

Algoritmer og Datastrukturer

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1 Merge sort

How many calls for size 21?:

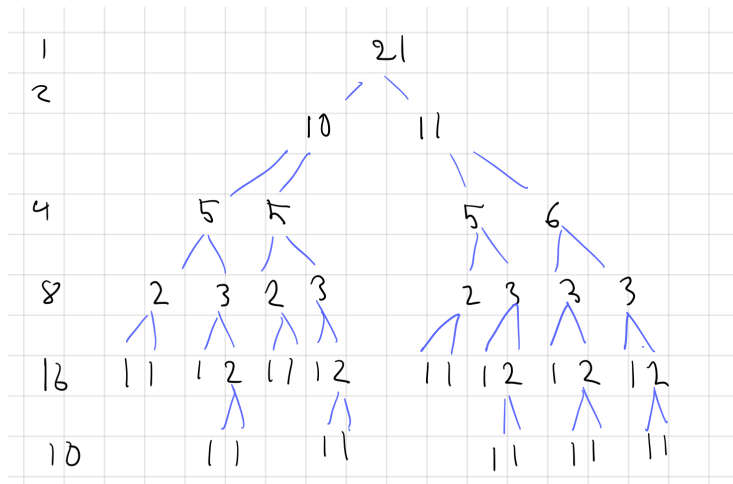


Figure 1: A sample caption describing the picture.

We have one call when we first call the function then each time we split the list

- recursive depth: 1 - 1 main call
- recursive depth: 2 - main call
- 4
- 8
- 16

- 10 - we end up with uneven lists that results in not the full nr of recursive calls for this level as those lists were 1 longer.

Total 41 calls

How many calls in general?

In our recursive tree we know that we will end up with n leaf nodes since every list will be split down to length 1. We also know that the number of internal nodes will be 1 less than our leaf nodes in a full binary tree. We have L nr leafs, I internal, T nr nodes in tree:

$$T = I + L$$

$$I = L - 1$$

$$T = (L - 1) + L = 2L - 1$$

Each node in the tree T represents a recursive call, this includes the leaf nodes since we need a call each to trigger the if statement that will return them, we have the same nr leafnodes as items in our list $L=n$ we derive:

$$T = 2n - 1$$

2 Recurrences

In the first 4 recurrences we want to apply the master theorem to solve them, because this theorem applies to recurrences of the form $T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$ where \mathbf{a} is the number of subproblems, \mathbf{b} is the factor by which \mathbf{n} is reduced and $f(n)$ is the non recursive cost.

In the last 2 recurrences we will use recursion-tree method for solving recurrences.

1. $T(n) = 4T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + n \log n$

$\mathbf{a}=4$, $\mathbf{b}=2$, $f(n) = n \log n$

We analyze the critical exponent $\log_b a$ which tells us how the recursive calls contribute to the overall complexity.

$\log_2 4 = 2$, therefore the recurrence relations complexity is directly influenced by the term $n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_2 4} = n^2$

The exponent helps us determine whether the function $f(n)$ (the extra work outside the recursion) is smaller or equal to or larger than n^2 , which allows us to apply the master theorem correctly.

We check if $f(n)$ is asymptotically smaller than n^2 and observe that $f(n) = n \log n < n^2$ because n^2 grows faster than \log .

That's why we are dealing with Case 1. Since $f(n) = n \log n = O(n^{2-\epsilon})$ for any constant $\epsilon \leq 1$, we conclude that the solution is $T(n) = \theta(n^2)$.

Therefore the first recurrence has the solution we are looking for.

2. $T(n) = 4T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + n^2$

a=4 b=2, which mean that the watershed function is $n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_2 4} = n^2$

Case 2 applies when $f(n) = \theta(n^{\log_b a} \log^k n)$ which means that $f(n)$ has the exact same polynomial growth as $n^{\log_b a}$ but might have an additional log factor (like $n^2 \log n$).

In this case there is no additional log factor, **k=0**, so $f(n) = n^2 = \theta(n^2 \log^0 n)$ and $T(n) = \theta(n^2 \lg n)$ which is not equal to the solution that we are looking for.

