CS240 Notes

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# 1 Course Objectives

### 1.1 Overview

What is this course about?

- When first learning to program, we emphasize correctness
- Starting with this course, we will also be converned with efficiency
- We will study efficient methods of storing, accessing, and performing operations on large collections of data.
- Typical operations include: inserting new data items, deleting data items, searching for specific data items, sorting
- We will consider various abstract data types (ADTs) and how to implement them efficiently using appropriate data structures.
- There is a strong emphasis on mathematical analysis in the course
- Algorithms are presented using pseudocode and analyzed using order notation (big-O, etc.)

### Course Topics:

- big-O analysis
- priority queues and heaps
- sorting, selection
- binary search trees, AVL trees, B-trees
- skip lists
- hashing
- quadtrees, kd-trees
- range search
- tries
- string matching
- data compression

# Required knowledge:

- arrays, linked lists (3.2- 3.4)
- strings (3.6)
- stacks, queues (4.2 4.6)
- abstract data types (4 intro, 4.1, 4.8 4.9)
- recursie algorithms (5.1)
- binary trees (5.4 5.7)
- sorting (6.1 6.4)
- binary search (12.4)
- binary search trees (12.5)
- probability and expectations

# 1.2 General Terminologies

The core of CS240 is:

Given problem  $\Pi$ , design algorithm A that solves it, and analyze its efficiency

So what is a problem, an algorithms, and how do you quantify efficiency?

#### Problem

- Given a problem instance, carry out a particular computational task
- Ex. Sorting is a problem

#### Problem Instance

• Input for the specified problem

#### Problem Solution

• Output (correct answer) for the specified problem instance

### Size of a problem instance

• Size(I) is a positive integer which is a measure of the size of the instance I

### Algorithm

• a step-by-step process (e.g. described in pseudocode) for carrying out a series of computations, given an arbitrary problem instance I

### Algorithm solving a problem

• an algorithm A solves a problem  $\Pi$  if, for every instance I of  $\Pi$ , A finds (computes) a valid solution for the instance I in finite time

### Program

• an implementation of an algorithm using a specified computer language

#### Pseudocode

- a method of communicating an algorithm to another person
- in contrast, a program is a method of communicating an algorithm to a computer
- General rules of pseudocode:
  - o omits obvious details (variable declarations)
  - has limited, if any, error detection
  - o sometimes uses English descriptions
  - o sometimes usus mathematical notation

# 1.3 Algorithms and programs

For a problem  $\Pi$ , we can have several algorithms. For an algorithm A solving  $\Pi$ , we can have several programs (implementations)

Algorithms in practice: Given a problem  $\Pi$ :

- 1. Algorithm Design: Design an algorithm A that solves  $\Pi$
- 2. Algorithm Analysis: Assess correctness and efficiency of A
- 3. If acceptable (correct and efficient), implement A.

# 2 Analysis of Algorithms I

- Running Time: In this course, we are primarily concerned with the amount of time a program takes to run
- Space: We also may be interested in the amount of memory the program requires
- The amount of time and/or memory required by a program will depend on Size(I), the size of the given problem instance I

# 2.1 Running time of Algorithms/Programs

### Option 1: Experimental Studies

- Write a program implementing the algorithm
- Run the programs with various sizes of input and measure the actual running time
- Plot/compare the results

### Shortcomings:

- Implementation may be complicated/costly
- Timings are affected by many factors: hardware, software environment, and human factors
- We cannot test all inputs (what are good sample inputs?)
- We cannot easily compare two algorithms/programs

#### We want a framework that:

- Does not require implementing the algorithm
- Is independent of the hardware/software environment
- Takes into account all input instances

#### Which means, we need some simplifications

We will develop several aspects of algorithm analysis:

- Algorithms are presented in structured high-level pseudocode, which is languageindependent
- Analysis of algorithms is based on an idealized computer model
- The efficiency of an algorithm (with respect to time) is measure din terms of its growth rate, aka the complexity of the algorithm

# 2.2 Simplifications of running time

Overcome dependency on hardware/software

- Express algorithms using pseudocode
- Instead of time, count the number of primitive operations
- Implicit assumption: primitive operations have fairly similar, though different, running time on different systems

Random Access Machine (RAM) model:

- it has a set of memory cells, each of which stores one item (word) of data
- any access to a memory location takes constant time
- any primitive operation takes constant time
- the running time of a program can be computed to be the number of memory accesses plus the number of primitive operations

This is an idealized model, so these assumptions may not be valid for a "real" computer

Simplify Comparisons

- Example: Compare 100n with  $10n^2$
- Idea: Use order notation
- Informally: ignore constants and lower order terms

We will simplify our analysis by considering the behaviour of algorithms for large input sizes

# 2.3 Asymptotic Notation

#### O-notation

- $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  if there exist constants C > 0 and  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $|f(n)| \le c|g(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$
- Example: f(n) = 75n + 500 and  $g(n) = 5n^2$ , choose c = 1 and  $n_0 = 20$  can prove  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$
- Note: the absolute value signs inted definition are irrelevant for analysis of run-time or space, but are useful in other application sof asymptotic notation

### Example of Order Notation:

In order to prove that  $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)$  from first principles, we need to find c and  $n_0$  such that:

$$0 \le 2n^2 + 3n + 11 \le cn^2$$
 for all  $n \ge n_0$ 

Note that all choices of c and  $n_0$  will work. Solution:

Choose  $n_0 = 1$ .

$$n_0 \le n \to 1 \le n \to 1 \le n^2 \to 11 \le 11n^2$$
 
$$n_0 \le n \to 1 \le n \to n \le n^2 \to 3n \le 3n^2$$
 We also have:  $2n^2 \le 2n^2$ 

So we have:

$$2n^2 + 3n + 11 \le 2n^2 + 3n^2 + 11n^2 \le 16n^2$$

So let c = 16 and  $n_0 = 1$ , and we have |f(n)| < c|g(n)| for all  $n \ge n_0$ . Thus  $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)$ .

We want a **tight** asymptotic bound. So we have:

#### $\Omega$ -notation

•  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$  if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $c|g(n)| \le |f(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ 

### $\Theta$ -notation

•  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$  if there exist constants  $c_1, c_2 > 0$ , and  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $c_1|g(n)| \le |f(n)| \le c_2|g(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ 

#### Notice:

$$f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \longleftrightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n))$$
 and  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ 

### Example:

Prove that  $\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 5n \in \Omega(n^2)$  from first principles.

### **Solution:**

Let  $n_0 = 20$ . We find c.

$$n_0 = 20 \le n \to 20n \le n^2 \to 5n \le \frac{1}{4}n^2 \to 0 \le \frac{1}{4}n^2 - 5n$$
$$\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 5n = \frac{1}{4}n^2 + \underbrace{\frac{1}{4}n^2 - 5n}_{>0} \ge \frac{1}{4}n^2$$

Since  $\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 5n \ge \frac{1}{4}n^2$ , we choose  $c = \frac{1}{4}$  and we have  $\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 5n \in \Omega(n^2)$ .

### **Quick Summary:**

- $O \leftrightarrow$  asymptotically not bigger
- $\Omega \leftrightarrow$  asymptotically not smaller
- $\Theta \leftrightarrow$  asymptotically the same

We have  $f(n) = 2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in \Theta(n^2)$ 

• How do we express that f(n) is asymptotically strictly smaller than  $n^3$ ?

### o-notation

•  $f(n) \in o(g(n))$  if for all constants c > 0, there exists a constant  $n_0 > 0$  such that |f(n)| < c|g(n)| for all  $n \ge n_0$ 

#### $\omega$ -notation

•  $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$  if for all constants c > 0, there exists a constant  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $0 \le c|g(n)| < |f(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ 

The o and  $\omega$  notations are rarely proved from first principles.

# 2.4 Relationships between Order Notations

- $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \leftrightarrow g(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$
- $f(n) \in O(g(n)) \leftrightarrow g(n) \in \Omega(f(n))$
- $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \leftrightarrow g(n) \in \omega(f(n))$
- $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \to f(n) \in O(g(n))$
- $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \to f(n) \notin \Omega(g(n))$
- $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \to f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$
- $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \to f(n) \notin O(g(n))$

# 2.5 Algebra of Order Notations

### Identity rule

•  $f(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$ 

### Maximum rules

Suppose that f(n) > 0 and g(n) > 0 for all  $n \ge n_0$ , then:

- $O(f(n) + g(n)) = O(\max\{f(n), g(n)\})$
- $\Omega(f(n) + g(n)) = \Omega(\max\{f(n), g(n)\})$

