

Part 5. Computational Complexity (3)

CS 200 Algorithms and Data Structures

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Outline

- **Recurrence Relations**
- Divide and Conquer
- Understanding the Complexity of Algorithms

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Recurrence Relations: An Overview

- What is a recurrence relation?
 - A recursively defined sequence
- Example
 - Arithmetic progression: $a, a+d, a+2d, \dots, a+nd$
 - $a_0 = a$
 - $a_n = a_{n-1} + d$

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Recurrence Relations: Formal Definition

A recurrence relation for the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is an equation that expresses a_n in terms of one or more of the previous terms of the sequence, namely, a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1} , for all integers n with $n \geq n_0$ where n_0 is a nonnegative integer.

- Sequence = Recurrence relation + Initial conditions ("base case")
- Example: $a_n = 2a_{n-1} + 1, a_1 = 1$

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Compound Interest

- You deposit \$10,000 in a savings account that yields 10% yearly interest. How much money will you have after 30 years? (b is balance, r is rate)

$$b_n = b_{n-1} + rb_{n-1} = (1+r)^n b_0$$

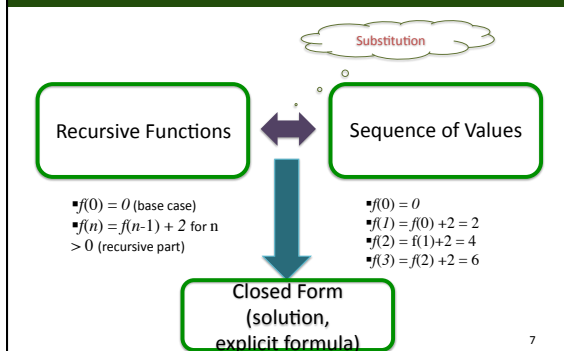
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Recursively defined functions and recurrence relations

- **A recursive function**
 - $f(0) = a$ (base case)
 - $f(n) = f(n-1) + d$ for $n > 0$ (recursive part)
- The above recursively defined function generates the sequence
 - $a_0 = a$
 - $a_n = a_{n-1} + d$
- A recurrence relation **produces a sequence**, an application of a recursive function produces **a value from the sequence**

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How to Approach Recursive Relations



Solving recurrence relations (1)

Solve $a_0 = 2$; $a_n = 3a_{n-1}$, $n > 0$

- (1) What is the recursive function?
- (2) What is the sequence of values?

Hint 1: Solve by substitution

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Solving recurrence relations (2)

Solve $a_0 = 2$; $a_n = 3a_{n-1} + 2$ for $n > 0$

- (1) What is the recursive function?
- (2) What is the sequence of values?

Hint 1: Solve by substitution

Hint 2: Use formula for summing geometric series

$$1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^n = \frac{(r^{n+1} - 1)}{(r - 1)}$$

if $r \neq 1$

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Solving recurrence relations (3)

Solve $a_0 = 1$; $a_n = a_{n-1} + n$ for $n > 0$

Hint 1: Solve by substitution

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Modeling with Recurrence

- Suppose that the number of bacteria in a colony triples every hour
 - Set up a recurrence relation for the number of bacteria after n hours have elapsed.
 - 100 bacteria are used to begin a new colony.

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Linear Recurrence Relations

A linear homogeneous recurrence relation of degree k with constant coefficients is a recurrence relation of a form

$$a_0 = c_1 a_{n-1} + c_2 a_{n-2} + \dots + c_k a_{n-k}$$

where, $c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_k$ are real numbers and c_k is not 0.

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Is this linear homogeneous recurrence relation?

- $f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2}$
- $a_n = a_{n-1} + a_{n-2}^2$

- Modeling of problems
- They can be systematically solved.

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Theorem 1

Let c_1 and c_2 be constants. Suppose that $r^2 - c_1r - c_2 = 0$ has two distinct roots r_1 and r_2 . Then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a solution of the recurrence relation $a_n = c_1a_{n-1} + c_2a_{n-2}$ if and only if $a_n = \alpha_1r_1^n + \alpha_2r_2^n$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ where α_1 and α_2 are constants. (Rosen 6th edition, section 7.2 theorem 1)

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What is the solution of the recurrence relation

- $a_n = a_{n-1} + 2a_{n-2}$ with $a_0 = 2$ and $a_1 = 7$?

