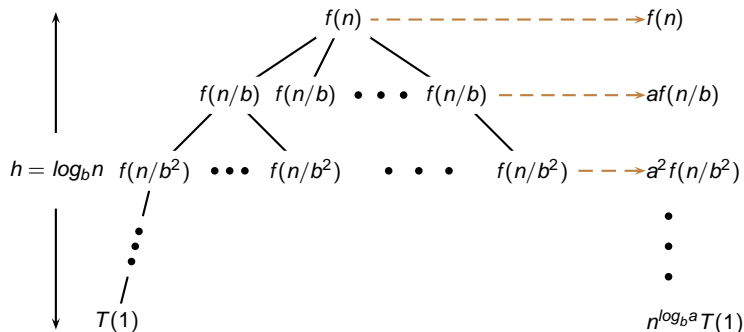
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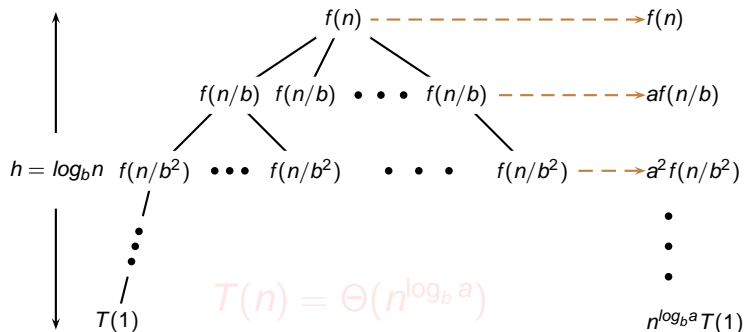
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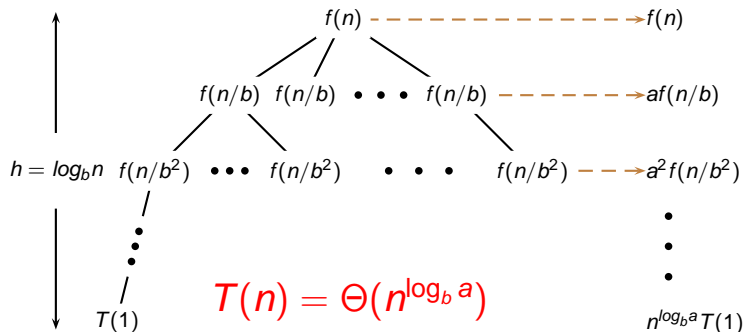
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## Case 1

The weight increases geometrically from the root to the leaves. The leaves hold a constant fraction of the total weight.

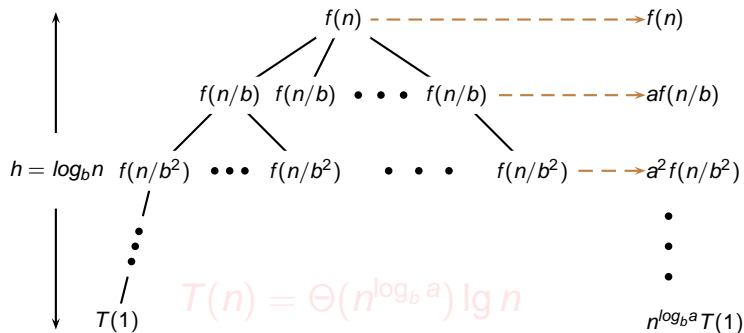
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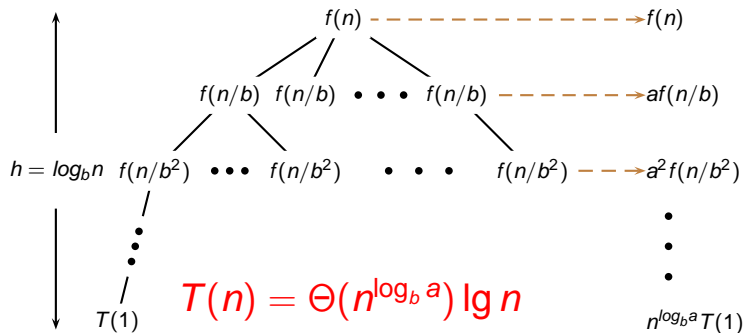
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## Case 2

The weight is approximately the same on each of the  $\log_b n$  levels.

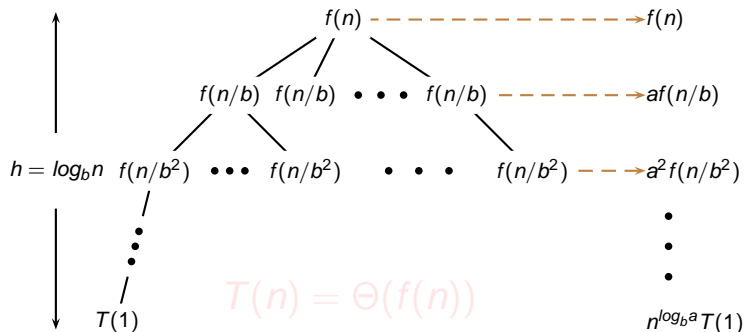
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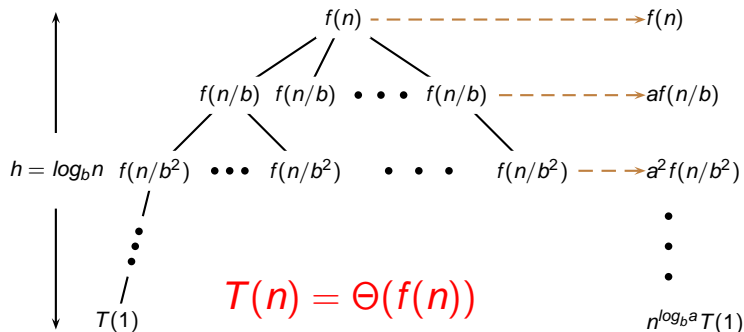


