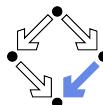


Analysis of Complexity

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1/59

1. Example

2. Sums

3. Recurrences

4. Divide and Conquer

5. Randomization

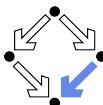
6. Amortized Analysis

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2/59

Example



We are going to analyze the following program function:

```
static int f(int m) {  
    if (m == 1) return 1;  
    int s = 1;  
    for (int i=0; i<log2(m); i++)  
        s = s+f(m/2);  
    return s;  
}
```

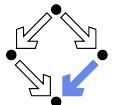
- $f(m)$ calls $f(m/2)$ recursively $\lfloor \log_2 m \rfloor$ times .
 - $f(2^n)$ calls $f(2^{n-1})$ recursively n times.
- How often is f called in total when executing $f(m) = f(2^n)$?
 - Actually, this value is also the result of f .

The analysis of a program involving both loops and recursion.

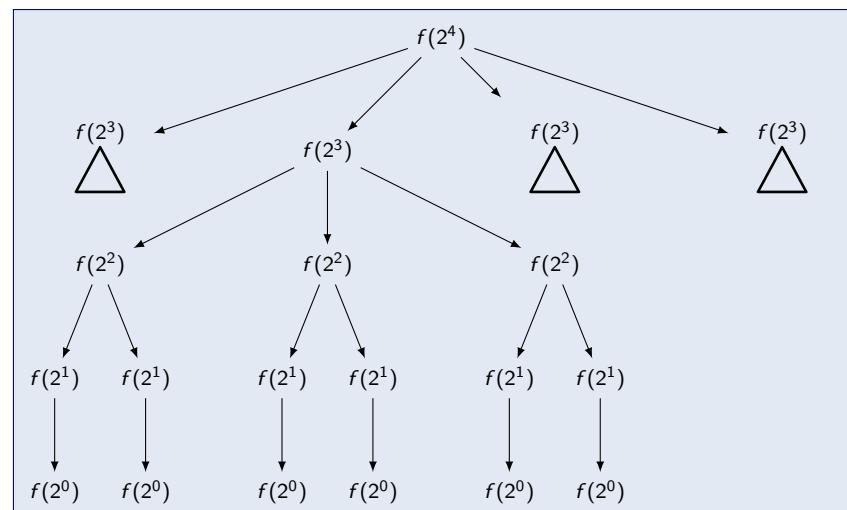
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3/59



Recursion Tree

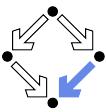


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4/59

Recursion Tree



Each node in the recursion tree denotes one function call.

- **Tree of height 4:**

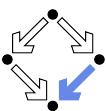
- Level 0: 1 node.
- Level 1: 4 nodes.
- Level 2: $4 \cdot 3$ nodes.
- Level 3: $4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2$ nodes.
- Level 4: $4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$ nodes.

- **Total number of nodes (function calls):**

$$1 + 4 + 4 \cdot 3 + 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 + 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = 65$$

What is the number of nodes/function calls $T(n)$ for $f(2^n)$?

Solving the Recurrence



Again we add the number of nodes in each level of the tree.

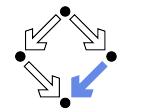
$$T(n) \stackrel{?}{=} 1 + n + n \cdot (n-1) + n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) + \dots + n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$$

$$T(n) \stackrel{?}{=} \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{n!}{i!}$$

$$\begin{aligned} n!/n! &= 1 \\ n!/(n-1)! &= n \\ n!/(n-2)! &= n \cdot (n-1) \\ n!/(n-3)! &= n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \\ &\dots \\ n!/0! &= n \cdot (n-1) \cdot (n-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1 \end{aligned}$$

We need to verify that this is indeed a valid solution of the recurrence.

A Recurrence



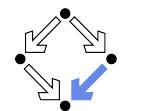
From the code of f , the following recurrence defines $T(n)$.

$$T(n) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 1 + n \cdot T(n-1) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

- $m = 2^0 = 1 : 1$ function call.
- $m = 2^n > 1 : 1 + n \cdot T(n-1)$ function calls.

We need an explicit solution of this recurrence.

Verifying the Solution



We prove $(\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{n!}{i!})$ by induction on n .

- **Induction base:**

$$T(0) = 1 = 0!/0! = \sum_{i=0}^0 \frac{0!}{i!}$$

- **Induction hypothesis:** we assume

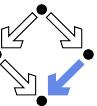
$$T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{n!}{i!}$$

- **Induction step:** we prove

$$T(n+1) = \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} \frac{(n+1)!}{i!}$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n+1) &= 1 + (n+1) \cdot T(n) = 1 + (n+1) \cdot \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{n!}{i!} = 1 + \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{(n+1) \cdot n!}{i!} \\ &= 1 + \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{(n+1)!}{i!} = \frac{(n+1)!}{(n+1)!} + \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{(n+1)!}{i!} = \sum_{i=0}^{n+1} \frac{(n+1)!}{i!} \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Asymptotic Characterization of the Solution



The explicit solution does not give much intuition about its growth.

$$T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{n!}{i!} = n! \cdot \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{1}{i!} < n! \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i!} = n! \cdot e = O(n!)$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i!} = e \text{ (Euler's number).}$$

The number of function calls is $O(n!) = O((\log_2 m)!)$.

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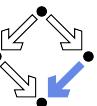
9/59

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10/59

Sums



Sort integer array $a[0 \dots n-1]$ of length $n \geq 1$ in ascending order.

```
procedure INSERTIONSORT(a)
    n ← length(a)
    for i from 1 to n-1 do
        x ← a[i]
        j ← i-1
        while j ≥ 0 ∧ a[j] > x do
            a[j+1] ← a[j]
            j ← j-1
        end while
        a[j+1] ← x
    end for
end procedure
```

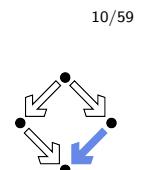
Cost
1
n
$n-1$
$n-1$
$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} n_i$
$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (n_i - 1)$
$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (n_i - 1)$
$n-1$

Sums arise from the analysis of iterative algorithms.

