

## Administration

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- Assignments are posted from the 3<sup>rd</sup> edition of the book, submission online or in class.
- Both midterm and final exams are 3-4 hours.
- Midterm exam: closed-book, one page allowed. Will concise 30% of final grade.

## Notes to self:

Cover skip-lists

### Problem:

Language - collection of valid strings. For instance, the language of sorted sequences:

Given a sequence:  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ , it is considered **sorted** if it satisfies:  $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq a_n$

So the language of sorted sequences is  $\{ \langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle \mid a_1 \leq \dots \leq a_n \}$

To verify if a sequence is **sorted**, i.e. in the language, you design an algorithm that outputs either **yes** or **no** for an input sequence.

This is a *decision problem*:  $s \in L$  – for it you design an algorithm:  $A(s) = \text{yes}, s \in L \text{ OR } \text{no}, o. w.$

Another problem would be an *optimization problem*.

## Insertion Sort:

Given an initially not sorted sequence, the algorithm sorts the sequence in the following way:

The initial condition is: the sequence is unsorted. There is a sorted part in the array which is initially is empty.

The outer loop takes a misplaced element, pushes it as far as possible in the sorted part.

The invariance of the loop is: in every iteration the sorted part grows and the unsorted part shrinks. So this is a finite algorithm.

The finite state of the sequence is that the array is sorted.

### What about complexity?

In the worst case, each element  $i$  is to be pushed  $i - 1$  steps to the left (with initial backwards sorted sequence). And so the **time** complexity is  $T(n) = O(n^2)$

The **space** complexity of the algorithm is  $S(n) = O(n)$

**But**, this is not the most efficient algorithm for sorting, as there are algorithms that merge in  $O(n \log n)$ .

## Prime Factorization:

$z = a \times b$ ,  $a, b \neq 1, z \Rightarrow z$  is not prime.

This is a *decision problem*: given  $x$ , is  $x$  prime?

Brute force method:

for  $i = 1$  to  $x - 1$ :

if  $x \mid i$  then  $x$  is not prime

Better would be to get to  $\sqrt{x}$  instead of  $x$ , since if  $x$  has non-trivial factors, one of them is definitely  $\leq \sqrt{x}$ .

The complexity over the size of the input:  $n = \lceil \log_2 x \rceil \Rightarrow x \cong 2^n$  and so if the complexity is  $\sqrt{x}$  it is actually  $\sqrt{2^n} = 2^{\frac{n}{2}}$ , so the time complexity of the problem is **exponential**.

**Another decision problem:**

A decision problem: given  $F = \{a_1, \dots, a_n\}$ , is  $x \in F$ ? That maps for instance to finding a file in a filesystem.

The time complexity of the problem, the *worst case* is  $n$  – you have to go over the entire set until you find  $x$ . The best case is constant, but it doesn't happen very often...

So the above is the **lower bound** of the **complexity of the problem** (not the algorithm). That is, no non-trivial algorithm exists that can solve this problem in less than  $n$  time.

**Data Structure:**

Data structures are designed to allow efficient performance for accessing data.

For the file search problem above, we'll define a permutation:  $\sigma(F) = \langle \tilde{a}_1 \leq \dots \leq \tilde{a}_n \rangle$

This data structure allows **binary search**:

You look at the total array first, and compare  $x$  with  $\frac{a_n}{2}$ , and after only **one** operation you eliminated  $\frac{n}{2}$  of the elements. The next step would recursively continue to the segment where  $x$  is at. The second step eliminates  $\frac{n}{4}$  elements. In general, after the  $i$  comparison we eliminated  $\frac{n}{2^i}$  elements. Therefore  $\frac{n}{2^k} = 1$  when  $n \cong 2^k \Rightarrow k = \log_2 n$  steps.

And so the data structure allowed us performing a task faster.

**Running time analysis:**

You want the worst case which is  $\max T(n)$ .

You can also look at the expectancy:  $E[T(n)]$

**Back to insertion sort:**

The best behavior of the algorithm is for an already sorted sequence. In that case the complexity is  $n$ .

