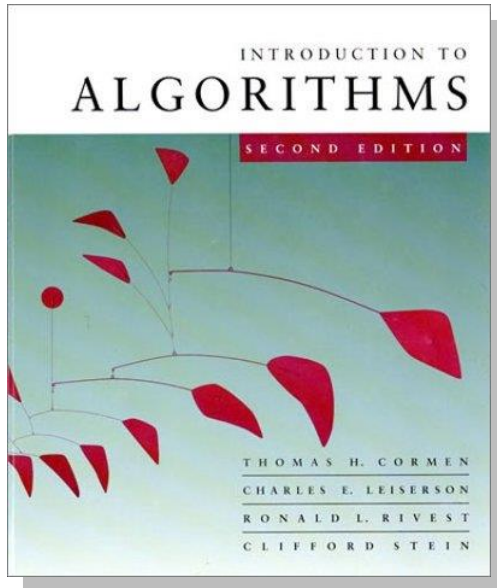


Algorithms



LECTURE 2

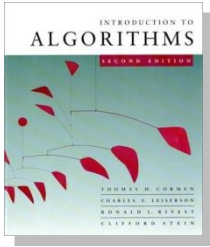
Asymptotic Notation

- O -, Ω -, and Θ -notation

Recurrences

- Substitution method
- Iterating the recurrence
- Recursion tree
- Master method

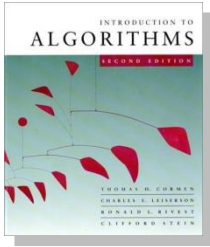
Professor Ashok Subramanian



Asymptotic notation

O -notation (upper bounds):

We write $f(n) = O(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$, $n_0 > 0$ such that $0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

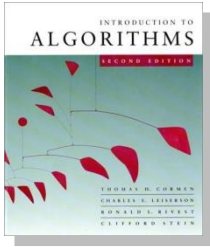


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EXAMPLE: $2n^2 = O(n^3)$ ($c = 1$, $n_0 = 2$)



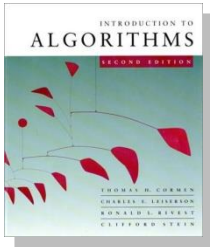
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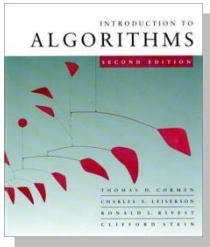
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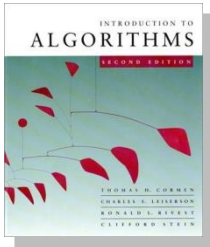
*functions,
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*funny, “one-way”
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Set definition of O-notation

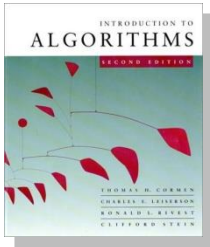
$O(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{there exist constants } c > 0, n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0 \}$



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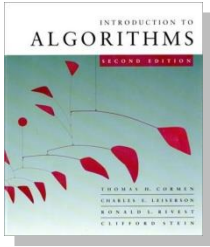


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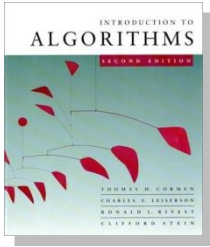
(Logicians: $\lambda n. 2n^2 \in O(\lambda n. n^3)$, but it's convenient to be sloppy, as long as we understand what's *really* going on.)



Macro substitution

Convention: A set in a formula represents an anonymous function in the set.

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Macro substitution

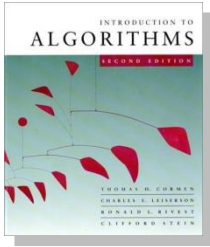
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EXAMPLE: $f(n) = n^3 + O(n^2)$

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$$f(n) = n^3 + h(n)$$

for some $h(n) \in O(n^2)$.



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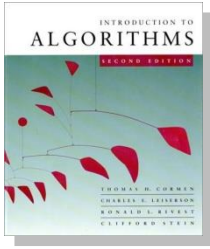
EXAMPLE: $n^2 + O(n) = O(n^2)$

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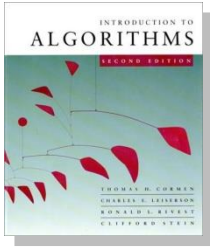
$$n^2 + f(n) = h(n)$$

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Ω -notation (lower bounds)

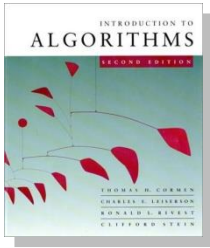
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$\Omega(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{there exist constants } c > 0, n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0 \}$

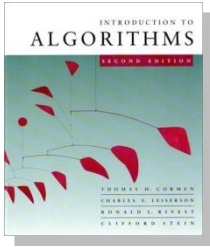


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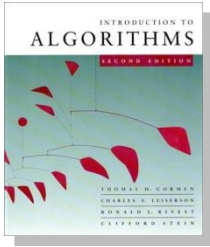
EXAMPLE: $\sqrt{n} = \Omega(\lg n)$ ($c = 1, n_0 = 16$)



Θ -notation (tight bounds)

$$\Theta(g(n)) = O(g(n)) \cap \Omega(g(n))$$

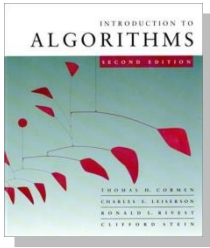
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Θ -notation (tight bounds)

$$\Theta(g(n)) = O(g(n)) \cap \Omega(g(n))$$

EXAMPLE: $\frac{1}{2}n^2 - 2n = \Theta(n^2)$

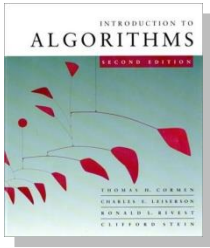


o -notation and ω -notation

O -notation and Ω -notation are like \leq and \geq .
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$o(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{for any constant } c > 0, \text{ there is a constant } n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq f(n) < cg(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0 \}$

EXAMPLE: $2n^2 = o(n^3)$ ($n_0 = 2/c$)

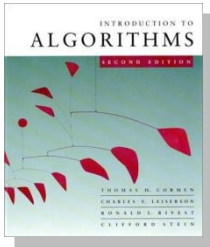


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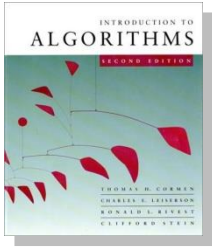
$\omega(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{for any constant } c > 0, \text{ there is a constant } n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq cg(n) < f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0 \}$

EXAMPLE: $\sqrt{n} = \omega(\lg n) \quad (n_0 = 1 + 1/c)$



Solving recurrences

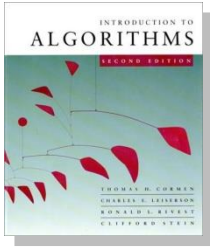
- The analysis of merge sort from *Lecture 1* required us to solve a recurrence.
- Recurrences are like solving integrals, differential equations, etc.
 - Learn a few tricks.
- *Lecture 3*: Applications of recurrences to divide-and-conquer algorithms.



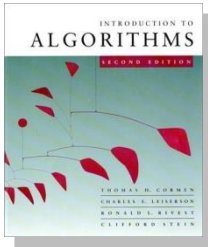
Substitution method

The most general method:

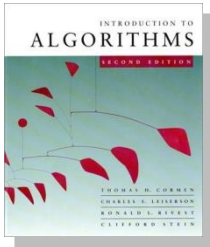
1. ***Guess*** the form of the solution.
2. ***Verify*** by induction.
3. ***Solve*** for constants.



