

CSUS Help desk is hosting a

JAVA BOOTCAMP

Thursday September 17th from 5.30pm to 7.30pm

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This bootcamp is aimed at those who don't know the particularities of Java. There will be a focus on syntactic and semantic difference between java and other programming languages, with a focus on OOP (including polymorphism and inheritance).

The zoom link is: <https://mcgill.zoom.us/j/92101531362>



COMP251: Running time analysis and

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Based on slides from M. Langer and M. Blanchette

Outline

- Motivations
- The Big O notation
 - Definition <https://eduassistpro.github.io/>
 - Examples Add WeChat edu_assist_pro
 - Rules
- Big Omega and Big Theta
- Applications

Measuring the running “time”

- Goal: Analyze an algorithm written in pseudocode and describe its running time
 - Without h
 - In a way t the computer used
- To achieve that, we need to
 - Make simplifying assumptions about the running time of each basic (primitive) operations
 - Study how the number of primitive operations depends on the size of the problem solved

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Primitive Operations

Simple computer operation that can be performed in time that is always the same, independent of the size of the bigger problem solved (we say: constant time)

- **Assigning a value to a variable:** $x \leftarrow 1$ T_{assign}
- **Calling a method:** `Expos.addWin()` T_{call}
 - Note: doesn't include the time to find the method
- **Returning from a method:** `return` T_{return}
- **Arithmetic operations on primitive types:** $x + y$, $r * 3.1416$, x/y , etc. T_{arith}
- **Comparisons on primitive types:** $x == y$ T_{comp}
- **Conditionals:** `if (...) then.. else...` T_{cond}
- **Indexing into an array:** `A[i]` T_{index}
- **Following object reference:** `Expos.losses` T_{ref}

Note: Multiplying two Large Integers is *not* a primitive operation, because the running time depends on the size of the numbers multiplied.

FindMin analysis

Algorithm findMin(A, start, stop)

Input: Array A, index start & stop

Output: Index of the smallest element of A[start:stop]

minvalue \leftarrow A[start]

minindex \leftarrow start

index \leftarrow start + 1

while (index <=

if (A[index]<minvalue)

then {

 minvalue \leftarrow A[index]

 minindex \leftarrow index

 }

 index = index + 1

}

return minindex

$T_{\text{index}} + T_{\text{assign}}$

T_{assign}

$T_{\text{arith}} + T_{\text{assign}}$

T_{cond}

$T_{\text{index}} + T_{\text{assign}}$

T_{assign}

$T_{\text{assign}} + T_{\text{arith}}$

$T_{\text{comp}} + T_{\text{cond}}$ (last check of loop)

T_{return}

Running time

repeated

stop-start

times

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Worst case running time

- Running time depends on $n = \text{stop} - \text{start} + 1$
 - But it also depends on the content of the array!
- What kind of array of n elements will give the worst running time?

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Example:

5	4	3	2	1	0
---	---	---	---	---	---

- The best running time?

Example:

0	1	2	3	4	5
---	---	---	---	---	---

More assumptions

- Counting each type of primitive operations is tedious
- The running time of each operation is roughly comparable:

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$T_{\text{assign}} \approx T_{\text{comp}} \approx$ primitive operation

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- We are only in terms of primitive operations performed

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Worst-case running time for findMin becomes:

$$T(n) = 8 + 10 * n$$

Selection Sort

Algorithm SelectionSort(A,n) Primitive operations

Input: an array A of n elements (worst case) :

Output: the array is sorted

$i \leftarrow 0$

while ($i < n$) **do** { <https://eduassistpro.github.io/>
 $\text{minindex} \leftarrow \text{findMin}(A, i, n - (n-1-i+1)) = 3 + (10(n-i) - 2)$
 $t \leftarrow A[\text{minindex}]$
 $A[\text{minindex}] \leftarrow A[i]$ 3
 $A[i] \leftarrow t$ 2
 $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 2
} 2 (last check of loop condition)

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Selection Sort: adding it up

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Total: } T(n) &= 1 + \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 12 + 10(n-i) \right) + 2 \\
 &= 3 + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (12 + 10(n-i)) \\
 &= 3 + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (12 + 10n - 10i) \\
 &= 3 + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 12 + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 10n - \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} 10i \\
 &= 3 + 12n + 10n \cdot n - 10 \cdot \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \\
 &= 3 + 12n + 10n^2 - 5n^2 + 5n \\
 &= 5n^2 + 17n + 3
 \end{aligned}$$

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More simplifications

We have: $T(n) = 5n^2 + 17n + 3$

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Simplification

When n is large | <https://eduassistpro.github.io/>

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Simplification #2:

When n is large, $T(n)$ grows approximately like n^2

We will write $T(n)$ is $O(n^2)$

“ $T(n)$ is big O of n squared”

Asymptotic behavior

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Towards a formal definition of big O

Let $t(n)$ be a function that describes the time it takes for some algorithm on input size n .