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11/59



Worst Case Time Complexity

$n_i = i + 1$: maximum number of times **while** test is executed for value i .

■ Worst case time complexity: $T(n) = 4n - 2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3i + 1)$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 1 + n + (n-1) + (n-1) + (n-1) + \\ &\quad (\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} n_i) + (\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (n_i - 1)) + (\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (n_i - 1)) = 4n - 2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3n_i - 2) \\ &= 4n - 2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3 \cdot (i+1) - 2) = 4n - 2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3i + 1) \end{aligned}$$

■ Closed form: $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3i + 1) = \frac{3n^2 - n - 2}{2}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3i + 1) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (3i + 1) - 1 = n \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot \frac{(n-1) \cdot n}{2} - 1 = \frac{3n^2 - n - 2}{2}$$

■ Arithmetic series: $\sum_{i=0}^n (a + i \cdot d) = (n+1) \cdot a + d \cdot \frac{n \cdot (n+1)}{2}$

■ Geometric series: $\sum_{i=0}^n (a \cdot q^i) = a \cdot \frac{q^{n+1} - 1}{q - 1}$

High school knowledge.

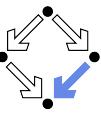
$$\text{Worst case time complexity } T(n) = 4n - 2 + \frac{3n^2 - n - 2}{2} = \frac{3n^2 + 7n - 6}{2}.$$

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12/59

Average Time Complexity



Maximum value n_i is replaced by expected value $E[N_i]$.

- Expected value of random variable N_i : $E[N_i] = \frac{i+2}{2}$

- Assume that all permutations of a have equal probability.
- Consequently each value $1, \dots, i+1$ of N_i has equal probability.

$$E[N_i] = \frac{1}{i+1} \cdot \sum_{j=1}^{i+1} j = \frac{(i+2) \cdot (i+1)}{2 \cdot (i+1)} = \frac{i+2}{2}$$

- Average time complexity: $\bar{T}(n) = 4n - 2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3i + 2)$

$$\bar{T}(n) = 4n - 2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(3 \cdot \frac{i+2}{2} - 2\right) = 4n - 2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3i + 2)$$

- Closed form: $\bar{T}(n) = \frac{3n^2 + 17n - 12}{4}$

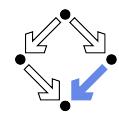
$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3i + 2) &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (3i + 2) - 2 = (2n + 3) \cdot \frac{(n-1) \cdot n}{2} - 2 = \frac{3n^2 + n - 4}{2} \\ \bar{T}(n) &= 4n - 2 + \frac{3n^2 + n - 4}{4} = \frac{16n - 8 + 3n^2 + n - 4}{4} = \frac{3n^2 + 17n - 12}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Average time complexity $\bar{T}(n) = \frac{3n^2 + 17n - 12}{4}$.

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13/59



Asymptotic Time Complexity

Worst case/average time $T(n) = \frac{3n^2 + 7n - 6}{2}$ and $\bar{T}(n) = \frac{3n^2 + 17n - 12}{4}$.

- $\bar{T}(n) \simeq \frac{T(n)}{2}$ (for large n)

- In the average, the algorithm is twice as fast as in the worst case.

- $\bar{T}(n) = T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$

- Asymptotic complexity is the same in the average as in the worst case.

- Asymptotic estimation: $\sum_{i=0}^{\Theta(n)} \Theta(i) = \Theta(n^2)$

- a linear number of times linear complexity gives quadratic complexity.

$$\sum_{i=0}^{\Theta(n)} \Theta(i^k) = \Theta(n^{k+1})$$

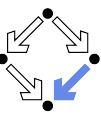
Frequently, a quick estimation of asymptotic time complexity is possible.

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14/59

Solving Sums by Guessing and Verifying



One may consult an (electronic/printed) table of integer sequences.

- Determine summation values for growing number of summands:

$$0, 4, 4+7, 4+7+10, 4+7+10+13, \dots = 0, 4, 11, 21, 34, \dots$$

- On-line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences (<http://oeis.org>)

This site is supported by donations to The OEIS Foundation.
[login](#)

Integer Sequences

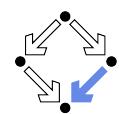
0,4,11,21,34
Search Hints
Greetings from The On-Line Encyclopedia of Integer Sequences!

Search: seq:0,4,11,21,34
Displaying 1-1 of 1 result found.
Sort: relevance | references | number | modified | created Format: long | short | data
A115067 $(3*n^2-n-2)/2$.
0, 4, 11, 21, 34, 50, 69, 91, 116, 144, 175, 209, 246, 286, 329, 379, 424, 476, 531, 589, 650, 714, 781, 851, 924, 1000, 1079, 1161, 1246, 1334, 1425, 1519, 1616, 1716, 1819, 1925, 2034, 2146, 2261, 2379, 2500, 2624, 2751, 2881, 3014, 3150, 3289, 3431, 3576 {list; graph; refs; listen; history; text; internal format}
OFFSET 1,2
LINKS Table of n, a(n) for n=1..49, Alfred Hoenl, Illustration of initial terms of A000326, A005449, A045949, A115067 (temporary remark: the case n=4 appears to be incorrect in the illustration)
Index entries for sequences related to linear recurrences with constant coefficients, signature (3,-3,1).
FORMULA $a(n) = (3*n^2-2)/2$.

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15/59



Solving Sums by Guessing and Verifying

One may consult a computer algebra system (Maple, Mathematica, ...).

```
> sum(3*i+1,i=1..n-1);
2
3/2 n - 1/2 n - 1
In[1]:= Sum[3*i+1,{i,1,n-1}]
2
-2 - n + 3 n
Out[1]= -----
2
In[2]:= FindSequenceFunction[{0,4,11,21,34},n]
(-1 + n) (2 + 3 n)
Out[2]= -----
2
```

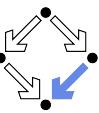
However the solution was initially guessed, it must be subsequently verified.

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16/59

Solving Sums by Guessing and Verifying



Prove $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq 1 \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3i+1) = \frac{3n^2-n-2}{2}$ by induction on n .