### **Transitivity**

- if  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  and  $g(n) \in O(h(n))$ , then  $f(n) \in O(h(n))$
- if  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$  and  $g(n) \in \Omega(h(n))$ , then  $f(n) \in \Omega(h(n))$

# 2.6 Techniques for Order Notation

Suppose that f(n) > 0 and g(n) > 0 for all  $n > n_0$ . Suppose that:

$$L = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}$$

Then

$$f(n) \in \begin{cases} o(g(n)) & \text{if } L = 0\\ \Theta(g(n)) & \text{if } 0 < L < \infty\\ \omega(g(n)) & \text{if } L = \infty \end{cases}$$

The required can often be computed using  $l'H\hat{o}pital's rule$ .

Note that this result gives sufficient (but not necessary) conditions for the stated conclusions to hold.

Example1:

Let f(n) be a polynomial of degree  $d \ge 0$ 

$$f(n) = c_d n^d + c_{d-1} n^{d-1} + \dots + c_1 n + c_0$$

for some  $c_d > 0$ . Then  $f(n) \in \Theta(n^d)$ .

Solution:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{n^d} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(c_d n^d + c_{d-1} n^{d-1} + \dots + c_1 n + c_0)'}{(n^d)'}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(c_d)(d) n^{d-1} + (c_{d-1})(d-1) n^{d-2} + \dots + (c_1)(1) n^0 + 0)'}{dn^{d-1}}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(c_d)(d) n^{d-1}}{dn^{d-1}} + \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(c_{d-1})(d-1) n^{d-2}}{dn^{d-1}} + \dots + \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(c_1)(1) n^0}{dn^{d-1}}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(c_d)(d) n^{d-1}}{dn^{d-1}}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} c_d$$

$$= c_d$$

Since  $c_d > 0$ , we know that  $f(n) \in \Theta(n^d)$ , as desired.

Example2:

Prove that  $f(n) = n(2 + \sin(\frac{n\pi}{2}))$  is  $\Theta(n)$ . Note that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} (2 + \sin(\frac{n\pi}{2}))$  does not exist.

Solution:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n(2 + \sin(\frac{n\pi}{2}))}{n}$$
$$= \underbrace{\lim_{n \to \infty} (2 + \sin(\frac{n\pi}{2}))}_{\text{DNE, no conclusion}}$$

Think another way:

$$-1 \le \sin(\frac{n\pi}{2}) \le 1$$
$$1 \le 2 + \sin(\frac{n\pi}{2}) \le 3$$
Let  $n_0 = 1$ , so  $n \ge 1$ 
$$1n \le 2 + \sin(\frac{n\pi}{2}) \le 3n$$

So we have  $n_0 = 1$ ,  $c_1 = 1$  and  $c_0 = 1$ . And thus  $n(2 + \sin(\frac{n\pi}{2})) \in \Theta(n)$ 

### 2.7 Growth Rates

- If  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ , then the growth rates of f(n) and g(n) are the same
- If  $f(n) \in o(g(n))$ , then the growth rates of f(n) is less than g(n)
- If  $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$ , then the growth rates of f(n) is greater than g(n)
- Typically, f(n) may be complicated and g(n) is chosen to be a very simple function

### Example3:

Compare the growth rates of  $\log n$  and n.

Note: In this course, we default the base of log to be 2, so by  $\log n$  we mean  $\log_2 n$ 

Solution:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\log n}{n} \stackrel{H}{=} \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n \ln 2}}{1}$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{n \ln 2}$$
$$= 0$$

So  $\log n \in o(n)$  and

Now compare the growth rates of  $(\log n)^c$  and  $n^d$ , where c, d > 0 are arbitrary numbers.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(\log n)^c}{n^d} \stackrel{H}{=} \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{c(\log n)^{c-1} \frac{1}{n \ln 2}}{dn^{d-1}}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{c(\log n)^{c-1}}{d(\ln 2)n^d}$$

$$\stackrel{H}{=} \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{c(c-1)(\log n)^{c-2}}{d^2(\ln 2)^2 n^d}$$

$$\stackrel{H}{=} \dots$$

$$\stackrel{H}{=} \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{c!}{(\ln 2)^c d^c n^d}$$

$$= 0$$

So  $(\log n)^c \in o(n^d)$ , meaning  $(\log n)^c$  has growth rate less than  $n^d$  for arbitrary c, d > 0. This means, even if we have  $(\log n)^1 0000$ , we will still have a growth rate less than  $n^2$ 