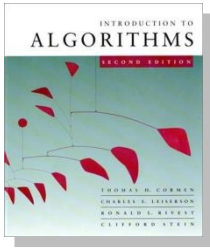
$$T(n) = 2T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + n ,$$



$T(n) = O(n \lg n)$. The substitution method requires us to prove that $T(n) \leq cn \lg n$ for an appropriate choice of the constant $c > 0$. We start by assuming that this bound holds for all positive $m < n$, in particular for $m = \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$, yielding $T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) \leq c \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \lg(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$. Substituting into the recurrence yields



$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &\leq 2(c \lfloor n/2 \rfloor \lg(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)) + n \\ &\leq cn \lg(n/2) + n \\ &= cn \lg n - cn \lg 2 + n \\ &= cn \lg n - cn + n \\ &\leq cn \lg n, \end{aligned}$$



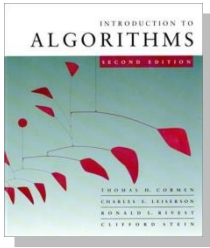
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The most general method:

1. **Guess** the form of the solution.
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EXAMPLE: $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$

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



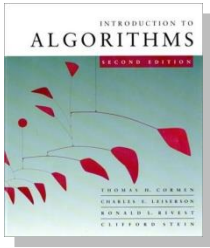
Example of substitution

$$\begin{aligned}T(n) &= 4T(n/2) + n \\&\leq 4c(n/2)^3 + n \\&= (c/2)n^3 + n \\&= cn^3 - ((c/2)n^3 - n) \leftarrow \text{desired} - \text{residual} \\&\leq cn^3 \leftarrow \text{desired}\end{aligned}$$

whenever $(c/2)n^3 - n \geq 0$, for

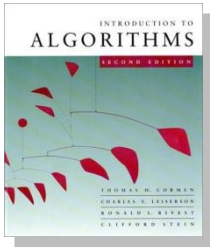
example, if $c \geq 2$ and $n \geq 1$.

residual



Example (continued)

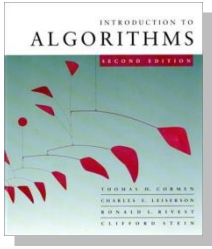
- We must also handle the initial conditions, that is, ground the induction with base cases.
- **Base:** $T(n) = \Theta(1)$ for all $n < n_0$, where n_0 is a suitable constant.
- For $1 \leq n < n_0$, we have “ $\Theta(1)$ ” $\leq cn^3$, if we pick c big enough.



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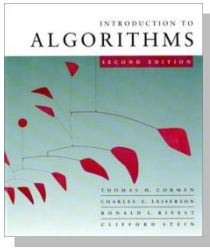
This bound is not tight!



A tighter upper bound?

We shall prove that $T(n) = O(n^2)$.

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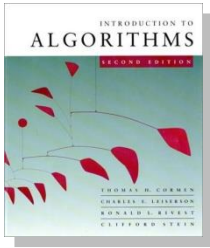


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We shall prove that $T(n) = O(n^2)$.

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

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 4T(n/2) + n \\ &\leq 4c(n/2)^2 + n \\ &= cn^2 + n \\ &= O(n^2) \end{aligned}$$



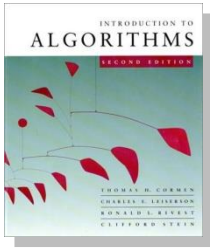
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~~$= O(n^2)$~~ **Wrong!** We must prove the I.H.



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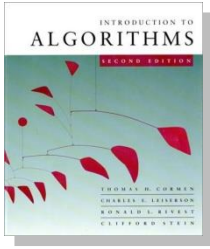
$$\leq 4c(n/2)^2 + n$$

$$= cn^2 + n$$

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$$= cn^2 - (-n) \quad [\text{desired} - \text{residual}]$$

$$\leq cn^2 \quad \text{for no choice of } c > 0. \text{ Lose!}$$

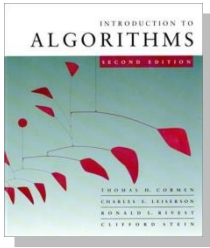


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IDEA: Strengthen the inductive hypothesis.

- *Subtract* a low-order term.

Inductive hypothesis: $T(k) \leq c_1 k^2 - c_2 k$ for $k < n$.



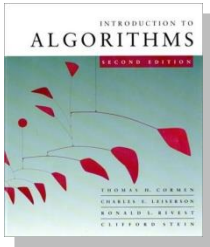
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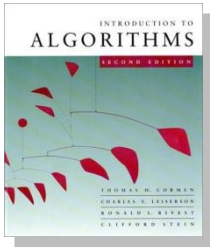
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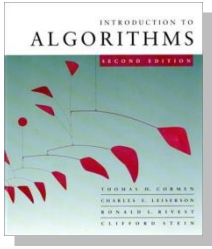
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Pick c_1 big enough to handle the initial conditions.



Recursion-tree method

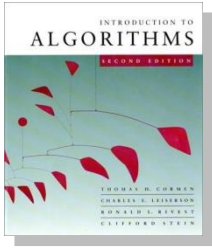
- A recursion tree models the costs (time) of a recursive execution of an algorithm.
- The recursion-tree method can be unreliable, just like any method that uses ellipses (...).
- The recursion-tree method promotes intuition, however.
- The recursion tree method is good for generating guesses for the substitution method.



Example of recursion tree

Solve $T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$:

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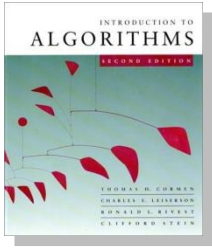


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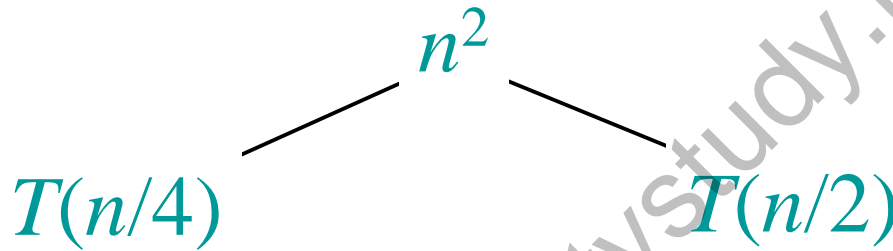
$$T(n)$$

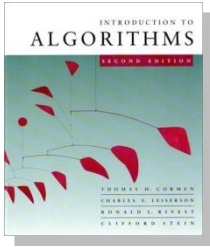
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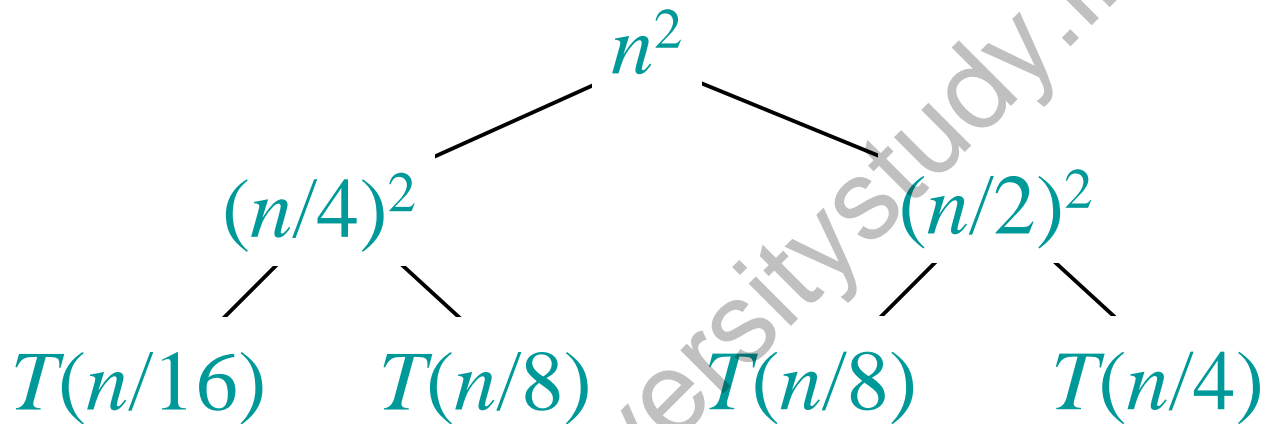
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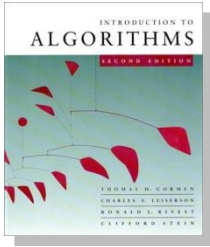