- Base case $n = 1$:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{1-1} (3i+1) = 0 = \frac{3 \cdot 1^2 - 1 - 2}{2}$$

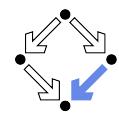
- We assume for fixed $n \geq 1$ $\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3i+1) = \frac{3n^2-n-2}{2}$ and show

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (3i+1) = \frac{3 \cdot (n+1)^2 - (n+1) - 2}{2}$$

This equation holds, because we have

$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n (3i+1) &= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (3i+1) + (3n+1) = \frac{3n^2-n-2}{2} + (3n+1) \\ &= \frac{3n^2-n-2+6n+2}{2} = \frac{3n^2+5n}{2}\end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{3 \cdot (n+1)^2 - (n+1) - 2}{2} = \frac{3n^2+6n+3-n-1-2}{2} = \frac{3n^2+5n}{2} \quad \square$$



1. Example

2. Sums

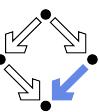
3. Recurrences

4. Divide and Conquer

5. Randomization

6. Amortized Analysis

Recurrences

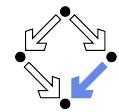


Find in sorted array $a[l, r]$ the position of value x (-1 , if x does not occur).

```
function BINARYSEARCH(a, x, l, r) ▷ n = r - l + 1
    if l > r then
        return -1
    end if
    m ← ⌊l+r/2⌋
    if a[m] = x then
        return m
    else if a[m] < x then
        return BINARYSEARCH(a, x, m+1, r)
    else
        return BINARYSEARCH(a, x, l, m-1)
    end if
end function
```

Cost	
1	
1	
1	
1	
1	
≤ 1 + T(⌊n/2⌋)	
≤ 1 + T(⌊n/2⌋)	

Recurrences arise from the analysis of recursive algorithms.



Worst Case Time Complexity

■ Recurrence Relation:

$$T(0) = 2$$

$$T(n) = 5 + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor), \text{ if } n \geq 1$$

■ Special solution: assume $n = 2^m$.

$$\begin{aligned}T(2^m) &= 5 + T(2^{m-1}) \\ &= \underbrace{5 + \dots + 5}_{m \text{ times}} + T(1) = \underbrace{5 + \dots + 5}_{m+1 \text{ times}} + T(0) \\ &= 5 \cdot (m+1) + 2 = 5m+7\end{aligned}$$

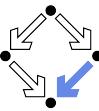
■ General solution: for all $n \geq 1$.

$$T(n) = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 7$$

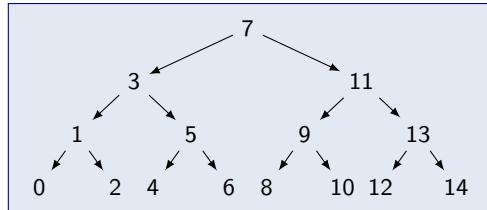
■ Verified later.

Worst case time complexity $T(n) = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 7$
($T_{\text{found}}(n) = T(n) - 5 = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 2$, if x occurs in a).

Average Time Complexity



For $n = 2^m - 1$, recursion tree of height $m-1$ with n nodes:



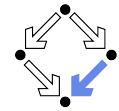
- Each path describes the function calls to find a particular element:
 - $7 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 5$: 3 function calls to find element at position 5.
- In total $n = 2^m - 1$ paths:
 - 1 path of length 0, 2 of length 1, 4 of length 2, ..., 2^i of length i .
- Assume all paths are equally likely.
 - I.e., assume x occurs in a , at every position with equal probability.

If x is in a , average number of calls is $\frac{1}{2^m-1} \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} i \cdot 2^i$.

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21/59



Average Time Complexity

Determine the closed form of $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} i \cdot 2^i$.

- Integer sequence: 0, 2, 10, 34, 98, ...

A036799 $2+2^{(n+1)*(n-1)}$.
0, 2, 10, 34, 98, ...

- Computer algebra system:

> sum(i*2^i,i=0..m-1);

$$\frac{m}{2} - 2 \frac{2^m}{2} + 2$$

- Result: $\sum_{i=0}^{m-1} i \cdot 2^i = 2^m \cdot (m-2) + 2$

■ Verification by induction proof.

- Average number of function calls:

$$\frac{1}{2^m-1} \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} i \cdot 2^i = \frac{1}{2^m-1} \cdot (2^m \cdot (m-2) + 2) = \frac{2^m \cdot (m-2)}{2^m-1} + \frac{2}{2^m-1} \approx m-2$$

- Average time complexity:

$$\overline{T}_{\text{found}}(2^m-1) \approx 5 \cdot (m-2) + 2 = 5m-8 = T_{\text{found}}(2^m-1) - 5$$

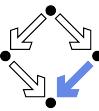
One recursive call less in the average case (similar, if x is not in a).

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22/59

Solving Recurrences by Guessing & Verifying



$$T(1) = 7$$

$$T(n) = 5 + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor), \text{ if } n > 1$$

One may consult an (electronic/printed) table of integer sequences.

- Simplified recurrence:

$$U(1) = 0$$

$$U(n) = 1 + U(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor), \text{ if } n > 1$$

- Integer sequence: 0, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 3, ...

A000523 Log_2(n) rounded down.
0, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 3, ...
...
FORMULA ... $a(n)=\text{floor}(\ln(n))$.

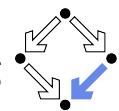
- $U(n) = \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$, $T(n) = a \cdot \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + b$

Closed form $T(n) = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 7$.

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23/59



Solving Recurrences by Guessing & Verifying

One may consult a computer algebra system.

```
> rsolve({T(1)=7,T(n)=5+T(n/2)},T(n));
    7 ln(2) + 5 ln(n)
-----
```

$$\ln(2)$$

```
In[3]:= RSolve[{T[1]==7,T[n]==5+T[n/2]},T[n],n]
      5 Log[n]
Out[3]= {T[n] -> 7 + -----}
                  Log[2]
```

- Real solution $T(n) = 5 \cdot \log_2(n) + 7$.

- Integer solution $T(n) = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2(n) \rfloor + 7$.

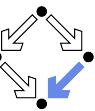
However the solution was initially guessed, it must be subsequently verified.

