

CS583 Lecture 02

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some materials here are based on E. Demaine , D. Luebke slides

Previously

- Sample algorithms
- Exact running time, pseudo-code
- Approximate running time
- Worst case analysis
- Best case analysis

Rules of thumb

- Multiplicative constants can be omitted
- n^a dominates n^b if $a > b$; e.g. n^2 dominates n
- Any exponential dominates any polynomial
- E.g. 3^n dominates n^5
- Any polynomial dominates any logarithm
- E.g. n dominates $(\log n)^3$

Today's topics

- Solving recurrences
- Substitution method
- Iteration methods
- Recursion tree
- Masters's theorem

Recurrence

- Methods for solving recurrences
- Some examples last time
- Expanding the recurrence
- Recursion tree
- Technical issues; assume that $n = 2^k$

Solving Recurrences

- Another option is “iteration method”
 - Expand the recurrence
 - Work some algebra to express as a summation
 - Evaluate the summation
- We will show several examples

$$s(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 0 \\ c + s(n-1) & n > 0 \end{cases}$$

- $s(n) = c + s(n-1)$

$$= c + c + s(n-2) = 2c + s(n-2)$$

$$= 2c + c + s(n-3) = 3c + s(n-3) = \dots$$

$$= kc + s(n-k) = ck + s(n-k)$$

- So far for $n \geq k$ we have

$$s(n) = ck + s(n-k)$$

- What if $k = n$?

$$s(n) = cn + s(0) = cn$$

$$s(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 0 \\ c + s(n-1) & n > 0 \end{cases}$$

- Thus in general $s(n) = cn$

$$s(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 0 \\ n + s(n-1) & n > 0 \end{cases}$$

- $s(n)$

$$= n + s(n-1)$$

$$= n + n-1 + s(n-2)$$

$$= n + n-1 + n-2 + s(n-3)$$

$$= n + n-1 + n-2 + n-3 + s(n-4)$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= n + n-1 + n-2 + n-3 + \dots + n-(k-1) + s(n-k)$$

$$s(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 0 \\ n + s(n-1) & n > 0 \end{cases}$$

- $s(n)$

$$= n + s(n-1)$$

$$= n + n-1 + s(n-2)$$

$$= n + n-1 + n-2 + s(n-3)$$

$$= n + n-1 + n-2 + n-3 + s(n-4)$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= n + n-1 + n-2 + n-3 + \dots + n-(k-1) + s(n-k)$$

$$= \sum_{i=n-k+1}^n i + s(n-k)$$

$$s(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 0 \\ n + s(n-1) & n > 0 \end{cases}$$

- So far for $n \geq k$ we have

$$\sum_{i=n-k+1}^n i + s(n-k)$$

$$s(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 0 \\ n + s(n-1) & n > 0 \end{cases}$$

- So far for $n \geq k$ we have

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- So far for $n \geq k$ we have

$$\sum_{i=n-k+1}^n i + s(n-k)$$

- What if $k = n$?

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i + s(0) = \sum_{i=1}^n i + 0 = n \frac{n+1}{2}$$

$$s(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & n = 0 \\ n + s(n-1) & n > 0 \end{cases}$$

- So far for $n \geq k$ we have

$$\sum_{i=n-k+1}^n i + s(n-k)$$

- What if $k = n$?

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i + s(0) = \sum_{i=1}^n i + 0 = n \frac{n+1}{2}$$

- Thus in general

$$s(n) = n \frac{n+1}{2}$$

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & n = 1 \\ 2T(n/2) + c & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

- $$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 2T(n/2) + c = 2(2T(n/2/2) + c) + c \\ &= 2^2T(n/2^2) + 2c + c \\ &= 2^2(2T(n/2^2/2) + c) + 3c = 2^3T(n/2^3) + 4c + 3c \\ &= 2^3T(n/2^3) + 7c \\ &= 2^3(2T(n/2^3/2) + c) + 7c = 2^4T(n/2^4) + 15c \\ &\dots \\ &= 2^kT(n/2^k) + (2^k - 1)c \end{aligned}$$

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} c & n = 1 \\ 2T(n/2) + c & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

- So far we have
 - $T(n) = 2^k T(n/2^k) + (2^k - 1)c$
- What if $k = \lg n$?
 - $T(n) = 2^{\lg n} T(n/2^{\lg n}) + (2^{\lg n} - 1)c$

$$= n T(n/n) + (n - 1)c$$

$$= n T(1) + (n-1)c$$

$$= nc + (n-1)c = (2n - 1)c$$

Bounding Functions

- non-recursive algorithms

- set up a sum for the number of times the basic operation is executed
- simplify the sum and determine the order of growth (using asymptotic notation)

1. $\sum_{i=1}^n 1 = 1 + 1 + \cdots + 1 = n \in \Theta(n)$

2. $\sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \approx \frac{n^2}{2} \in \Theta(n^2)$

