#### CS 240 – Data Structures and Data Management

#### Module 1: Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis

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#### Based on lecture notes by many previous cs240 instructors

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### Outline

#### 1 Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis

- CS240 Overview
- Algorithm Design
- Analysis of Algorithms I
- Asymptotic Notation
- Analysis of Algorithms II
- Example: Analysis of MergeSort
- Helpful Formulas

### Outline

# 1 Introduction and Asymptotic Analysis

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### Course Objectives: What is this course about?

- Much of Computer Science is *problem solving*: Write a program that converts the given input to the expected output.
- When first learning to program, we emphasize *correctness*: does your program output the expected results?
- Starting with this course, we will also be concerned with *efficiency*: is your program using the computer's resources (typically processor time) efficiently?
- We will study efficient methods of *storing*, *accessing*, and *organizing* large collections of data.

Motivating examples: Digital Music Collection, English Dictionary

Typical operations include: *inserting* new data items, *deleting* data items, *searching* for specific data items, *sorting*.

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#### Course Objectives: What is this course about?

- We will consider various **abstract data types** (ADTs) and how to realize them efficiently using appropriate **data structures**.
- There is a strong emphasis on mathematical analysis in the course.
- Algorithms are presented using pseudo-code and analyzed using order notation (big-Oh, etc.).

### **Course Topics**

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

### CS Background

Topics covered in previous courses with relevant sections in [Sedgewick]:

- arrays, linked lists (Sec. 3.2–3.4)
- strings (Sec. 3.6)
- stacks, queues (Sec. 4.2–4.6)
- abstract data types (Sec. 4-intro, 4.1, 4.8-4.9)
- recursive 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 (Goodrich & Tamassia, Section 1.3.4)

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## Problems (terminology)

First, we must introduce terminology so that we can precisely characterize what we mean by efficiency.

**Problem:** Given a problem instance, carry out a particular computational task.

Problem Instance: Input for the specified problem.

**Problem Solution:** *Output* (correct answer) for the specified problem instance.

Size of a problem instance: Size(1) is a positive integer which is a measure of the size of the instance I.

Example: Sorting problem

### Algorithms and Programs

**Algorithm:** An algorithm is a *step-by-step process* (e.g., described in pseudo-code) for carrying out a series of computations, given an arbitrary problem instance *I*.

**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:** A program is an *implementation* of an algorithm using a specified computer language.

In this course, our emphasis is on algorithms (as opposed to programs or programming).

## Algorithms and Programs

**Pseudocode:** a method of communicating an algorithm to another person.

In contrast, a program is a method of communicating an algorithm to a computer.

Pseudocode

- omits obvious details, e.g. variable declarations,
- has limited if any error detection,
- sometimes uses English descriptions,
- sometimes uses mathematical notation.

For a problem  $\Pi$ , we can have several algorithms.

For an algorithm  ${\cal A}$  solving  $\Pi,$  we can have several programs (implementations).

Algorithms in practice: Given a problem  $\Pi$ 

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

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## Efficiency of Algorithms/Programs

- How do we decide which algorithm or program is the most efficient solution to a given problem?
- In this course, we are primarily concerned with the *amount of time* a program takes to run. → Running Time
- We also may be interested in the *amount of additional memory* the program requires. → Auxiliary space
- The amount of time and/or memory required by a program will depend on *Size(1)*, the size of the given problem instance *I*.

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## Running Time of Algorithms/Programs

First option: experimental studies

- Write a program implementing the algorithm.
- Run the program with inputs of varying size and composition.
- Use a method like clock() (from time.h) to get an accurate measure of the actual running time.
- Plot/compare the results.

## Running Time of Algorithms/Programs

Shortcomings of experimental studies

- Implementation may be complicated/costly.
- Timings are affected by many factors: *hardware* (processor, memory), *software environment* (OS, compiler, programming language), and *human factors* (programmer).
- 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.

We need some *simplifications*.