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24/59

Solving Recurrences by Guessing & Verifying



$$T(1) = 7$$

$$T(n) = 5 + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor), \text{ if } n > 1$$

We show for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n \geq 1$, $T(n) = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 7$.

- Induction base $n = 1$:

$$5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 1 \rfloor + 7 = 5 \cdot 0 + 7 = 7 = T(1)$$

- Ind. hypothesis: for $n > 1$ and $1 \leq m < n$, assume $T(m) = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 m \rfloor + 7$.

- Case $n = 2m$:

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 5 + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) = 5 + T(m) = 5 + (5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 m \rfloor + 7) = 5 \cdot (1 + \lfloor \log_2 m \rfloor) + 7 \\ &= 5 \cdot \lfloor 1 + \log_2 m \rfloor + 7 = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 2 + \log_2 m \rfloor + 7 = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 2m \rfloor + 7 \\ &= 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 7 \end{aligned}$$

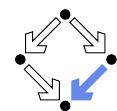
- Case $n = 2m+1$:

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 5 + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) = 5 + T(m) = 5 + (5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 m \rfloor + 7) = 5 \cdot (1 + \lfloor \log_2 m \rfloor) + 7 \\ &= 5 \cdot \lfloor 1 + \log_2 m \rfloor + 7 = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 2 + \log_2 m \rfloor + 7 = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 2m \rfloor + 7 \\ &= 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2(n-1) \rfloor + 7 = 5 \cdot \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 7 \end{aligned}$$

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25/59



1. Example

2. Sums

3. Recurrences

4. Divide and Conquer

5. Randomization

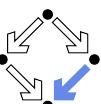
6. Amortized Analysis

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Divide and Conquer

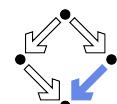


We are going to analyze the Mergesort algorithm.

```
procedure MERGESORT(a, l, r)    ▷  $n = r - l + 1$ 
    if  $l < r$  then
         $m \leftarrow \lfloor \frac{l+r}{2} \rfloor$ 
        MERGESORT(a, l, m)
        MERGESORT(a, m+1, r)
        MERGE(a, l, m, r)
    end if
end procedure
```

Cost	
1	
1	
$1 + T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil)$	
$1 + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor)$	
$O(n)$	

We will investigate the asymptotic time complexity only.



Recurrence

- $T(1)$ can be solved in $O(1)$.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 1 + 1 + 1 + T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + 1 + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) + O(n) \\ &= T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) + O(n) + 4 \\ &= T(\lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil) + T(\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor) + O(n) \end{aligned}$$

- For asymptotic analysis, it suffices to consider $\frac{n}{2} \in \{\lfloor \frac{n}{2} \rfloor, \lceil \frac{n}{2} \rceil\}$.

$$T(n) = 2 \cdot T(\frac{n}{2}) + O(n)$$

We are going to guess an asymptotic solution of this recurrence.

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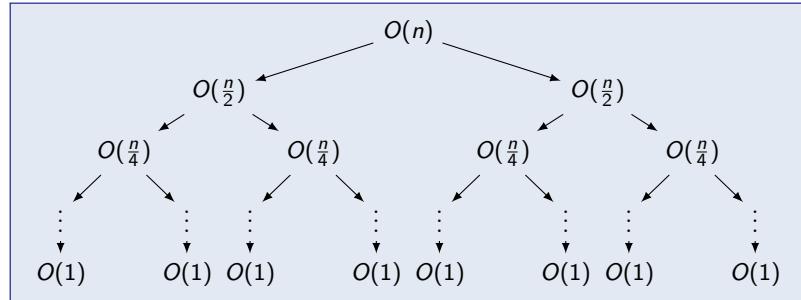
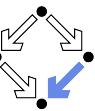
27/59

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28/59

Guessing the Asymptotic Time Complexity



- Execution is the depth-first left-to-right traversal of a binary tree.
- Total time is the sum of the times spent in all tree nodes.

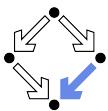
$$T(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{O(\log n)} 2^i \cdot O\left(\frac{n}{2^i}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{O(\log n)} O(n) = O(n \cdot \log n)$$

We only verify a special form of the recurrence (see the lecture notes for the general case).

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29/59



A Special Form of the Recurrence

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } n \leq 1 \\ 2 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$T(1) = 1, T(2) = 2 \cdot 1 + 2 = 4 = 2 \cdot 2, T(4) = 2 \cdot 4 + 4 = 12 = 4 \cdot 3, T(8) = 2 \cdot 12 + 8 = 42 = 8 \cdot 4, T(16) = 2 \cdot 32 + 16 = 80 = 16 \cdot 5, \dots$$

We prove by induction on i :

$$\forall i \in \mathbb{N} : T(2^i) = 2^i \cdot (i+1)$$

- Base case: we have $T(2^0) = T(1) = 1 = 2^0 \cdot 1$.
- Induction assumption: we assume $T(2^i) = 2^i \cdot (i+1)$.
- Induction step: we have

$$\begin{aligned} T(2^{i+1}) &= 2 \cdot T(2^i) + 2^{i+1} = 2 \cdot 2^i \cdot (i+1) + 2^{i+1} \\ &= 2^{i+1} \cdot (i+1) + 2^{i+1} = 2^{i+1} \cdot (i+2). \end{aligned}$$

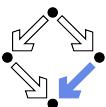
For $n = 2^i$, we thus have $T(n) = n \cdot (\log_2 n + 1) = O(n \cdot \log n)$.

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30/59

The Master Theorem



Let $a \geq 1$, $b > 1$, $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$, $T : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ satisfying the recurrence:

$$T(n) = a \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + f(n)$$

- $f(n) = O(n^{(\log_b a) - \varepsilon})$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$:

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$$

- $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$:

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \cdot \log n)$$

- $f(n) = \Omega(n^{(\log_b a) + \varepsilon})$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$ and there exist some c with $0 < c < 1$ and some $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n \geq N : a \cdot f\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) \leq c \cdot f(n)$:

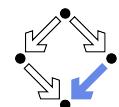
$$T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$$

Easy analysis of a large class of divide and conquer algorithms.