3. $\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = 1 + 4 + \cdots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \approx \frac{n^3}{3} \in \Theta(n^3)$

4. $\sum_{i=0}^n a^i = 1 + a^1 + \cdots + a^n = \frac{a^{n+1} - 1}{a - 1}, \forall a \neq 1, \in \Theta(a^n)$

5. $\sum a_i + b_i = \sum a_i + \sum b_i$

6. $\sum ca_i = c \sum a_i$

7. $\sum_{i=0}^n a_i = \sum_{i=0}^m a_i + \sum_{i=m+1}^n a_i$

Substitution Method

- Most general method for solving recurrences
 - **Guess** the form of solution
 - **Verify by** induction
 - **Solve** for constants
-
- Induction method of mathematical proof to establish a fact for all natural numbers

Induction Review

- Show the fact holds for base case, e.g. $P(0)$ is true
- Form inductive hypothesis: Show that if $P(k)$ holds then it also holds for $P(k+1) \Rightarrow$ this implies that $P(n)$ holds
- Example: Show that

$$0 + 1 + 2 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Example

- Example $T(n) = 4T(n/4) + 4$
- Assume that $T(1) = \Theta(1)$
- Guess $O(n^3)$
- Assume that $T(k) \leq ck^3$ for $k < n$
- Prove $T(n) \leq cn^3$ by induction

Example of substitution

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

$$\leq 4c(n/2)^3 + n$$

$$= (c/2)n^3 + n$$

$$= cn^3 - ((c/2)n^3 - n) \quad \leftarrow \text{desired} - \text{residual}$$

$$\leq cn^3 \quad \leftarrow \text{desired}$$

- Whenever $(c/2)n^3 - n \geq 0$ for example
- If $c \geq 2; n \geq 1$

Example cont

- Handle initial conditions, to ground the induction with the base case
- Base case $T(1) = \Theta(1)$ for all $n < n_0$
- For $1 \leq n \leq n_0$ we have $\Theta(1) \leq cn^3$

if we pick c big enough

This bound is not tight !

Tighter upper bound

- Prove that $T(n) = O(n^2)$

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

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

$$= cn^2 + n$$

$$\leq O(n^2) \quad \text{Wrong ! must prove inductive hyp.}$$

$$= cn^2 - (-n)$$

$$\leq cn^2 \quad \text{For no choice of constant}$$

Tighter upper bound

- Strengthen induction hypothesis $T(k) \leq c_1 k^2 - c_2 k$

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

$$\leq 4(c_1(n/2)^2 - c_2(n/2)) + n$$

$$= c_1 n^2 - 2c_2 n + n$$

$$= c_1 n^2 - c_2 n - (c_2 n - n)$$

$$\leq c_1 n^2 - c_2 n$$

Substitution

- we can also guess that

$$T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + n \in O(n), \text{ where } T(1) = 1.$$

- Another strategy: change of variables

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

Recursion Tree

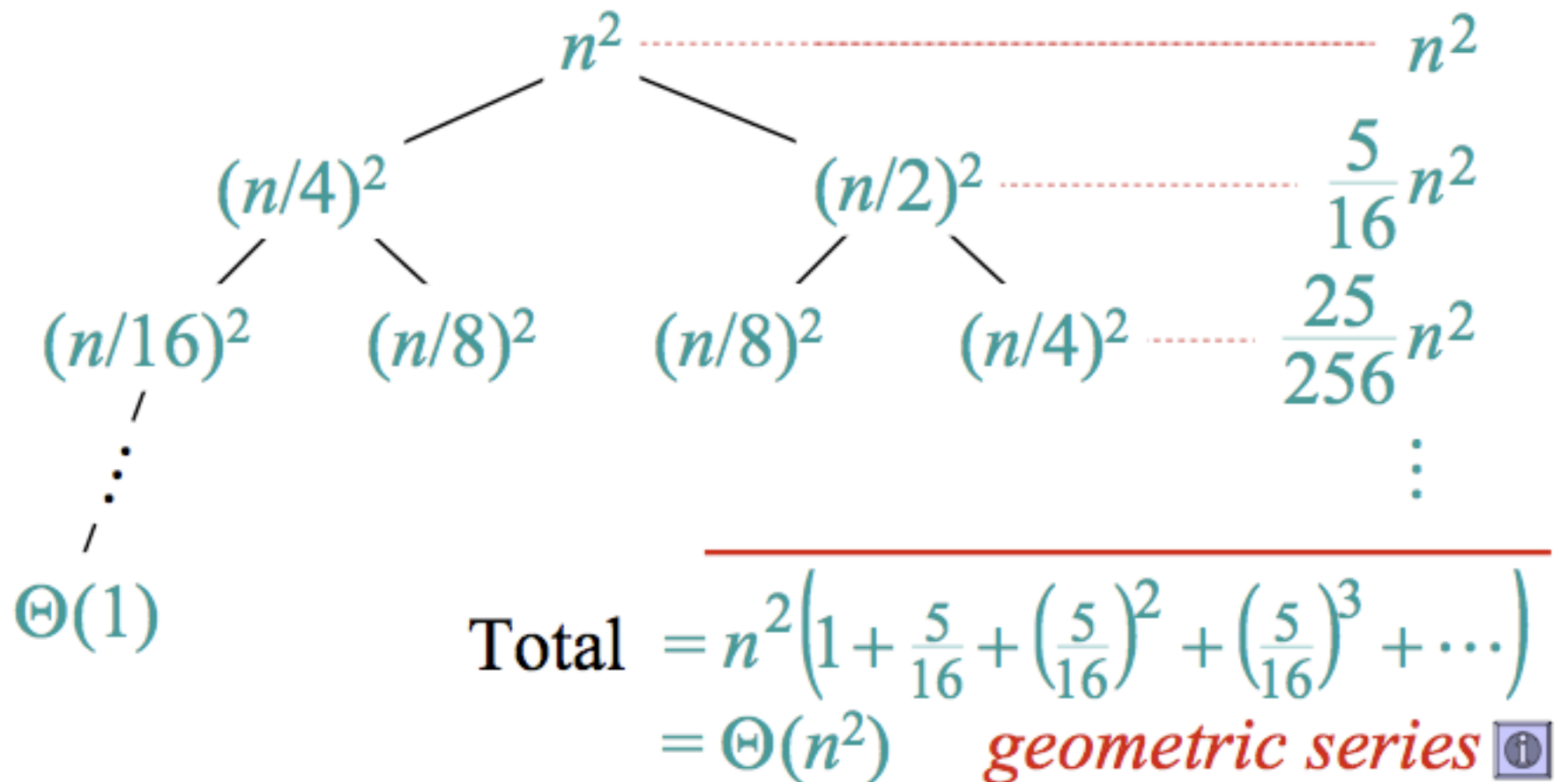
- Recursion tree is good for make an initial guess of the bound
- Build a recursion tree for $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$