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Outline

- Recurrence Relations
- **Divide and Conquer**
- Understanding the Complexity of Algorithms

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Divide-and-Conquer

Basic idea:

Take large problem and **divide** it into **smaller problems** until problem is trivial, then **combine** parts to make solution.

Recurrence relation for the number of steps required:

$$f(n) = a f(n/b) + g(n)$$

n/b : the size of the sub-problems solved

a : number of sub-problems

$g(n)$: steps necessary to combine solutions to sub-problems

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Example: Binary Search

```
public static int binSearch (int myArray[], int first,
                             int last, int value) {
    // returns the index of value or -1 if not in the array
    int index;
    if (first > last) { index = -1; }
    else {
        int mno = (first + last)/2;
        if (value == myArray[mno]) { index = mno; }
        else if (value < myArray[mno]) {
            index = binSearch(myArray, first, mno-1, value);
        }
        else {
            index = binSearch(myArray, mno+1, last, value);
        }
    }
    return index;
}
```

What are a , b , and $g(n)$? $f(n) = a \cdot f(n/b) + g(n)$

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Estimating big-O (Master Theorem)

Let f be an increasing function that satisfies

$$f(n) = a \cdot f(n/b) + c \cdot n^d$$

whenever $n = b^k$, where k is a positive integer, $a \geq 1$, b is an integer > 1 , and c and d are real numbers with c positive and d nonnegative. Then

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^d) & \text{if } a < b^d \\ O(n^d \log n) & \text{if } a = b^d \\ O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } a > b^d \end{cases}$$

From section 8.3 (for 6th Edition 7.3) in Rosen

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Example: Binary Search using the Master Theorem

$$f(n) = a f(n/b) + n^d$$

for the binary search algorithm

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^d) & \text{if } a < b^d \\ O(n^d \log n) & \text{if } a = b^d \\ O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } a > b^d \end{cases}$$

$f(n) = a f(n/b) + n^d = 1 f(n/2) + 3$

Therefore, $d = 0$ (to make n^d a constant), $b = 2$, $a = 1$.
 $b^d = 2^0 = 1$.

It satisfies the second condition of the Master theorem.

So, $f(n) = O(n^d \log_2 n)$
 $= O(n^0 \log_2 n)$
 $= O(\log_2 n)$

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Step-by-step Master Theorem

- Modeling the divide-conquer with a recurrence relation.
- $f(n)$ is a recurrence function representing the number of operations with size of input n .

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Step-by-step Master Theorem

```
Method_A(array){
  Method_A(left_half);
  Method_A(right_half);
  Complete_the_Method(array);
}
```