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31/59



Example

Analysis of MERGESORT.

- Recurrence:

$$T(n) = 2 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \Theta(n)$$

- Case 2 of Master Theorem ($a = b = 2$):

$$\log_b a = 1$$

$$\Theta(n) = \Theta(n^1) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a})$$

- Solution:

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} \cdot \log n) = \Theta(n^1 \cdot \log n) = \Theta(n \cdot \log n)$$

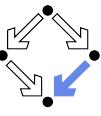
No tedious proof required any more.

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32/59

Arbitrary Precision Multiplication



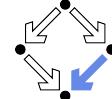
Multiply two natural numbers a and b with n digits each.

```
function MULTIPLY(a, b)
    n ← digits(a)    ▷ digits(a) = digits(b)
    c ← 0
    for i from n-1 to 0 do
        p ← MULTIPLYDIGIT(a, bi)
        c ← SHIFT(c, 1)
        c ← ADD(p, c)
    end for
    return c
end function
```

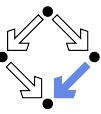
Cost
1
1
$n+1$
$n \cdot \Theta(n)$
$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \Theta(2n-i-1)$
$n \cdot \Theta(n)$
1

$$T(n) = 3 + (n+1) + 2n \cdot \Theta(n) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \Theta(2n-i-1) = \Theta(n^2)$$

Classical ("school") algorithm has quadratic time complexity.



Arbitrary Precision Multiplication (Rec.)

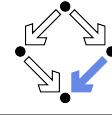


```
function MULTIPLY(a, b)
    n ← digits(a)    ▷ digits(a) = digits(b) = 2m
    if n = 1 then
        c ← MULTIPLYDIGIT(a0, b0)
    else
        a' ← a2...n-1; a'' ← a0...2-1
        b' ← b2...n-1; b'' ← b0...2-1
        u ← MULTIPLY(a', b')
        v ← MULTIPLY(a', b'')
        w ← MULTIPLY(a'', b')
        x ← MULTIPLY(a'', b'')
        y ← ADD(v, w)
        y ← SHIFT(y,  $\frac{n}{2}$ )
        c ← SHIFT(u, n)
        c ← ADD(c, y)
        c ← ADD(c, x)
    end if
    return c
end function
```

Cost
1
1
$\Theta(1)$
$\Theta(n)$
$\Theta(n)$
$1 + T(\frac{n}{2})$
$\Theta(n)$
1

Four recursive calls of the algorithm with half the input size.

Arbitrary Precision Multiplication



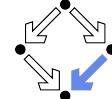
Split a and b into halves (a', a'') and (b', b'') of $\frac{n}{2}$ digits.

$$a = a' \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + a''$$

$$b = b' \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + b''$$

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot b &= (a' \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + a'') \cdot (b' \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + b'') \\ &= a' \cdot b' \cdot d^n + (a' \cdot b'' + a'' \cdot b') \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + a'' \cdot b'' \end{aligned}$$

Basis of a recursive multiplication algorithm.



Arbitrary Precision Multiplication (Rec.)

Analysis of recursive algorithm by the Master Theorem.

■ Recurrence:

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 3 + 4 \cdot \left(1 + T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)\right) + 7 \cdot \Theta(n) \\ &= 4 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \Theta(n) \end{aligned}$$

■ Case 1 of the master theorem ($a = 4, b = 2$):

$$(\log_b a) = (\log_2 4) = 2$$

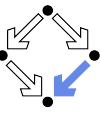
$$f(n) = O(n) = O(n^1) = O(n^{2-1}) = O(n^{(\log_b a)-1})$$

■ Solution:

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) = \Theta(n^2)$$

Also the recursive algorithm has quadratic time complexity.

Arbitrary Precision Multiplication



Anatolii Karatsuba and Yuri Ofman, 1962.

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot b &= (a' \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + a'') \cdot (b' \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + b'') \\ &= a' \cdot b' \cdot d^n + (a' \cdot b'' + a'' \cdot b') \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + a'' \cdot b'' \\ &= a' \cdot b' \cdot d^n + ((a' + a'') \cdot (b' + b'') - a' \cdot b' - a'' \cdot b'') \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + a'' \cdot b'' \end{aligned}$$

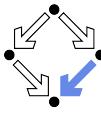
- Two multiplications $a' \cdot b'$ and $a'' \cdot b''$ of numbers with $\frac{n}{2}$ digits.
- Product $s \cdot t$ where $s = a' + a''$ and $t = b' + b''$ may have $\frac{n}{2} + 1$ digits.

$$s = s_{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + s', t = t_{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + t'$$

$$\begin{aligned} s \cdot t &= (s_{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + s') \cdot (t_{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + t') \\ &= s_{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot t_{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot d^n + (s_{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot t' + t_{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot s') \cdot d^{\frac{n}{2}} + s' \cdot t' \end{aligned}$$

- Can compute $s \cdot t$ from product $s' \cdot t'$ of numbers of length $\frac{n}{2}$.

We only need three multiplications of numbers with $\frac{n}{2}$ digits.



Karatsuba Algorithm

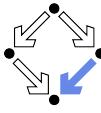
Cost
1
1
$\Theta(1)$
$\Theta(n)$
$\Theta(n)$
$\Theta(n)$
$\Theta(n)$
$1 + T(\frac{n}{2})$
$\Theta(n) + T(\frac{n}{2})$
$1 + T(\frac{n}{2})$
$\Theta(n)$
1

```

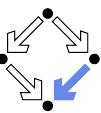
function MULTIPLY( $a, b$ )
   $n \leftarrow \text{digits}(a)$             $\triangleright \text{digits}(a) = \text{digits}(b) = 2^m$ 
  if  $n = 1$  then
     $c \leftarrow \text{MULTIPLYDIGIT}(a_0, b_0)$ 
  else
     $a' \leftarrow a_{\frac{n}{2} \dots n-1}; a'' \leftarrow a_0 \dots \frac{n}{2}-1$ 
     $b' \leftarrow b_{\frac{n}{2} \dots n-1}; b'' \leftarrow b_0 \dots \frac{n}{2}-1$ 
     $s \leftarrow \text{ADD}(a', a'')$ 
     $t \leftarrow \text{ADD}(b', b'')$ 
     $u \leftarrow \text{MULTIPLY}(a', b')$ 
     $v \leftarrow \text{MULTIPLY}'(s, t)$ 
     $x \leftarrow \text{MULTIPLY}(a'', b'')$ 
     $y \leftarrow \text{SUBTRACT}(v, u)$ 
     $y \leftarrow \text{SUBTRACT}(v, x)$ 
     $y \leftarrow \text{SHIFT}(y, \frac{n}{2})$ 
     $c \leftarrow \text{SHIFT}(u, n)$ 
     $c \leftarrow \text{ADD}(c, y)$ 
     $c \leftarrow \text{ADD}(c, x)$ 
  end if
  return  $c$ 
end function

```

Three recursive calls of the algorithm with half the input size.



