

Analysis of Algorithms

Part I: Analyzing a pseudo-code

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**Calculating the algorithmic complexity of a recursive algorithm:
recursion tree method**

References:

Introduction to ALGORITHMS; Thomas H. Cormen, Charles E. Leiserson,
Ronald L. Rivest, Clifford Stein; MIT Press, 2001.

Introduction

● what is a **computer program**?

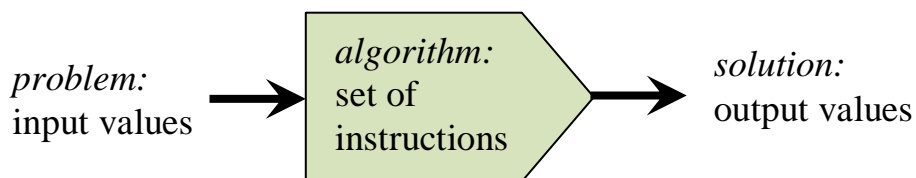
a set of instructions written in a specific programming language that is complete enough for a computer to execute it automatically

● what is an **algorithm**?

fundamental structure of a computer program

set of instructions written in an abstract form, pseudo-code or flowchart, independently from any specific computer or programming language

→ explains clearly to a human brain the general procedure to solve a problem



● what are the costs of running a computer program on a computer?

→ some time and some memory...

→ cost analysis: we must have an idea of the **running time** and **memory size** required to solve a problem of a certain size

maybe resolution becomes intractable when problem size increases...

(would require a PC to run for even longer than the age of the universe, 13 billion years)

intractable: possible in theory but impossible in practice...



no need to write a program if we realize that it will not be usable...

→ we should analyze the algorithm to know in advance the costs of running it


● *two ways of analyzing an algorithm:*

precise calculation of the running time and memory size
in function of the problem size

or

just have an idea of how fast the running time and memory size grow
when the problem size increases

→ **order of growth** of the running time = **algorithmic complexity**

 *example:*

"this algorithm runs in n^2 time"

→ its running time grows: ♦ with n^2
♦ with the square of n
♦ quadratically with n

→ its running time has the same order of growth as n^2

Pseudo-code representation of an algorithm

● to analyze easily an algorithm, we need to represent it in a way that is:

- ◆ clear and straightforward (the brain must easily comprehend its structure)
- ◆ without any detail of implementation (unnecessary for analysis)
- ◆ independent from any programming language (meant for the brain, not for a computer)



flowchart representation of an algorithm is mostly outdated and not suitable for analysis

● pseudo-code conventions:

→ based on the principles of *structured programming*
(sequential structure, conditional structure, iterative structure)

→ based on **data abstraction**:

- ◆ no variable declarations, no types
- ◆ we do not specify any memory allocation
- ◆ no pointers, no pointer arithmetic

no *input - output* operations

assignment: variable ← value

if-then-else construct

while construct

block of code represented with indentation and vertically stretched square bracket [

1D array: $A[1..n]$ with 1..n range of the index → element: $A[i]$

2D array: $A[1..n, 1..m]$ with 1..n and 1..m ranges of indices → element: $A[i, j]$

function call: similar to C → arguments are passed by value
except for arrays that are passed by reference



example:

C code:

```
#include <stdio.h>
#define N 100

void main()
{
    int i , n = 0;
    double v , x[N] , max;

    while (scanf("%lf" , &v) != EOF)
    { n++; if (n > N) exit(0);
      x[n - 1] = v; }

    max = -1e20;
    for (i = 0 ; i < n ; i++)
        if (max < x[i])
            max = x[i];

    printf("\n max = %f" , max);
}
```

pseudo-code:

```
max ← - ∞
for i ← 1 to n
    [ if max < x[i]
      [ max ← x[i]
```

Analyzing algorithms

- we must analyze an algorithm in order to predict the costs of executing it on a computer:
 - ◆ *running time* necessary to execute the code
 - ◆ *size of memory* necessary for the data structures of the code

why we should know the costs of an algorithm before coding it:

- better to know in advance if the algo can be executed with affordable costs:
 - ◆ running time of at most a few months...
 - ◆ memory size inferior to the RAM (or virtual memory) of our computer.
- find the *bottlenecks*, i.e. the parts of the program that will take the most time
- compare the efficiencies of two (or more) algorithms

we assume a generic model of computer:

only one CPU

instructions are executed one after the other

→ no parallelism, no concurrency

quantifying problem size and costs:● *quantifying the problem size:*

- ◆ in general, **n** number of values that are input to the algorithm
- ◆ maybe, **n** size of a square matrix $\rightarrow \mathbf{n} = \sqrt{(\text{number of values in the matrix})}$
- ◆ usually, a single integer **n**
- ◆ sometimes 2 integers necessary to describe the problem size
 - \rightarrow size of a rectangular matrix = (number of rows , number of columns)
 - \rightarrow size of a graph = (number of vertices , number of edges)

● *quantifying the running time:*

- ◆ real time in (nano)seconds
- ◆ or total number of instructions of a given type (floating point multiplication, test, ...) carried out during the execution of the program
 - = can be quasi proportional to physical running time

● *quantifying the memory size:*

- ◆ number of bytes occupied by the data structure(s) of the program
- ◆ number of values that must be stored

running time as a function:

● for a given algorithm, the running time generally depends on the size of the problem:

"the bigger the problem, the more time it takes to solve it"

\rightarrow running time **T(n)** = function of **n**

● **T(n)** may also depend on the input values themselves

even when **T** does not depend only on **n**, we will keep writing "**T(n)**"

best case - average case - worst case:

for a given n , $T(n)$ varies between

its *best case* value (when the code runs in the shortest possible time)

and

its *worst case* value (when the code runs in the longest possible time)

most of the time, $T(n)$ is around its *average case* value

● *best case - worst case analysis:*

find in the code the test(s) over the data

→ choose for these test(s) the values that minimize - maximize $T(n)$

→ lower bound - upper bound for $T(n)$

● *worst case is the most significant case :*

◆ we know things cannot be worse than that!

