

Midterm Review

Study guide

- Study the homework and quiz questions
- Go through the lecture notes or at least the review slides

Topics For Midterm

Topics	Reading
Introduction	1
Induction and loop invariants	2.1
Asymptotic Notation	3.1-3.2
Algorithm Analysis <ul style="list-style-type: none">- Analyzing control structures- Worst-case and Average-case- Amortized analysis	2.2 5.1-5.3 17.1-17.3
Solving Recurrences	4.1-4.3
Heap and Heap Sort	6
Binomial Heaps	19

Induction Proof

- Mastering
 - First and second principles of induction
 - Given a mathematical equation, know how to prove it by induction
 - Example: prove by induction that $\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

Loop Invariants

- To prove some statement S about a loop is correct. Define S in terms of a series of smaller statements, S_0, S_1, \dots, S_k , where
 - The initial claim, S_0 , is true before loop begins
 - Initialization (compared to induction basis)
 - If S_{i-1} is true before iteration i begins, then S_i will be true after iteration i is over
 - Maintenance (compared to induction step)
 - The final statement implies S
 - Termination (conclusion. This step is different from a typical induction proof)
- Mastering:
 - Given a loop invariant, know to prove its properties: initialization, maintenance, and termination

Asymptotic Notation

- What does “the order of” mean
- Big O , Ω , Θ , o , ω notations
- Properties of asymptotic notation
- Limit rule

Loop Invariant: Example

- Prove the following loop find the $\max(a[0], \dots, a[n-1])$ using the loop invariant

– Si: $\max = \max(a[0..i])$.

```
int max(int a[n])
{
    int max = a[0];
    int i;

    for (i=1; i<=n-1; i++)
        if (max < a[i])
            max = a[i];

    return max;
}
```

Asymptotic notations

- Know the definitions of big O , Ω , Θ , o and ω notations
 - Example: what does $O(n^2)$ mean?
- Know how to prove whether a function is in big O , Ω , and Θ based on definition
 - Example
 - Prove that if $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ then $g(n) \in \Omega(f(n))$
 - Prove $3n+5 \in \Theta(n)$ using the definition of Θ

Definition of big O

$$O(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid (\exists c \in R^+, n_0 \in N)(\forall n \geq n_0)[0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n)]\}$$

- Typically used for *asymptotic upper bound*
- Remember the order of growth below

$$O(\lg n) \subset O(n^\epsilon) \subset O(n^\epsilon \lg n) \subset O(n^{c+\epsilon} \lg n) \subset O(d^n) \quad c, \epsilon > 0, d > 1$$

Definition of Ω

$$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid (\exists c \in R^+, n_0 \in N)(\forall n \geq n_0)[f(n) \geq cg(n) \geq 0]\}$$

- Ω is typically used to describe *asymptotic lower bound*
 - For example, insertion sort take time in $\Omega(n)$
- Ω for algorithm complexity
 - We use it to give the lower bounds on the intrinsic difficulty of solving problems
 - Example, any comparison-based sorting algorithm takes time $\Omega(n \log n)$

The Θ notation

Definition:

$$\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid (\exists c_1, c_2 \in R^+, n_0 \in N)(\forall n \geq n_0)[0 \leq c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n)]\}$$

Equivalent to: $\Theta(f(n)) = O(f(n)) \cap \Omega(f(n))$

- Used to describe *asymptotically tight bound*
- Example: selection sort take time in $\Theta(n^2)$

Definition of o and ω

- Definition

$$o(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid (\forall c \in R^+, \exists n_0 \in N, \forall n \geq n_0)[0 \leq f(n) < cg(n)]\}$$

$$\omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid (\forall c \in R^+, \exists n_0 \in N, \forall n \geq n_0)[f(n) > cg(n) \geq 0]\}$$