# 2.8 Common Growth Rates

Commonly encountered growth rates in analysis of algorithms include the following (in increasing order of growth rate):

- $\Theta(1)$  (constant complexity)
- $\Theta(\log n)$  (logarithmic complexity)
- $\Theta(n)$  (linear complexity)
- $\Theta(n \log n)$  (linearithmic)
- $\Theta(n \log^k n)$  for some constant k (quasi-linear)
- $\Theta(n^2)$  (quadratic complexity)
- $\Theta(n^3)$  (cubic complexity)
- $\Theta(2^n)$  (exponencial complexity)

It is interesting to see how the running time is affected when the size of the problem in-

constant complexity: 
$$|T(n) = c | \rightarrow T(2n) = c$$
 logarithmic complexity: 
$$|T(n) = c | \rightarrow T(2n) = c$$
 linear complexity: 
$$|T(n) = c | \rightarrow T(2n) = T(n) + c$$
 stance doubles (i.e.  $n \rightarrow 2n$ ) linearithmic: 
$$|T(n) = cn | \rightarrow T(2n) = 2T(n)$$
 quadratic complexity: 
$$|T(n) = cn | \rightarrow T(2n) = 2T(n) + 2cn$$
 quadratic complexity: 
$$|T(n) = cn^2 | \rightarrow T(2n) = 4T(n)$$
 cubic complexity: 
$$|T(n) = cn^3 | \rightarrow T(2n) = 8T(n)$$
 exponencial complexity: 
$$|T(n) = c2^n | \rightarrow T(2n) = \frac{T(n)^2}{c}$$

# 2.9 Techniques for Algorithm Analysis

Goal: Use asymptotic notation to simplify run-time analysis

- running time of an algorithm depends on the input size n
- identify elementary operations that require  $\Theta(1)$  time
- the complexity of a loop is expressed as the sum of the complexities of each iteration of the loop
- Nested loops: starts with the innermost loop and proceed outwards. This gives nested summations

#### Example:

Test1

```
\begin{array}{l} \operatorname{sum} \leftarrow 0 \\ \operatorname{for} \ i \leftarrow 1 \ \operatorname{to} \ n \ \operatorname{do} \\ \operatorname{for} \ j \leftarrow i \ \operatorname{to} \ n \ \operatorname{do} \\ \operatorname{sum} \leftarrow \operatorname{sum} + (i+j)^2 \end{array} return sum
```

We have:

$$T(n) = c_0 + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c_2$$

$$= c_0 + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n c_2(n-i+1)$$

$$= c_0 + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n c_2 n - \sum_{i=1}^n c_2 i + \sum_{i=1}^n c_2$$

$$= c_0 + c_1 + c_2 n^2 - c_2 \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2}\right) + c_2 n$$

$$= c_0 + c_1 + c_2 \left(n^2 - \frac{n^2 - n}{2} + n\right)$$

$$= c_0 + c_1 + \frac{c_2}{2} \left(n^2 + n\right)$$

So 
$$T(n) \in \Theta(n^2)$$

Another way of doing the same thing is to find upper bound and lower bound.

$$T(n) = c_0 + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c_2 \le c_0 + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n c_2$$
$$= c_0 + c_1 + c_2 \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n 1$$
$$= c_0 + c_1 + c_2 n^2$$

So  $T(n) \in O(n^2)$ 

$$T(n) = c_0 + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=i}^n c_2 \ge c_0 + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} \sum_{j=1}^n c_2$$

$$\ge c_0 + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} \sum_{j=n/2+1}^n c_2$$

$$= c_0 + c_1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} c_2 \frac{n}{2}$$

$$= c_0 + c_1 + c_2 \frac{n}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} 1$$

$$= c_0 + c_1 + c_2 (\frac{n}{2}) (\frac{n}{2})$$

$$= c_0 + c_1 + c_2 (\frac{n^2}{4})$$

So  $T(n) \in \Omega(n^2)$ . Therefore  $T(n) \in \Theta(n^2)$ 

Two general strategies are as follows:

- Use  $\Theta$ -bounds throughout the analysis and obtain a  $\Theta$ -bound for the complexity of the algorithm
- Prove a O-bound and a matching  $\Omega$ -bound separately. Use upper bounds (for O-bounds) and lower bounds (for  $\Omega$ -bounds) early and frequently

This may be easier because upper/lower bounds are easier to sum.

