Review Section 2/9

Big O notation

Main Idea

Focus on how the runtime scales with n (the input size).

Some examples...

(Only pay attention to the largest function of n that appears.)



Informal definition for O(...)

- Let T(n), g(n) be functions of positive integers.
 - Think of T(n) as a runtime: positive and increasing in n.
- We say "T(n) is O(g(n))" if:

for large enough n,

T(n) is at most some constant multiple of g(n).

"constant" means "some number that doesn't depend on n."

Formal definition of O(...)

- Let T(n), g(n) be functions of positive integers.
 - Think of T(n) as a runtime: positive and increasing in n.
- Formally,



Example $2n^2 + 10 = O(n^2)$

T(n) = O(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow $\exists c, n_0 > 0 \ s.t. \ \forall n \ge n_0,$ $T(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$



Example $2n^2 + 10 = O(n^2)$





Example $2n^2 + 10 = O(n^2)$

$$T(n) = O(g(n))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$

$$\exists c, n_0 > 0 \ s. t. \ \forall n \ge n_0,$$

$$T(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$$



Same example $2n^2 + 10 = O(n^2)$

$$T(n) = O(g(n))$$

$$\Leftrightarrow$$

$$\exists c, n_0 > 0 \ s.t. \ \forall n \ge n_0,$$

$$T(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$$



Formally:

- Choose c = 7
- Choose $n_0 = 2$

• Then:

 $\forall n \ge 2,$ $2n^2 + 10 \le 7 \cdot n^2$



$\Omega(...)$ means lower bound

• We say "T(n) is $\Omega(g(n))$ " if, for large enough n, T(n) is at least as big as a constant multiple of g(n).

• Formally,

 $T(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ \Leftrightarrow $\exists c, n_0 > 0 \quad s.t. \quad \forall n \ge n_0,$ $c \cdot g(n) \le T(n)$ \swarrow Switched these!!

Example $n \log_2(n) = \Omega(3n)$

 $T(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ \Leftrightarrow $\exists c, n_0 > 0 \ s.t. \ \forall n \ge n_0,$ $c \cdot g(n) \le T(n)$



• Choose
$$c = 1/3$$

• Choose
$$n_0 = 2$$

Then

 $\forall n \geq 2$,

$$\frac{3n}{3} \le n \log_2(n)$$

$\Theta(...)$ means both!

• We say "T(n) is $\Theta(g(n))$ " iff both:

$$T(n) = O(g(n))$$

and

$$T(n) = \Omega(g(n))$$

Induction

Background on Induction

- Type of mathematical proof
- Typically used to establish a given statement for all natural numbers (e.g. integers > 0)
- Proof is a sequence of deductive steps
 - Show the statement is true for the first number.
 - Show that if the statement is true for any one number, this implies the statement is true for the next number.
 - If so, we can infer that the statement is true for all numbers.

Components of Inductive Proof

Inductive proof is composed of 3 major parts :

- **Base Case** : One or more particular cases that represent the most basic case. (e.g. n=1 to prove a statement in the range of positive integer)
- Induction Hypothesis : Assumption that we would like to be based on. (e.g. Let's assume that P(k) holds)
- Inductive Step : Prove the next step based on the induction hypothesis.
 (i.e. Show that Induction hypothesis P(k) implies P(k+1))

Weak Induction vs Strong Induction:

- In weak induction, we only assume that particular statement holds at kth step,
- In strong induction, we assume that the particular statement holds at all the steps from the base case to k-th step

Example: Integer Summation

Claim:

Let
$$S(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} i$$
. Then $S(n) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

Base Case:

We show the statement is true for n = 1. As $S(1) = 1 = \frac{1(2)}{2}$, the statement holds.

Induction Hypothesis:

We assume
$$S(n) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
.

Example: Integer Summation

Inductive Step:

We show
$$S(n+1) = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$$
. Note that $S(n+1) = S(n) + n + 1$. Hence

$$S(n+1) = S(n) + n + 1$$

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

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

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

Substitution Method

The Substitution Method

- Another way to solve recurrence relations.
- More general than the master method.
- Step 1: Generate a guess at the correct answer.
- Step 2: Try to prove that your guess is correct.
- (Step 3: Profit.)

First Example

• Consider the following problem:

 $T(n) = 2 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + n$, with T(0) = 0, T(1) = 1.

- The Master Method says $T(n) = O(n \log(n))$.
- We will prove this via the Substitution Method.