- Denote upper/lower bounds that are not asymptotically tight
- Example $1000n \in o(n^2); \quad 1000n^2 \notin o(n^2)$
 $1000n^2 \in \omega(n); \quad 1000n^2 \notin \omega(n^2)$
- Properties

$$f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$$

$$f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \infty$$

Maximum and Limit rules

- Know to prove asymptotic relationship using the rules

– Example

- Show that $O((n+1)^2) = O(n^2)$
- Show that $\lg^2 n \in O(n^{0.5})$

The Maximum rule

- Let $f, g: N \rightarrow R^{\geq 0}$,
then $O(f(n) + g(n)) = O(\max(f(n), g(n)))$
- Examples
 - $O(12n^3 - 5n + n \log n + 36) = O(n^3)$
- The maximum rule let us ignore lower-order terms

The Limit Rule

- Let $f, g: N \rightarrow R^{\geq 0}$, then
- 1. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \in R^+$ then $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$
- 2. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$ then $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ but $f(n) \notin \Theta(g(n))$
- 3. If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = +\infty$ then $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ but $f(n) \notin \Theta(g(n))$

Relational Properties

- Transitivity: $O, o, \Omega, \omega, \Theta$
- Reflexity: O, Ω, Θ
- Symmetry: $f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$
- Transpose symmetry (Duality)
 - $f(n) = O(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) \in \Omega(f(n))$
 - $f(n) = o(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) \in \omega(f(n))$
- Analogy
 - $f(n) \in O(g(n)) \approx a \leq b$
 - $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n)) \approx a \geq b$
 - $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \approx a = b$
 - $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \approx a < b$
 - $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \approx a > b$

Semantics of big-O and Ω

- When we say an algorithm takes worst-case time $t(n) \in O(f(n))$, then there exist a real constant c such that $c*f(n)$ is an upper bound for any instances of size of sufficiently large n
- When we say an algorithm takes worst-case time $t(n) \in \Omega(f(n))$, then there exist a real constant d such that there exists at least one instance of size n whose execution time $\geq d*f(n)$, for any sufficiently large n
- Example
 - Is it possible an algorithm takes worst-case time $O(n)$ and $\Omega(n \log n)$?

Analysis of Algorithms

- Mastering
 - Analyzing control structures
 - Sequencing
 - For loops
 - While and repeat loops
 - Recursive calls
 - Finding and using a barometer
- Familiar
 - Amortized analysis
- Exposure
 - Average case analysis using indicator variable

Practice Problems

- True or false
- ```
anAlgorithm(int n)
{
 // if (x) is an elementary
 // operation
 if (x) {
 some work done
 by n2 elementary
 operations;
 } else {
 some work done
 by n3 elementary
 operations;
 }
}
```
- The algorithm takes time in  $O(n^2)$  F
  - The algorithm takes time in  $\Omega(n^2)$  T
  - The algorithm takes time in  $O(n^3)$  T
  - The algorithm takes time in  $\Omega(n^3)$  F
  - The algorithm takes time in  $\Theta(n^3)$  F
  - The algorithm takes time in  $\Theta(n^2)$  F
  - The algorithm takes worst case time in  $O(n^3)$  T
  - The algorithm takes worst case time in  $\Omega(n^3)$  T
  - The algorithm takes worst case time in  $\Theta(n^3)$  T
  - The algorithm takes best case time in  $\Omega(n^3)$  F

## Average and worst-case analysis

- How to compare two algorithms
  - Worst case, average, best-case
- Worst case
  - Appropriate for an algorithm whose response time is critical
- Average
  - For an algorithm which is to be used many times on many different instances
  - Harder to analyze, need to know the distribution of the instances
- Best case

## Control structures: sequences

- P is an algorithm that consists of two fragments, P1 and P2

```
P
{
 P1;
 P2;
}
```

- P1 takes time  $t_1$  and P2 takes times  $t_2$
- The sequencing rule asserts P takes time  $t = t_1 + t_2 \in \Theta(\max(t_1, t_2))$ .