Recursion Tree Example

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

Recursion Tree

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



Masters Method

- Cookbook method for solving recurrences of the type

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

Master Theorem

- If $T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$
- Idea compare the rate of growth of $f(n)$ with $n^{\log_b a}$
- $f(n)$ grows polynomially slower than $n^{\log_b a}$
- Solution is $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$

CASE 1: $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \epsilon})$, constant $\epsilon > 0$
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.

Masters Theorem

- Idea compare the rate of growth of $f(n)$ with $n^{\log_b a}$
- $f(n)$ grows at similar rate then $n^{\log_b a}$
- Solution is $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg n)$

Master Theorem

- If $T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$
- Idea compare the rate of growth of $f(n)$ with $n^{\log_b a}$
- $f(n)$ grows polynomially faster than $n^{\log_b a}$
- Solution is $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

CASE 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, constant $\varepsilon > 0$,
and regularity condition
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

- Regularity condition: $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$ for some constant $c < 1$

Master Theorem

- If $T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$

CASE 1: $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon})$, constant $\varepsilon > 0$
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.

CASE 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^k n)$, constant $k \geq 0$
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^{k+1} n)$.

CASE 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, constant $\varepsilon > 0$,
and regularity condition
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

CASE 1: $f(n) = O(n^{\log_b a - \varepsilon})$, constant $\varepsilon > 0$
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$.

CASE 2: $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^k n)$, constant k
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \lg^{k+1} n)$.

CASE 3: $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \varepsilon})$, constant $\varepsilon > 0$,
and regularity condition
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$.

- Merge Sort Example
- CASE 2

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$$

$$a = 2, b = 2 \Rightarrow n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_2 2} = n$$

$$k = 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n \lg n)$$

Examples

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$

Examples

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

Examples

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

Asymptotic Bounds for Some Common Functions

- Polynomials. $a_0 + a_1n + \dots + a_dn^d$ is $\Theta(n^d)$ if $a_d > 0$.

Polynomial time. Running time is $O(n^d)$ for some constant d independent of the input size n .

- Logarithms. $O(\log_a n) = O(\log_b n)$ for any constants $a, b > 0$.
can avoid specifying the base