Karatsuba Algorithm



Analysis of Karatsuba algorithm by the Master Theorem.

- Recurrence:

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 3 + 2 \cdot \left(1 + T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)\right) + \left(\Theta(n) + T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)\right) + 10 \cdot \Theta(n) \\ &= 3 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \Theta(n) \end{aligned}$$

- Case 1 of Master Theorem ($a = 3, b = 2$):

$$\begin{aligned} \log_b a &= \log_2 3 \\ f(n) &= O(n) = O(n^1) = O(n^{(\log_b a) - \varepsilon}) \\ 1.58 < \log_2 3 < 1.59, \varepsilon &= (\log_2 3) - 1 > 0.58 \end{aligned}$$

- Solution:

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a}) = \Theta(n^{\log_2 3}) = o(n^2)$$

The Karatsuba algorithm has a better asymptotic time complexity than the classical algorithm and is thus implemented in computer algebra systems.

1. Example

2. Sums

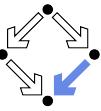
3. Recurrences

4. Divide and Conquer

5. Randomization

6. Amortized Analysis

The Quicksort Algorithm



Sort array a in range $[l, r]$ of size $n = r - l + 1$ in ascending order.

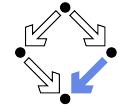
```

procedure QUICKSORT( $a, l, r$ )     $\triangleright n = r - l + 1$ 
    if  $l < r$  then
        choose  $p \in [l, r]$ 
         $m \leftarrow \text{PARTITION}(a, l, r, p)$      $\triangleright i = m - l$ 
         $\text{QUICKSORT}(a, l, m - 1)$ 
         $\text{QUICKSORT}(a, m + 1, r)$ 
    end if
end procedure

```

Cost
1
$O(n)$
$\Theta(n)$
$1 + T(i)$
$1 + T(n - i - 1)$

Two recursive calls with input sizes i and $n - i - 1$ (for some $0 \leq i \leq n - 1$).



Time Complexity of Quicksort

Recurrence:

$$T(n) = T(i) + T(n - i - 1) + \Theta(n)$$

One interval is empty ($i = 0$ or $i = n - 1$):

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= T(0) + T(n - 1) + \Theta(n) = \Theta(1) + T(n - 1) + \Theta(n) = T(n - 1) + \Theta(n) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \Theta(i) = \Theta(n^2) \end{aligned}$$

Unbalanced binary recursion tree where every left child is a leaf and the path from root along every right child to rightmost leaf has length n .

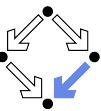
Both intervals have same size ($i = \frac{n}{2}$):

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \Theta(n) = 2 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + \Theta(n) \\ &= \Theta(n \cdot \log n) \end{aligned}$$

- Case 2 of the Master Theorem ($a = b = 2$).
- Balanced binary recursion tree of depth $\log_2 n$.

Worst case time complexity is quadratic; best case is linear-logarithmic.

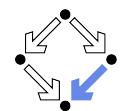
Average Time Complexity of Quicksort



Assume that all n values $0, \dots, n - 1$ of i are equally likely.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (T(i) + T(n - i - 1) + \Theta(n)) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} T(i) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} T(n - i - 1) \right) + \Theta(n) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} T(i) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} T(i) \right) + \Theta(n) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} T(i) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} T(i) \right) + \Theta(n) \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} T(i) + \Theta(n) \end{aligned}$$

Is the average time complexity closer to the worst or to the best case?



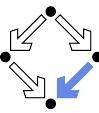
Average Time Complexity of Quicksort

Consider special form of recurrence (see lecture notes for the general case).

$$\begin{aligned} T'(n) &= \frac{2}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} T'(i) + n \\ n \cdot T'(n) &= 2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} T'(i) + n^2 \\ (n-1) \cdot T'(n-1) &= 2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{n-2} T'(i) + (n-1)^2 \\ n \cdot T'(n) - (n-1) \cdot T'(n-1) &= 2 \cdot T'(n-1) + 2n - 1 \\ n \cdot T'(n) - (n+1) \cdot T'(n-1) &= (n+1) \cdot T'(n-1) + 2n - 1 \\ \frac{T'(n)}{n+1} &= \frac{T'(n-1)}{n} + \frac{2n-1}{n \cdot (n+1)} \end{aligned}$$

Terms involving T' have now same shape on left and right side.

Average Time Complexity of Quicksort



We solve the special recurrence.

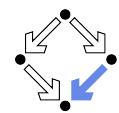
$$\begin{aligned}\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{T'(i)}{i+1} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{T'(i-1)}{i} + \frac{2i-1}{i \cdot (i+1)} \right) \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{T'(i)}{i+1} &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{T'(i-1)}{i} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2i-1}{i \cdot (i+1)} \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{T'(i)}{i+1} &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{T'(i)}{i+1} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2i-1}{i \cdot (i+1)} \\ \frac{T'(n)}{n+1} &= \frac{T'(0)}{1} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2i-1}{i \cdot (i+1)} \\ T'(n) &= (n+1) \cdot \left(T'(0) + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2i-1}{i \cdot (i+1)} \right) \\ T'(n) &= O(n \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i}) = O(n \cdot H_n) = O(n \cdot \log n)\end{aligned}$$

The average time complexity is the same as that of the best case.