3. $T(n) = 2T(\lfloor n/4 \rfloor) + n^2$

a=2 ; b=4 which means that the watershed function is $n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_4 2} = n^{1/2}$
 Since n^2 grows faster than $n^{1/2}$ we have $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon}) = \Omega(n^{1/2 + \epsilon})$ which satisfies the first condition in Case 3.

The regularity condition states that $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$ for some $c < 1$, meaning that the extra work should not explode too quickly as n gets smaller:

$$af(n/b) \leftrightarrow 2f(n/4) \leftrightarrow 2f(n/4)^2 \leftrightarrow 2n^2/16 \leftrightarrow n^2/8$$

Since $n^2/8 \leq cn^2$ for $c=1/8$ which is less than 1, the regularity condition hold and we have the solution $T(n) = \theta(f(n)) = \theta(n^2)$

4. $T(n) = 9T(\lfloor n/3 \rfloor) + n^3$

a=9 , b=3 which means that the watershed function is $n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_3 9} = n^2$

Since n^3 grows faster than n^2 : $f(n) = \Omega(n^{\log_b a + \epsilon}) = \Omega(n^{2+\epsilon})$ which satisfies the first condition of case 3.

The regularity condition states that $af(n/b) \leq cf(n)$ for some $c < 1$, meaning that the extra work should not explode too quickly as n gets smaller:

$$9f(n/3) \leftrightarrow 9(n/3)^3 \leftrightarrow 9(n^3/27) \leftrightarrow n^3/3$$

Since $n^3 \leq cn^2$ for **c=1/3** which is equal 1, the regularity condition holds and we have the solution $T(n) = \theta(f(n)) = \theta(n^3) \neq \theta(n^2)$

5. $T(n) = T(n - 1) + n^2$

We can see how the formula changes recursively by substituting $T(n - 1)$ into the equation:

$$T(n - 1) = T(n - 1) - 1 + (n - 1)^2 \qquad = T(n - 2) + (n - 1)^2$$

Substituting into $T(n)$:

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

Repeating for $T(n-2)$:

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

Substituting again into $T(n)$:

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

Repeating the process for $T(n-3)$:

$$T(n-3) = T(n-3) - 1 + (n-3)^2 = T(n-4) + (n-3)^2$$

So we get:

$$T(n) = T(n-4) + (n-3)^2 + (n-2)^2 + (n-1)^2 + n^2$$

We can build a recursion tree:

Recursion Tree

Level 0: n^2

Level 1: $(n-1)^2, (n-1)^2$

Level 2: $(n-2)^2, (n-2)^2, (n-2)^2, (n-2)^2$

We stop when $(n-k) = 1 \Rightarrow k = n-1$, meaning there are $n-1$ levels.

The total cost accumulates as a sum of all the cost in the different levels which means that it accumulates as $T(n) = T(1) + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (n-i)^2$

If we rewrite by setting $j = n-1-i$:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (n-i)^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n j^2$$

We use the sum formula:

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

And approximating we get:

$$\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \approx \frac{2n^3}{6} = \frac{n^3}{3}$$

Therefore, the recurrence has the solution:

$$T(n) = \theta(n^3)$$

which is not equal to the solution we are looking for.

6. $T(n) = T(n-1) + n$

We expand recursively:

$$T(n-1) = T(n-2) + (n-1) \Rightarrow T(n) = (T(n-2) + (n-1)) + n$$

Again:

$$T(n-2) = T(n-3) + (n-2) \Rightarrow T(n) = (T(n-3) + (n-2)) + (n-1) + n$$

Again:

$$T(n-3) = T(n-4) + (n-3) \Rightarrow T(n) = T(n-4) + (n-3) + (n-2) + (n-1) + n$$

We construct the recursion tree:

Recursion Tree

Level 0: n

Level 1: $(n-1), (n-1)$

Level 2: $(n-2), (n-2), (n-2), (n-2)$

Level i : $(n-i)$

We stop when $(n-k) = 1 \Rightarrow k = n-1$, meaning there are $n-1$ levels. We therefore solve:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (n-i)$$

Using the sum formula for the first n natural numbers:

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

We approximate and get:

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

We therefore have that the solution for the recurrence is :

$$T(n) = \theta(n^2)$$

which is equal to the solution we are looking for

3 Divide & Conquer

We know that we have a recursive algorithm that divides the input \mathbf{X} in 4 subproblems X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4 , each with size $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$.