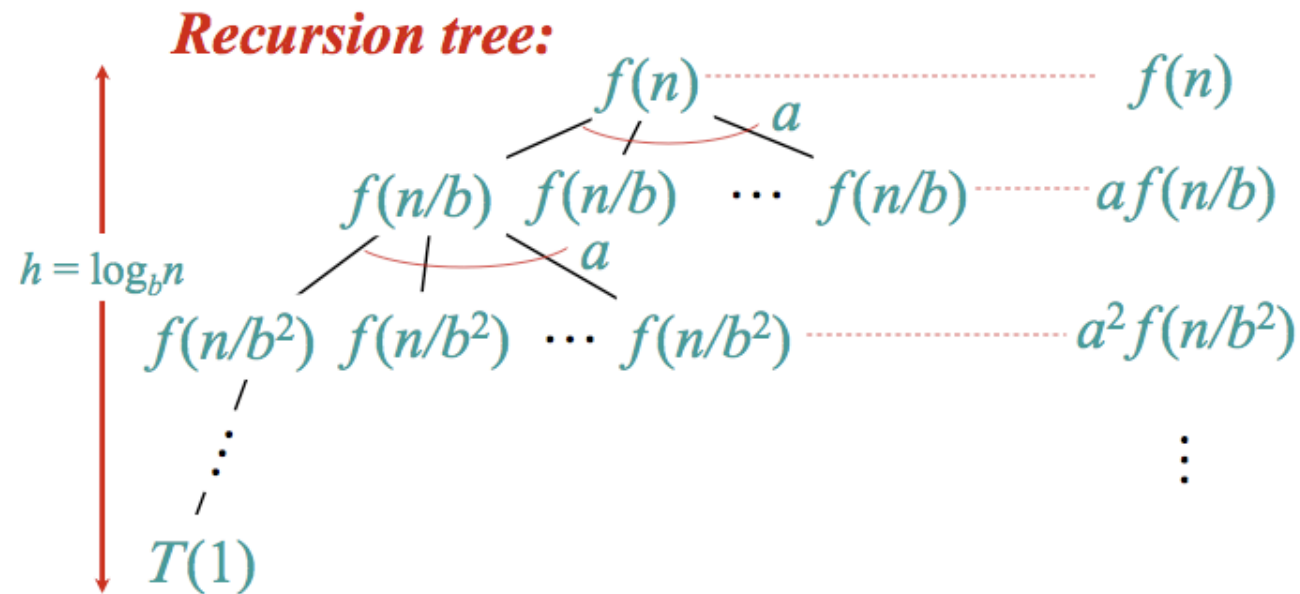
- Logarithms. For every $x > 0$, $\log n = O(n^x)$.

log grows slower than every polynomial

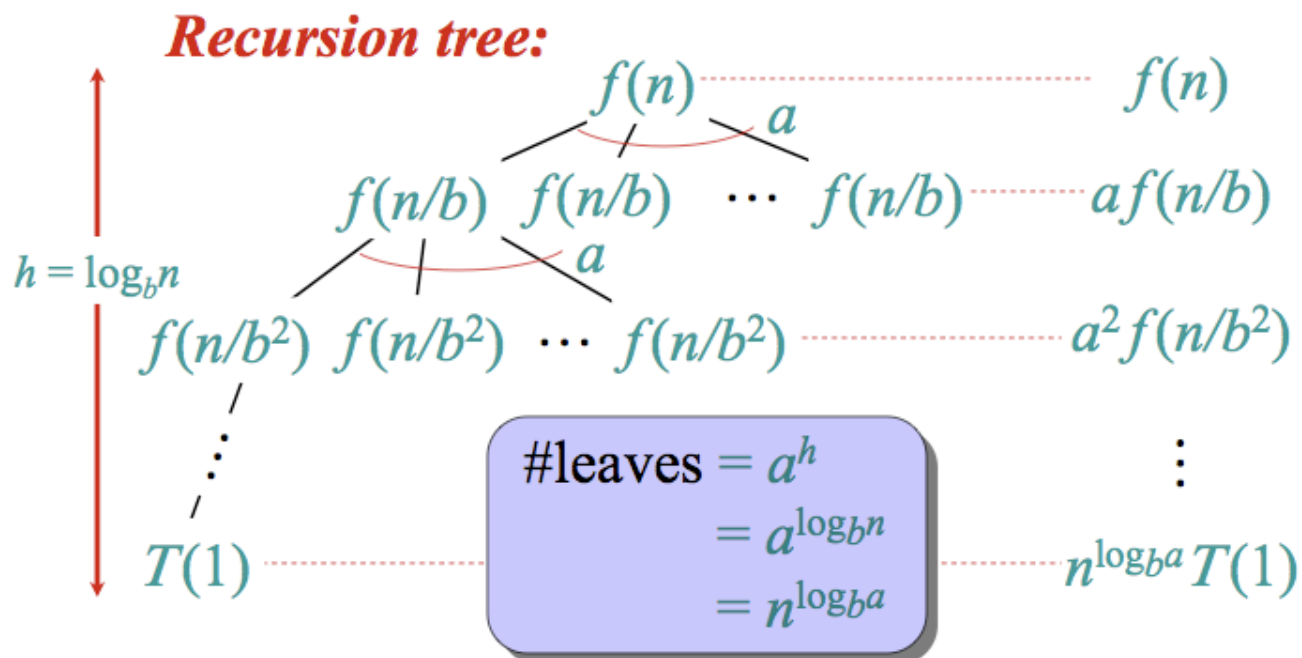
- Exponentials. For every $r > 1$ and every $d > 0$, $n^d = O(r^n)$.