# 2.10 Complexity of Algorithms

Algorithm can have different running times on two instances of the same size

```
Test3(A, n)

A: array of size n

for i \leftarrow 1 to n - 1 do

j \leftarrow i

while j > 0 and A[j] > A[j - 1] do

swap A[j] and A[j - 1]

j \leftarrow j - 1
```

Let  $T_A(I)$  denote the running time of an algorithm A on instance I.

### Worst-case complexity of an algorithm

• it is a function  $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  mapping n (the input size) to the longest running time for any input instance of size n

$$T_A(n) = max\{T_A(I) : Size(I) = n\}$$

### Average-case complexity of an algorithm

• it is a function  $f: \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  mapping n (the input size) to the average running time of A over all instances of size n

$$T_A^{avg}(n) = \frac{1}{|\{I : Size(I) = n\}|} \sum_{I : Size(I) = n} T_A(I)$$

The average is more important in real life, but it is also harder to calculate. In this course, we are talking about **worst case** complexity by default.

We need to convince/explain why a case is the worst case and compute its running time.

In the example of Test3 above, the worst number of times the while loop will run is i times. So  $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} ic \in \Theta(n^2)$ .

Note that the average running time for this code is also  $\Theta(n^2)$ .

# 2.11 *O*-notation and Complexity of Algorithms

We should not compare complexity of algorithms using O-notation because:

- the worst-case run-time may only be achieved on some instances
- O-notation is an upper bound

So if we want to compare algorithms, we should always use  $\Theta$ -notation.

# 2.12 Analysis of Merge Sort

### Design of Merge Sort

**Input:** Array A of n integers

- Step 1: We split A into two sub-arrays:  $A_L$  consists of the first  $\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil$  elements in A and  $A_R$  consists of the last  $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$  elements in A
- Step 2: Recursively run MergeSort on  $A_L$  and  $A_R$
- Step 3: After  $A_L$  and  $A_R$  have been sorted, use a function Merge to merge them into a single sorted array

### MergeSort implementation

```
\begin{aligned} \operatorname{MergeSort}(A, l \leftarrow 0, r \leftarrow n-1) \\ A: & \operatorname{array} \text{ of size } n, \ 0 \leq l \leq r \leq n-1 \\ & \operatorname{if } (r \leq l) \text{ then} \\ & \operatorname{return} \end{aligned} & \operatorname{else} \\ & m = (r+1)/2 \\ & \operatorname{MergeSort}(A, l, m) \\ & \operatorname{MergeSort}(A, m+1, r) \\ & \operatorname{Merge}(A, l, m, r) \end{aligned}
```

$$T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + \Theta(Merge)$$

### Merge implementation

```
Merge(A, l, m, r) A[0 \dots n-1] \text{ is an array, } A[l \dots m] \text{ is sorted, } A[m+1 \dots r] \text{ is sorted}
\text{initialize auxiliary array } S[0 \dots n-1]
\text{copy } A[l \dots r] \text{ into } S[l \dots r]
\text{int } i_L \leftarrow l; \text{ itn } i_R \leftarrow m+1;
\text{for } (k \leftarrow l; k \leq r; k++) \text{ do}
\text{if } (i_L > m) A[k] \leftarrow S[i_R++]
\text{else if } (i_R > r) A[k] \leftarrow S[i_L++]
\text{else if } (S[i_L] \leq S[i_R]) A[k] \leftarrow S[i_L++]
\text{else } A[k] \leftarrow S[i_R++]
```

So Merge takes time  $\Theta(r-l+1)$ , which is  $\Theta(n)$  time for merging n elements Therefore the overall running time of MergeSort is:

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

Analysis of MergeSort:

Let T(n) denote the time to run MergeSort on an array of length n

- Step 1 takes time  $\Theta(n)$
- Step 2 takes time  $T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor)$
- Step 3 takes time  $\Theta(n)$

The recurrence relation for T(n) is as follows:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) + \Theta(n) & \text{if } n > 1 \\ \Theta(1) & \text{if } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

It suffices to consider the following exact recurrence, with constant factor c replacing  $\Theta$ 's:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) + cn & \text{if } n > 1 \\ c & \text{if } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

The following is the corresponding sloppy recurrence (meaning it has floors and ceilings removed)

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn & \text{if } n > 1\\ c & \text{if } n = 1 \end{cases}$$

The exact and sloop recurrences are identical when n is a power of 2

The recurrence can easily be solved by various methods when  $n=2^{j}$ 

The solution has growth rate  $T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$ 

It is impossible to show that  $T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$  for all n by analyzing the exact recurrence.