Step 1: Guess the answer

•

. . .

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

• $T(n) = 2 \cdot \left(2 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{4}\right) + \frac{n}{2}\right) + n$
• $T(n) = 4 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{4}\right) + 2n$
• $T(n) = 4 \cdot \left(2 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{8}\right) + \frac{n}{4}\right) + 2n$
• $T(n) = 8 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{8}\right) + 3n$
• $T(n) = 8 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{8}\right) + 3n$

You can guess the answer however you want: metareasoning, a little bird told you, wishful thinking, etc. One useful way is to try to "unroll" the recursion, like we're doing here.

Guessing the pattern: $T(n) = 2^t \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{2^t}\right) + t \cdot n$ Plug in $t = \log(n)$, and get $T(n) = n \cdot T(1) + \log(n) \cdot n = n(\log(n) + 1)$



Step 2: Prove the guess is correct.

- Inductive Hypothesis: $T(n) = n(\log(n) + 1)$.
- Base Case (n=1): $T(1) = 1 = 1 \cdot (\log(1) + 1)$
- Inductive Step:
 - Assume Inductive Hyp. for $1 \le n < k$:
 - Suppose that $T(n) = n(\log(n) + 1)$ for all $1 \le n < k$.
 - Prove Inductive Hyp. for n=k:
 - $T(k) = 2 \cdot T\left(\frac{k}{2}\right) + k$ by definition
 - $T(k) = 2 \cdot \left(\frac{k}{2}\left(\log\left(\frac{k}{2}\right) + 1\right)\right) + k$ by induction.
 - $T(k) = k(\log(k) + 1)$ by simplifying.
 - So Inductive Hyp. holds for n=k.
- Conclusion: For all $n \ge 1$, $T(n) = n(\log(n) + 1)$



Step 3: Profit

- Pretend like you never did Step 1, and just write down:
- Theorem: $T(n) = O(n \log(n))$
- Proof: [Whatever you wrote in Step 2]

Second Example

•
$$T(n) \leq T\left(\frac{n}{5}\right) + T\left(\frac{7n}{10}\right) + n$$
 for $n > 10$.

• Base case:
$$T(n) = 1$$
 when $1 \le n \le 10$



Jedi master Yoda

Step 1: guess the answer

$$T(n) \le T\left(\frac{n}{5}\right) + T\left(\frac{7n}{10}\right) + n \text{ for } n > 10.$$

Base case: $T(n) = 1$ when $1 \le n \le 10$

- Trying to work backwards gets gross fast...
- We can also just try it out.
- Let's guess O(n) and try to prove it.



Step 2: prove our guess is right Base case: T(n) = 1 when $1 \le n \le 10$

- Inductive Hypothesis: $T(n) \leq Cn$
- Base case: $1 = T(n) \le Cn$ for all $1 \le n \le 10$
- Inductive step:
 - Let k > 10. Assume that the IH holds for all n so that $1 \le n < k$.
 - $T(k) \le k + T\left(\frac{k}{5}\right) + T\left(\frac{7k}{10}\right)$ $\le k + \mathbf{C} \cdot \left(\frac{k}{5}\right) + \mathbf{C} \cdot \left(\frac{7k}{10}\right)$ $= k + \frac{\mathbf{C}}{5}k + \frac{7\mathbf{C}}{10}k$ $\le \mathbf{C}k$??
 - (aka, want to show that IH holds for n=k).
- Conclusion:
 - There is some C so that for all $n \ge 1$, $T(n) \le Cn$
 - By the definition of big-Oh, T(n) = O(n).

We don't know what C should be yet! Let's go through the proof leaving it as "C" and then figure out what works...

 $T(n) \le T\left(\frac{n}{5}\right) + T\left(\frac{7n}{10}\right) + n \text{ for } n > 10.$

Whatever we
 choose C to be, it
 should have C≥1

Let's solve for C and make this true! C = 10 works.

$$T(n) \le n + T\left(\frac{n}{5}\right) + T\left(\frac{7n}{10}\right) \text{ for } n > 10.$$

Base case: $T(n) = 1$ when $1 \le n \le 10$

Step 3: profit **Theorem:** T(n) = O(n)**Proof:**

- Inductive Hypothesis: $T(n) \leq 10n$.
- Base case: $1 = T(n) \le 10n$ for all $1 \le n \le 10$
- Inductive step:
 - Let k > 10. Assume that the IH holds for all n so that $1 \le n < k$.