It calls the algorithm recursively in the 4 subproblems. It takes $\mathbf{O}(n \log n)$ time to calculate the 4 subproblems and $\mathbf{O}(n^2)$ to combine the results. Therefore we can write the following recurrence:

$$T(n) = 4T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n \log n) + O(n^2)$$

But because $\mathbf{O}(n^2)$ grows faster than $\mathbf{O}(n \log n)$, we can ignore $\mathbf{O}(n \log n)$ and write the recurrence as:

$$T(n) = 4T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n^2)$$

We can now solve this using the master theorem:

We have $\mathbf{a} = 4$ and $\mathbf{b} = 2$, which means that the watershed function is $n^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_2 4} = n^2$.

Here we have that Case 2 applies when $f(n) = \theta(n^{\log_b a} \log_n^k)$ which means that $f(n)$ has the exact same polynomial growth as $n^{\log_b a}$, but it might have an additional log factor.

In this case there is no additional log factor and its solution is

$$T(n) = \theta(n^2 \log n)$$

4 Runtime

We can try to find the runtime of the pseudocode : We observe that the outer-loop runs from $\mathbf{i=1}$ to $\mathbf{i= n/2}$ which means that it runs exactly $\mathbf{n/2}$ times.

The inner loop runs depending on the value of i . It runs from $j = n/2 - i$ to $j = n$. Therefore the iterations for a given i is:

$$n - (n/2 - i) = n/2 + i$$

We can now calculate the total iterations of the code, which is the times the inner loop runs for each i :

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} (n/2 + i)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n/2} (n/2) + \sum_{i=1}^{n/2} i$$

The first sum is so $(n/2)(n/2) = n^2/4$ And the second sum is the sum of the first k natural numbers:

$$\sum_{i=1}^k i = \frac{k(k+1)}{2}$$

Where $k = n/2 : \frac{(n/2)(n/2 + 1)}{2} = \frac{n^2/4 + n/2}{2} = \frac{n^2}{8} + \frac{n}{4}$

Due to ignoring constants and focusing on the highest term which is n^2 , we conclude that the overall running time is $T(n) = O(n^2)$

It is now easy to identify the correct statements: The first one $T(n) = O(n)$ is not correct because the running time is higher than linear; The second one $T(n) = O(n \log n)$ is not correct because the running time is higher than $O(n \log n)$; The third one $T(n) = O(n^2)$ is correct because upper bound surely is $O(n^2)$; The fourth one $T(n) = \Omega(n)$ is correct because $O(n^2)$ implies $\Omega(n)$; The fifth one $T(n) = \Omega(n \log n)$ is correct because $O(n^2)$ implies $\Omega(n \log n)$; The sixth one $T(n) = \Omega(n^2)$ is correct because $T(n) = O(n^2)$ also applies as $\Omega(n^2)$

5 Invariants

What are valid loop invariants at the start of each iteration of the for loop. Choose one or several correct answers.