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Step-by-step Master Theorem

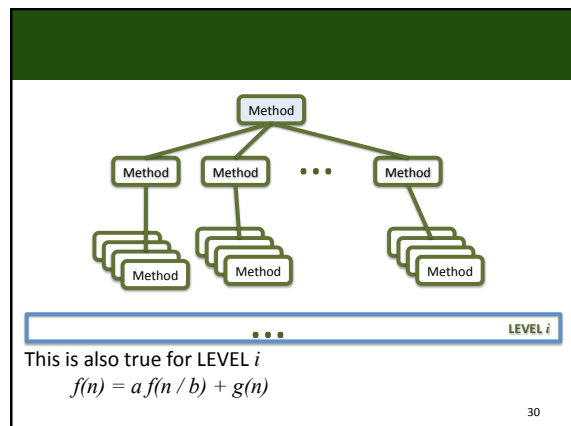
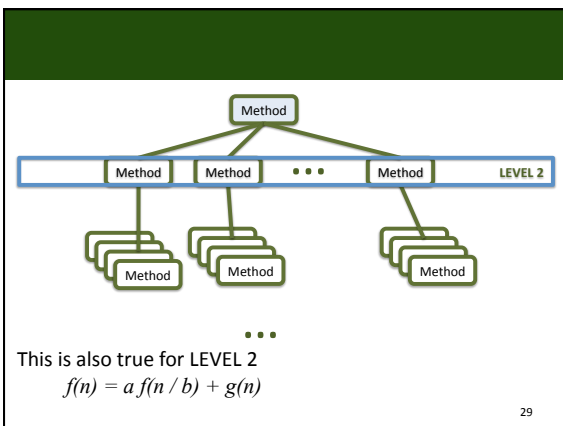
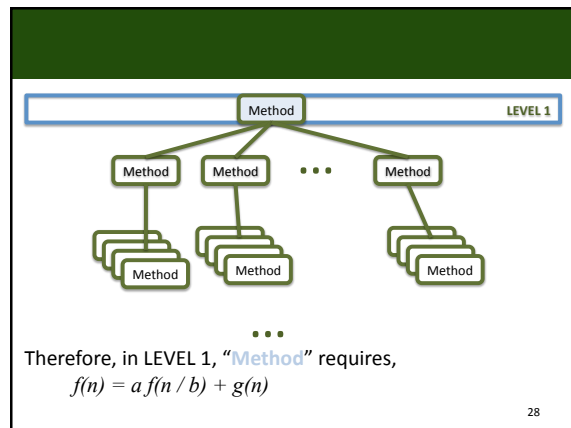
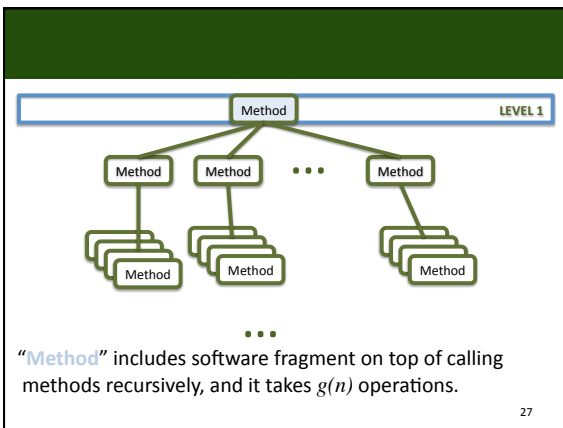
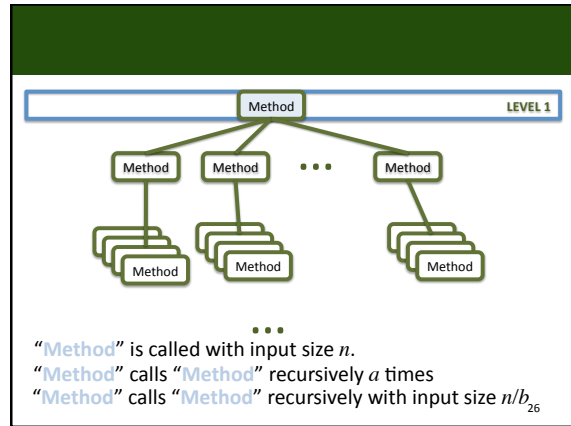
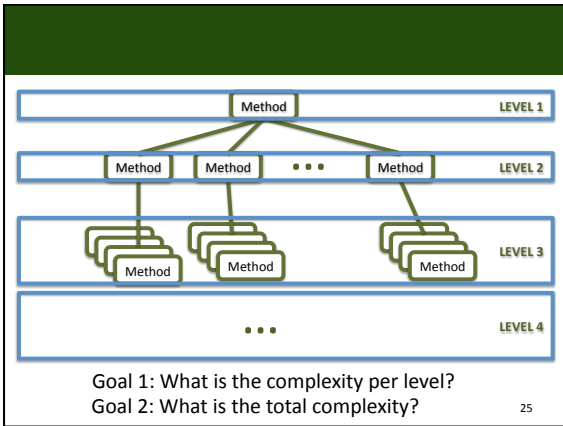
```
Method_B(array){
  Method_A(possible_half);
  Do_nothing_Method(array);
}
```

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Step-by-step Master Theorem

```
Method_C(array){
  Method_C(first_one_third);
  Method_C(second_one_third);
  Method_C(last_one_third);
  Complete_method(array);
}
```

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More generally,

Let f be an increasing function that satisfies

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + g(n) = a \cdot f(n/b) + n^c, \text{ if } n > 1$$

$$f(n) = d, \text{ if } n = 1$$

whenever $n = a^b$, where a is a positive integer, $a \geq 1$, b is an integer > 1 , and c and d are real numbers with c positive and d nonnegative.