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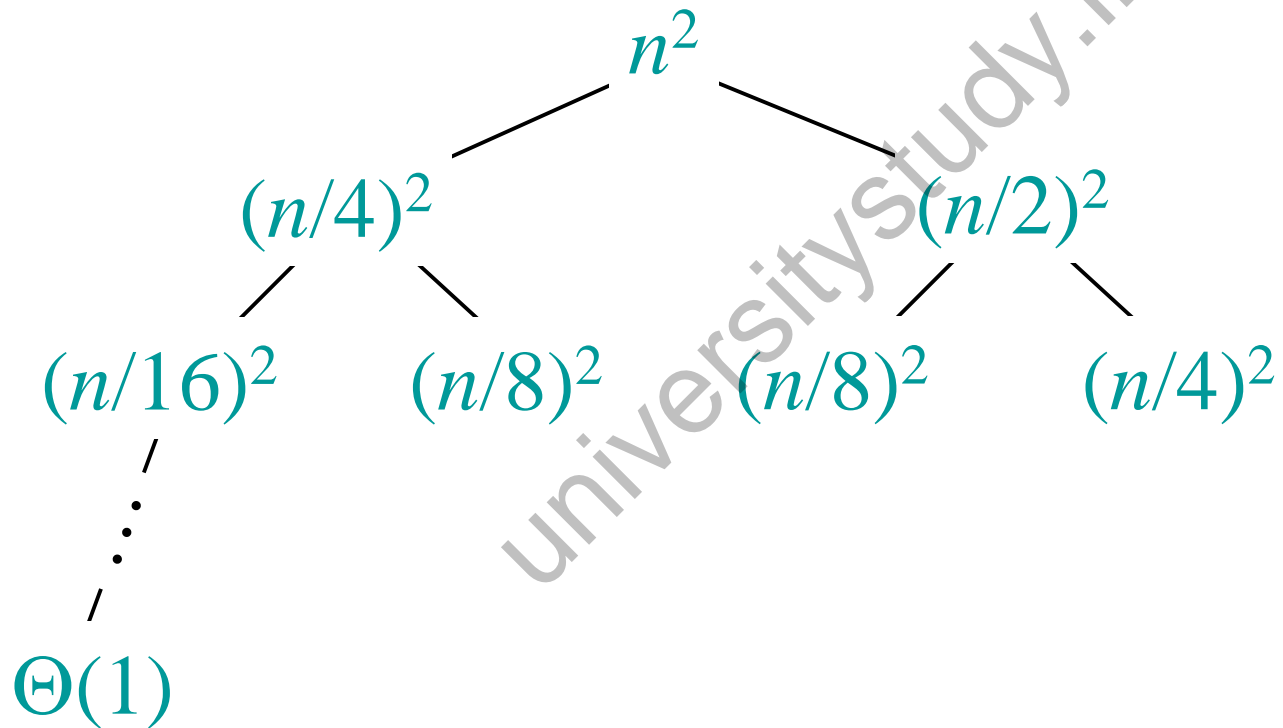
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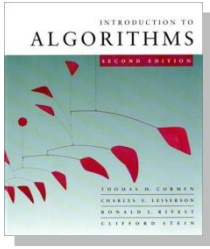




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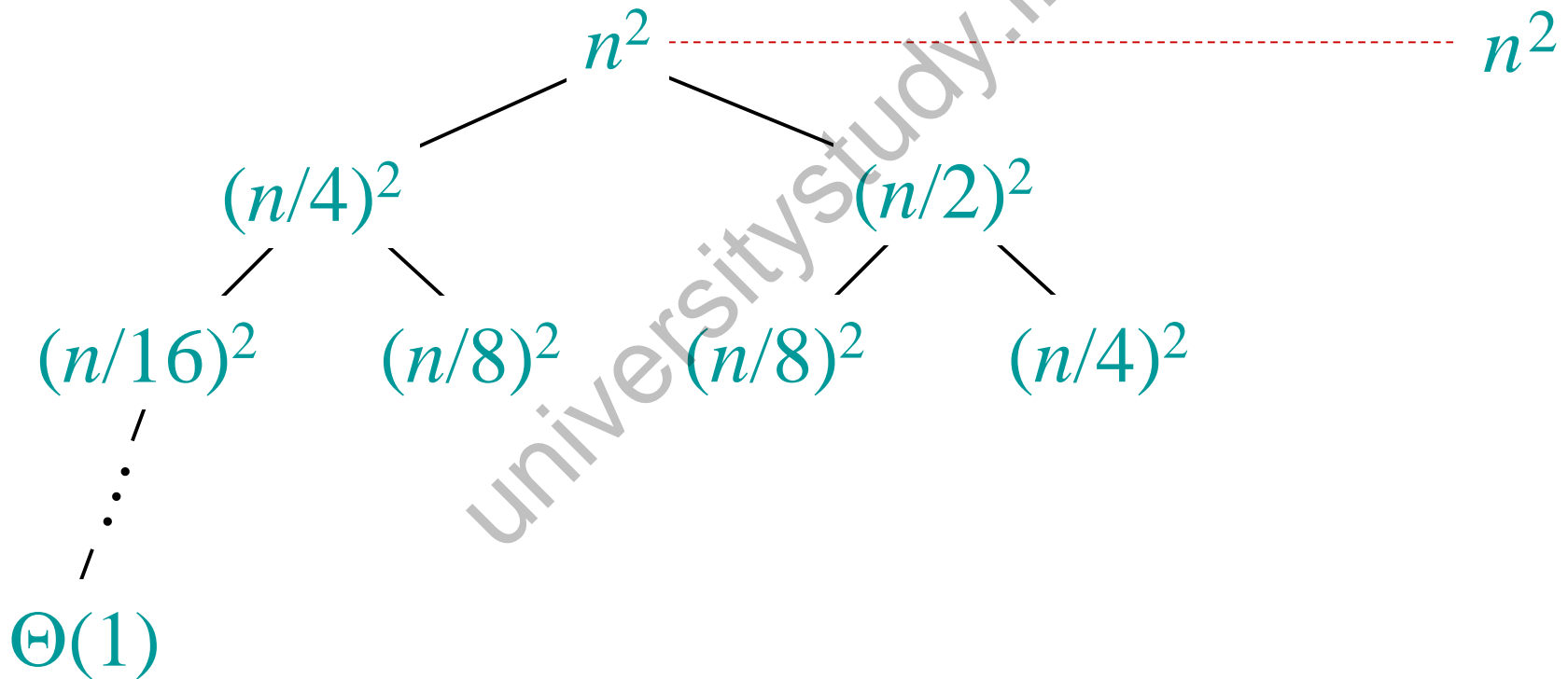
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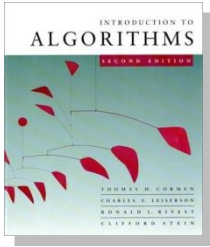




Example of recursion tree

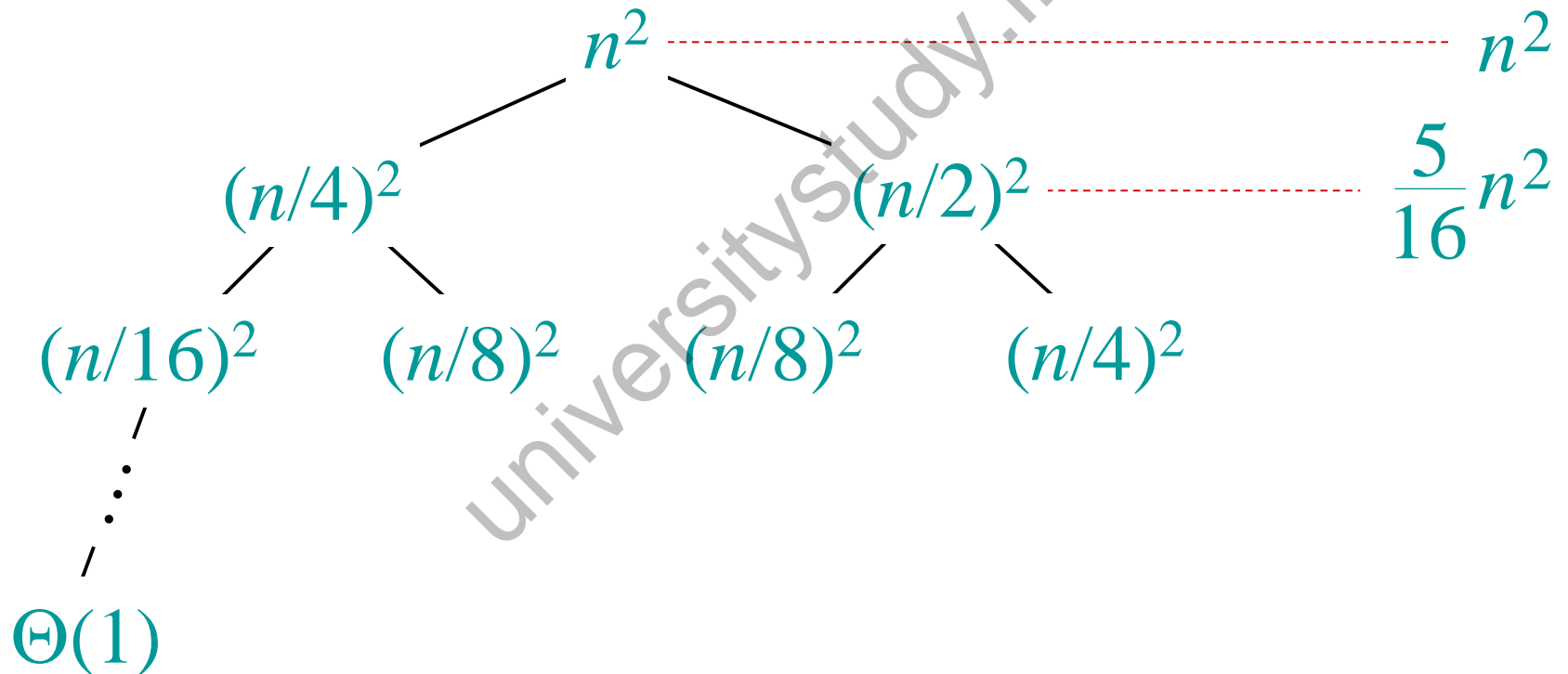
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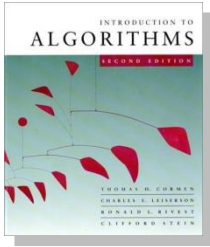