◆ very often, the average case happens to be nearly as bad as the worst case

Measuring the running time and memory size of an algorithm



problem: to measure $T(n)$ and the memory size, we must first write the code and run it !

measure the running time:

- direct measure of physical time
→ use function `clock()` in C language



example:

```
#include <time.h>
.....
clock_t t0 = clock();
for (i = 1 ; i <= n ; i++)
    for (j = i + 1 ; j <= n ; j++)
        if (a[i][j] < 0)
            a[i][j] = a[i][j] * a[i][j];
printf("\n running time = %f" , (double)(clock() - t0) / CLOCKS_PER_SEC);
.....
```

- measure the number of times a certain instruction is executed
→ insert a counter variable inside the code



example:

```
.....
int counter = 0;
for (i = 1 ; i <= n ; i++)
    for (j = i + 1 ; j <= n ; j++)
        if (a[i][j] < 0)
            { a[i][j] = a[i][j] * a[i][j];
              counter++; }
printf("\n running time = %d" , counter);
.....
```

measure the memory size:

- read from the OS the memory being used (Task Manager of Windows...)
- increment a counter each time a new block of memory is allocated during execution

Calculating the running time and memory size of an iterative algorithm



advantage: can be done simply by analyzing the algorithm, long before the code has been written and run

memory size:

analyze the data structures used by the pseudo-code

→ what is their size?

running time:

an iterative algorithm is made of loops (eventually nested) and of tests over the data

→ we must count the total number of iterations and express it as an algebraic expression

loops:

- *header line of loop executed one more time than the number of iterations:*

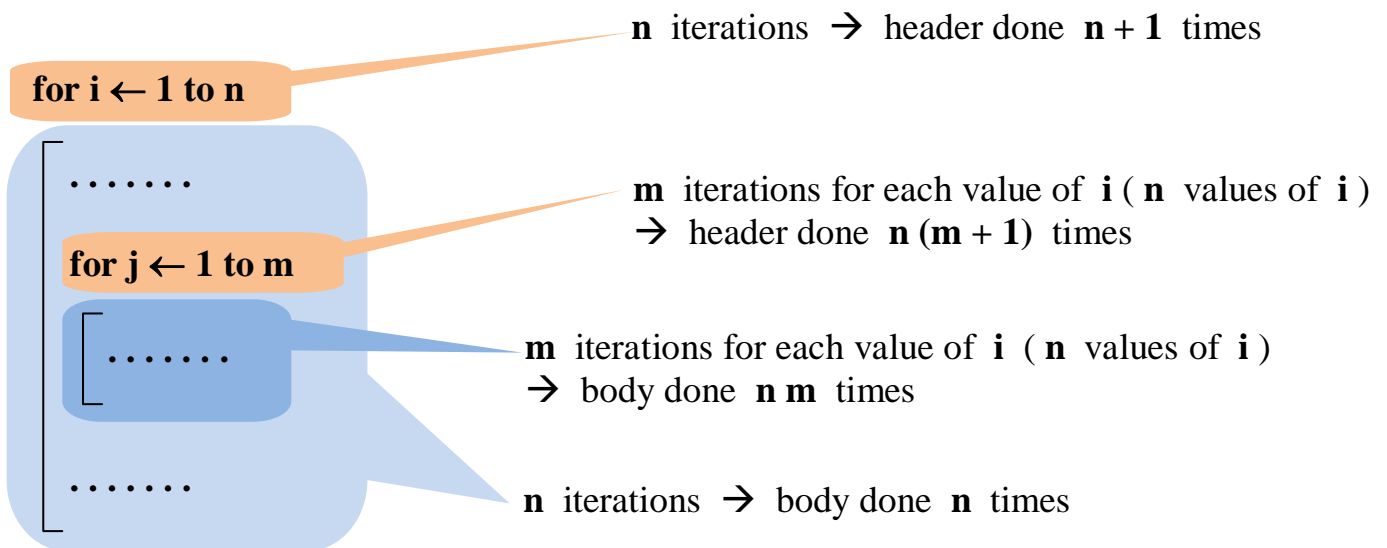
assignment and test on index executed one more time → exit from the loop



example:

<pre>for (i = 0 ; i < 4 ; i++) printf("\n i = %d" , i);</pre>	i ←	i < 4	printing
	0	true	i = 0
	1	true	i = 1
	2	true	i = 2
	3	true	i = 3
	4	false	

● *nested loops:*



Ⓢ *example: matrix addition (A (n × m), B (n × m))*

```

add_mat(A , B , n , m)
1  for i ← 1 to n
2  for j ← 1 to m
3  [ C[i , j] ← A[i , j] + B[i , j]
   return C

