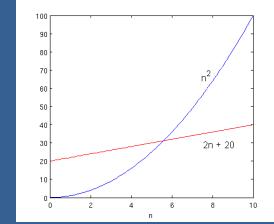


COMPSCI 130

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

2 – Asymptotic Analysis

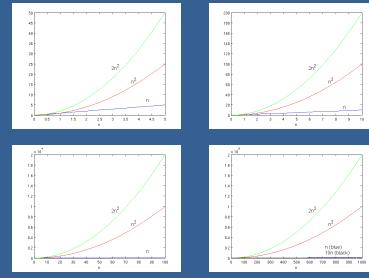
Comparing Functions



Big O

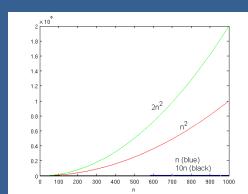
- Defined:
 $f(n) = O(g(n))$ means $f(n) \leq c g(n)$ for some c , all n
- The *asymptotic complexity* of f is upper bounded by g

Asymptotic Complexity Illustrated



Asymptotic Dominance

- At large scales, constant scaling of $O(n^2)$ curves is unchanged
- $O(n)$ curves vanish in comparison



Upper and Lower Bounds

- Formally, $O(g)$ defines an *upper bound* on complexity
- Other notation exists for
 - lower boundedness (big Ω);
 $f = \Omega(g) \Rightarrow g = O(f)$
 $\Rightarrow \exists c: f \geq cg$
 - lower/upper boundedness (big Θ)
 $f = \Theta(g) \Rightarrow f = O(g), f = \Omega(g)$
 $\Rightarrow \exists c_1, c_2: c_1 g \leq f \leq c_2 g$

Common Usage

- Informally, we often use O to mean O , Ω , or Θ
 - Depends on context
 - Generically implies either O or Θ
- In literature, meaning is usually made explicit:
 - f is upper bounded by g
 - f has worst-case complexity of $O(g)$
 - f has best-case complexity of $O(g)$ (i.e. $f = \Omega(g)$)
 - note: f possibly unknown!

Notation Propagation

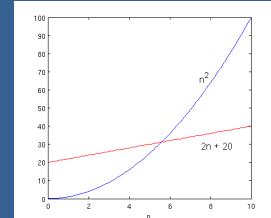
- Even more notation has been devised to designate whether or not a bound is tight
 - bound is tight $\Leftrightarrow f = O(g)$ and $g = O(f)$
 - little o , ω versus big O , Ω
- Nobody uses this outside textbooks
- Instead, tightness is made explicit

Simplifying

- Use the simplest expression
- E.g., lower order polynomials can be ignored because they are completely dominated by higher order polynomials
 - $O(n)$ not $O(n + c)$
 - $O(n^2)$ not $O(n^2 + n + c)$

Example

$$n^2 + 2n + 20 = O(n^2)$$



Growth of Various Functions

n	1	10	100	1000	10^6
$\log(n)$	0	1	2	3	6
\sqrt{n}	1	3.16	10	31.62	1000
$n \log(n)$	1	10	200	3000	6×10^6
n^2	1	100	10^4	10^6	10^{12}
2^n	2	1024	$\sim 10^{30}$	$\sim 10^{300}$	Forget it!

Computation Time

Assuming 2×10^{10} operations/second
(approximately the FP performance of a modern Intel desktop chip)

n	10	50	100	10^6	10^9	10^{12}
n	< 1 ns	< 1 ns	< 1 ns	50 μs	50 ms	50 s
$n \log(n)$	< 1 ns	< 1 ns	1 ns	300 ms	450 ms	10 min
n^2	< 1 ns	125 ns	500 ns	50 s	1.6 years	1.6 million years
2^n	50 ns	16 hours	1.5 trillion years			

↑
Datasets of size 10^6 and above are now commonplace!
↑
 $\#$ of unique URLs seen by Google indexer

Rules of Thumb

- Drop constant factors
- Drop lower order polynomials
- Any polynomials dominate any logarithms
- Exponential functions (x^n) dominate polynomials
- x^n dominates y^n for $x > y$