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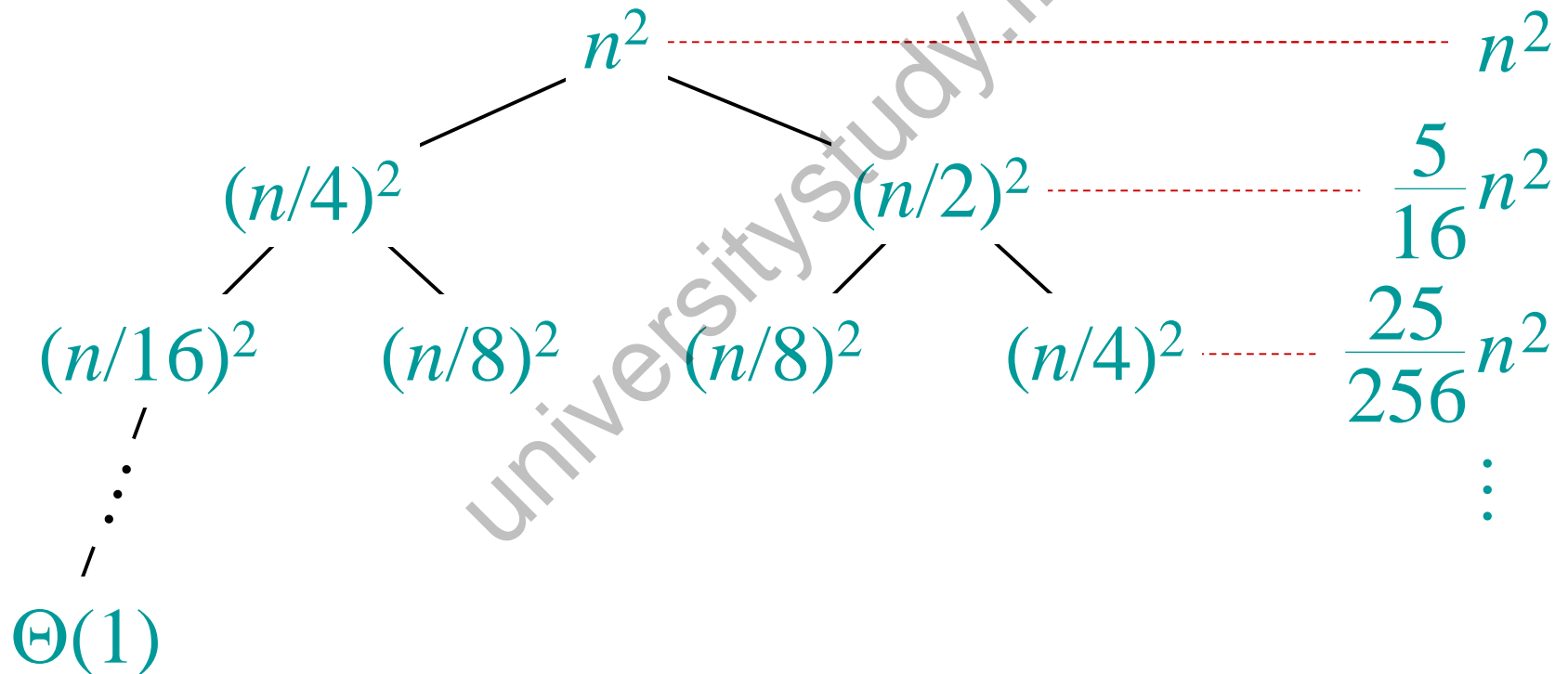
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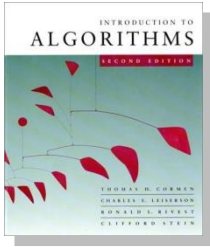




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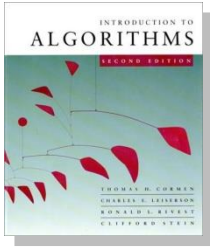
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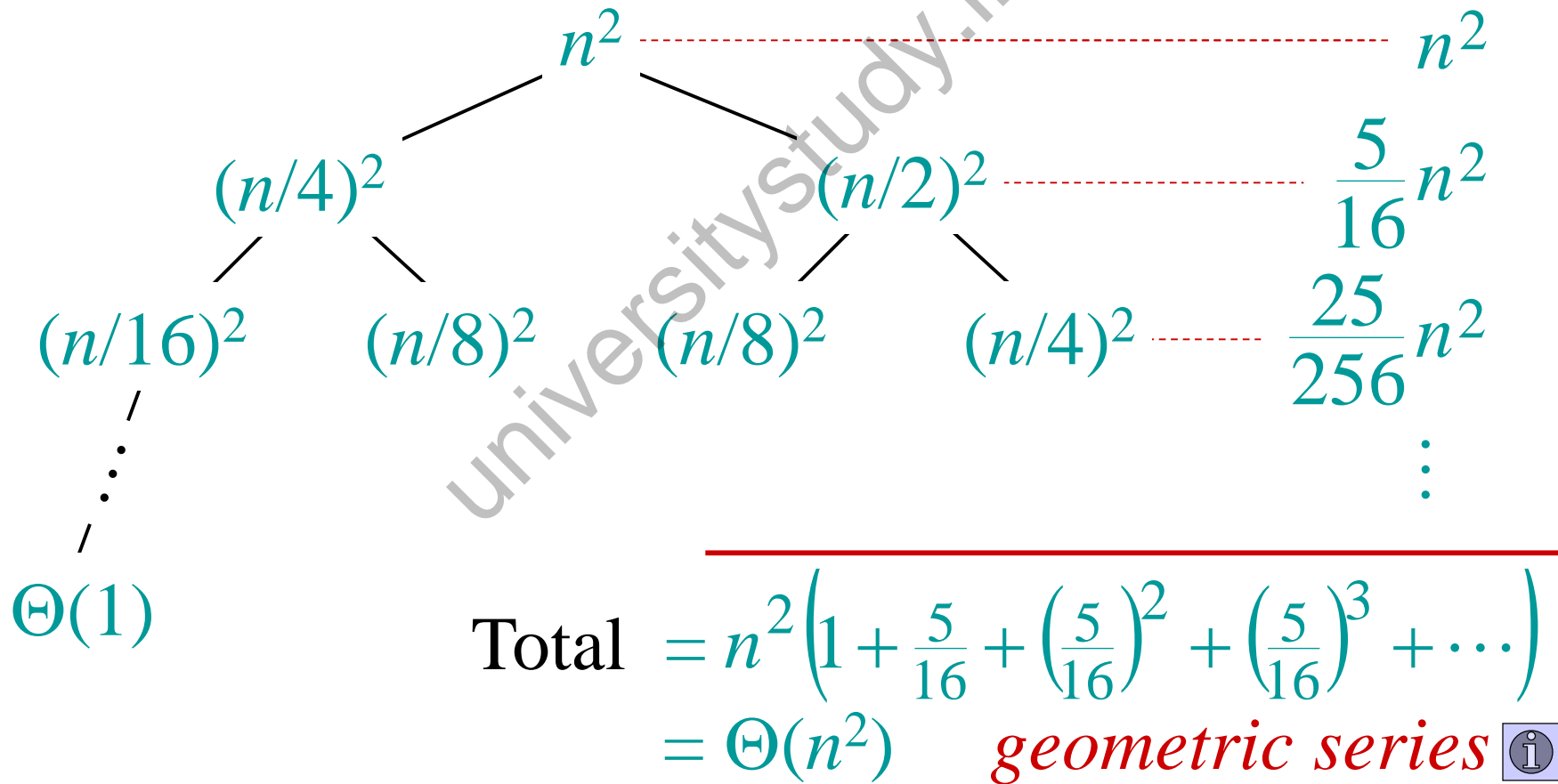
Recursion Tree