every exponential grows faster than every polynomial

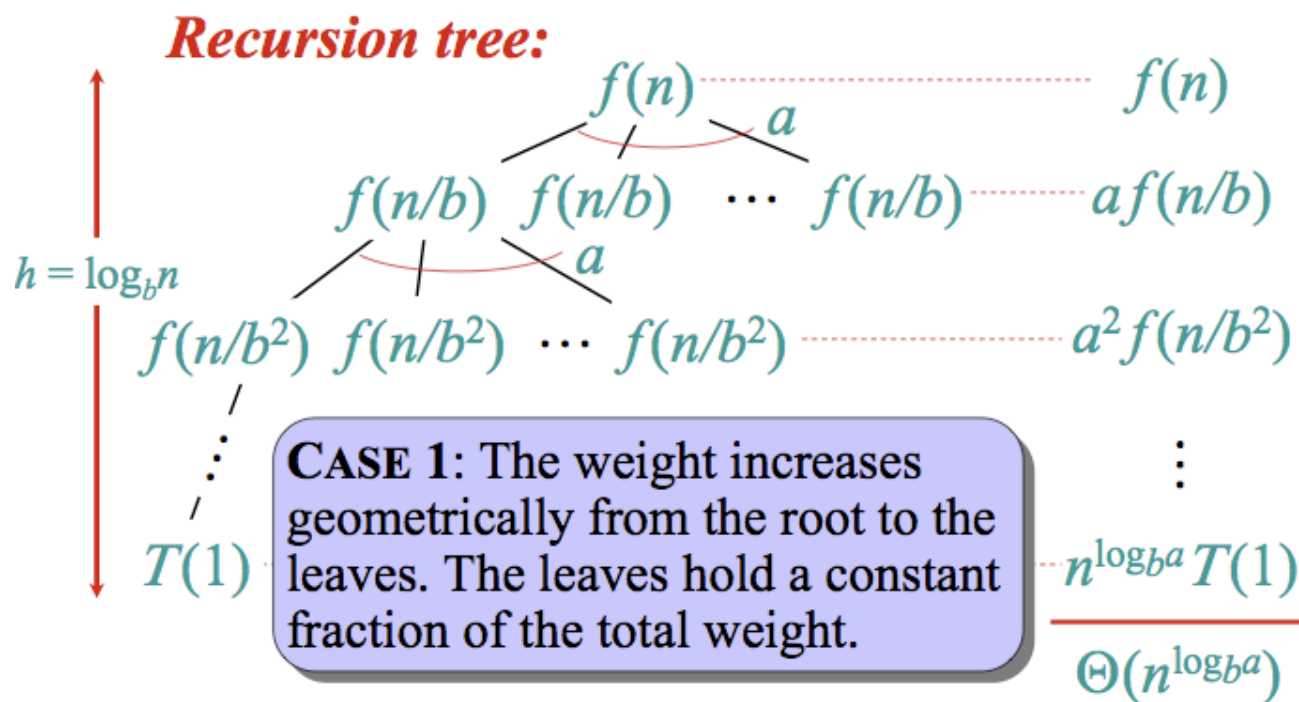
Masters Theorem via recursion tree



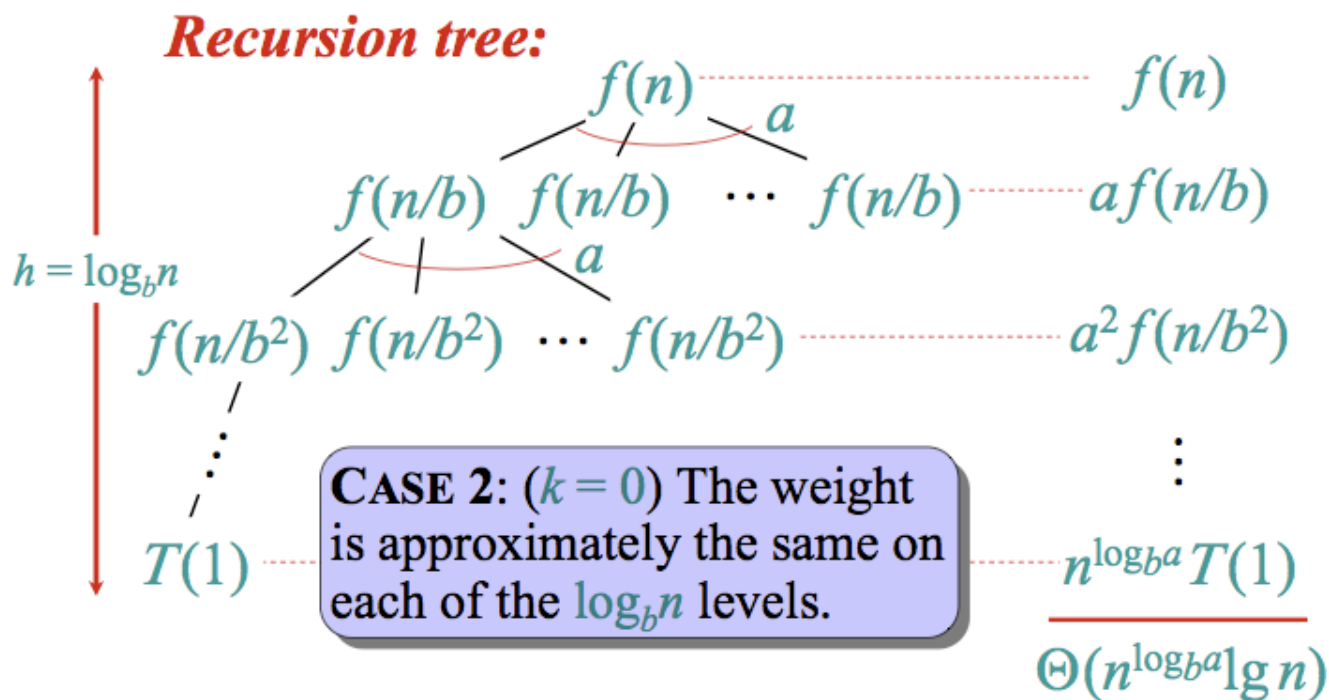
Masters Theorem via recursion tree



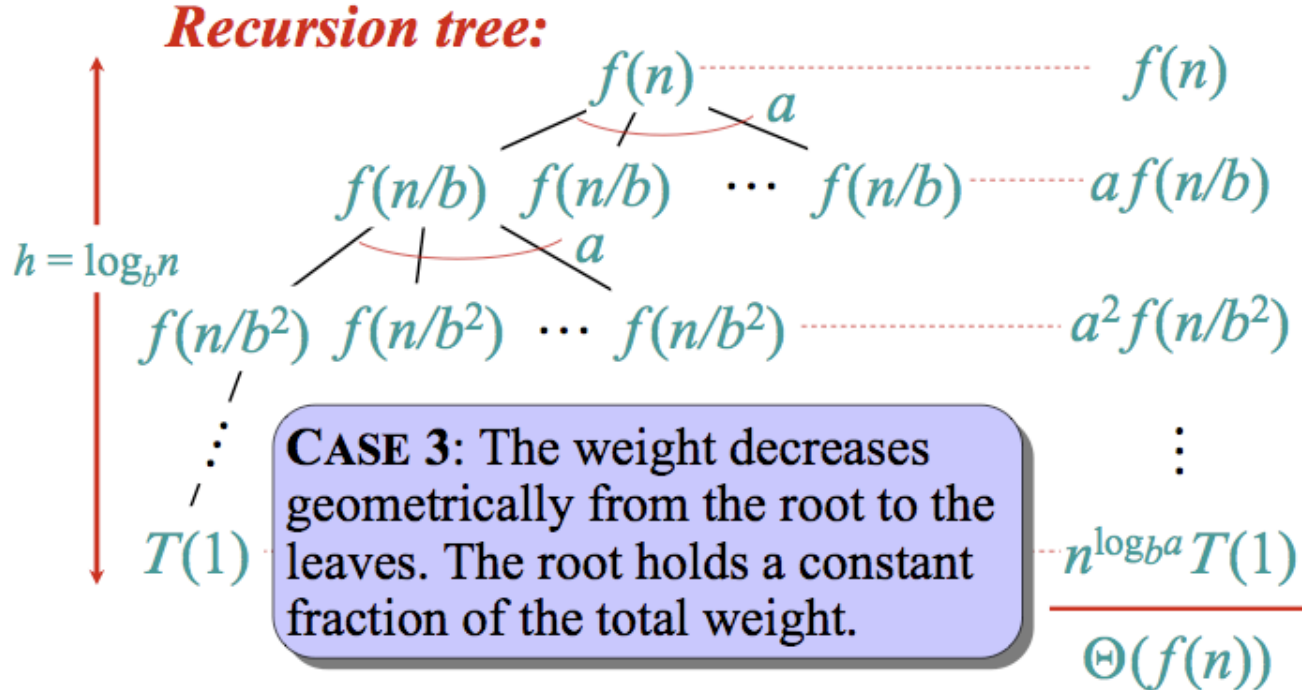
Masters Theorem via recursion tree



Masters Theorem via recursion tree



Masters Theorem via recursion tree



Binary Search

- Find an element in the sorted array
- Divide and conquer algorithm
 1. **Divide:** Check the middle element
 2. **Conquer:** Recursively search one subarray
 3. **Combine:** Trivial

Binary Search

- Find 9 in sorted array

3 5 7 8 9 12 15

Binary Search

- Recurrence equation

$$T(n) = 1T(n/2) + \Theta(1)$$

of subproblems work dividing and combining
subproblem size


Binary Search

- Recurrence equation

$$T(n) = \underline{1} \underline{T(n/2)} + \underline{\Theta(1)}$$

of subproblems work dividing and combining

subproblem size



- Analysis

Fibonacci Numbers

- Recursive definition

$$F_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0; \\ 1 & \text{if } n = 1; \\ F_{n-1} + F_{n-2} & \text{if } n \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