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We would like to express $t(n)$ in terms of n , as n becomes large i.e. asymptotically.

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Unlike with limits, we want to say that $t(n)$ grows like certain *simpler* functions such as $\sqrt{n}, \log_2 n, n, n^2, 2^n \dots$

Preliminary Definition

Let $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ be two functions, where $n \geq 0$. We say $t(n)$ is *asymptotically bounded above* by $g(n)$ if there exists n_0 such that, for all

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$t(n) \leq$
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WARNING: This is not yet a formal definition!

for all $n \geq n_0$, $t(n) \leq g(n)$

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Example

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Example

Claim: $5n + 70$ is asymptotically bounded above by $6n$.

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Proof:

(State definition) <https://eduassistpro.github.io/> in n_0 such

that, for all $n \geq n_0$, $5n + 70 \leq 6n$
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$$5n + 70 \leq 6n$$

$$\Leftrightarrow 70 \leq n$$

Thus, we can use $n_0 = 70$

Symbol " \Leftrightarrow " means "if and only if" i.e. logical equivalence

Choosing a function and constants

(A)

(B)

(C)

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Motivation

We would like to express formally how some function $t(n)$ grows with n , as n becomes large.

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We would like to compare $t(n)$ with simpler functions, $g(n)$, such as \sqrt{n} , 2^n , ...

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Formal Definition

Let $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ be two functions, where $n \geq 0$.

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We say $t(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there exist positive constants n_0 and c such that for all $n \geq n_0$,
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 $t(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$

Note: $g(n)$ will be a simple function, but this is not required in the definition.

Intuition

“ $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ ” if and only if there exists a point n_0 beyond which $f(n)$ is less than some fixed constant times $g(n)$.

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Example (1)

Claim: $5 \cdot n + 70$ is $O(n)$

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Proof(s)

Claim: $5 \cdot n + 70$ is $O(n)$

Proof 1: $5 \cdot n + 70 \leq 5 \cdot n + 70 \cdot n = 75 \cdot n$, if $n \geq 1$

Thus, take

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Proof 2: $5 \cdot n + 70 \leq 5 \cdot n + 6 \cdot n = 11 \cdot n$, if $n \geq 12$

Thus, take $c = 11$ and n_0

Proof 3: $5 \cdot n + 70 \leq 5 \cdot n + n = 6 \cdot n$, if $n \geq 70$

Thus, take $c = 6$ and $n_0 = 70$.

All these proofs are correct and show that $5 \cdot n + 70$ is $O(n)$

Visualization

(A)

(B)

(C)

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Example (2)

Claim: $8 \cdot n^2 - 17n + 46$ is $O(n^2)$.

Proof 1: $8n^2 - 17n + 46 \leq 8n^2 + 54n + 54$, if $n \geq 1$

Thus, we can take $c = 62$.

Proof 2: $8n^2 - 17n + 46 \leq 8n^2$, if $n \geq 3$

Thus, we can take $c = 8$ and $n_0 = 3$.

What does $O(1)$ mean?

We say $t(n)$ is $O(1)$, if there exist two positive constants n_0 and c such that, f

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Add WeChat $t(n) \leq$ edu_assist_pro

So, it just means that $t(n)$ is bounded.

Tips

Never write $O(3n)$, $O(5 \log_2 n)$, etc.

Instead, write $O(n)$ ($O(\log n)$)

Why? The point of the big O notation is to ignore constant factors. It's technically correct but we don't do it...

Other considerations

- n_0 and c are not *uniquely* defined. For a given n_0 and c that satisfies $O()$, we can increase one or both to again satisfy the definition. A “better” choice of constants.
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- **However**, we generally want a “tight” upper bound (asymptotically), so functions in the big O gives us more information (Note: This is not the same as smaller n_0 or c). For instance, $f(n)$ that is $O(n)$ is also $O(n^2)$ and $O(2^n)$. But $O(n)$ is more informative.

Growth of functions

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(from stackoverflow)

Tip: It is helpful to memorize the relationship between basic functions.

Practical meaning of big O...

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If the unit is in seconds, this would make $\sim 10^{11}$ years...

Constant Factor rule

Suppose $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ and a is a positive constant.
Then, $a \cdot f(n)$ is also $O(g(n))$.

Proof: By definition, there exists two positive constants n_0 and c such that $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

Thus, $a \cdot f(n) \leq a \cdot c \cdot g(n)$

We use the constant $a \cdot c$ to show that $a \cdot f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$.

Sum rule

Suppose $f_1(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ and $f_2(n)$ is $O(g(n))$.

Then, $f_1(n) + f_2(n)$ is $O(g(n))$.

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Proof: Let n_1, c_1 and n_2, c_2 be constants such that

$$f_1(n) \leq c_1 g(n), \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_1$$

$$f_2(n) \leq c_2 g(n), \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_2$$

So, $f_1(n) + f_2(n) \leq (c_1 + c_2)g(n)$, for all $n \geq \max(n_1, n_2)$.