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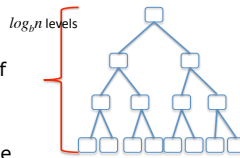
Base case

- We will set $d = 1$
 - The bottom level of the tree is equally well computed.
 - Base case
 - It is straightforward to extend the proof for the case when $d \neq 1$.

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Goal 1. complexity per level

- Let's think about the recursion tree.
- There will be $\log_b n$ levels.
- At each level, the number of subproblems will be multiplied by a .
- Therefore, the number of subproblems at level i will be a^i .
- Each subproblem at level i is a problem of size (n/b^i) .
- A subproblem of size (n/b^i) requires $(n/b^i)^c$ additional work.

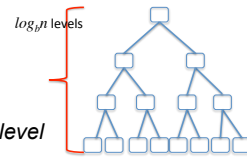


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The total number of units of work on level i

$$\begin{aligned} a^i (n/b^i)^c &= n^c (a^i/b^{ci}) \\ &= n^c (a/b^c)^i \end{aligned}$$

For the level i , the work per level is decreasing, constant, or increasing exactly when $(a/b^c)^i$ is decreasing, constant, or increasing.



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Observation

- Now, observe that,
 - $(a/b^c) = 1$
 - $a = b^c$
- Therefore, the relations,
 - (1) $a < b^c$ (2) $a = b^c$, (3) $a > b^c$
 are the conditions deciding the types of the growth function

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Goal 2: Bounding $f(n)$ in the different cases.

- In general, we have that the total work done is,

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} n^c (a/b^c)^i = n^c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} (a/b^c)^i$$

$$(1) a < b^c$$

$$(2) a = b^c$$

$$(3) a > b^c$$

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Case 1. $a < b^c$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} n^c (a/b^c)^i = n^c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} (a/b^c)^i$$

- n^c times a geometric series with a ratio of less than 1.
- First item is the biggest one.

$$n^c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} (a/b^c)^i = O(n^c)$$

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Case 2. $a = b^c$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} n^c (a/b^c)^i = n^c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} (a/b^c)^i$$

- $(a/b^c) = 1$
- $n^c(1+1+\dots+1) = n^c(\log_b n)$

$$n^c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} (a/b^c)^i = O(n^c \log_b n)$$

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Case 3. $a > b^c$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} n^c (a/b^c)^i = n^c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} (a/b^c)^i$$

- $(a/b^c) > 1$
- Therefore the largest term is the last one.

$$\begin{aligned} n^c (a/b^c)^{\log_b n} &= n^c (a^{\log_b n} / (b^c)^{\log_b n}) \\ &= n^c (n^{\log_b a} / n^{\log_b b^c}) \\ &= n^c (n^{\log_b a} / n^c) \\ &= n^{\log_b a} \\ n^c \sum_{i=0}^{\log_b n} (a/b^c)^i &= O(n^{\log_b a}) \end{aligned}$$

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Complexity of MergeSort with Master Theorem (1/2)

- Mergesort splits a list to be sorted twice per level.
- Uses fewer than n comparisons to merge the two sorted lists of $n/2$ items each into one sorted list.
- Function $M(n)$ satisfying the divide-and-conquer recurrence relation
- $M(n) = 2M(n/2) + n$

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Complexity of MergeSort with Master Theorem (2/2)

$$M(n) = 2M(n/2) + n$$

for the mergesort algorithm

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} O(n^c) & \text{if } a < b^c \\ O(n^c \log n) & \text{if } a = b^c \\ O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } a > b^c \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(n) &= a f(n/b) + n^c \\ &= 2 f(n/2) + n^1 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, $c = 1, b = 2, a = 2$.
 $b^c = 2^1 = 2$

It satisfies the second condition of the Master theorem.
 So, $f(n) = O(n^c \log_2 n)$
 $= O(n^1 \log_2 n)$
 $= O(n \log_2 n)$

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Quicksort?