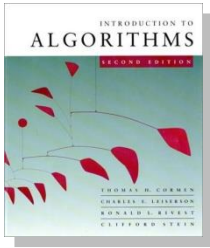
$$T(n) = 3T(n/4) + cn^2.$$



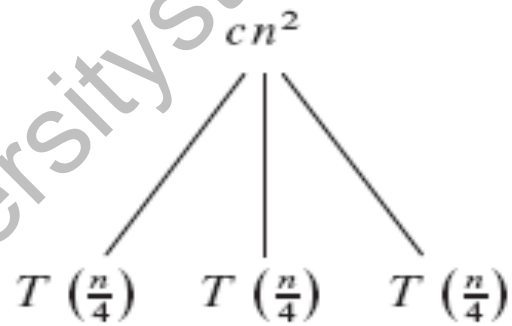
Example of recursion tree

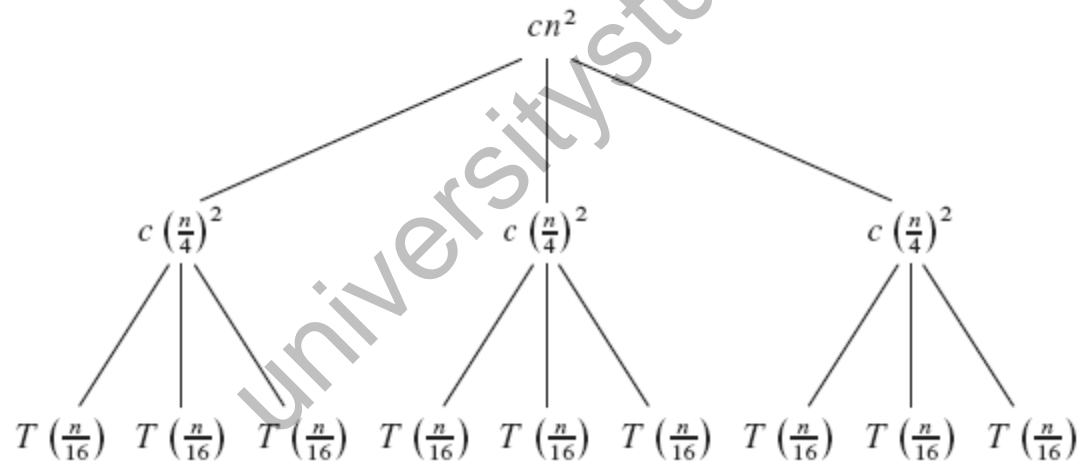
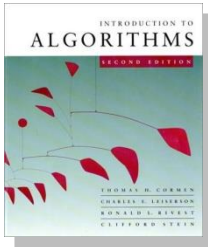
Solve $T(n) = T(n/4) + T(n/2) + n^2$:

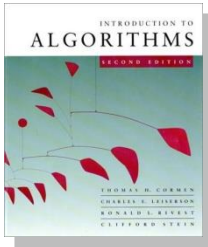




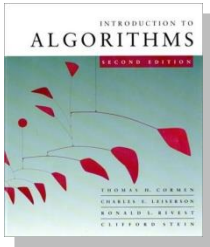
$T(n)$



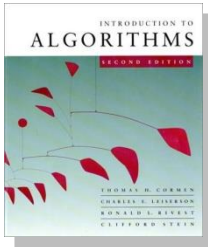




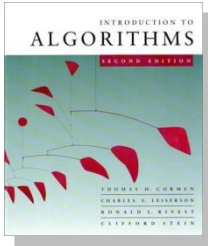
Because subproblem sizes decrease by a factor of 4 each time we go down one level, we eventually must reach a boundary condition. How far from the root do we reach one? The subproblem size for a node at depth i is $n/4^i$. Thus, the subproblem size hits $n = 1$ when $n/4^i = 1$ or, equivalently, when $i = \log_4 n$. Thus, the tree has $\log_4 n + 1$ levels (at depths $0, 1, 2, \dots, \log_4 n$).



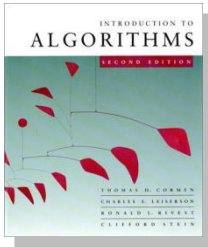
Next we determine the cost at each level of the tree. Each level has three times more nodes than the level above, and so the number of nodes at depth i is 3^i .



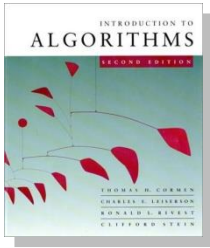
Because subproblem sizes reduce by a factor of 4 for each level we go down from the root, each node at depth i , for $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \log_4 n - 1$, has a cost of $c(n/4^i)^2$. Multiplying, we see that the total cost over all nodes at depth i , for $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \log_4 n - 1$, is $3^i c(n/4^i)^2 = (3/16)^i cn^2$. The bottom level, at depth $\log_4 n$, has $3^{\log_4 n} = n^{\log_4 3}$ nodes, each contributing cost $T(1)$, for a total cost of $n^{\log_4 3} T(1)$, which is $\Theta(n^{\log_4 3})$, since we assume that $T(1)$ is a constant.



$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= cn^2 + \frac{3}{16}cn^2 + \left(\frac{3}{16}\right)^2 cn^2 + \cdots + \left(\frac{3}{16}\right)^{\log_4 n - 1} cn^2 + \Theta(n^{\log_4 3}) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_4 n - 1} \left(\frac{3}{16}\right)^i cn^2 + \Theta(n^{\log_4 3}) \\ &= \frac{(3/16)^{\log_4 n} - 1}{(3/16) - 1} cn^2 + \Theta(n^{\log_4 3}) \quad (\text{by equation (A.5)}) . \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= \sum_{i=0}^{\log_4 n - 1} \left(\frac{3}{16}\right)^i cn^2 + \Theta(n^{\log_4 3}) \\ &< \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{16}\right)^i cn^2 + \Theta(n^{\log_4 3}) \\ &= \frac{1}{1 - (3/16)} cn^2 + \Theta(n^{\log_4 3}) \\ &= \frac{16}{13} cn^2 + \Theta(n^{\log_4 3}) \\ &= O(n^2) . \end{aligned}$$

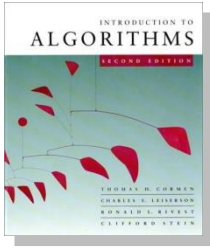


The master method

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.



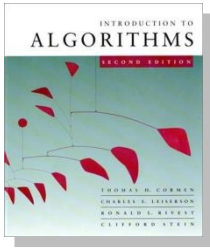
Three common cases

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

1. $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon})$ for some constant $\varepsilon > 0$.

- $f(n)$ grows polynomially slower than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^ε factor).

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.



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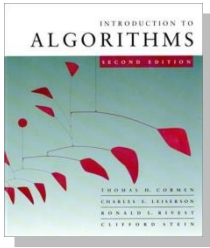
- $f(n)$ grows polynomially slower than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^ε factor).

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.

2. $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^k n)$ for some constant $k \geq 0$.

- $f(n)$ and $n^{\log_b a}$ grow at similar rates.

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^{k+1} n)$.



Three common cases (cont.)