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The weight decreases geometrically from the root to the leaves. The root holds a constant fraction of the total weight.



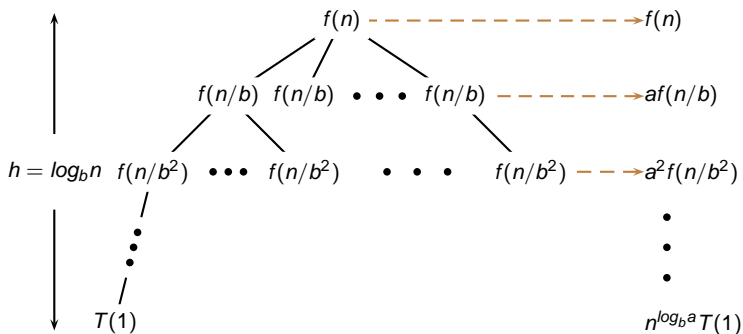
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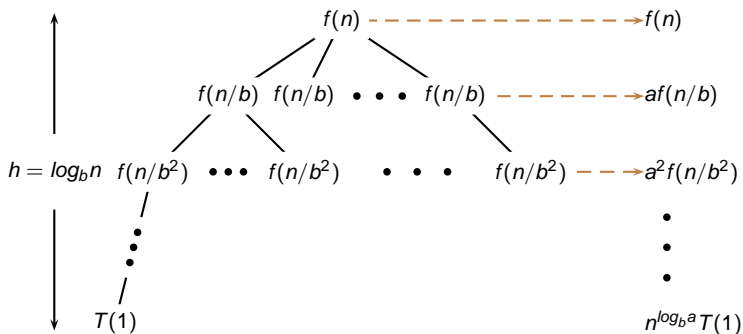
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# Proof of master theorem



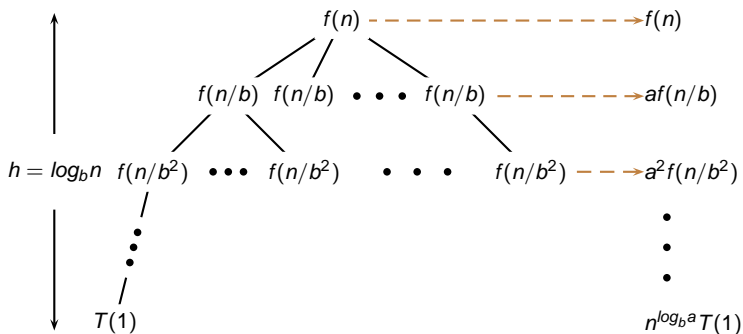
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# Proof of master theorem

**Case 1:**  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$

Since  $f(n/b^j) = O((n/b^j)^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} g(n) &= \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^j f(n/b^j) \\ &= O \left( \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^j \left( \frac{n}{b^j} \right)^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \right) \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^j \left(\frac{n}{b^j}\right)^{\log_b a - \epsilon} &= n^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} \left(\frac{ab^\epsilon}{b^{\log_b a}}\right)^j \\ &= n^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} (b^\epsilon)^j \end{aligned}$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^j \left(\frac{n}{b^j}\right)^{\log_b a - \epsilon} &= n^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \left(\frac{b^{\epsilon \log_b n} - 1}{b^{\epsilon} - 1}\right) \\ &= n^{\log_b a - \epsilon} \left(\frac{n^{\epsilon} - 1}{b^{\epsilon} - 1}\right) \end{aligned}$$



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**Case 1:**  $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) + \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^j f(n/b^j) \\ &= \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) + g(n) \\ &= \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) + O(n^{\log_b a}) \\ &= \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) \end{aligned}$$

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**Case 2:**  $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$

We have  $f(n/b^j) = \Theta((n/b^j)^{\log_b a})$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} g(n) &= \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^j f(n/b^j) \\ &= \Theta \left( \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^j \left( \frac{n}{b^j} \right)^{\log_b a} \right) \end{aligned}$$



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# Proof of master theorem

**Case 3:**  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$

$$\begin{aligned} g(n) &= \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} a^j f(n/b^j) \\ &\leq \sum_{j=0}^{\log_b n - 1} c^j f(n) \quad (\text{By } af(n/b) \leq cf(n)) \\ &\leq f(n) \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} c^j = f(n) \left( \frac{1}{1-c} \right) \end{aligned}$$

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**Case 3:**  $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon})$

$$\begin{aligned}T(n) &= \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) + g(n) \\&= \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) + \Theta(f(n)) \\&= \Theta(f(n))\end{aligned}$$

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