```

a) calculate $T(n, m)$ as real time assuming that line 1 takes c_1 nanoseconds to execute once

b) calculate $T(n, m)$ as number of floating point additions

..... *resolution on the board*

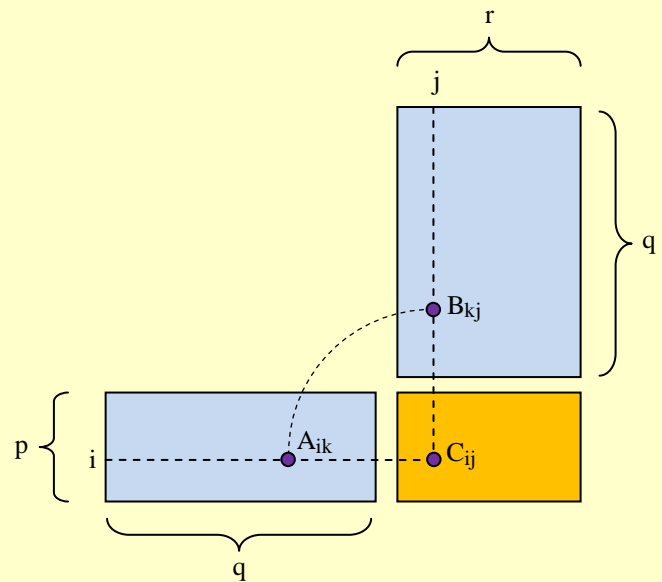


example: matrix multiplication ($A (p \times q)$, $B (q \times r)$)

```

mul_mat(A , B , p , q , r)
1  for i ← 1 to p
2  for j ← 1 to r
3  C[i , j] ← 0
4  for k ← 1 to q
5  C[i , j] ← C[i , j] + A[i , k] * B[k , j]
return C

```



a) calculate $T(p,q,r)$ as real time assuming that line 1 takes c_1 nanoseconds to execute once

b) calculate $T(p,q,r)$ as number of floating point multiplications

..... resolution on the board



the number of iterations of the inner loop may depend on the index of the outer loop!

→ sum the numbers of iterations of the inner loop for all the values of the outer loop index

→ some formulas to calculate this sum:

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = n(n + 1) / 2$$

$$\rightarrow \text{possible adjustments: } 2 + \dots + n = n(n + 1) / 2 - 1$$

$$1 + 2 + \dots + (n - 1) = n(n + 1) / 2 - n$$

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1) / 6$$

$$1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + n^3 = n^2(n + 1)^2 / 4$$



examples:

```

1-- for i ← 2 to n
2--   [ for j ← 1 to i
3--     [ C[i , j] ← i * j

```

```

1-- for i ← 1 to n - 1
2--   [ for j ← i to n
3--     [ C[i , j] ← i * j

```


```

1-- for i ← 2 to n + 1
2--   [ for j ← i to n
3--     [ for k ← i to n
4--       [ C[i , j] ← C[i , j] + i * j * k

```

for each of these codes, calculate $T(n)$ as number of assignments

..... resolution on the board

 example: Gauss linear system resolution ($A V = B$ with $A (n \times n)$, $V (n)$, $B (n)$)

```

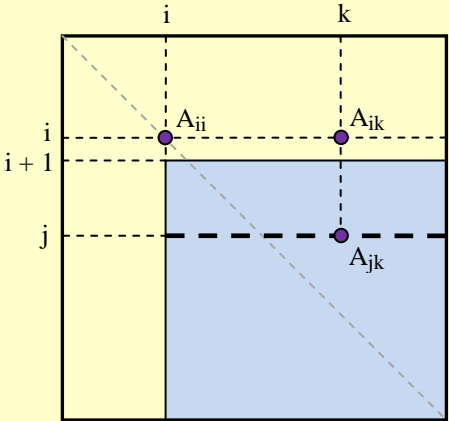
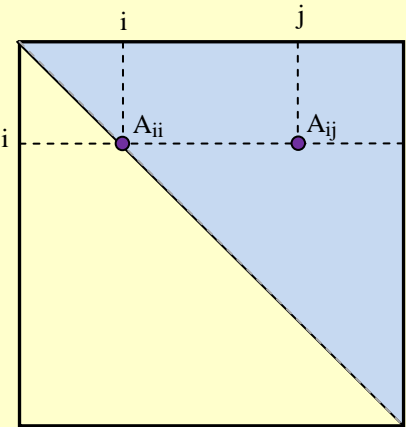
solve_linear_system(A , B , n)
1  for i ← 1 to n
2  [ for j ← i + 1 to n
3  [ r ← A[j , i] / A[i , i]
4  [ B[j] ← B[j] - r × B[i]
5  [ for k ← i to n :
6  [ A[j , k] ← A[j , k] - r × A[i , k]

7  V[n] ← B[n] / A[n , n]
8  for i ← n - 1 down to 1
9  [ s ← 0
10 [ for j ← i + 1 to n
11 [ s ← s + A[i , j] × V[j]
12 [ V[i] ← (B[i] - s) / A[i , i]

return V

```

elimination
= triangulation
→ $T_1(n)$


resolution of
triangular system
→ $T_2(n)$

calculate $T_1(n)$ and $T_2(n)$ as numbers of floating point multiplications

..... resolution on the board

test(s) on data:

→ best case - worst case analysis

 example: search problem: find value v inside $A[1..n]$ → linear search algorithm

```


linear_search(A , v , n)
1  [ i ← 1
2  [ while i ≤ n and A[i] ≠ v
3  [   [ i ← i + 1
4  [   [ if i = n + 1
5  [     [ return NIL
   [     else
6  [     [ return i

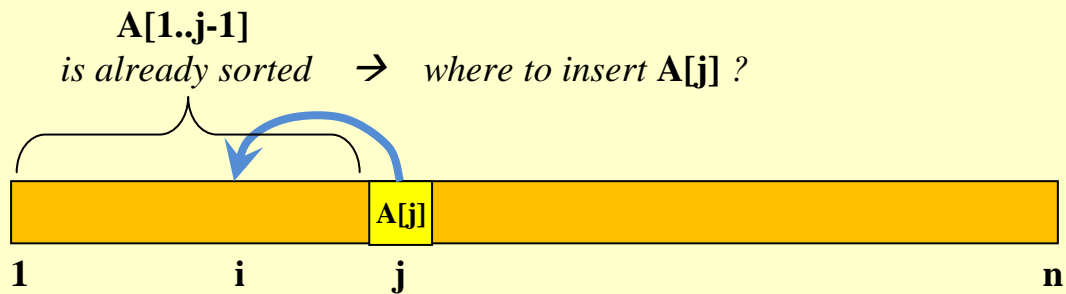
```

a) for best and worst cases, calculate $T(n)$ as real time
assuming that line **I** takes c_1 nanoseconds to execute once

b) for best and worst cases, calculate $T(n)$ as number of tests

..... resolution on the board

 example: *sorting problem: sort in ascending order the elements of $A[1..n]$*
 → **insertion sort algorithm**



```

insertion_sort(A , n)
1  for j ← 2 to n
2  [ v ← A[j]
3  [ i ← j - 1
4  [ while i > 0 and A[i] > v
5  [ [ A[i + 1] ← A[i]
6  [ [ i ← i - 1
7  [ A[i + 1] ← v

```

a) for best and worst cases, calculate $T(n)$ as real time
 assuming that line 1 takes c_1 nanoseconds to execute once

b) for best and worst cases, calculate $T(n)$ as number of tests

..... resolution on the board

Calculating the running time of a combinatorial algorithm

combinatorial algorithm = algorithm that must explore all possible combinations over a given data set in order to find the best combination



the number of such combinations may become huge as the the data set size increases
→ **combinatorial explosion**

T(n) = total number of possible combinations
→ simply count this number



example: *traveling salesman problem*

set of **n** fully connected cities (one road between each couple of cities)
→ find the shortest path to visit all the cities (by visiting a given city only once)

for each possible city among the **n** cities

for each possible next city among the remaining **n - 1** cities

for each possible next city among the remaining **n - 2** cities

for each possible next city among the remaining **n - 3** cities

.....

.....

.....

for each possible next city among the remaining **2** cities

for each possible next city among the remaining **1** city

examine the length of the path

T(n) = number of possible paths = $n \times (n - 1) \times (n - 2) \times (n - 3) \times \dots \times 2 \times 1$

⇒ **T(n) = n!**

n	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
T(n)	1	2	6	24	120	720	5040	40320	362880	3628800	39916800	479001600

Order of growth of a function, asymptotic notations

some basic mathematical recalls:

● *logarithms:*

log base 2: $\lg n$

$$\lg 1 = 0$$

$$\lg 2 = 1$$

$$\lg(a \cdot b) = \lg a + \lg b$$

relation between logarithms of different bases:

$$\log_b a = \log_c a / \log_c b$$

● *exponentials:*

exponential base 2: 2^n

exponential base e: e^n

$$2^0 = 1$$

$$2^1 = 2$$

$$2^{a+b} = 2^a \times 2^b$$

$$(2^a)^b = (2^b)^a = 2^{a \cdot b}$$

$$a^{\log_b n} = n^{\log_b a}$$

$$a = 2^{\lg a}$$

a most intuitive introduction to the order of growth:

- *order of growth of a polynomial term:*

$f(n) = a n^p$ → what happens to $f(n)$ when we multiply n by 10 ?

$$f(10n) / f(n) = a (10n)^p / a n^p = 10^p$$

polynomial term	when we multiply n by 10, $f(n)$ is multiplied by:
$a n$	10
$a n^2$	$10^2 = 100$
$a n^3$	$10^3 = 1000$
$a n^4$	$10^4 = 10000$

→ $a n$ grows in proportion of n



the higher the exponent,
the faster the growth



the constant multiplying factor a of a polynomial term has absolutely no influence on the order of growth

- *order of growth of a logarithmic term:*

$f(n) = \lg n$ → what happens to $f(n)$ when we multiply n by 10 ?

$$\lg(10n) = \lg n + \lg 10 = \lg n + 3.322 \rightarrow f(n) \text{ is just increased by } 3.322$$

= *very slow growth*

- *order of growth of an exponential term:*

$f(n) = 2^n$ → what happens to $f(n)$ when we multiply n by 10 ?

$$f(10n) = 2^{10n} = (2^n)^{10} = (f(n))^{10} \rightarrow f(n) \text{ is raised to the power } 10 = \textit{huge!}$$

what happens to $f(n)$ when we add 10 to n ?

$$f(n+10) = 2^{n+10} = 2^n \cdot 2^{10} = f(n) \cdot 1024 \rightarrow f(n) \text{ is multiplied by } 1024$$

= *extremely fast growth*

asymptotic notations:

there exists no mathematical tool to express directly the order of growth of a function

→ use the **asymptotic notations** to compare the orders of growth of two functions:

asymptotic notation	intuitive comparison between $f(n)$ and $g(n)$	orders of growth of $f(n)$ and $g(n)$
$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$	$f(n)$ grows similarly to $g(n)$	order of growth of $f(n)$ \equiv order of growth of $g(n)$
$f(n) = O(g(n))$	$f(n)$ grows slower or similarly to $g(n)$	order of growth of $f(n)$ \leq order of growth of $g(n)$
$f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$	$f(n)$ grows faster or similarly to $g(n)$	order of growth of $f(n)$ \geq order of growth of $g(n)$
$f(n) = o(g(n))$	$f(n)$ grows strictly slower than $g(n)$	order of growth of $f(n)$ $<$ order of growth of $g(n)$
$f(n) = \omega(g(n))$	$f(n)$ grows strictly faster than $g(n)$	order of growth of $f(n)$ $>$ order of growth of $g(n)$