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The Closest-Pair Problem

- Consider the problem of determining the **closest pair of points** in a set of n points $(x_1, y_1) \dots (x_n, y_n)$ in the plain, where the distance between two points (x_i, y_i) and (x_j, y_j) is the usual Euclidean distance,

$$\sqrt{(x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2}$$

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Solution (1/5)

- Calculate the distance between every pair of points and then find the smallest of these distances
 - It will take $O(n^2)$

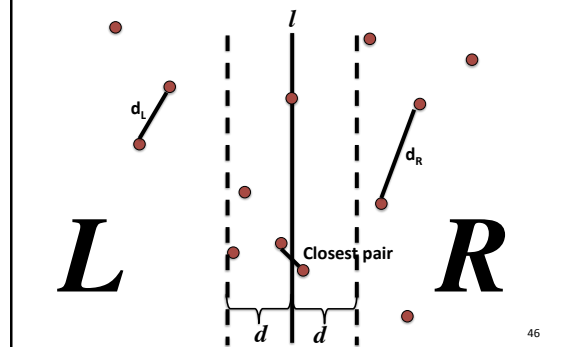
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Solution (2/5)

- Assume that we have n points such that $n = 2^k$.
- When $n = 2$, the distance between two points is the minimum distance.
- We sort the points in order of increasing x coordinates, and also sort the points in order of increasing y coordinates using mergesort.
 - It will take $O(n \log n)$
- Using sorted list by x coordinate, divide the group of points into two (*Right and Left*)

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Solution (3/5)



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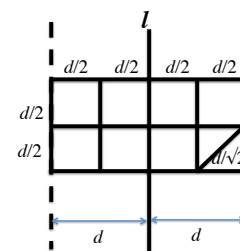
Solution (4/5)

- Find the closest pair within R and L .
- Merge the region R and L by examining the points on the boarder area.
 - Find closest pair between pairs from R and L . ($d = \min(d_r, d_l)$)
 - Check the points within the strip of the maximum distance of d from the border.
 - Sort the points within the strip with associated y coordinate.
 - Beginning with a point in the strip with the smallest y coordinate.

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Solution (5/5)

- We need at most 7 comparisons for each of the points in the strip.



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Analysis

- We find the function $f(n)$ satisfying the recurrence relations

$$f(n) = 2f(n/2) + 7n$$

where $f(2) = 1$

By the master theorem, $f(n) = O(n \log n)$

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Outline

- Recurrence Relations
- Divide and Conquer
- Understanding the Complexity of Algorithms**

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Understanding the Complexity of Algorithm

- Commonly used terminology for the complexity of algorithms

- ✓ $O(1)$: Constant complexity
- ✓ $O(\log n)$: Logarithmic complexity
- ✓ $O(n)$: Linear complexity
- ✓ $O(n \log n)$: Linearithmic complexity
- ✓ $O(n^b)$: Polynomial complexity
- ✓ $O(b^n)$, where $b > 1$: Exponential complexity
- ✓ $O(n!)$: Factorial complexity

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Tractability

- A problem that is solvable using an algorithm with **polynomial worst-case complexity** is called **tractable**.
- If estimation has high degree or if the coefficients are extremely large, the algorithm may take an extremely long time to solve the problem.

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Intractable problems and Unsolvable problems

- If the problem *cannot be solved* using an algorithm with worst-case polynomial time complexity, such problems are called **intractable**.
- If it can be shown that no algorithm exists for solving them, such problems are called **unsolvable**.

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Class NP and NP-Complete

- Problems for which a solution can be **checked** in **polynomial time** are said to belong to the **class NP**.
 - Tractable problems belong to class **P**.
- NP-complete** problems are an important class of problems
 - If any of these problems can be solved by a polynomial worst-case time algorithm then ...
 - All problems in the class NP can be solved by polynomial worst-case time algorithms.

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NP-Hard

- **NP-Hard** problems are *at least as hard* as the hardest problems in NP

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Next Reading

- Section 11.1, 11.2 in Prichard

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