•
$$T(k) \leq k + T\left(\frac{k}{5}\right) + T\left(\frac{7k}{10}\right)$$

 $\leq k + \mathbf{10} \cdot \left(\frac{k}{5}\right) + \mathbf{10} \cdot \left(\frac{7k}{10}\right)$
 $= k + 2k + 7k = \mathbf{10}k$

- Thus, IH holds for n=k.
- Conclusion:
 - For all $n \ge 1$, $T(n) \le 10n$
 - Then, T(n) = O(n), using the definition of big-Oh with $n_0 = 1, c = 10$.

Linear Time Selection

The k select problem

- A is an array of size n, k is in {1,...,n}
- SELECT(A, k):
 - Return the k-th smallest element of A.

- SELECT(A, 8) = 14

- SELECT(A, 1) = 1
 SELECT(A, 1) = MIN(A)
- SELECT(A, 2) = 3 SELECT(A, n/2) = MEDIAN(A)
- SELECT(A, 3) = 4 SELECT(A, n) = MAX(A)

Being sloppy about floors and ceilings!



Idea: divide and conquer!

Say we want to find SELECT(A, k)



First, pick a "pivot." We'll see how to do this later.

Next, partition the array into "bigger than 6" or "less than 6"

R = array with things larger than A[pivot]

Idea: divide and conquer!

Say we want to find SELECT(A, k)

First, pick a "pivot." We'll see how to do this later.

Next, partition the array into "bigger than 6" or "less than 6"



L = array with things smaller than A[pivot]



This PARTITION step takes time O(n). (Notice that we don't sort each half).



R = array with things larger than A[pivot]

Idea continued...

Say we want to find SELECT(A, k)

L = array with things smaller than A[pivot]





R = array with things larger than A[pivot]

- If k = 5 = len(L) + 1:
 - We should return A[pivot]
- If k < 5:
 - We should return SELECT(L, k)
- If k > 5:
 - We should return SELECT(R, k 5)

This suggests a recursive algorithm

(still need to figure out how to pick the pivot...)

Pseudocode

- Select(A,k):
 - If len(A) <= 50:
 - A = MergeSort(A)
 - Return A[k-1]
 - p = getPivot(A)
 - L, pivotVal, R = **Partition**(A,p)
 - if len(L) == k-1:
 - return pivotVal
 - **Else if** len(L) > k-1:
 - return Select(L, k)
 - **Else if** len(L) < k-1:
 - return **Select**(R, k − len(L) − 1)

- **getPivot** (A) returns some pivot for us.
 - How?? We'll see later...
- **Partition** (A, p) splits up A into L, A[p], R.

Base Case: If len(A) = O(1), then any sorting algorithm runs in time O(1).

Case 1: We got lucky and found exactly the k'th smallest value!

Case 2: The k'th smallest value is in the first part of the list

Case 3: The k'th smallest value is in the second part of the list

What is the running time?

•
$$T(n) = \begin{cases} T(\operatorname{len}(L)) + O(n) & \operatorname{len}(L) > k - 1 \\ T(\operatorname{len}(R)) + O(n) & \operatorname{len}(L) < k - 1 \\ O(n) & \operatorname{len}(L) = k - 1 \end{cases}$$

- What are len(L) and len(R)?
- That depends on how we pick the pivot...

The best way would be to always pick the pivot so that len(L) = k-1. But say we don't have control over k, just over how we pick the pivot.

The ideal pivot



- We split the input exactly in half:
 - len(L) = len(R) = (n-1)/2

What happens in that case?



In case it's helpful...

• Suppose $T(n) = a \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + O(n^d)$. Then

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 0(n^d \log(n)) & \text{if } a = b^d \\ 0(n^d) & \text{if } a < b^d \\ 0(n^{\log_b(a)}) & \text{if } a > b^d \end{cases}$$

The idea pivot

- We split the input exactly in half:
 - len(L) = len(R) = (n-1)/2
- Let's pretend that's the case and use the Master Theorem!
- $T(n) \le T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n)$
- So a = 1, b = 2, d = 1
- $T(n) \leq O(n^d) = O(n)$

• Suppose
$$T(n) = a \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + O(n^d)$$
. Then

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

That would be great!
The worst pivot

- Say our choice of pivot doesn't depend on A.
- A bad guy who knows what pivots we will choose gets to come up with A.