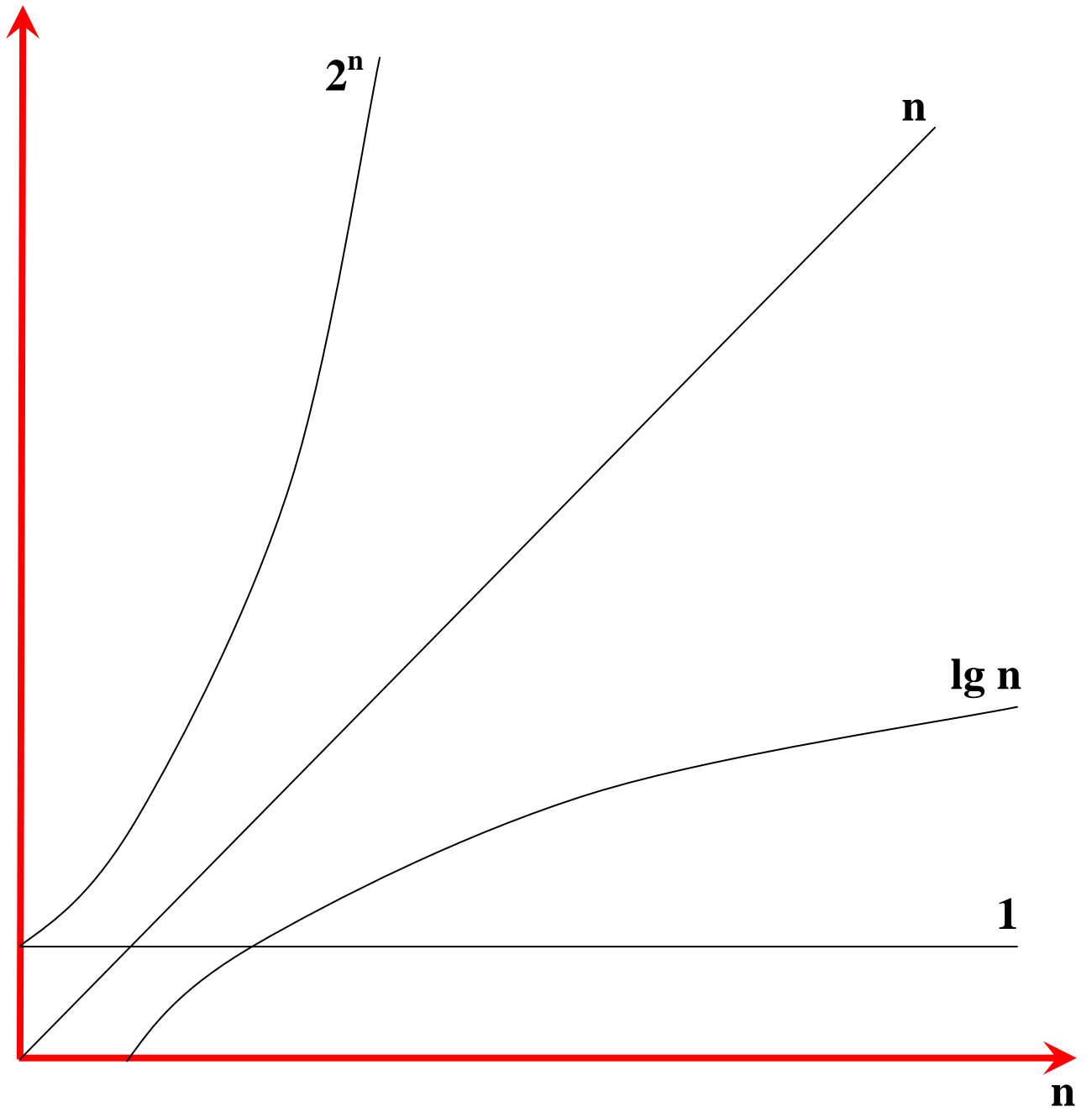
fundamental properties of the asymptotic notations:

	$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = O(g(n))$
	$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$
	$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$
transitivity for $\Theta, O, \Omega, o, \omega$	$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \text{ and } g(n) = \Theta(h(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = \Theta(h(n))$
reflexivity for Θ, O, Ω	$f(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
symmetry for Θ	$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$

functions of reference:

Usually, we describe the order of growth of a function by comparing it with the order of growth of a well known function taken as reference

function of reference	intuitive description
1	no growth
lg n	logarithmic growth, " <i>very slow</i> " growth
n	linear growth, grows linearly with n, " <i>normal</i> " growth
n lg n	"a bit more" than linear growth
n²	quadratic growth, grows with the square of n, " <i>quite fast</i> " growth
n³	cubic growth, grows with the cube of n, " <i>fast</i> " growth
2ⁿ	exponential growth, " <i>exceedingly fast</i> " growth
n!	factorial growth, " <i>astonishingly fast</i> " growth
others



practical meaning for the running time:

algorithmic complexity	"quality" of the algorithm
$T(n) = \Theta(1)$	same $T(n)$ whatever the problem size <i>too good to be true, "don't even think about it"</i>
$T(n) = \Theta(\lg n)$	$T(n)$ remains quite small, even for huge problem size <i>excellent, "dream case"</i>
$T(n) = \Theta(n)$	$T(n)$ grows in proportion with the problem size <i>very good</i> , the minimum we should expect whenever we directly manipulate each of the n input values
$T(n) = \Theta(n \lg n)$	<i>still very good</i> , barely more than $\Theta(n)$
$T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$	<i>costly</i> but affordable the case of many algos (matrix addition)
$T(n) = \Theta(n^3)$	<i>very costly</i> but still affordable if n is not huge still the case of many algos (matrix multiplication)
$T(n) = \Theta(2^n)$	<i>exceedingly costly</i> affordable only for small problem size intractable as soon as problem size increases <i>algo of very limited utility, useless most of the time</i>
$T(n) = \Theta(n!)$	incredibly costly totally intractable unless problem size is extremely small <i>useless algo practically always</i>