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45/59



Average Time Complexity of Quicksort

We could have also applied a computer algebra system.

```
> rsolve({T(0)=1,T(n)=(n+1)/n*T(n-1)+1},T(n));
          (n + 1) (Psi(n + 2) + gamma)
```

■ $\Psi(n)$: $\Psi(n) = H_{n-1} - \gamma$,

```
In[1]:= RSolve[{T[0]==1,T[n]==(n+1)/n*T[n-1]+1},T[n],n]
Out[1]= {{T[n] -> EulerGamma + EulerGamma n +
          PolyGamma[0, 2 + n] +
          n PolyGamma[0, 2 + n]}}}
```

■ $\text{PolyGamma}[0, n]$: $\Psi(n) = H_{n-1} - \gamma$.

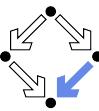
Result is in $O(n \cdot H_n)$.

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46/59

Ensuring the Average Time Complexity



We have assumed that all values of $i = m - l$ are equally likely but how realistic is this assumption?

■ Assumption is satisfied if and only if the choice

choose $p \in [l, r]$

determines a pivot element $a[p]$ that is equally likely to be the element at any of the positions l, \dots, r .

■ We might choose a fixed index in interval $[l, r]$, e.g.,

choose $p \leftarrow r$

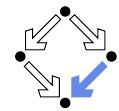
■ But then we get evenly distributed pivot elements only if all $n!$ permutations of a occur with equal probability as inputs.

It is in practice typically hard to estimate how inputs are distributed; worst case situations (input array already sorted) might appear frequently.

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47/59



Randomization

We might shuffle the input array randomly before sorting it.

```
procedure RANDOMIZE(a)
  n <- length(a)
  for i from 0 to n - 1 do
    r <- RANDOM(i, n - 1)
    b <- a[i]; a[i] <- a[r]; a[r] <- b
  end for
end procedure
```

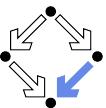
Indeed ensures that all permutations are equally likely but is costly.

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48/59

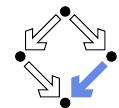
Randomization



We may simply choose the pivot element randomly.

```
p ← RANDOM(l, r)
```

In many algorithms, making a random choice (rather than making an arbitrary fixed choice) may yield an average case complexity that is independent of the input distribution.



1. Example

2. Sums

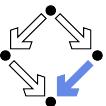
3. Recurrences

4. Divide and Conquer

5. Randomization

6. Amortized Analysis

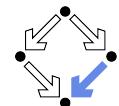
Amortized Analysis



Determine worst-case time complexity $T(n)$ of a sequence of n operations.

- Assume that operations are performed on the same data structure.
 - Then it may be that the worst-case complexity $T_{\text{op}}(i)$ of operation i can be only exhibited for some few elements of the sequence.
- $T(n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n T_{\text{op}}(i)$
 - The worst case for the whole sequence may be smaller than the sum of the worst-cases of each operation.
- $\frac{T(n)}{n} \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n T_{\text{op}}(i)$
 - The contribution of an individual operation to the worst-case complexity of the sequence may be smaller than the average of the individual worst case complexities.
- **Amortized cost** $\frac{T(n)}{n}$: some operations with high costs may be outweighed by many operations with low costs.

Amortized analysis is typically applied to operations that manipulate a certain data structure (e.g., a sequence of method calls on an object).

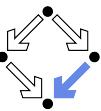


Example

- Consider a **stack** with the following operations:
 - **PUSH(s, x)**: push an element x on stack s .
Time $O(1)$.
 - **POP(s)**: pop an element from the top of the non-empty stack s .
Time $O(1)$.
 - **MULTIPOP(s, k)**: pop k elements from the stack s (if s has $l < k$ elements, then only l elements are popped).
 $O(\min\{l, k\})$ where l is the number of elements on s .
- **Sequence of n operations** can be performed in time $O(n^2)$.
 - Each MULTIPOP operation has complexity $O(n)$.
 - The bound is correct but not tight.

We are interested in a much tighter bound.

Aggregate Analysis



- Assume among the n operations, there are k MULTIPOP operations.

$$n = k + \sum_{i=0}^k n_i$$

n_0, n_1, \dots, n_k : number of operations before/after a MULTIPOP.

- The total cost of the sequence is

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} O(p_i) + (n-k) \cdot O(1) = O\left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} p_i\right) + O(n) \\ &\stackrel{(1)}{=} O\left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} n_i\right) + O(n) \stackrel{(2)}{=} O(n) + O(n) = O(n) \end{aligned}$$

p_i : number of elements popped in call i of MULTIPOP.

- (1) follows from $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} p_i \leq \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} n_i$.
 - The total number of elements popped from the stack is bound by the total number of previously occurring (PUSH) operations.
- (2) follows from $\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} n_i \leq n$.
 - Number of PUSH operations is bound by number of all operations.
 - Sequence of n operations can be performed in time $O(n)$.

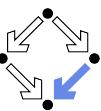
The amortized cost of a single operation is $O(1)$, i.e., constant.

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53/59

Example



Stack s with n PUSH, POP, MULTIPOP operations.

- Potential $\Phi(s)$: the number of elements in stack s .

$$\Phi(s_n) \geq 0 = \Phi(s_0)$$

- Amortized cost $\hat{c}_i = c_i + C \cdot (\Phi(s_i) - \Phi(s_{i-1}))$

$C \geq 0$ upper bound for execution time of PUSH and POP; $C \cdot k'$ upper bound for the execution time of MULTIPOP(s, k).

$$k' = \min\{k, m\}, m = |s|.$$

- PUSH(s, x): $\hat{c}_i \leq C + C \cdot ((m+1) - m) = C + C = 2 \cdot C$.
- POP(s): $\hat{c}_i \leq C + C \cdot ((m-1) - (m)) = C - C = 0$.
- MULTIPOP(s, k): $\hat{c}_i \leq C \cdot k' + C \cdot ((m - k') - m) = C \cdot k' - C \cdot k' = 0$.

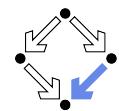
Each operation has amortized cost $O(1)$, a sequence of n operations has worst case time complexity $O(n)$.