The distinction matters!



See Lecture 4 Python notebook for code that generated this picture.

How do we pick our ideal pivot?

• We'd like to live in the ideal world.



- Pick the pivot to divide the input in half.
- Aka, pick the median!
- Aka, pick SELECT(A, n/2)!



How about a good enough pivot?

• We'd like to approximate the ideal world.



- Pick the pivot to divide the input about in half!
- Maybe this is easier!



A good enough pivot

- We split the input not quite in half:
 - 3n/10 < len(L) < 7n/10
 - 3n/10 < len(R) < 7n/10

We still don't know that we can get such a pivot, but at least it gives us a goal and a direction to pursue!



Lucky the lackadaisical lemur

 If we could do that (let's say, in time O(n)), the Master Theorem would say:

•
$$T(n) \le T\left(\frac{7n}{10}\right) + O(n)$$

- So a = 1, b = 10/7, d = 1
- $T(n) \leq O(n^d) = O(n)$

• Suppose
$$T(n) = a \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) + O(n^d)$$
. Then

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

STILL GOOD!

Goal

• Efficiently pick the pivot so that



Another divide-and-conquer alg!

- We can't solve SELECT(A,n/2) (yet)
- But we can divide and conquer and solve SELECT(B,m/2) for smaller values of m (where len(B) = m).
- Lemma*: The median of sub-medians is close to the median.



*we will make this a bit more precise.

How to pick the pivot





This divides the array *approximately* in half

• Formally, we have:

Lemma: If we choose the pivots like this, then $|L| \le \frac{7n}{10} + 5$ and $|R| \le \frac{7n}{10} + 5$

Why 70%/30% split worst case?

The most lopsided split that can happen after partitioning around the median of medians is 70/30.



At least ½ of the groups have medians <= pivot

If we group into groups of 5 and sort by the groups' medians, the gray stuff (at least $\frac{3}{5} * \frac{1}{2} = 3/10$) all lies in one side of the partition.

How about the running time?

- Suppose the Lemma is true. (It is).
 - $|L| \le \frac{7n}{10} + 5$ and $|R| \le \frac{7n}{10} + 5$
- Recurrence relation:

$$T(n) \le T\left(\frac{n}{5}\right) + T\left(\frac{7n}{10}\right) + O(n)$$

The call to CHOOSEPIVOT makes one further recursive call to SELECT on an array of size n/5.

Outside of CHOOSEPIVOT, there's at most one recursive call to SELECT on array of size 7n/10 + 5.

We're going to drop the "+5" for convenience, but it does not change the final answer. Why? Hint: Define T'(n) := T(n+1000) and write recurrence for T'



Siggi the Studious Stork

This sounds like a job for...

The Substitution Method!

Step 1: generate a guess Step 2: try to prove that your guess is correct Step 3: profit

 $T(n) \le T\left(\frac{n}{5}\right) + T\left(\frac{7n}{10}\right) + O(n)$

That's convenient! We did this at the beginning of lecture!

Conclusion: T(n) = O(n)



Technically we only did it for $T(n) \le T\left(\frac{n}{5}\right) + T\left(\frac{7n}{10}\right) + n$, not when the last term

has a big-Oh...



Plucky the Pedantic Penguin

- Input:
 - Array A containing n possibly very large integers
 - k ranks $r_0, ..., r_k$, which are integers in the range $\{1, ..., n\}$
- Output:
 - Array B which contains the r_i -th smallest of the n integers, for every j in 1,...,k
- Requirement:
 - An $O(n \log k)$ algorithm

- Find the median rank r_m using the Select algorithm
- Run Select algorithm to find a_m , the r_m -th smallest integer in A
- Recurse separately on
 - (i) the ranks and integers greater than r_m and a_m (respectively);
 - (ii) the ones smaller than r_m and a_m
- Runtime:
 - The recursion tree has a depth of log(k)
 - At each level, the time spent if O(n + k) = O(n)
 - So in total $O(n \log k)$

- We have an array of positive numbers h_1, h_2, \cdots, h_n
- The sum is $\sum_i h_i = C$
- The weighted median is defined as k such that:

•
$$\sum_{i:h_i < h_k} h_i \leq \frac{C}{2}$$

• $\sum_{i:h_i > h_k} h_i \leq \frac{C}{2}$

• Goal: compute the weighted median in O(n) worst case time

- Find median h_k from h_1, h_2, \cdots, h_n
- Compute the sum of each side:
- $H_L = \sum_{i: h_i < h_k} h_i$ • $H_R = \sum_{i: h_i > h_k} h_i$ • If $H_L \leq \frac{C}{2}$ and $H_R \leq \frac{C}{2}$, return • If $H_L > \frac{C}{2}$:
 - Change h_k to $h_k + H_R$, recurse on the elements smaller than h_k
- Else:
 - Change h_k to $h_k + H_L$, recurse on the elements larger than h_k

Quicksort

Quicksort

First, pick a "pivot." **Do it at random.**

Next, partition the array into "bigger than 5" or "less than 5" We want to sort this array.



This PARTITION step takes time O(n). (Notice that we don't sort each half). [same as in SELECT]

R = array with things

larger than A[pivot]

Arrange them like so:

L = array with things smaller than A[pivot]

Recurse on L and R:

PseudoPseudoCode for what we just saw

- QuickSort(A):
 - If len(A) <= 1:
 - return
 - Pick some x = A[i] at random. Call this the **pivot**.
 - **PARTITION** the rest of A into:
 - L (less than x) and
 - R (greater than x)
 - Replace A with [L, x, R] (that is, rearrange A in this order)
 - QuickSort(L)
 - QuickSort(R)

Running time?

- T(n) = T(|L|) + T(|R|) + O(n)
- In an ideal world...
 - if the pivot splits the array exactly in half... $T(n) = 2 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n)$



• We've seen that a bunch:

 $T(n) = O(n \log(n)).$

The expected running time of QuickSort is O(nlog(n)).

Proof:*

- $E[|L|] = E[|R|] = \frac{n-1}{2}$.
 - The expected number of items on each side of the pivot is half of the things.
- If that occurs, the running time is $T(n) = O(n \log(n))$.
 - Since the relevant recurrence relation is $T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right) + O(n)$
- Therefore, the expected running time is $O(n \log(n))$.

What's wrong?

- $E[|L|] = E[|R|] = \frac{n-1}{2}$.
 - The expected number of items on each side of the pivot is half of the things.
- If that occurs, the running time is $T(n) = O(n \log(n))$.
 - Since the relevant recurrence relation is $T(n) = 2T\left(\frac{n-1}{2}\right) + O(n)$
- Therefore, the expected running time is $O(n \log(n))$.

That's not how expectations work!



• The running time in the "expected" situation is not the same as the expected running time.

• Sort of like how E[X²] is not the same as (E[X])²

Plucky the Pedantic Penguin

Example of recursive calls



How long does this take to run?

- We will count the number of comparisons that the algorithm does.
 - This turns out to give us a good idea of the runtime. (Not obvious, but we can "charge" all operations to comparisons).
- How many times are any two items compared?



In the example before, everything was compared to 5 once in the first step....and never again.

But not everything was compared to 3. 5 was, and so were 1,2 and 4. But not 6 or 7.

Each pair of items is compared either 0 or 1 times. Which is it?

Let's assume that the numbers in the array are actually the numbers 1,...,n

Of course this doesn't have to be the case! It's a good exercise to convince yourself that the analysis will still go through without this assumption.

 Whether or not a, b are compared is a random variable, that depends on the choice of pivots. Let's say

 $X_{a,b} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } a \text{ and } b \text{ are ever compared} \\ 0 & \text{if } a \text{ and } b \text{ are never compared} \end{cases}$

- In the previous example $X_{1,5} = 1$, because item 1 and item 5 were compared.
- But $X_{3,6} = 0$, because item 3 and item 6 were NOT compared.

Counting comparisons

• The number of comparisons total during the algorithm is

$$\sum_{a=1}^{n-1} \sum_{b=a+1}^{n} X_{a,b}$$

• The expected number of comparisons is

$$E\left[\sum_{a=1}^{n-1}\sum_{b=a+1}^{n}X_{a,b}\right] = \sum_{a=1}^{n-1}\sum_{b=a+1}^{n}E[X_{a,b}]$$

by using linearity of expectations.

Counting comparisons

- So we just need to figure out E[X_{a,b}]
- $E[X_{a,b}] = P(X_{a,b} = 1) \cdot 1 + P(X_{a,b} = 0) \cdot 0 = P(X_{a,b} = 1)$ (by the definition of expectation)
- So we need to figure out:

 $P(X_{a,b} = 1)$ = the probability that a and b are ever compared.