O notation is most often used:

$$\text{worst-case } T(\mathbf{n}) = \Theta(f(\mathbf{n})) \Rightarrow \text{general } T(\mathbf{n}) = O(f(\mathbf{n}))$$

→ **O** notation provides an upper bound on **T(n)** whatever the case


asymptotic notations Θ , O , o in algebraic equations:

assume that \mathcal{N} is either one of the three asymptotic notations Θ , O , o

$$f(\mathbf{n}) = g(\mathbf{n}) + \mathcal{N}(h(\mathbf{n})) \text{ means that } f(\mathbf{n}) = g(\mathbf{n}) + e(\mathbf{n}) \text{ with } e(\mathbf{n}) = \mathcal{N}(h(\mathbf{n}))$$

e(n) is often an **error term**

→ we are not interested in knowing **e(n)** exactly,
we just want to know that it will not grow too fast...

 examples:

$$T(\mathbf{n}) = 2 \mathbf{n}^2 + \Theta(\mathbf{n}) \quad \rightarrow \text{error term grows linearly with } \mathbf{n},$$

$$\rightarrow \text{error term grows strictly slower than } 2 \mathbf{n}^2$$

$$T(\mathbf{n}) = 2 \mathbf{n}^2 + O(\mathbf{n}) \quad \rightarrow \text{error term grows at most linearly with } \mathbf{n},$$

$$\rightarrow \text{error term grows strictly slower than } 2 \mathbf{n}^2$$

$$T(\mathbf{n}) = 2 \mathbf{n}^2 + o(\mathbf{n}^2) \quad \rightarrow \text{error term grows strictly less than quadratically with } \mathbf{n},$$

$$\rightarrow \text{error term grows strictly slower than } 2 \mathbf{n}^2$$

Calculating the algorithmic complexity of an iterative algorithm: practical rules

calculate the order of growth of a precise expression of $T(n)$:

● *method:*

we have already calculated: $T(n) = f(n)$

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(n)) \quad (\text{or, similarly, } T(n) = O(f(n)))$$

→ we gradually simplify the expression inside Θ notation (or inside O notation) until a simple *function of reference* is reached

● *practical rules to simplify the expression inside Θ notation :*

$$T(n) = \Theta(a n^p) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^p) \quad (a > 0)$$

$$T(n) = \Theta(a n^p + b n^q) \text{ with } p > q \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^p) \quad (a > 0)$$

note: exponents may be fractional or negative:

$$a n + b \sqrt{n} + c + d/n + e/n^2 = a n^1 + b n^{0.5} + c n^0 + d n^{-1} + e n^{-2}$$

in general: assume a *polynomial* $P(n)$ → *higher-order term* of $P(n)$
= term with biggest exponent for n

$$T(n) = \Theta(P(n)) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(\text{higher-order term of } P(n))$$

$$T(n) = \Theta((P(n))^p) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta((\text{higher-order term of } P(n))^p)$$

$$T(n) = \Theta(P_1(n) / P_2(n)) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(\text{higher-order term of } P_1(n) / \text{higher-order term of } P_2(n))$$

→ in particular:

$$T(n) = \Theta((a n^p + b n^q) / (c n^r + d n^s)) \text{ with } p > q, r > s \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^p / n^r) = \Theta(n^{p-r})$$

an **exponential term** grows much faster than any **polynomial term**:

$$T(n) = \Theta(a \times 2^n + b n^p) \text{ with } p > 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(2^n) \quad (a, b > 0)$$

a **polynomial term** grows much faster than any **logarithmic term**:

$$T(n) = \Theta(a n^p + b \lg^q n) \text{ with } p, q > 0 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^p) \quad (a, b > 0)$$

composition of functions:

$$T(n) = f(g(n)) \text{ with } g(n) = \Theta(h(n)) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(f(h(n)))$$



examples:

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) = 2n^2 - 5n &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(2n^2 - 5n) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(2n^2) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2) \\ &\Rightarrow T(n) = O(n^3) \end{aligned}$$

$$T(n) = 2n^2 + n + 1 \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(2n^2 + n + 1) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(2n^2) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) = k + 1/n \text{ with } k > 0 &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(k n^0 + n^{-1}) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(k) \\ &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) = (2n^2 - n + 1)^3 &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta((2n^2 - n + 1)^3) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta((2n^2)^3) \\ &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(8n^6) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^6) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) = n + 1 / (2n^2 - n + 1)^3 &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n + (2n^2 - n + 1)^{-3}) \\ &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n + (2n^2)^{-3}) \\ &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n + (1/8) \times n^{-6}) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) = (n + 1) / (n + 2) &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta((n + 1) / (n + 2)) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n / n) \\ &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) = (n + 1)^3 / (n + 2) &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta((n + 1)^3 / (n + 2)) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^3 / n) \\ &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2) \end{aligned}$$

$$T(n) = \lg n \Rightarrow T(n) = O(n) \text{ but } T(n) \neq \Theta(n)$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) = 0.01 \times \sqrt{n} + \lg^{10} n &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(0.01 \times n^{0.5} + \lg^{10} n) \Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(0.01 \times n^{0.5}) \\ &\Rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^{0.5}) \end{aligned}$$



examples:

$$T(n) = 2n^2 + 1/n$$

$$T(n) = 2n + (0.00001n^3 - n)/(1000n + 1/n)$$

$$T(n) = (\lg n + 1) \times (n^2 + 1) / (2 + n)$$

$$T(n) = 4^{\lg n} + n^3$$

$$T(n) = \lg(10^{-20} \times 2^n + n^{10} - 10^{20})$$

$$T(n) = ((1 + 2n^3) / (n + \lg n))^3$$

..... resolution on the board

estimate in a glance the order of growth directly from the pseudo-code:

● *if a loop iterates a variable number of times:*

→ estimate the **average** of its number of iterations

→ number of iterations = $\Theta(\text{average})$

● *nested loops:*


assume: $\begin{cases} \text{number of iterations of } \textit{outer loop} = \Theta(\mathbf{f(n)}) \\ \text{number of iterations of } \textit{inner loop} = \Theta(\mathbf{g(n)}) \end{cases}$

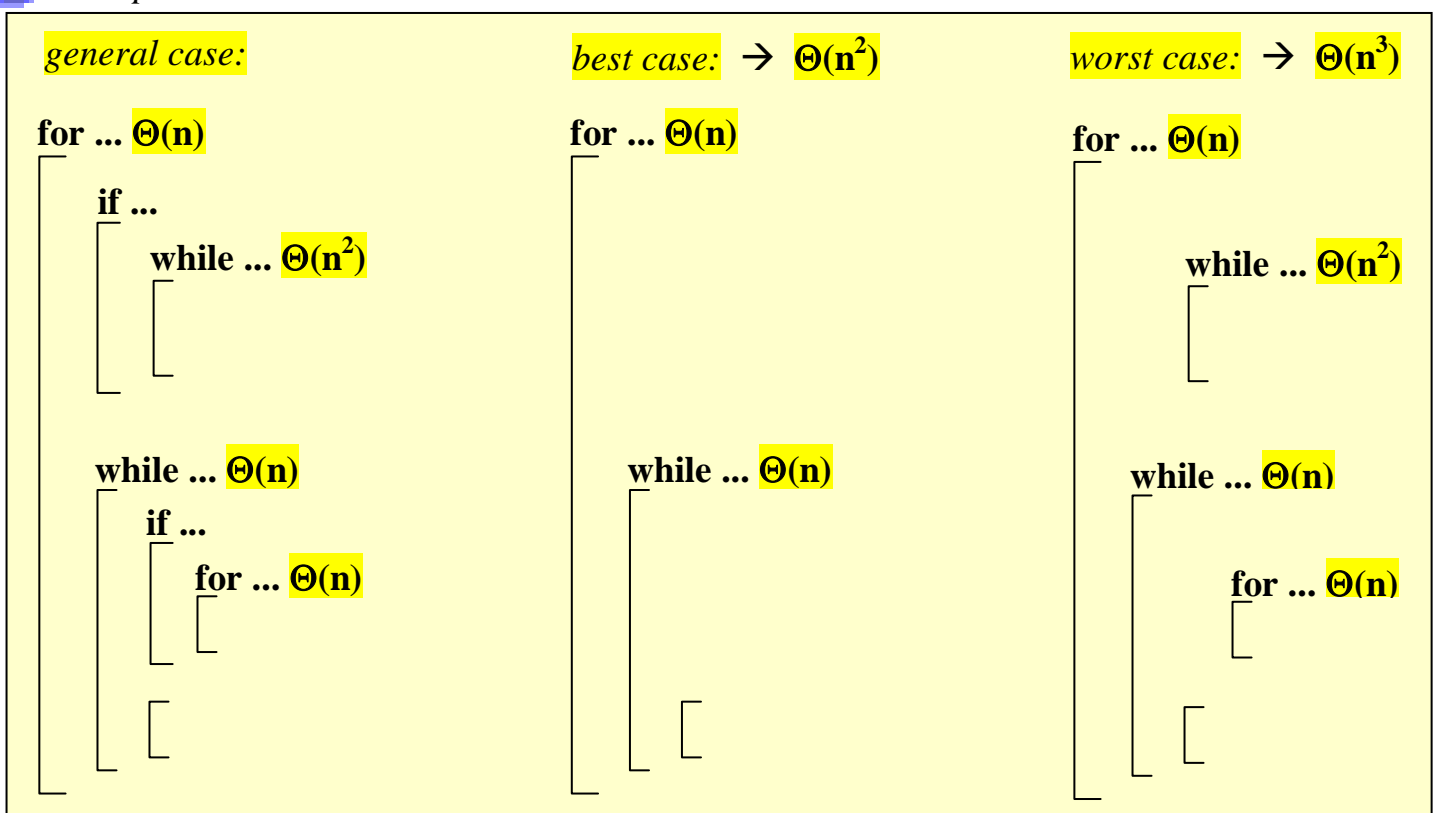
→ total number of times the body of the inner loop is executed = $\Theta(\mathbf{f(n)} \times \mathbf{g(n)})$

● *program with conditional blocks of code:*

best case: *ignore* all conditional blocks of code

worst case: *consider* all conditional blocks of code

 *example:*





example: insertion sort revisited

```
insertion_sort(A , n)  
  for j ← 2 to n  
    v ← A[j]  
    i ← j - 1  
  
    while i > 0 and A[i] > v  
      A[i + 1] ← A[i]  
      i ← i - 1  
  
    A[i + 1] ← v
```