## Example: analyzing the following nests

```
for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
 for (j=0; j<n; j++)
 constant work
}
```

```
for (i=1; i<n; i++) {
 for (j=0; j<i; j++)
 constant work
}
```

```
for (i=1; i<n; i++) {
 for (j=0; j<i*i; j++)
 constant work
}
```

```
for (i=1; i<n; i++) {
 for (j=0; j<i; j++)
 constant work

 for (k=0; k<i*i; k++)
 constant work
}
```

## For loops

```
for (i=0; i<m; i++) {
 P(i);
}
```

- Case 1: P(i) takes time  $t$  independent of  $i$  and  $n$ , then the loop takes time  $O(mt)$  if  $m > 0$ .
- Case 2: P(i) takes time  $t(i)$ , the loop takes time  $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} t(i)$

## “while” and “repeat” loops

- The bounds may not be explicit as in the for loops
- Careful about the inner loops
  - Is it a function of the variables in outer loops?
- Analyze the following two algorithms

```
int example1(int n)
{
 while (n>0) {
 work in constant;
 n = n/3;
 }
}
```

```
int example2(int n)
{
 while (n>0) {
 for (i=0; i<n; i++) {
 work in constant;
 }
 n = n/3;
 }
}
```

## Recursive calls

Typically we can come out a recurrence equation to mimics the control flow.

```
double fibRecursive(int n)
{
 double ret;
 if (n<2)
 ret = (double)n;
 else
 ret = fibRecursive(n-1)+fibRecursive(n-2);
 return ret;
}
```

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} a & \text{if } n = 0 \text{ or } 1 \\ T(n-1)+T(n-2)+h(n) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

## Amortized Analysis

```
for (i=0; i<n; i++) P;
or
...P1...P2....Pi.....Pn...
```

- Operation P is called n times.
- Each call to P is not independent: its execution time depends on the previous calls.
- The “average” cost to P considers the average over successive calls.
  - Compared to the “average-case” analysis which considers the average over all instances based on their distribution

## Using a Barometer

- A **barometer** instruction is one that is executed at least as often as any other instruction in the algorithm
- We can then count the number of times that the barometer instruction get executed
  - Provided that the time taken by each instruction is bounded by a constant, the time taken by the entire algorithm is in the exact order of the number of times the barometer instruction is executed

## Three analyzing methods

- Required
  - Know how to apply Aggregate analysis
  - Given the amortized cost, know how to argue it using the accounting method
  - Given the potential function, know how to derive the amortized cost.

## An aggregate analysis: binary counter

- For n consecutive operations
  - A[0] flips each time incrementCounter() is called
  - A[1] flips  $\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor$  times
  - ...
  - A[i] flips  $\lfloor \frac{n}{2^i} \rfloor$  times
  - ...

- Total flips is

$$\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \left\lfloor \frac{n}{2^i} \right\rfloor \leq \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \frac{n}{2^i} = n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \frac{1}{2^i} < n \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} = 2n \in O(n)$$

- Average flips per operation  $\approx 2$

## Potential functions

- A potential function describes the state of “cleanliness” before a process/operation executes.
  - A large value of the state means “dirtier”: it denotes the amortized cost of the following processes
  - Let  $\Phi(D_0)$  be the value of the initial state and  $\Phi(D_i)$  be that of the state after the i<sup>th</sup> call, the amortized time taken by the i-th call is  $\hat{c}_i = c_i + \Phi(D_i) - \Phi(D_{i-1})$
  - Let  $T_n$  denote the total time required for the n calls, and  $\hat{T}_n$  be the total amortized time, we have
$$\hat{T}_n = T_n + \Phi(D_n) - \Phi(D_0)$$
  - $\hat{T}_n$  can be an upper bound for  $T_n$  when  $\Phi(D_n) \geq \Phi(D_0)$

## Accounting for binary counter

- Assume amortized cost: 2
  - Allocate 2 dollars for each call
  - Associate the 2 dollars with the bit set
- Actual cost:
  - Spend one dollar when a bit is flipped (set or reset)
- Analysis
  - Each bit “1” gets 1 dollar credit associated with it
  - Pay the flipping cost of each bit using the credit
  - Balance = the number of 1’s which is never negative

## Potential method for Binary Counter

- We use the number of ones as potential function
- Then the amortized cost of adding one to the counter is
  - The counter value is even. The least significant bit (A[0]) is set and it adds one more 1. The amortized cost is 1+1=2.
  - All bits of the counter is 1. The loop executes k times and all k 1s change to 0s. The amortized cost is k+(0-k) = 0.
  - In other cases, assume the loop executes i times. It flips each of the rightmost i bits from 1 to 0, and set (i+1)-th bit from 0 to 1. The 1s decreases by i-1. The amortized cost if (i+1)-(i-1) = 2.