We got to the complexity:  $T(n) = n + \underbrace{((n-1) + (n-1) + (n-1))}_{\text{initialization}} + 3 \sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$ , where the last term is  $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  as main term. Eventually, we only care of the main term asymptotically.

For instance:  $f(n) = 5n^4 + 10n^2 - 3n + 2 = \Theta(n^4)$ , i.e. as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\Theta(n^2)$  and the others grow slower than  $\Theta(n^4)$ .

Mathematically:

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{5n^4 + 10n^2 - 3n + 2}{n^4} = 5$ , that is asymptotically the numerator grows 5 times faster than the denominator.

Whereas:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{5n^4 \dots}{n^2} = \infty$

 **$\Theta$ ,  $O$  and  $\Omega$  notations:**

$$T(n) \cong \sum_{j=2}^n (j) \cong \Theta \left( \sum_{j=2}^n j \right) \cong \Theta(n^2)$$

$\Theta$  means: the term on the left of the equation grows as fast as the term in the  $\Theta$ .

$$\Theta(1) = \Theta(n) = 100n^0$$

$$\Theta(1) + \Theta(1) = \Theta(1)$$

$$\text{But! } \underbrace{\Theta(1) + \Theta(1) + \dots + \Theta(1)}_{n \text{ times}} = \Theta(n)$$

Definition: big O:

$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow \exists \text{constant } c, n_0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0: 0 \leq f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$$

So there exists a constant (at least one) and a breakpoint such that after that breakpoint,  $f$  grows slower than  $c \cdot g$ .

For instance:  $100n = O(n^2)$

The O notations says that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} > 0$

Big O is like " $\leq$ "

Definition: small o:

$$f(n) = o(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow \forall \text{constant } c \exists n_0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0: 0 \leq f(n) < c \cdot g(n)$$

No matter what constant choose, there is a break point from which on  $c \cdot g(n)$  is strictly bigger than  $f(n)$ , that is  $g(n)$  grows "much" faster than  $f(n)$ .

Mathematically:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = \infty$  -  $g(n)$  grows much faster than  $f(n)$ , asymptotically.

For instance:  $n^3 = o(n^7)$  since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^7}{n^3} = \infty$

$o$  is like " $<$ "

Definition: big Omega -  $\Omega$ :

$$f(n) = \Omega(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow \exists \text{constant } c, n_0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0: 0 < c \cdot g(n) \leq f(n)$$

This is the opposite of the  $O$  notation:  $n^3 = O(n^5) \Leftrightarrow n^5 = \Omega(n^3)$

$\Omega$  is like " $\geq$ "

Definition: small omega:  $\omega$ :

$$f(n) = \omega(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow \forall \text{constant } c, \exists n_0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0: 0 \leq c \cdot g(n) < f(n)$$

So if  $f(n) = \omega(g(n))$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g(n)}{f(n)} = 0$

$\omega$  is like " $>$ "

Definition: big theta -  $\Theta$ :

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow \exists \text{const. } c_1, c_2, n_0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \geq n_0: 0 \leq c_1 \cdot g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 \cdot g(n)$$

If  $f = O(g)$ ,  $f = \Omega(g)$  then  $f \equiv g$ :  $f = \Theta(g)$

If  $f = \Theta(g)$  then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{g}{f} = \text{constant}$

For instance:  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{10n^5 + 5n}{n^5} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 10 + \frac{5}{n^4} = 10$

$f = \Theta(g) \Rightarrow f = O(g)$  and  $f = \Omega(g)$

Having the possibility to compare functions is non-trivial always (such as sin or cos).

**Problem (quiz):**

Given a sequence  $a_1, \dots, a_n$ , find max and 2-max in  $n + \log(n)$  time (infinite space):

- First compare each pair, totally comparing  $\frac{n}{2}$  comparisons.
- Do the same one level up -  $\frac{n}{4}$  more comparisons, and so on until you get to the top – which is the max. the total operations are  $\frac{n}{2} + \frac{n}{4} + \dots + \frac{n}{2^{\log n}}$
- As we go up in the structure, each one you bit to the top – remember in a list (infinite list). Since you go up  $\log n$  steps, the max has 2-max in his list, which is of length  $\log n$ .