We can use the constants $c_1 + c_2$ and $\max(n_1, n_2)$ to satisfy the definition.

Generalized Sum rule

Suppose $f_1(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ and $f_2(n)$ is $O(g(n))$.

Then, $f_1(n) + f_2(n)$ is $O(g(n))$.

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Proof: Exercise...

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Product Rule

Suppose $f_1(n)$ is $O(g_1(n))$ and $f_2(n)$ is $O(g_2(n))$.

Then, $f_1(n) \cdot f_2(n)$ is $O(g_1(n) \cdot g_2(n))$.

Proof: Let n_1, c_1 <https://eduassistpro.github.io/> ch that

$$f_1(n) \leq c_1 g_1(n), \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_1$$

$$f_2(n) \leq c_2 g_2(n), \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_2$$

So, $f_1(n) \cdot f_2(n) \leq (c_1 \cdot c_2) \cdot (g_1(n) \cdot g_2(n))$, for all $n \geq \max(n_1, n_2)$.

We can use the constants $c_1 \cdot c_2$ and $\max(n_1, n_2)$ to satisfy the definition.

Transitivity Rule

Suppose $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ and $g(n)$ is $O(h(n))$.

Then, $f(n)$ is $O(h(n))$.

Proof: Let n_1, c_1 <https://eduassistpro.github.io/> ch that

$$f(n) \leq c_1 g(n), \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_1$$

$$g(n) \leq c_2 h(n), \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_2$$

So, $f(n) \leq (c_1 \cdot c_2)h(n)$, for all $n \geq \max(n_1, n_2)$.

We can use the constants $c_1 \cdot c_2$ and $\max(n_1, n_2)$ to satisfy the definition.

Notations

If $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$, we often write $f(n) \in O(g(n))$. That is a member of the functions that are $O(g(n))$.

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For n sufficiently large, $\frac{1}{2}n < n < n \log_2 n \dots$
And we write $O(n)$ for $O(n)$, $O(n \log_2 n)$ for $O(n \log_2 n) \dots$

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The Big Omega notation (Ω)

Let $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ be two functions with $n \geq 0$.

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We say $t(n)$ is Ω () positives
constants n_0 and c ,
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$$t(n) \geq c \cdot g(n)$$

Note: This is the opposite of the big O notation. The function g is now used as a "lower bound".

Example

Claim: $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$ is $\Omega(n^2)$.

Proof: We show $\frac{n(n-1)}{2} \geq \frac{1}{4}n^2$ for $n \geq 2$.
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$$\Leftrightarrow n \geq 2$$

Thus, we take $c = \frac{1}{4}$ and $n_0 = 2$.

(Exercise: Prove that it also works with $c = \frac{1}{3}$ and $n_0 = 3$.)

Intuition

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And... big Theta!

Let $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ be two functions, where $n \geq 0$.

We say $t(n)$ is $\Theta(g(n))$ if there exists three positive constants n_0 and c_1, c_2 such that, for all $n \geq n_0$,

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Note: if $t(n)$ is $\Theta(g(n))$. Then, it is also $O(g(n))$ and $\Omega(g(n))$.

Example

Let $t(n) = 4 + 17 \log_2 n + 3n + 9n \log_2 n + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}$

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Claim: $t(n)$ is $\Theta(\frac{n^2}{2})$

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Proof: Add WeChat edu_assist_pro

$$\frac{n^2}{4} \leq t(n) \leq (4 + 17 + 3 + 9 + \frac{1}{2}) \cdot n^2$$

Big vs. little

The big O (resp. big Ω) denotes a tight upper (resp. lower) bounds, while the little o (resp. little ω) denotes a loose upper (resp. lower) bounds.

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Back to running time analysis

The time it takes for an algorithm to run depends on:

- constant factor (independent)
- the size n of t
- the values of the input, including applicable...

Q: What are the best and worst cases?

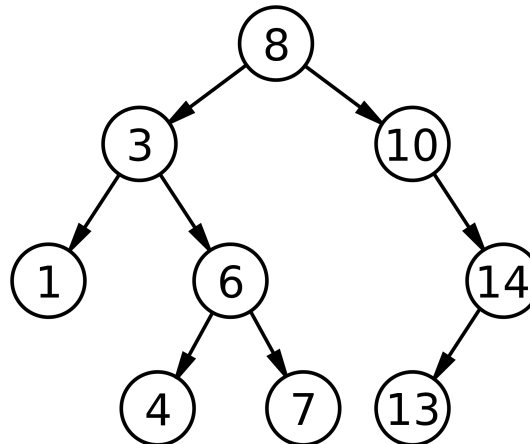
Example (Binary Search)

Best case: The value is exactly in the middle of the array.

$\Rightarrow \Omega(1)$
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Worst case: You reach an array of size 1 (Note: It doesn't matter if you reach the key or not).

$\Rightarrow O(\log n)$
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(from Wikipedia)