A Word About Logarithms

- Conventionally, \log means \log_{10}
 - For this course, \log usually means \log_2
 - The distinction is unimportant in big O because $\log_k(x) = \log_2(x)/\log_2(k)$
- $\log(n)$ is
 - the power to which you raise 2 to get n
 - the number of times you divide n by 2 to get to 1
 - max height of a binary tree with n nodes
 - number of bits required to represent n

Some Useful Identities

$$\begin{array}{ll} \log 2^n = n & 2^{\log n} = n \\ \log x^y = y \log x & (2^x)^y = 2^{(xy)} \\ \log xy = \log x + \log y & 2^x 2^y = 2^{(x+y)} \end{array}$$

Example

$$\begin{aligned} f &= n^2 + 2n + 20 \\ g &= n^2 \end{aligned}$$

Divide f / g
 $= 1 + 2/n + 20/n^2$
 < 23 for all n
 $f < 23g \Rightarrow f = O(g)$

By inspection, we also have $g = O(f)$

Example

2^n vs 3^n

Claim: $2^n = O(3^n)$, but not the reverse.

Proof:

By inspection, $2^n < c 3^n$ is true for all n when $c = 1$ so $2^n = O(3^n)$.

Now, suppose $2^n = O(3^n)$. This implies $3^n < c 2^n$ for some c and all n . Then

$3^n/2^n < c$ for all n
 but it is easy to see that
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 3^n/2^n = \infty$,

so we can always choose an n that contradicts our assumption. \square

Example

Claim: $\log n$ is $O(\sqrt[k]{n})$ for all k , but not the reverse

Proof:
 To start, raise both sides to the power of k .
 We want c such that:

$$\begin{aligned} \log^k n &\leq c^k n \\ \log^k n/n &\leq c^k \\ \ln^k n/n &\leq (c \ln 2)^k \end{aligned}$$

Let's find the maxima of the left hand side. Taking the derivative and setting to zero:

$$\begin{aligned} k \ln^{k-1} n / n^2 - \ln^k n / n^2 &= 0 \\ k \ln^{k-1} n &= \ln^k n \\ k &= \ln n \\ e^k &= n \end{aligned}$$

A second derivative test will verify that this is a maximum and not a minimum.

Example (con't)

Claim: $\log n$ is $O(\sqrt[k]{n})$ for all k , but not the reverse

Recall we want c such that:

$$\ln^k n / n \leq (c \ln 2)^k$$

and we found that the LHS is maximized at $n = e^k$.

[Rather than doing all of this again in reverse, note that we can easily show that the LHS has no minimum; this implies that we cannot find a constant c such that the inequality is reversed.]

The existence of a maximum completes the proof; plugging back in, we can also find the correct constant, c :

$$\begin{aligned} \ln^k e^k / e^k &= (c \ln 2)^k \\ k^k / e^k &= (c \ln 2)^k \\ k / (e \ln 2) &= c \end{aligned}$$

When Constants Matter

- If crossover point is at a point with high enough costs, it may pay to mix algorithms
e.g., use a simple n^2 sort inside recursive $n \log n$ sort when n gets very small
- If two algorithms have the same asymptotic costs, the one with the lower constants wins

Other Useful Formulas

$$n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} (n/e)^n \quad (\text{Stirling's approximation})$$

$$1 + 2 + \dots + n = n(n+1)/2 \quad (\text{Gauss' formula})$$

$$1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots + x^n = (x^{n+1} - 1)/(x - 1)$$

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots = 2$$

$$1 + 1/2 + 1/3 + 1/4 + \dots + 1/n = \ln n + O(1)$$

Big O in Recurrence

- Be careful to not simplify O's in recurrence – it does not reduce (constants matter!)
- Example

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= T(n-1) + O(1) \\ T(n) &= O(1) + O(2) + \dots + \\ &\quad = O(1) + O(1) + \dots \\ &\quad = O(1) \quad \text{wrong!} \end{aligned}$$

A better notation might be $T(n) = O(1 + 2 + \dots + n)$