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### Overview of Algorithm Analysis

We will develop several aspects of algorithm analysis in the next slides. To overcome dependency on hardware/software:

- Algorithms are presented in structured high-level *pseudo-code* which is language-independent.
- Analysis of algorithms is based on an *idealized computer model*.
- Instead of time, count the number of *primitive operations*.
- The efficiency of an algorithm (with respect to time) is measured in terms of its *growth rate* (this is called the *complexity* of the algorithm).

#### Random Access Machine

Random Access Machine (RAM) model:

- A set of memory cells, each of which stores one item (word) of data. Implicit assumption: memory cells are big enough to hold the items that we store.
- Any access to a memory location takes constant time.
- Any *primitive operation* takes constant time.
   Implicit assumption: primitive operations have fairly similar, though different, running time on different systems
- The *running time* of a program is proportional to 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.

## Running Time Simplifications

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

- Example 1: What is larger, 100*n* or 10*n*<sup>2</sup>?
- Example 2 (Matrix multiplication, approximately): What is larger:  $4n^3$ ,  $300n^{2.807}$ , or  $10^{67}n^{2.373}$ ?
- To simplify comparisons, use order notation
- Informally: ignore constants and lower order terms

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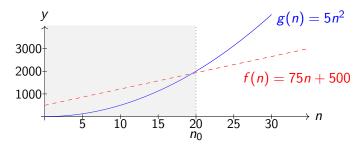
#### Asymptotic Notation

- Analysis of Algorithms II
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#### Order Notation

*O*-notation:  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  (*f* is asymptotically bounded above by *g*) if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $|f(n)| \le c |g(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

Example: f(n) = 75n + 500 and  $g(n) = 5n^2$  (e.g.  $c = 1, n_0 = 20$ )



**Note**: The absolute value signs in the definition are irrelevant for analysis of run-time or space, but are useful in other applications of asymptotic notation.

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#### Example 1: 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 the following condition is satisfied:

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

note that not all choices of c and  $n_0$  will work.

#### Aymptotic Lower Bound

• We have 
$$2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^2)$$
.

• But we also have  $2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in O(n^{10})$ .

• We want a *tight* asymptotic bound.

 $\Omega$ -notation:  $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$  (f is asymptotically bounded below by g) if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $c |g(n)| \le |f(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

 $\Theta$ -notation:  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$  (f is asymptotically tightly bound by g) if there exist constants  $c_1, c_2 > 0$  and  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $c_1 |g(n)| \le |f(n)| \le c_2 |g(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

$$f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$$

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Examples 2-4: Order Notation

Prove that  $f(n) = 2n^2 + 3n + 11 \in \Omega(n^2)$  from first principles.

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

Prove that  $\log_b(n) \in \Theta(\log n)$  for all b > 1 from first principles.

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### Strictly smaller/larger asymptotic bounds

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

• How to express that f(n) grows slower than  $n^3$ ?

o-notation:  $f(n) \in o(g(n))$  (f is asymptotically strictly smaller than g) if for all constants c > 0, there exists a constant  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $|f(n)| \le c |g(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

 $\omega$ -notation:  $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$  (f is asymptotically strictly larger than g) if for all constants c > 0, there exists a constant  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $|f(n)| \ge c |g(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

- Main difference to  $O, \Omega$  is the quantifier for c.
- Rarely proved from first principles.

#### Algebra of Order Notations

**Identity rule:**  $f(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$ 

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  $f(n) \in \Omega(h(n))$ .

**Maximum rules:** Suppose that f(n) > 0 and g(n) > 0 for all  $n \ge n_0$ . Then:

• 
$$f(n) + g(n) \in O(\max\{f(n), g(n)\})$$
  
•  $f(n) + g(n) \in \Omega(\max\{f(n), g(n)\})$ 

Proof:  $\max\{f(n), g(n)\} \le f(n) + g(n) \le 2 \max\{f(n), g(n)\}$ 

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#### Techniques for Order Notation

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

$$L = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}$$
 (in particular, the limit exists).