Therefore:  $n + \log n$

If you also want the 3-max, you'll spend  $n + 2 \cdot \log n + \log \log n$  since after the first  $n + \log n$  where we find max and 2-max, we do the same for the  $\log n$ -list of max (which contains 2-max and 3-max), and that goes for another " $\log[n + \log n]$ ", which is  $\log n + \log \log n$ .

**Divide and Conquer:**

Breaking a problem into sub problems, solve them, and merge the solutions.

For instance, Hanoy tower problem:

The simplest case contains 3 polls and 3 disks sorted by descending size on one poll, and you wish to move all disks to a different poll, keeping that every disk is placed only on bigger disk than it.

The solution is D&C:

- Solve the problem for the top 2
- Move the 3<sup>rd</sup> to the desired poll
- Solve the problem again for 2

In general, to solve a n-disks Hanoy tower, we will solve the problem for  $n - 1$ , and so on and so forth. So to solve one problem of size  $n$  you solve 2 problems of size  $n - 1$  and make one move:

$$T(n) = 2T(n - 1) + 1 = 2[2T(n - 2) + 1] + 1 = 2^2T(n - 2) + 2^1 + 2^0 = 2^2[2T(n - 3) + 1] + 2^1 + 2^0 =$$

$$2^3T(n - 3) + 2^2 + 2^1 + 2^0 = \dots = 2^kT(n - k) + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 2^i = \dots$$

And when  $n - k = 1$  you stop, that is  $k = n - 1$  and so:  $T(n) = 2^{n-1}T(1) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} 2^i$  where  $T(1) = 1$   
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = 2^{n-1} + 2^{n-2} + \dots + 2^0 = 2^n - 1$  operations.

And so, the **D&C algorithm is exponential**.

The **binary search** is also a type of D&C. The recurrence:

$$T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + 1 = T\left(\frac{n}{4}\right) + 1 + 1 = \dots = T\left(\frac{n}{2^k}\right) + k = \dots \Rightarrow$$

$$\left[\frac{n}{2^k} = 1 \Rightarrow k = \log_2 n\right]$$

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = T(1) + \log_2 n$$

The **insertion sort** is also recursive (not in the classical sense). The recurrence is:

$$T(n) = T(n - 1) + 1 = T(n - 2) + 2 + 1 = T(n - 3) + 3 + 2 + 1 = \dots = T(n - k) + \sum_{i=1}^k i \Rightarrow$$

$$[n - k = 1 \Rightarrow k = n - 1]$$

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = (n - 1) + (n - 2) + \dots + 2 + 1 = \frac{n(n - 1)}{2}$$

**Merge Sort:**

To sort a sequence of size  $n$ :

- Divide the sequence into 2 sequences of size  $\frac{n}{2}$
- Apply the algorithm recursively on each of the two parts to sort them.
- After the 2 parts are sorted:
  - Prepare an empty array, and have 2 pointers to the beginnings of the sorted parts.
  - Each time take the minimum of the 2 pointers and advance that pointers

Total:  $n$  for this part

Recurrence:

$$T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n = 2 \cdot \left[2T\left(\frac{n}{4}\right) + \frac{n}{2}\right] + n = 2^2 \left[2T\left(\frac{n}{8}\right) + \frac{n}{4}\right] + \frac{n}{2} + n = \dots = 2^k T\left(\frac{n}{2^k}\right) + k \cdot n, k = \log_2 n \Rightarrow$$

$$T(n) = 2^{\log_2 n} T(1) + n \cdot \log_2 n = n + n \cdot \log_2 n$$

**Summary:**

- Hanoy:  $T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1 = \Theta(2^n)$
- Merge Sort:  $T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n = \Theta(n \log n)$

The small difference above – how much is left for “future actions” – can have great implications over the complexity. Hanoy leaves almost all for the next iteration, Merge sort is not.