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55/59

The Potential Method



- Assign to operation i its **actual cost** c_i and **amortized cost** \hat{c}_i :
 - If $\hat{c}_i > c_i$, operation i saves $\hat{c}_i - c_i$ "credit".
 - If $\hat{c}_i < c_i$, operation i uses up $c_i - \hat{c}_i$ credit.
- The **potential function** $\Phi(s)$ maps data structure s to a real number.
 - $\Phi(s)$: the credit accumulated so far (the "potential" of s).

$$\hat{c}_i - c_i = C \cdot (\Phi(s_i) - \Phi(s_{i-1}))$$

- $\hat{c}_i - c_i$: the credit saved/used by operation i .
- s_0 : the initial value of s ; s_i : its value after operation i .
- Constant factor $C \geq 0$.

- Sum of amortized costs:**

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{c}_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(c_i + C \cdot (\Phi(s_i) - \Phi(s_{i-1})) \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i + C \cdot (\Phi(s_n) - \Phi(s_0))$$

- We can ensure $\sum_{i=1}^n \hat{c}_i \geq \sum_{i=1}^n c_i$ by ensuring $\Phi(s_n) \geq \Phi(s_0)$.

We have $T(n) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{c}_i$, i.e., can use amortized costs in the analysis.

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54/59

Dynamic Tables

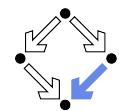


Table t for which a certain amount of space is allocated.

- Operation **INSERT(t, x)** inserts value x into t .
 - Sequence of n such operations starting with an empty table.
- If space gets exhausted, **t is expanded**:
 - More space is allocated and elements are copied from the old space to the new one.
- If **n elements are to be copied**, time complexity of INSERT is $O(n)$.
 - However, most of the time, there is space available and INSERT can be performed in time $O(1)$.
- Time complexity $O(n^2)$** of a sequence of n INSERT operations.
 - However, this bound is not tight.

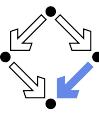
We are interested in a much tighter bound.

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56/59

Aggregate Analysis



How much to expand table of size m ?

- $m+1$: every call of INSERT triggers an expansion.

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

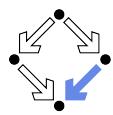
- $m+c$: every c -th call triggers an expansion.

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= \sum_{i=1}^{\lceil \frac{n}{c} \rceil} O((i-1) \cdot c) + (n - \lceil \frac{n}{c} \rceil) \cdot O(1) \\ &= O\left(\sum_{i=1}^{\lceil \frac{n}{c} \rceil} i\right) + O(n) = O(n^2) + O(n) = O(n^2) \end{aligned}$$

- $m \cdot c$: every call $c^i + 1$ triggers an expansion (typically $c := 2$).

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= \sum_{i=0}^{\lceil \log_2 n \rceil + 1} O(2^i) + (n - \lceil \log_2 n \rceil - 1) \cdot O(1) \\ &= O\left(\sum_{i=0}^{\lceil \log_2 n \rceil + 1} 2^i\right) + O(n) = O\left(\sum_{i=0}^{\lceil \log_2 n \rceil} 2^i\right) + O(n) = O(2n) + O(n) = O(n) \end{aligned}$$

With the last strategy, amortized cost of INSERT is $O(1)$.



Analysis with the Potential Method

- **Potential:** $\Phi(t) := 2 \cdot \text{num}(t) - \text{size}(t)$

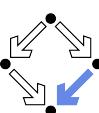
- $\text{num}(t)$: number of elements in t .
- $\text{size}(t)$: the number of slots in t .
- Since $\text{num}(t) \geq \frac{\text{size}(t)}{2}$, we have $\Phi(t) \geq 0$.

- **Change of Potential:**

- After expansion of t_{i-1} : $\Phi(t_i) = 0$.
- After insertion into t_{i-1} : $\Phi(t_i) = 2 + \Phi(t_{i-1})$.
- Before expansion of t_{i-1} : $\Phi(t_{i-1}) = \text{size}(t_{i-1})$

Cost of expansion can be covered by accumulated credit.

Analysis with the Potential Method



- **Amortized cost:** $\hat{c}_i = c_i + C \cdot (\Phi(t_i) - \Phi(t_{i-1}))$.

C : upper bound for the cost of insertion, $C \cdot k$: upper bound for the cost of copying k elements.

- **INSERT does not trigger an expansion:**

$$\text{num}(t_i) = \text{num}(t_{i-1}) + 1, \text{size}(t_i) = \text{size}(t_{i-1}).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{c}_i &\leq C \cdot 1 + C \cdot (2 \cdot \text{num}(t_i) - \text{size}(t_i) - (2 \cdot \text{num}(t_{i-1}) - \text{size}(t_{i-1}))) \\ &= C \cdot 1 + C \cdot (2 \cdot (\text{num}(t_{i-1}) + 1) - \text{size}(t_{i-1}) - (2 \cdot \text{num}(t_{i-1}) - \text{size}(t_{i-1}))) \\ &= C \cdot 1 + C \cdot 2 = 3C \end{aligned}$$

- **INSERT triggers an expansion:**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{num}(t_i) &= \text{num}(t_{i-1}) + 1, \text{size}(t_{i-1}) = \text{size}(t_{i-1}), \\ \text{size}(t_i) &= 2 \cdot \text{size}(t_{i-1}) = 2 \cdot \text{num}(t_{i-1}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{c}_i &\leq C \cdot \text{num}(t_{i-1}) + C \cdot (2 \cdot \text{num}(t_i) - \text{size}(t_i) - (2 \cdot \text{num}(t_{i-1}) - \text{size}(t_{i-1}))) \\ &= C \cdot \text{num}(t_{i-1}) + C \cdot (2 \cdot (\text{num}(t_{i-1}) + 1) - 2 \cdot \text{num}(t_{i-1}) - (2 \cdot \text{num}(t_{i-1}) - \text{num}(t_{i-1}))) \\ &= C \cdot \text{num}(t_{i-1}) + C \cdot (2 - \text{num}(t_{i-1})) = 2C \end{aligned}$$

In average, we can perform INSERT in time $O(1)$.