So how to show  $T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$  when  $n = 2^{j}$ ?

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

$$= 2(2T(\frac{n}{2^2}) + c\frac{n}{2}) + cn$$

$$= 2^2T(\frac{n}{2^2}) + 2cn$$

$$= 2^2(T(\frac{n}{2^3}) + c\frac{n}{2^2}) + 2cn$$

$$= 2^3T(\frac{n}{2^3}) + 3cn$$

$$\dots$$

$$= 2^jT(\frac{n}{2^j}) + jcn$$

$$= 2^jc + jcn$$

$$= cn + jcn$$

$$= cn + cn \log n$$

So  $T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$ 

Here's another way of proving it:

We know that  $T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + cn$ .

So 
$$T(\frac{n}{2}) = 2T(\frac{n}{4}) + c\frac{n}{2}$$

We can draw a tree of the cost of T(n),  $T(\frac{n}{2})$ ,  $T(\frac{n}{4})$  and more, and sum them.

So we get  $T(n) = (\log n + 1)cn = cn \log n + cn \in \Theta(n \log n)$ 

# 2.13 Common Recurrence Relations

Recursion	Resolves to	Example
$T(n) = T(\frac{n}{2}) + \Theta(1)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(\log n)$	Binary search
$T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + \Theta(n)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$	Merge sort
$T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + \Theta(\log n)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(n)$	Heapify
$T(n) = T(cn) + \Theta(n)$ for some $0 < c < 1$	$T(n) \in \Theta(n)$	Selection
$T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{4}) + \Theta(1)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(\sqrt{n})$	Range Search
$T(n) = T(\sqrt{n}) + \Theta(1)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(\log \log n)$	Interpolation Search

Once you know the result, it is usually easy to prove by induction

Many more recursions, and some methods to find the result, in CS341

# 2.14 Summary & Helpful formulas

#### O-notation

•  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  if there exist constants C > 0 and  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $|f(n)| \le c|g(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ 

#### $\Omega$ -notation

•  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$  if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $c|g(n)| \le |f(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ 

#### $\Theta$ -notation

•  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$  if there exist constants  $c_1, c_2 > 0$ , and  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $c_1|g(n)| \le |f(n)| \le c_2|g(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ 

#### o-notation

•  $f(n) \in o(g(n))$  if for all constants c > 0, there exists a constant  $n_0 > 0$  such that |f(n)| < c|g(n)| for all  $n \ge n_0$ 

#### $\omega$ -notation

•  $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$  if for all constants c > 0, there exists a constant  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $0 \le c|g(n)| < |f(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ 

### **Useful Sums:**

### Arithmetic sequence

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (a+di) = na + \frac{dn(n-1)}{2} \in \Theta(n^2) \text{ if } d \neq 0$$

#### Geometric sequence

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} ar^{i} = \begin{cases} a\frac{r^{n}-1}{r-1} & \in \Theta(r^{n}) & \text{if } r > 1\\ na & \in \Theta(n) & \text{if } r = 1\\ a\frac{1-r^{n}}{1-r} & \in \Theta(1) & \text{if } 0 < r < 1 \end{cases}$$

### Harmonic sequence

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i} = \ln n + \gamma + o(1) \in \Theta(\log n)$$

#### A few more

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \in \Theta(1)$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i^k \in \Theta(n^k + 1) \text{ for } k \ge 0$$

# 2.15 Useful Math Facts

# Logarithms

- $a^{\log_b c} = c^{\log_b a}$
- $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$

### **Factorial**

- n! = number of ways to permute n elements
- $\log(n!) = \log n + \log(n-1) + \dots + \log 1 \in \Theta(n \log n)$

# Probability and moments

- (linearity of expectation)
- E[aX] = aE[X]
- E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y]

# 3 Heap