The code finds the second smallest nr

We loop through a list of numbers looking at element $A[i]$ each loop. For each iteration the smallest observed element is stored in m , while the next smallest element is stored in r . The update of the elements is done through two conditionals checking if $A[i] < m$ and then updating $A[i]$ and r accordingly, and one checking $m < A[i] < r$, meaning that we found a new second largest element and update r accordingly. With this in mind we look at the statements:

1. TRUE: $m = \min(A[1], \dots, A[i-1])$ meaning m is the smallest number in the list range index 1 to $i-1$, the loop goes to n meaning at the end $n-1$. This is true since m is the smallest of the observed elements and all elements $A[1]$ to $A[i-1]$ are observed at step i , and m is initialised to $A[1]$.
2. FALSE: $m = \min(A[1], \dots, A[n])$ at the start of each loop we have yet to look at $A[i]$, which we do in the iteration, here $\max A[n]$, meaning at step $i=n$ we have only observed elements up to $n-1$. Hence the statement is false.
3. TRUE: $r \geq m$ meaning r is larger or equal to m . This is true, r is the second largest observed element, if we have two elements of the same size $r=m$ otherwise $r < m$.
4. FALSE: $m \geq 0$ this is false we have no element limitation to positive numbers.
5. TRUE: At least 1 element in $A[1], \dots, A[i-1]$ is smaller or equal to r . This is true, in the case where $i=2$, $r = \infty$, making any element less or equal. When r is initialised, even if the list is of length 1 or only have one element size r is equal otherwise r is less. This is true.
6. FALSE At most 2 elements in $A[1], \dots, A[i-1]$ are less than or equal to r . If we have multiple of the same elements there we can have f.ex 5 smallest elements m would be the first observed of these r would be the second but we would have 3 left that are equal.

6 Induction

Prove that: the number of diagonals d_n in a n -corner shape is equal to $\frac{n(n-3)}{2}$ for $3 \leq n$. We know that: a diagonal splits a n -corner into a n_1 -shape and n_2 -shape with a common border where $n_1 + n_2 = n + 2$.

We want to prove:

$$d_n = \frac{n(n-3)}{2}$$

B.s

A triangle with $n = 3$ corners has $d_3 = 0$ diagonals

$$d_3 = \frac{3(3-3)}{2} = 0$$

holds.

I.h

how does the nr diagonals change going from n to $n+1$?

- $n = 3 \rightarrow d_n = 0$
- $n = 4 \rightarrow d_n = 2 : d_n - d_{n-1} = 2$
- $n = 5 \rightarrow d_n = 5 : d_n - d_{n-1} = 3$
- $n = 6 \rightarrow d_n = 9 : d_n - d_{n-1} = 4$
- $n = 7 \rightarrow d_n = 14 : d_n - d_{n-1} = 5$

The difference between step n and $n+1$ grows as is: 2, 3, 4, 5... We observe that it grows with $n-2$. Hence we conclude:

$$d_n - d_{n-1} = n - 2$$

$$d_n = n - 2 + d_{n-1}$$

$$d_{n+1} = (n + 1) - 2 + d_n$$

I.s

We must prove that for some $3 \leq k \mid k \in \mathbb{Z}$:

$$d_{k+1} = \frac{(k+1)((k+1)-3)}{2} = \frac{(k+1)(k-2)}{2} = k^2 - k - 2$$

We do the following steps:

$$\begin{aligned} d_{k+1} &= d_k + (k+1) - 2 \\ &= \frac{k(k-3)}{2} + k - 1 \\ &= \frac{k(k-3) + 2k - 2}{2} \\ &= \frac{k^2 - k - 2}{2} \\ &= \frac{(k+1)((k+1)-3)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Hence it is proven that our formula applies for all n .

7 Correctness and runtime

a)

From the given information we want to argue for

$$Ax = \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-1} \\ F_n \end{pmatrix}$$

We have:

$$Ax = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-2} \\ F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

If follow from mx multiplication that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-2} \\ F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-1} \\ F_{n-2} + F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix}$$

We know from the fibonacci sequence that $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$ for $n > 1$ hence

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-2} \\ F_{n-1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-1} \\ F_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Ax = (F_{n-1}, F_n)^T$$

Our identity holds

b)

We want to prove: $A^{n-1}x = (F_{n-1}, F_n)^T$ for $n \geq 1$.