Say that a = 2 and b = 6. What is the probability that 2 and 6 are ever compared?

This is exactly the probability that either 2 or 6 is first picked to be a pivot out of the highlighted entries.

If, say, 5 were picked first, then 2 and 6 would be separated and never see each other again.

expected number of comparisons: $\sum_{a=1}^{n-1} \sum_{b=a+1}^{n} E[X_{a,b}]$

Counting comparisons

 $P\bigl(\,X_{a,b}\,=\,1\,\,\bigr)$

= probability a,b are ever compared

= probability that one of a,b are picked first out of

all of the b - a + 1 numbers between them.



All together now...

Expected number of comparisons

- $E\left[\sum_{a=1}^{n-1}\sum_{b=a+1}^{n}X_{a,b}\right]$
- = $\sum_{a=1}^{n-1} \sum_{b=a+1}^{n} E[X_{a,b}]$
- = $\sum_{a=1}^{n-1} \sum_{b=a+1}^{n} P(X_{a,b} = 1)$
- = $\sum_{a=1}^{n-1} \sum_{b=a+1}^{n} \frac{2}{b-a+1}$

This is the expected number of comparisons throughout the algorithm linearity of expectation

definition of expectation

the reasoning we just did

- This is a big nasty sum, but we can do it.
- We get that this is less than 2n ln(n).

In-Place Partition for Quick Sort



Pivot

Choose it randomly, then swap it with the last one, so it's at the end.



- Input: n distinct ordered pairs of integers $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), ..., (x_n, y_n)$, where for all $i, j, x_i \neq x_j$ and $y_i \neq y_j$
- A set of points S is collinear if they all fall on the same line

• That is, for all $(x_i, y_i) \in S$, $y_i = mx_i + b$ for fixed m and b

- Output: maximum integer N such that we can find N of the given points the same line
- Requirement: $O(n^2 \log n)$

- For all pairs of points, compute their slope and intercept (m, b)
- QuickSort these pairs in increasing order of m, and then in increasing order of b as a tiebreaker.
- Iterate through the pairs, and note where the longest run of identical (m, b) pairs occurs
- Return a list of the points in this run of pairs
- Runtime:
 - there are $O(n^2)$ pairs of points
 - Quicksort takes $O(n^2 \log n^2) = O(n^2 \log n)$ time

- CautiousQuickSort is the following:
 - the pivot is chosen by repeatedly randomly
 - stop if it partitions an array of n elements into two subarrays each with at least n/3 elements
 - Use partition to determine this condition
- Questions:
 - What is the probability of selecting a good pivot after a single trial?
 - 1/3
 - What is the maximum recursion depth of CautiousQuickSort?
 - O(log n)

- What is the expected runtime?
 - Testing whether a pivot is good takes O(n) time
 - On each level of recursion, the expected number of random selections until a good pivot is found is 3
 - So, the expected amount of work done on each recursive level is O(n)
 - The depth is O(log n)
 - Thus, in total O(n log n) runtime

Lower bound for sorting

Lower bound of $\Omega(n \log(n))$.

• Theorem:

- Any deterministic comparison-based sorting algorithm must take $\Omega(n \log(n))$ steps.
- Proof recap:
 - Any deterministic comparison-based algorithm can be represented as a decision tree with n! leaves.
 - The worst-case running time is at least the depth of the decision tree.
 - All decision trees with n! leaves have depth $\Omega(n \log(n))$.
 - So any comparison-based sorting algorithm must have worst-case running time at least Ω(n log(n)).


How long is the longest path?



- n! is about (n/e)ⁿ (Stirling's approximation).
- $\log(n!)$ is about $n \log(n/e) = \Omega(n \log(n))$.

We want a statement: in all such trees, the longest path is at least _____

- This is a binary tree with at least <u>n!</u> leaves.
- The shallowest tree with n! leaves is the completely balanced one, which has depth <u>log(n!)</u>.
- So in all such trees, the longest path is at least log(n!).

Conclusion: the longest path has length at least $\Omega(n \log(n))$.

Some "bad" news

- Theorem:
 - Any deterministic comparison-based sorting algorithm must take Ω(n log(n)) steps.
- Theorem:
 - Any randomized comparison-based sorting algorithm must take Ω(n log(n)) steps in expectation.

Bad Side: we can't improve on n*log(n)

Bright Side: we know we're done and can focus on other problems