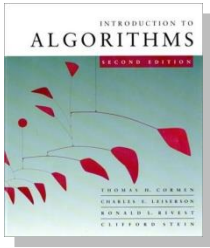
Compare $f(n)$ with $n^{\log_b a}$:

3. $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$ for some constant $\varepsilon > 0$.

- $f(n)$ grows polynomially faster than $n^{\log_b a}$ (by an n^ε factor),

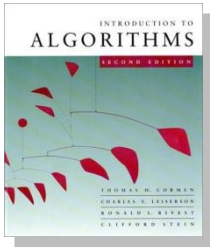
and $f(n)$ satisfies the **regularity condition** that $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1$.

Solution: $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.



Examples

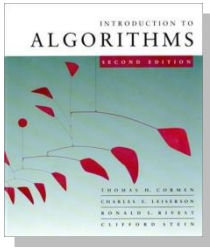
Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$
 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n.$
CASE 1: $f(n) = O(n^{2-\epsilon})$ for $\epsilon = 1.$
 $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^2).$



Examples

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Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$
 $a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^2.$
CASE 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^2 \lg^0 n)$, that is, $k = 0.$
 $\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^2 \lg n).$



Examples

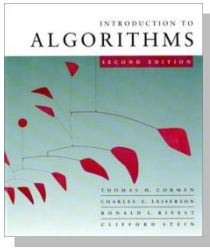
Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$

$$a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^3.$$

CASE 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{2+\varepsilon})$ for $\varepsilon = 1$

and $4(n/2)^3 \leq cn^3$ (reg. cond.) for $c = 1/2$.

$$\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^3).$$



Examples

Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$

$$a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^3.$$

CASE 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{2+\varepsilon})$ for $\varepsilon = 1$

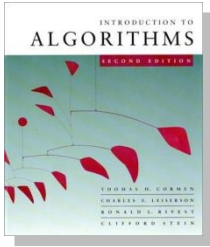
and $4(n/2)^3 \leq cn^3$ (reg. cond.) for $c = 1/2$.

$$\therefore T(n) = \Theta(n^3).$$

Ex. $T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2/\lg n$

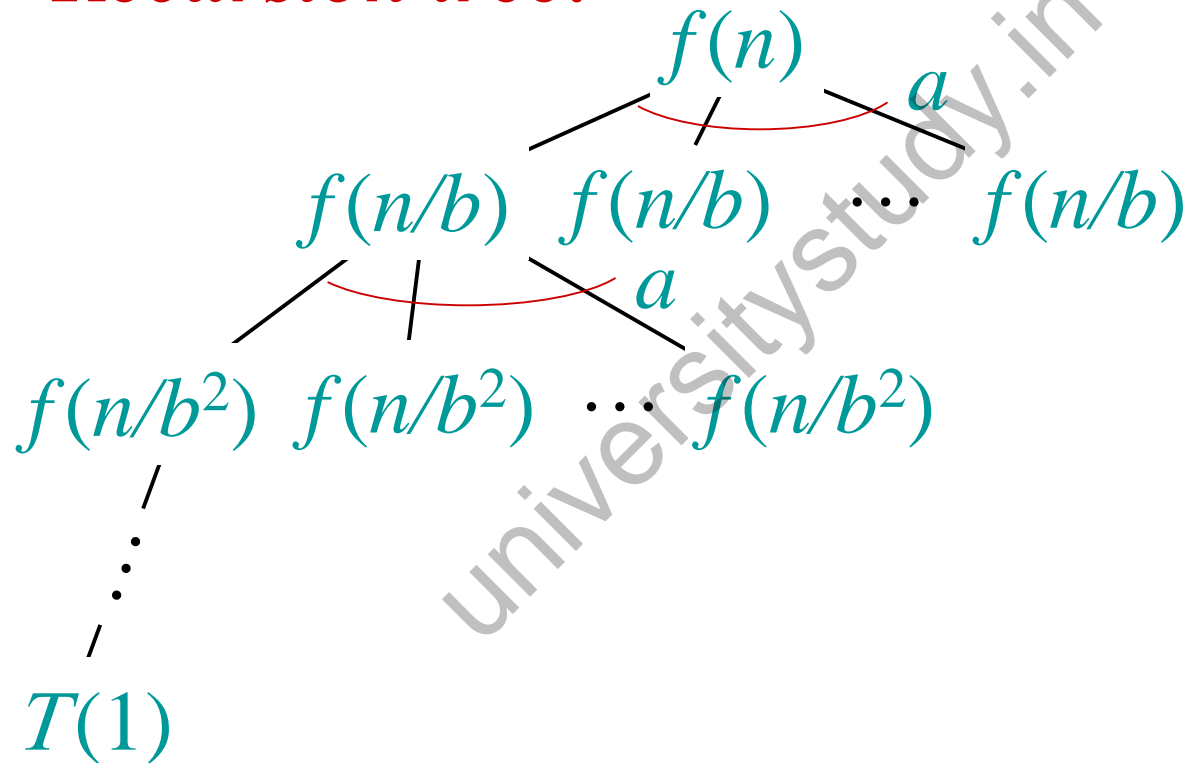
$$a = 4, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^2; f(n) = n^2/\lg n.$$

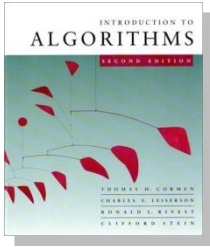
Master method does not apply. In particular, for every constant $\varepsilon > 0$, we have $n^\varepsilon = \omega(\lg n)$.



Idea of master theorem

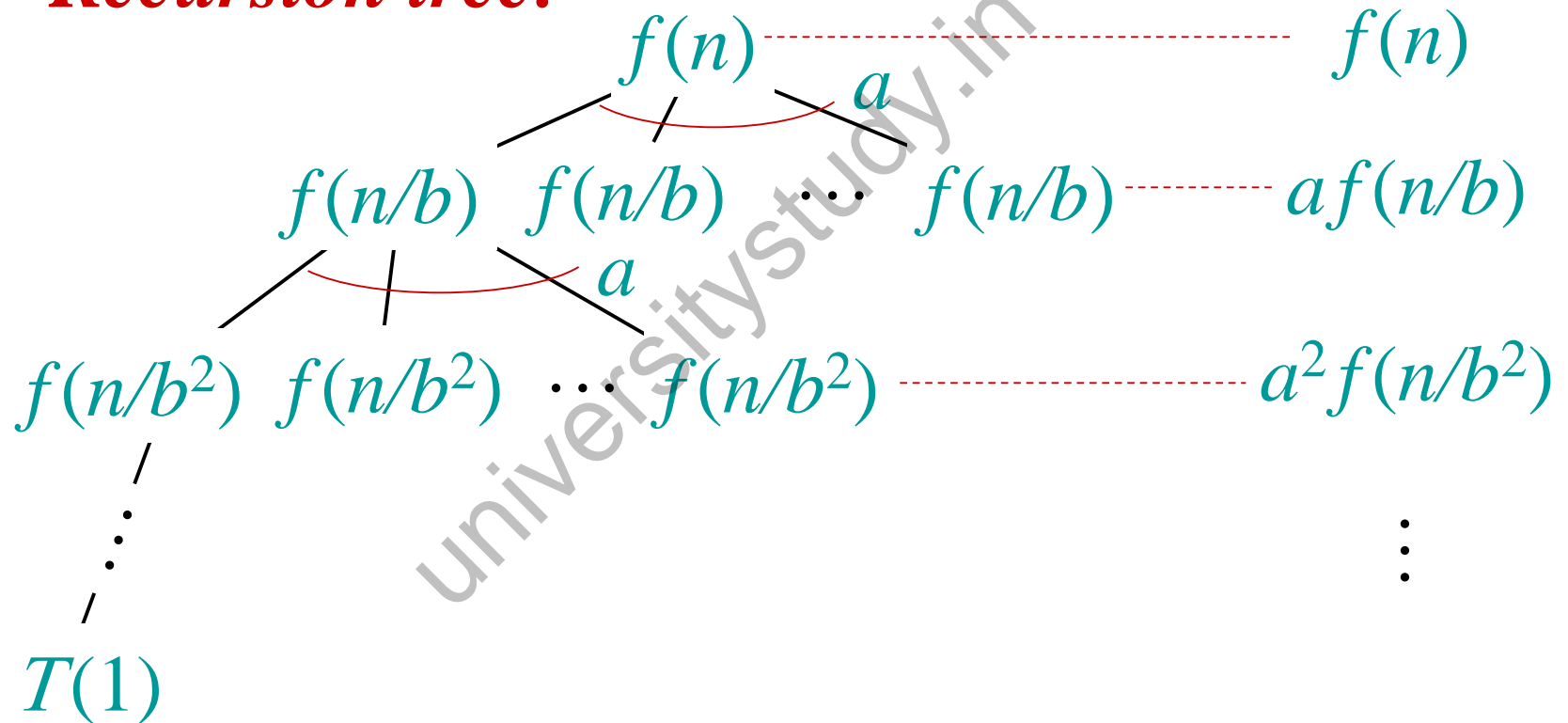
Recursion tree:

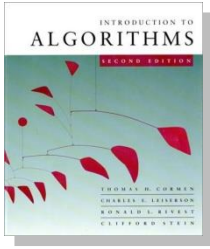




Idea of master theorem

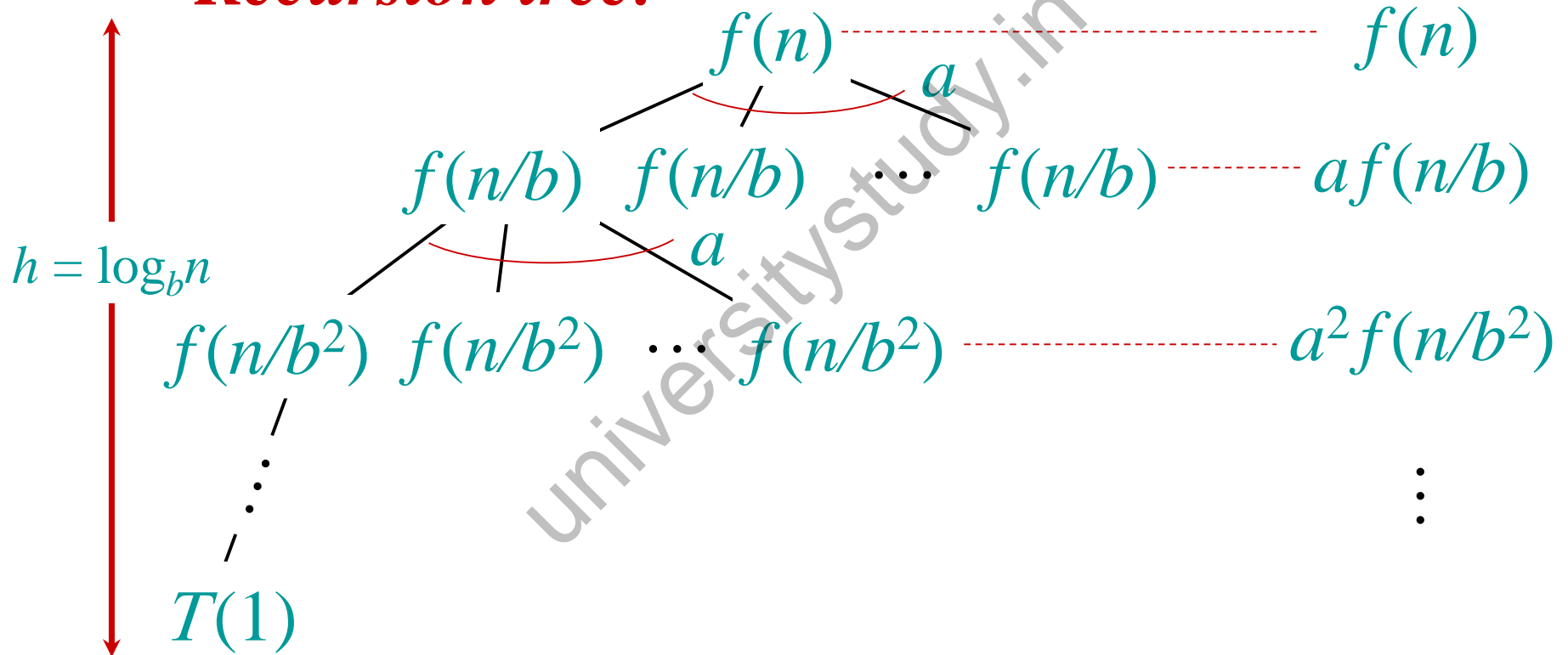
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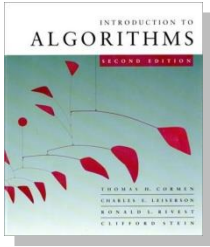




Idea of master theorem

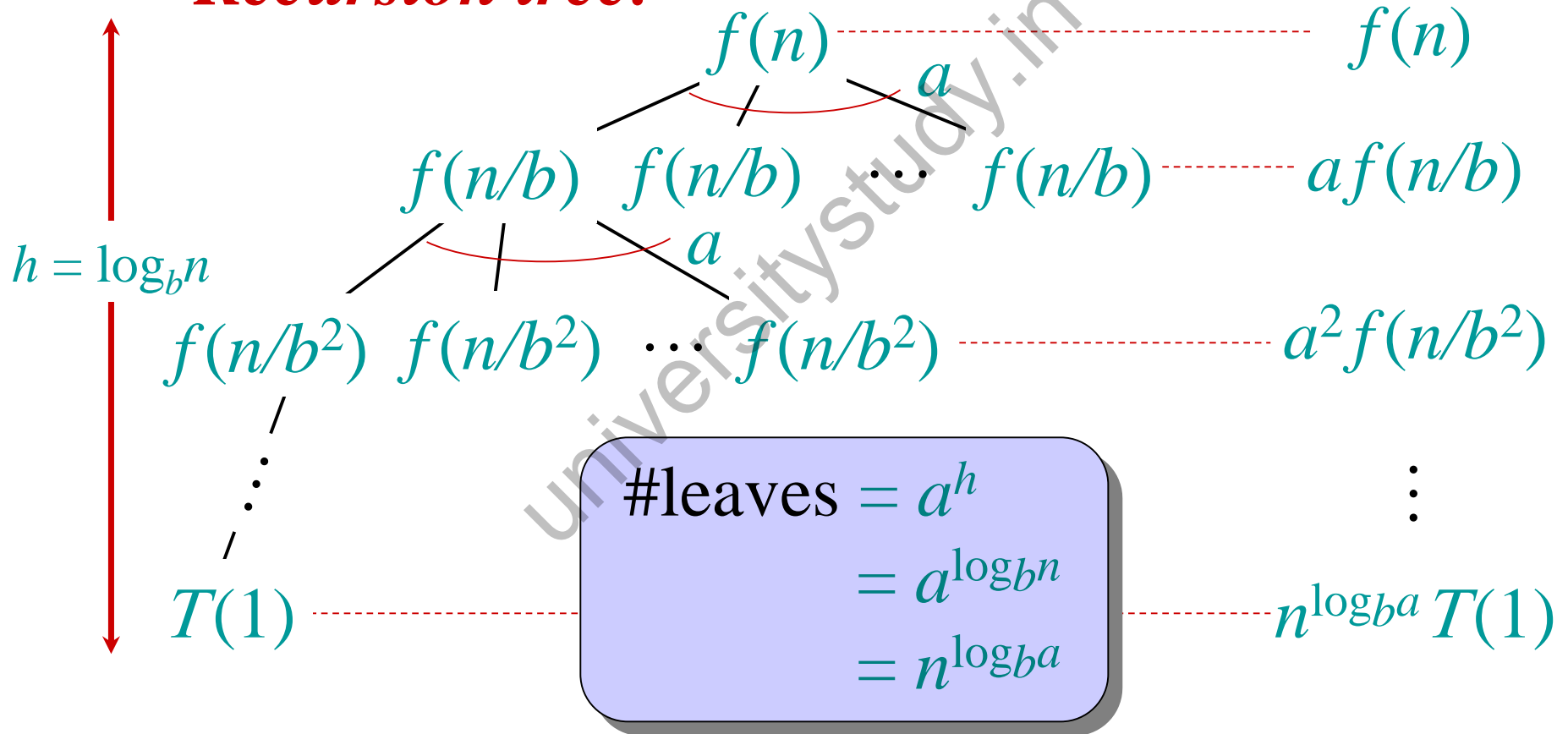
Recursion tree:

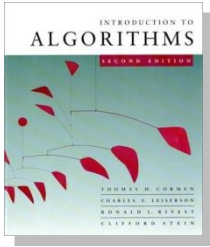




Idea of master theorem

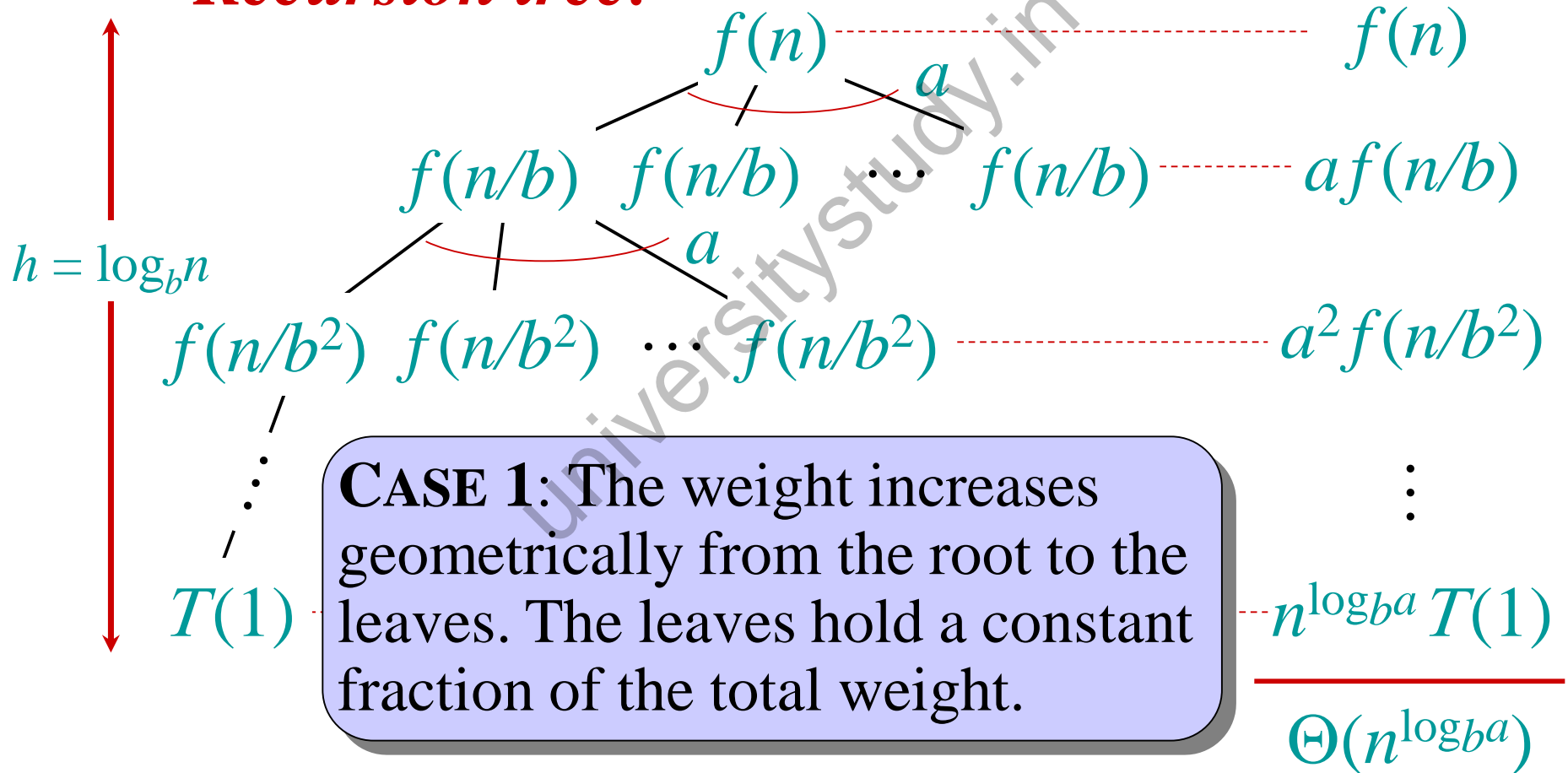
Recursion tree:

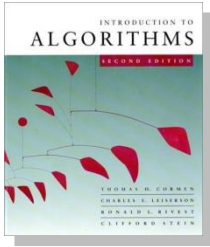




Idea of master theorem

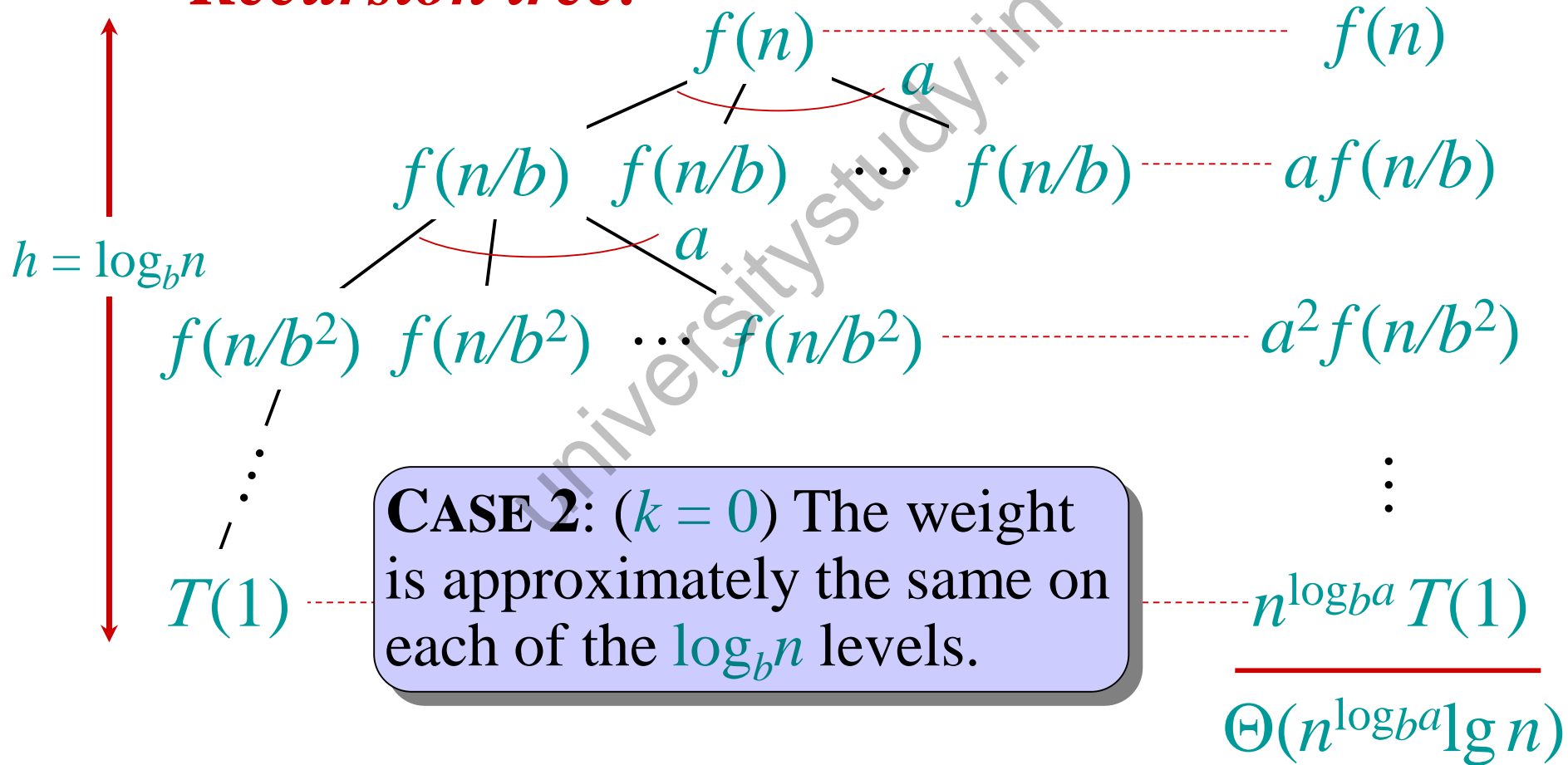
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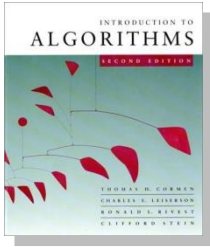




Idea of master theorem

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