B.s

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{n-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-1} \\ F_n \end{pmatrix}$$

for $n = 2$ we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^1 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_1 \\ F_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Holds

I.h

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{n-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-1} \\ F_n \end{pmatrix}$$

I.s

We need to prove:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^n \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_n \\ F_{n+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

We proceed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^n \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \\ & \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{n-1} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \end{aligned}$$

Using our I.h

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-1} \\ F_n \end{pmatrix} =$$

We know from a) that

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} F_{n-1} \\ F_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} F_n \\ F_{n+1} \end{pmatrix}$$

c)

With multiplication addition and subtraction being executed in constant time we would in a simple implementation to derive A^{n-1} have some constant time for conducting a 2x2 matrix multiplication c , times the number of matrices we combine, here $n-1$, hence we would complete the calculation in $(n-1)c$ time which is bounded from above by $O(n)$.

To be more efficient we can attempt to “jump” as fast as possible to the desired $n-1$ exponent by using squares. For example instead of for $n-1=5$ calculate $AAAAA = A^5$ we can use the already derived step $AA = A^2$ and then calculate $A^2A^2A = A^5$, requiring only 3 matrix multiplications instead of 4 as in the first case. Let's derive an algorithm to formalize this method and then argue for its time complexity.

To argue for the time complexity I derive the following algorithm, where I recursively divide up the multiplication operation into its sub operations by halving or near halving the exponent each time, calling the function with $m/2$ when even and with $m-1$ when uneven and adding a $*A$.

recurrence

We have constant time $O(1)$ for multiplication of a 2x2 matrix, in the even case we have the recursive case $T(m/2)$ and one multiplication of the result $O(1)$, in the odd case we have the recursive case $T(m-1)$ and one matrix multiplication $O(1)$:

Algorithm 1 Exponentiate a Matrix using Exponentiation by Squaring

```
1: function EXP_MATRIX( $A, m$ )
2:   if  $m = 1$  then
3:     return  $A$ 
4:   end if
5:   if  $m$  is even then
6:      $Half \leftarrow$  EXP_MATRIX( $A, m/2$ )
7:     return  $Half \times Half$ 
8:   else
9:     return EXP_MATRIX( $A, m - 1$ )  $\times A$ 
10:  end if
11: end function
```

$$T(m) = \begin{cases} O(1) & m = 1 \\ T(m/2) + O(1) & m - \text{even} \\ T(m-1) + O(1) & m - \text{odd} \end{cases}$$

Lets first think about it in the case when m is a power of 2 $m = 2^k$ we get the recurrence: $T(m) = T(m/2) + O(1)$, with the master theorem we have:

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

$$T(m) = T(m/2) + O(1)$$

Hence $a = 1$, $b = 2$ and $f(n) = O(1)$ implying $f(n) = O(n^{\log_2 1})$, $\log_2 1 = 0$ implying n^0 . Since any ϵ added to the exponent would make our function non constant we can rule out case 1 and 3. However case 2 is still viable for which we have to fulfill that there exists $K \geq 0$ s.t $f(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_2 1} (\log_2 n)^K)$, we see that for our case we can set $k = 0$ giving $f(n) = \Theta(n^0 (\log_2 n)^0) = \Theta(1)$, which fits.

For case 2 the master theorem states that $T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_b a} (\log_2 n)^{k+1})$ giving us time complexity:

$$T(n) = \Theta(n^{\log_2 1} (\log_2 n)^1) = \Theta(\log_2 n)$$

d)

1. For c) showed that we can derive the matrix A^{n-1} in $O(\lg n)$ time.
2. For b) we proved: $A^{n-1}(0, 1)^T = (F_{n-1}, F_n)^T$ for $n \geq 1$.
3. We are assuming arithmetic operations are conducted in constant time.

We want to argue that F_n can be calculated in $O(\lg n)$ time. The argument goes as follows.

We can derive A^{n-1} in $O(\lg n)$ time (1), which means that given constant time for arithmetic operations (3), we can derive $A^{n-1}(0, 1)^T = (F_{n-1}, F_n)^T$, in $O(\lg n) + O(1)$ time, which is $O(\lg n)$ time. The resulting matrix contains F_n . Hence we have derived F_n in $O(\lg n)$ time.