## Solving Recurrence

- Know how to solve a recurrence using recursion tree and verify the solution using the substitution method
- Know how to use the simplified version of the Master theorem

### Recurrences

- The substitution method
- The recursion tree method
- The master method

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### The substitution method

- Guessing the form of the solution
- Using the mathematical induction to show that the solution works

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### The substitution method: an example

We'd like to solve  $T(n) = 3T(\lfloor n/4 \rfloor) + n$ .

We guess  $T(n) \in O(n)$ .

We prove by induction that there exists a constant  $c$  such that  $T(n) \leq cn$  for sufficiently large  $n$ .

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= n + 3T(\lfloor n/4 \rfloor) \\ &\leq n + 3 * c * \lfloor n/4 \rfloor \\ &\leq (1 + 3c/4)n \\ &\leq cn, \text{ when } c \geq 4 \end{aligned}$$

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## The recursion-tree method

- The method
  - Draw a recursion tree where each node represents the cost of a single subproblem
  - Sum the cost of each level to get per-level cost
  - Sum all per-level costs to get the total cost
- Applications
  - Can be used to find a good guess. Complete by using the substitution method. Can be a bit sloppy when constructing the tree.
  - Can serve as a direct proof. Need to be strict when draw the tree.

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## The recursion-tree method: an example

We'd like to solve  $T(n) = 3T(\lfloor n/4 \rfloor) + \Theta(n^2)$ .

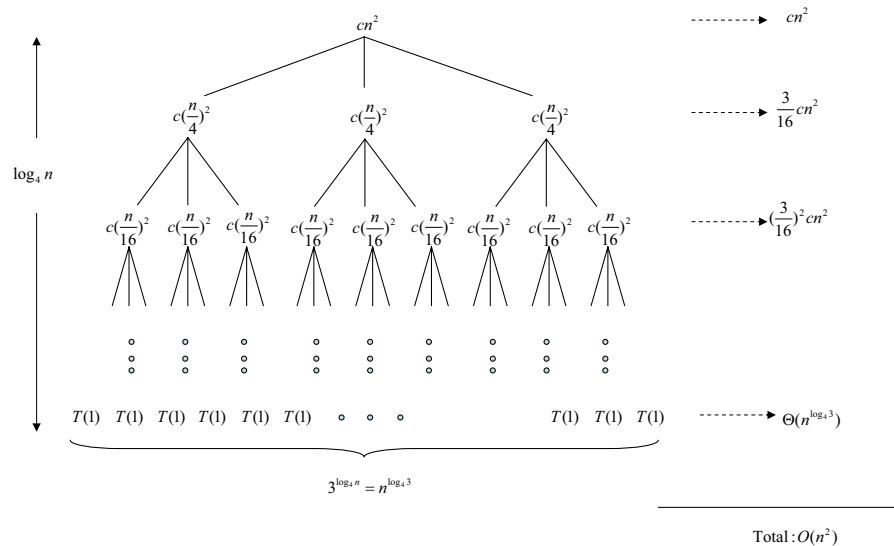
We instead draw a tree for  $T(n) = 3T(n/4) + cn^2$ .

Some sloppiness we use here

- assume  $n$  is an exact power of 4 to remove the floor function
- replace  $\Theta(n^2)$  by  $cn^2$

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## Constructing the recursion tree



The sum of per-level costs results below:

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

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### Asymptotic recurrences

Consider a function  $T : N \rightarrow R^+$  such that

$$T(n) = lT(n/b) + f(n)$$

for all sufficiently large  $n$ , where  $l \geq 1$  and  $b \geq 2$  are constants, and  $f(n) \in \Theta(n^k)$  for some  $k \geq 0$ . We conclude that

$$T(n) \in \begin{cases} \Theta(n^k) & \text{if } k > \log_b l \\ \Theta(n^k \log n) & \text{if } k = \log_b l \\ \Theta(n^{\log_b l}) & \text{if } k < \log_b l \end{cases}$$