Then

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

The required limit can often be computed using *l'Hôpital's rule*. Note that this result gives *sufficient* (but not necessary) conditions for the stated conclusion to hold.

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#### Example 5: Polynomials 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  $f(n) \in \Theta(n^d)$ :

#### Example 6: Sine

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

#### Examples 7-8

Compare the growth rates of  $f(n) = \log n$  and g(n) = n.

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

#### Growth rates

- If f(n) ∈ Θ(g(n)), then the growth rates of f(n) and g(n) are the same.
- If  $f(n) \in o(g(n))$ , then we say that the growth rate of f(n) is *less than* the growth rate of g(n).
- If  $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$ , then we say that the growth rate of f(n) is greater than the growth rate of g(n).
- Typically, f(n) may be "complicated" and g(n) is chosen to be a very simple function.

### Common Growth Rates

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

- $\Theta(1)$  (constant),
- Θ(log n) (logarithmic),
- $\Theta(n)$  (linear),
- $\Theta(n \log n)(linearithmic)$ ,
- $\Theta(n \log^k n)$ , for some constant k (quasi-linear),
- $\Theta(n^2)$  (quadratic),
- $\Theta(n^3)$  (cubic),
- $\Theta(2^n)$  (exponential).

#### How Growth Rates Affect Running Time

It is interesting to see how the running time is affected when the size of the problem instance *doubles* (i.e.,  $n \rightarrow 2n$ ).

- constant complexity:  $T(n) = c \longrightarrow T(2)$
- logarithmic complexity:  $T(n) = c \log n$
- linear complexity: T(n) = cn
- linearithmic  $\Theta(n \log n)$ :  $T(n) = c n \log n$
- quadratic complexity:  $T(n) = c n^2$
- cubic complexity:  $T(n) = cn^3$
- exponential complexity:  $T(n) = c 2^n$

#### Relationships between Order Notations

• 
$$f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) \in \Theta(f(n))$$
  
•  $f(n) \in O(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) \in \Omega(f(n))$   
•  $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) \in \omega(f(n))$ 

• 
$$f(n) \in \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$$
  
•  $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n))$   
•  $f(n) \in o(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \notin \Omega(g(n))$   
•  $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$   
•  $f(n) \in \omega(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) \notin O(g(n))$ 

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### Order Notation Summary

*O*-notation:  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$  if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that  $|f(n)| \le c |g(n)|$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ .

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

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

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## Techniques for Run-time Analysis

- Goal: Use asymptotic notation to simplify run-time analysis.
- Running time of an algorithm depends on the *input size n*.

```
Test1(n)
1. sum \leftarrow 0
2. for i \leftarrow 1 to n do
3. for j \leftarrow i to n do
4. sum \leftarrow sum + (i - j)^2
5. return sum
```

- Identify primitive 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: start with the innermost loop and proceed outwards. This gives *nested summations*.

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## Techniques for Run-time Analysis

Two general strategies are as follows.

**Strategy I:** Use  $\Theta$ -bounds *throughout the analysis* and obtain a  $\Theta$ -bound for the complexity of the algorithm.

**Strategy II:** Prove a *O*-bound and a *matching*  $\Omega$ -bound *separately*. Use upper bounds (for *O*-bounds) and lower bounds (for  $\Omega$ -bound) early and frequently.

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

Test2(A, n)1. 
$$max \leftarrow 0$$
2. for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do3. for  $j \leftarrow i$  to  $n$  do4.  $sum \leftarrow 0$ 5. for  $k \leftarrow i$  to  $j$  do6.  $sum \leftarrow A[k]$ 7. return  $max$ 

# Complexity of Algorithms

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

```
Test3(A, n)

A: array of size n

1. for i \leftarrow 1 to n - 1 do

2. j \leftarrow i

3. while j > 0 and A[j] < A[j - 1] do

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

5. j \leftarrow j - 1
```