..... resolution on the board

Calculating the algorithmic complexity of a recursive algorithm: recursion tree method

mathematical recalls:

● floor and ceiling functions:

assume x real

floor: $\lfloor x \rfloor =$ greatest integer inferior or equal to x

ceiling: $\lceil x \rceil =$ smallest integer superior or equal to x

examples:

x	$\lfloor x \rfloor$	$\lceil x \rceil$
1.0	1	1
1.1	1	2
1.9	1	2
2.0	2	2
2.1	2	3
2.9	2	3
3.0	3	3

● geometric series:

$$q^0 + q^1 + q^2 + q^3 + \dots + q^n = (1 - q^{n+1}) / (1 - q)$$


$$\text{if } |q| < 1 : q^0 + q^1 + q^2 + q^3 + \dots = 1 / (1 - q) \quad (\text{infinite sum})$$

structure of a recursive algorithm:*definition of recursive_function*

```

if test
  [ terminal case
  else
    [ .....
      several recursive calls to recursive_function
    [ .....


```

 *example: factorial*

```

fact(n)
  [ if n = 0
    [ return 1
  else
    [ return n × fact(n - 1)

```

 *example: recursive sum of the values in array A[1..n]*

first call: sum(A , 1 , n)

```

sum(A , p , r)
  [ if p = r
    [ return A[p]
  else
    [ q ← ⌊ (p + r) / 2 ⌋
      s0 ← sum(A , p , q)
      s1 ← sum(A , q + 1 , r)
    [ return s0 + s1

```


recurrence formula for T(n):

recursive resolution of a problem of a given size:

- ◆ subdivide the problem into subproblems of smaller size
- ◆ solve each subproblem recursively
- ◆ merge the subproblems' solutions into the problem solution

solve problem of size n

if n = n₀

terminal case

else

subdivide problem into subproblems of sizes n₁, n₂, ..., n_q

solve subproblem of size n₁


.....

solve subproblem of size n_q

merge solutions of subproblems

→ total time needed to solve a problem of size n:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T_{\text{terminal case}} & \text{if } n = n_0 \\ T_{\text{subdivide}} + T(n_1) + T(n_2) + \dots + T(n_q) + T_{\text{merge}} & \text{if } n > n_0 \end{cases}$$

 example: recursive sum (previous slide)

sum(A, p, r)

if p = r

return A[p]

else

q ← ⌊ (p + r) / 2 ⌋

s₀ ← sum(A, p, q)

s₁ ← sum(A, q + 1, r)

return s₀ + s₁

Θ(1)

Θ(1)

T(n/2)

T(n/2)

Θ(1)

$$\Rightarrow T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n = 1 \\ 2T(n/2) + \Theta(1) & \text{if } n > 1 \end{cases}$$

recursion tree:

arborescence representing all the calls to the recursive function

each **call** is represented by a **node** annotated with the time spent locally within that call

recursion tree method:

- step1:** draw the **recursion tree**, find its **number of levels**
- step2:** **sum** all the **local times** of the nodes, first over each level, then over all levels

example:

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

$n / 2^k \approx 1$
 $\Rightarrow k \approx \lg n$

$\Rightarrow T(n) = (2^0 + 2^1 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^k) \times \Theta(1)$
 $= ((1 - 2^{k+1}) / (1 - 2)) \times \Theta(1) = ((1 - 2 \times 2^{\lg n}) / -1) \times \Theta(1)$
 $\Rightarrow T(n) = (2n - 1) \times \Theta(1) = \Theta(n)$

examples:

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

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

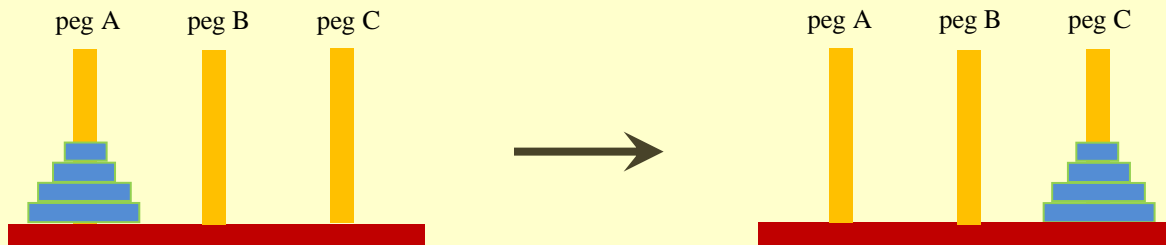
..... resolution on the board



example: towers of Hanoi puzzle

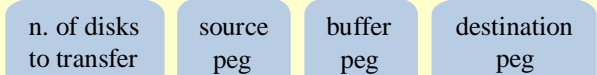
transfer all the n disks from peg **A** to peg **C** according to the following rules:

- ♦ move only one disk at a time, the top disk, from one peg to another peg
- ♦ never put a larger disk over a smaller disk



recursive strategy:

- step 1: transfer the top $n - 1$ disks of peg **A** to peg **B**, using peg **C** as a buffer
- step 2: move the remaining disk from peg **A** to peg **C**
- step 3: transfer the top $n - 1$ disks of peg **B** to peg **C**, using peg **A** as a buffer



transfer_disks(n , **A, **B**, **C**)**

if $n = 1$

move the top disk of peg **A to peg **C****

else

transfer_disks($n - 1$, **A, **C**, **B**)**

move the top disk of peg **A to peg **C****

transfer_disks($n - 1$, **B, **A**, **C**)**

a) assuming $T(n)$ is the number of disk moves, establish the recurrence formula for $T(n)$

b) apply the recursion tree method to obtain $T(n)$

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