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### Examples

$$T(n) = T(n/3) + 1.$$

$$T(n) = T(n/3) + n.$$

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

$$T(n) = 3T(n/4) + nlgn.$$

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## Heaps

- Know the definition
  - What is the heap property?
- Given a node, know how to calculate its parent and children
- Know how each heap method work
  - Can write and analyze these algorithms
  - Given an example heap, demonstrate how these algorithms work
  - Design a new similar heap related algorithm

## Methods of class MaxHeap

```
Class MaxHeap {
 int A[];
 int n;

 public void heapify(int i);
 public void increaseKey(int i, int key);
 public int maximum();
 public int extractMax();
 public void insert(int key);
 public void buildHeap();
 public void heapSort();
}
```

## Some important properties of heaps

- Given a node  $T[i]$ 
  - It's parent is  $T[\lfloor i/2 \rfloor]$ , if  $i > 1$ .
  - It's left child is  $T[2*i]$ , if  $2*i \leq n$ .
  - It's right child is  $T[2*i+1]$ , if  $2*i+1 \leq n$ .
- The height of a heap containing  $n$  nodes is  $\lfloor \lg n \rfloor$

## Binomial Heaps

- Know the definition of Binomial Trees and Binomial Heaps
- Understand the following algorithms  
(Can write and analyze these algorithms.  
Given an example binomial heap, demonstrate how these algorithms work.  
Design a new similar binomial heap related algorithm)
  - Unite two equal size binomial trees
  - Unite two binomial heaps
  - minimum()
  - extractMin()
  - insert()
  - decreaseKey()
  - deleteKey()

## Unite two equal size binomial trees

```
BinomialTree uniteBinomialTrees(B1, B2){
 // B1, B2 are the same size: B1.degree = B2.degree
 if (B1.root().key < B2.root().key) {
 B.copy(B1);
 B.setDegree(B1.degree()+1);
 B2.root().setParent(B1.root());
 B2.root().setSibling(B1.child());
 B.setChild(B2);
 } else {
 // link in the other way
 ...
 }
}
```

It takes a time in  $O(1)$ .

## Unite two binomial heaps

```
binomialHeapsUnion(H1, H2)
{
 while (simultaneously following the links in H1 and H2) {
 if there are three degree i trees { // one from the carry-on
 merge two of them and set it as carry-on;
 add the remainder to H;
 } else if there are two degree i trees {
 merge the two trees;
 set it as carry on;
 } else if there is one degree i tree {
 add it to H;
 }
 }
 add the carry-on if exists to H.
}
```

Assume the result binomial heap contains  $n$  nodes. The construction can be done in  $\lfloor \lg n \rfloor + 1$  stages. Time in  $O(\log n)$

### minimum()

- Return the node pointed by the *min* pointer.
  - Cost  $O(1)$
- Without the *min* pointer
  - Traverse the link to find the min
  - Cost  $O(\lg n)$

### extractMin(): remove the minimum node

```
extractMin(H)
{
 take the min binomial tree B out (H/B);
 remove the root of B;
 join the subtrees of B into a new binomial heap H';
 unite H/B and H';
}
```

Cost:  $O(\log n)$

### insert

```
insert(v, H)
{
 make a 1 node binomial tree B0;
 Build a binomial heap H0 that contains B0;
 merge H0 and H;
}
```

### insert

```
insert(v, H)
{
 1. make a 1 node binomial tree B_0^* ;
 2. $i = 0$;
 3. while (1) {
 if (H include a B_i) {
 remove B_i from H;
 merge B_i^* and B_i into a binomial tree B_{i+1}^* ;
 $i++$;
 } else
 break;
 }
 4. insert B_i^* into the list of roots of H.
}
```

## decreaseKey

```
public void decreaseKey(Node x, int key)
{
 Node cur = x;
 Node parent = x.parent;

 while (parent != NULL && cur.key < parent.key){
 swap(cur.key, parent.key);
 cur = parent;
 parent = cur.parent;
 }
}
```

Cost?

## deleteKey

```
public void deleteKey(Node x)
{
 decreaseKey(x, -∞);
 extractMin();
}
```

Cost?