0 1 1 2 3 5 8 13 21 34

Probabilistic Analysis

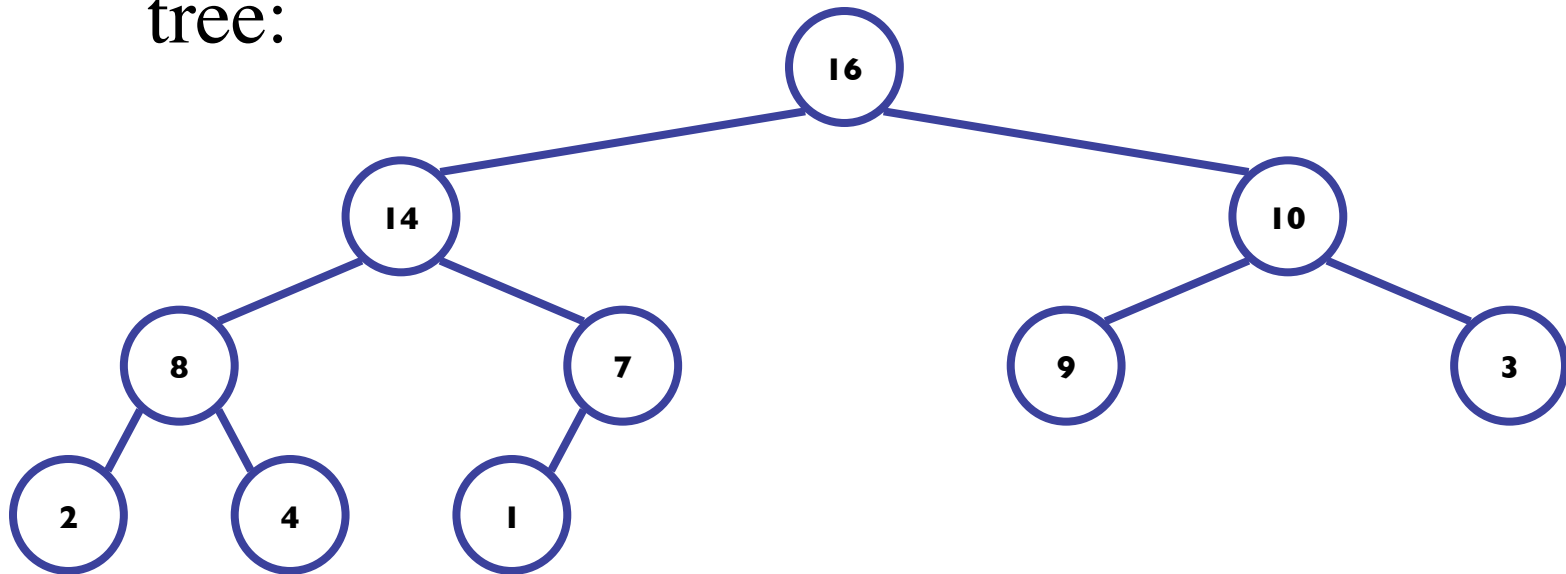
- use of probability theory in the analysis of algorithms
- To perform a probabilistic analysis, we have to **make assumptions on the distribution** of inputs
- After such assumption, we compute an **expected running time** that is computed over the distribution of all possible inputs
- We will return to it later

Sorting Continued

- So far we've talked about two algorithms to sort an array of numbers
 - What is the advantage of merge sort?
 - What is the advantage of insertion sort?
- Next on the agenda: *Heapsort*
 - Combines advantages of both previous algorithms

Heaps

- A *heap* can be seen as a complete binary tree:

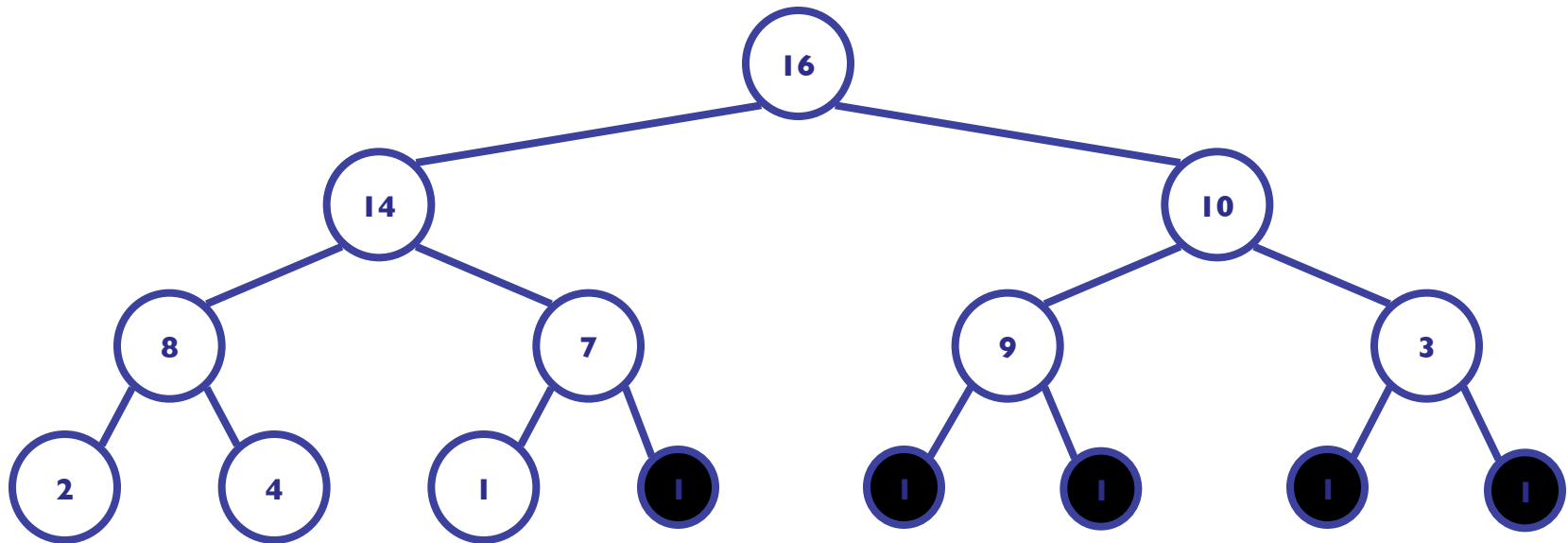


What makes a binary tree complete?

Is the example above complete?

Heaps

- A *heap* can be seen as a complete binary tree:

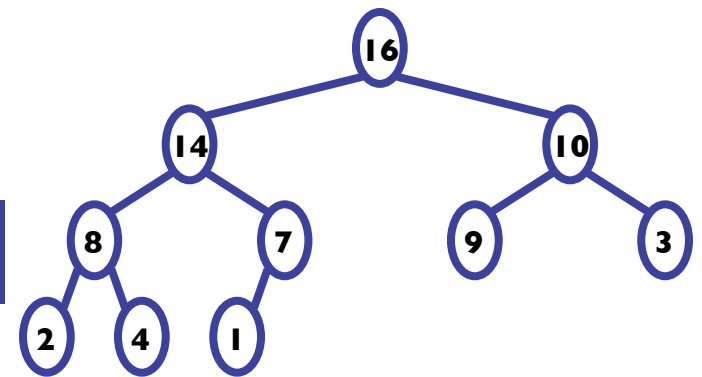


The book calls them “nearly complete” binary trees;
can think of unfilled slots as null pointers

Heaps

- In practice, heaps are usually implemented as arrays:

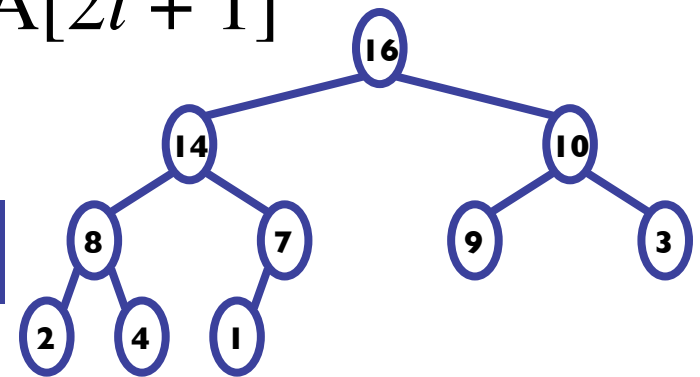
A = [16, 14, 10, 8, 7, 9, 3, 2, 4, 1] =



Heaps

- To represent a complete binary tree as an array:
 - The root node is $A[1]$
 - Node i is $A[i]$
 - The parent of node i is $A[i/2]$ (note: integer divide)
 - The left child of node i is $A[2i]$
 - The right child of node i is $A[2i + 1]$

$A = [16, 14, 10, 8, 7, 9, 3, 2, 4, 1] =$



Referencing Heap Elements

- So...

```
Parent(i) { return [i/2]; }
```

```
Left(i) { return 2*i; }
```

```
right(i) { return 2*i + 1; }
```

- An aside: *How would you implement this most efficiently?*
- Another aside: *Really?*

The Heap Property

- Heaps also satisfy the *heap property*:

$$A[\text{Parent}(i)] \geq A[i] \quad \text{for all nodes } i > 1$$

- In other words, the value of a node is at most the value of its parent
 - *Where is the largest element in a heap stored?*
- Definitions:
 - The *height* of a node in the tree = the number of edges on the longest downward path to a leaf
 - The height of a tree = the height of its root

Heap Height

- *What is the height of an n -element heap?
Why?*
- This is nice: basic heap operations take at most time proportional to the height of the heap