Let  $T_{\mathcal{A}}(I)$  denote the running time of an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  on instance I. Worst-case complexity (best-case complexity) of an algorithm: take the worst (best) I

Average-case complexity of an algorithm: average over I

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## Complexity of Algorithms

Worst-case (best-case) complexity of an algorithm: The worst-case (best-case) running time of an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  is a function  $f : \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  mapping *n* (the input size) to the *longest* (shortest) running time for any input instance of size *n*:

$$T_{\mathcal{A}}(n) = \max\{T_{\mathcal{A}}(l) : Size(l) = n\}$$
$$T_{\mathcal{A}}(n)^{best} = \min\{T_{\mathcal{A}}(l) : Size(l) = n\}$$

Average-case complexity of an algorithm: The average-case running time of an algorithm  $\mathcal{A}$  is a function  $f : \mathbb{Z}^+ \to \mathbb{R}$  mapping *n* (the input size) to the *average* running time of  $\mathcal{A}$  over all instances of size *n*:

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

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#### O-notation and Complexity of Algorithms

- It is important not to try and make *comparisons* between algorithms using O-notation.
- For example, suppose algorithm  $A_1$  and  $A_2$  both solve the same problem,  $A_1$  has worst-case run-time  $O(n^3)$  and  $A_2$  has worst-case run-time  $O(n^2)$ .
- Observe that we cannot conclude that  $\mathcal{A}_2$  is more efficient than  $\mathcal{A}_1$  for all input!
  - The worst-case run-time may only be achieved on some instances.
  - ② O-notation is an upper bound. A<sub>1</sub> may well have worst-case run-time O(n). If we want to be able to compare algorithms, we should always use Θ-notation.

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#### Design Idea for MergeSort

**Input:** Array *A* of *n* integers

- Step 1: We split A into two subarrays:  $A_L$  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

 $\begin{array}{l} \textit{MergeSort}(A, n, \ell \leftarrow 0, r \leftarrow n-1, S \leftarrow \texttt{NIL}) \\ \textit{A: array of size } n, 0 \leq \ell \leq r \leq n-1 \\ \texttt{1. if } S \text{ is NIL initialize it as array } S[0..n-1] \\ \texttt{2. if } (r \leq \ell) \text{ then} \\ \texttt{3. return} \\ \texttt{4. else} \\ \texttt{5. } m = \lfloor (r+\ell)/2 \rfloor \\ \texttt{6. } MergeSort}(A, n, \ell, m, S) \\ \texttt{7. } MergeSort}(A, n, m+1, r, S) \\ \texttt{8. } Merge}(A, \ell, m, r, S) \end{array}$ 

Two tricks to reduce run-time and auxiliary space:

- The recursion uses parameters that indicate the range of the array that needs to be sorted.
- The array used for copying is passed along as a parameter.

## Merge

$$\begin{array}{l} \textit{Merge}(A, \ell, m, r, S) \\ \textit{A}[0..n-1] \text{ is an array, } \textit{A}[\ell..m] \text{ is sorted, } \textit{A}[m+1..r] \text{ is sorted} \\ \textit{S}[0..n-1] \text{ is an array} \\ 1. \quad \text{copy } \textit{A}[\ell..r] \text{ into } \textit{S}[\ell..r] \\ 2. \quad (i_L, i_R) \leftarrow (\ell, m+1); \\ 3. \quad \textbf{for } (k \leftarrow \ell; k \leq r; k++) \textbf{ do} \\ 4. \quad \textbf{if } (i_L > m) \textit{A}[k] \leftarrow \textit{S}[i_R++] \\ 5. \quad \textbf{else if } (i_R > r) \textit{A}[k] \leftarrow \textit{S}[i_L++] \\ 6. \quad \textbf{else if } (S[i_L] \leq S[i_R]) \textit{A}[k] \leftarrow \textit{S}[i_L++] \\ 7. \quad \textbf{else } \textit{A}[k] \leftarrow \textit{S}[i_R++] \end{array}$$

Merge takes time  $\Theta(r - \ell + 1)$ , i.e.,  $\Theta(n)$  time for merging *n* elements.

