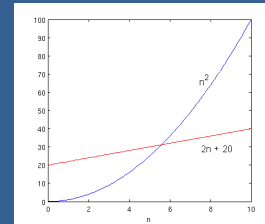


COMPSCI 130  
Design and Analysis of Algorithms  
2 – Asymptotic Analysis

## Comparing Functions

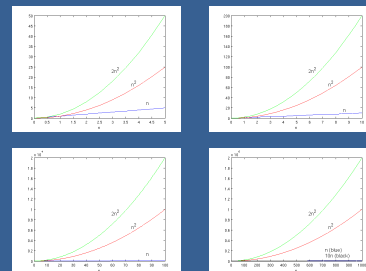


$2n + 20$  vs  $n^2$

## Big O

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

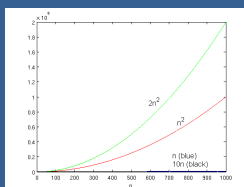
## Asymptotic Complexity Illustrated



$n$ ,  $n^2$ , and  $2n^2$   
 $\max(n) = 5, 10, 100, \text{ and } 1000$   
 $n = O(n^2)$ ; also  $2n^2 = O(n^2)$

## 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  $\Omega$ );  
 $f = \Omega(g) \Rightarrow g = O(f)$   
 $\Rightarrow \exists c: f \geq cg$
  - lower/upper boundedness (big  $\Theta$ )  
 $f = \Omega(g) \Rightarrow f = O(g), f = \Omega(g)$   
 $\Rightarrow \exists c, d: dg \leq f \leq cg$

## Common Usage

- Informally, we often use  $O$  to mean  $O$ ,  $\Omega$ , or  $\Theta$ 
  - Depends on context
  - Generically implies either  $O$  or  $\Theta$
- 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

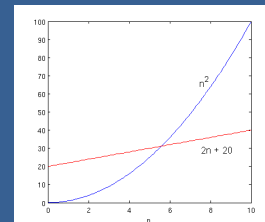
- Even more notation has been devised to designate whether or not a bound is tight
  - bound is tight  $\Leftrightarrow f = O(g)$  and  $g = O(f)$
  - little  $o$ ,  $\omega$  versus big  $O$ ,  $\Omega$
- Nobody uses this outside textbooks
- Instead, tightness is made explicit

## 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 <sup>6</sup>
log(n)	0	1	2	3	6
√n	1	3.16	10	31.62	1000
n log(n)	1	10	200	3000	6 x 10 <sup>6</sup>
n <sup>2</sup>	1	100	10 <sup>4</sup>	10 <sup>6</sup>	10 <sup>12</sup>
2 <sup>n</sup>	2	1024	~10 <sup>30</sup>	~10 <sup>300</sup>	Forget it!

## Computation Time

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

n	10	50	100	10 <sup>6</sup>	10 <sup>8</sup>	10 <sup>12</sup>
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 <sup>2</sup>	< 1 ns	125 ns	500 ns	50 s	1.6 years	1.6 million years
2 <sup>n</sup>	50 ns	16 hours	1.5 trillion years			

↑  
Datasets of size 10<sup>6</sup> 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  $\log_2(x) = \log_k(x)/\log_k(2)$
- $\log(n)$  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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Divide } f / g \\ &= 1 + 2/n + 20/n^2 \\ &< 23 \text{ for all } n \\ f < 23g &\Rightarrow f = O(g) \end{aligned}$$

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

Now, suppose  $2^n = O(3^n)$ . This implies  $3^n < c \cdot 2^n$  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:

$$k \ln^{k-1} n / n^2 - \ln^k n / n^2 = 0$$

$$k \ln^{k-1} n = \ln^k n$$

$$k = \ln n$$

$$e^k = n$$

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

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

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

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

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

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} = \ln n + O(1)$$

### Big O in Recurrence

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

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

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