## Analysis of MergeSort

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

- Step 1 (initialize array) takes time  $\Theta(n)$
- Step 2 (recursively call *MergeSort*) takes time  $T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor)$
- Step 3 (call Merge) 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:

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

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#### Analysis of MergeSort

• The following is the corresponding **sloppy recurrence** (it has floors and ceilings removed):

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

- The exact and sloppy 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 possible to show that T(n) ∈ Θ(n log n) for all n by analyzing the exact recurrence.

#### Abuse of Notation

- Normally, we say  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$  because  $\Theta(g(n))$  is a set.
- Sometimes, it's convenient to abuse notation and treat it like a value:
  - $f(n) = n^2 + \Theta(n) \rightsquigarrow f(n)$  is a quadratic function plus a linear term.
  - $f(n) = n^2 + O(n) \rightsquigarrow \dots$  plus a term that grows at most linearly.
  - $f(n) = n^2 + O(1) \rightsquigarrow \dots$  plus a constant term.
  - $f(n) = n^2 + o(1) \rightsquigarrow \dots$  plus a vanishing term.

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## Some Recurrence Relations

Recursion	resolves to	example
$T(n) = T(n/2) + \Theta(1)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(\log n)$	Binary search
$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$	Mergesort
$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + \Theta(\log n)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(n)$	Heapify (*)
$T(n) = T(cn) + \Theta(n)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(n)$	Selection (*)
for some $0 < c < 1$		
$T(n) = 2T(n/4) + \Theta(1)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(\sqrt{n})$	Range Search (*)
$T(n) = T(\sqrt{n}) + \Theta(\sqrt{n})$	$T(n) \in \Theta(\sqrt{n})$	Interpol. Search (*)
$T(n) = T(\sqrt{n}) + \Theta(1)$	$T(n) \in \Theta(\log \log n)$	Interpol. 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.
- (\*) These will be studied later in the course.

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## Useful Sums

#### Arithmetic sequence:

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

Geometric sequence:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 2^{i} = ??? \qquad \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a r^{i} = \begin{cases} a \frac{r^{n} - 1}{r - 1} & \in \Theta(r^{n-1}) & \text{if } r > 1\\ na & \in \Theta(n) & \text{if } r = 1\\ a \frac{1 - r^{n}}{1 - r} & \in \Theta(1) & \text{if } 0 < r < 1. \end{cases}$$

Harmonic sequence:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = ??? \qquad H_n := \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i} = \ln n + \gamma + o(1) \in \Theta(\log n)$$

A few more:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i^{2}} = ??? \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{i^{2}} = \frac{\pi^{2}}{6} \in \Theta(1)$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^{k} = ??? \qquad \sum_{i=1}^{n} i^{k} \in \Theta(n^{k+1}) \quad \text{for } k \ge 0$$

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## Useful Math Facts

Logarithms:

• 
$$c = \log_b(a)$$
 means  $b^c = a$ . e.g.  $n = 2^{\log n}$ .  
•  $\log(a)$  (in this course) means  $\log_2(a)$   
•  $\log(a \cdot c) = \log(a) + \log(c)$ ,  $\log(a^c) = c \log(a)$ ,  $\log x \le x$   
•  $\log_b(a) = \frac{\log_c a}{\log_c b} = \frac{1}{\log_a(b)}$ ,  $a^{\log_b c} = c^{\log_b a}$   
•  $\ln(x) = \text{natural } \log = \log_e(x)$ ,  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$ 

Factorial:

•  $n! := n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots 2 \cdot 1 = \#$  ways to permute *n* elements

•  $\log(n!) = \log n + \log(n-1) + \cdots + \log 2 + \log 1 \in \Theta(n \log n)$ 

Probability

- E[X] is the expected value of X.
- E[aX] = aE[X], E[X + Y] = E[X] + E[Y] (linearity of expectation)

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