

Chapter 3

The Fundamentals: Algorithms

- This is a one-lecture introductory material on “Analysis of Algorithms”.
- This introductory material is enough for a first course in “Data Structures” for sophomores.
- More “Analysis of Algorithms” is taught in “Algorithms course.”
- Good references for analysis of algorithms are:
 1. Rosen (2007), which we follow in this chapter.
 2. Knuth (1997), an indispensable resource.
 3. Mahmoud (1992, 2000), for probabilistic analysis of sorting and random search trees.

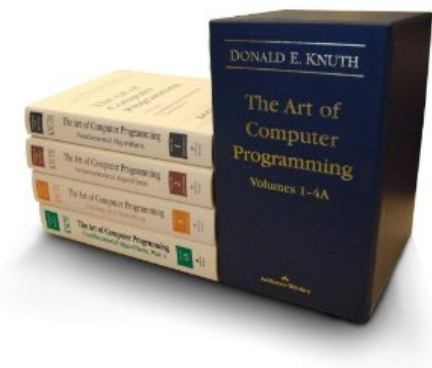
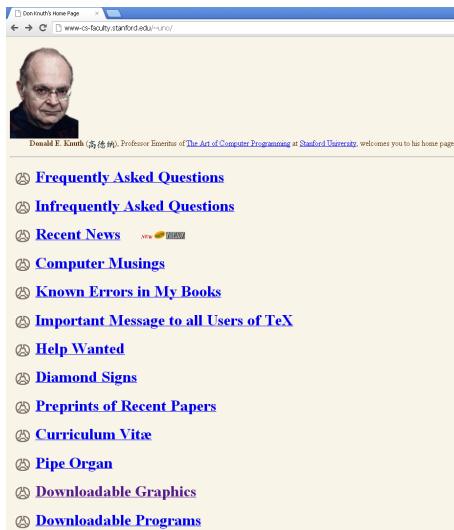


al-Khwārizmi, in full Muḥammad ibn Mūsā al-Khwārizmi (born c. 780, Baghdad, Iraq—died c. 850), Muslim mathematician and astronomer whose major works introduced Hindu-Arabic numerals and the concepts of algebra into European mathematics.

al-Khwārizmi's work on elementary algebra, *al-Kitāb al-mukhtaṣar fī ḥisab al-jabr wa l-muqābala* ("The Compendious Book on Calculation by Completion and Balancing"), was translated into Latin in the 12th century, from which the title and term *Algebra* derives

... a second work by al-Khwārizmi introduced Hindu-Arabic numerals and their arithmetic to the West. It is preserved only in a Latin translation, *Algoritmi de numero Indorum* ("Al-Khwārizmi Concerning the Hindu Art of Reckoning"). From the name of the author, rendered in Latin as *algoritmi*, originated the term *algorithm*.¹

¹"al-Khwarizmi". Encyclopedia Britannica Online. Retrieved 30 October, 2012, from <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/317171/al-Khwarizmi>



Donald Ervin Knuth, (born Jan. 10, 1938, Milwaukee, Wis., U.S.), American mathematician and computer scientist.

A pioneer in computer science, he took time out during the 1970s from writing his highly acclaimed multi-volume *The Art of Computer Programming* in order to develop TeX, a document-preparation system.²

²“Donald Ervin Knuth”. Encyclopedia Britannica Online. Retrieved 30 October, 2012, from <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/1380467/Donald-Ervin-Knuth>

3.2 The Growth of Functions

- Used extensively to analyze algorithms.
- How algorithms behave with large size input?
- Algorithm A takes $100n^2 + 17n + 4$ steps; Algorithm B takes n^3 ; which is faster?
- Big- O (big-oh) notation.
- Big- O was used by mathematicians Edmund Landau and Paul Bachmann then introduced to Computer Science by Knuth.

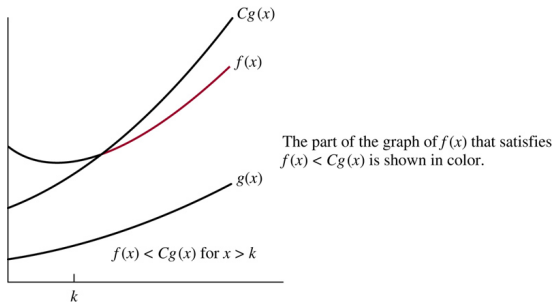
Big-O Notation

Definition 1 Let f and g be functions from the set of integers or the set of real numbers to the set of real numbers. We say that $f(x)$ is $O(g(x))$ or $f(x) = O(g(x))$ (read as: “ $f(x)$ is big-oh of $g(x)$ ”) if there are constants C and k such that

$$|f(x)| \leq C |g(x)|, \forall x > k.$$

$$\frac{|f(x)|}{|g(x)|} \leq C, \forall x > k.$$

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You can think of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ as the number of steps of two different sorting algorithms and x is the number of elements.

Example 2 Show that $f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$ is $O(x^2)$.

$$0 \leq x^2 + 2x + 1 \leq x^2 + 2x^2 + x^2 \quad (\forall x \geq 1) \\ = 4x^2.$$

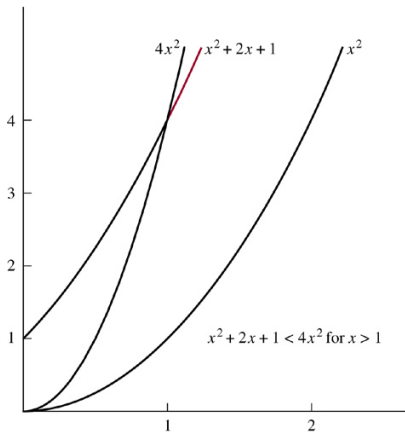
Then, $k = 1$ and $C = 4$.

Notice, it is also true that

$$x^2 < x^2 + 2x + 1, \forall x > 0.$$

Then, $x^2 = O(x^2 + 2x + 1)$; which said to have same order (coming later).

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The part of the graph of $f(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$ that satisfies $f(x) < 4x^2$ is shown in color.

$$x^2 + 2x + 1 < 4x^2 \text{ for } x > 1$$

Corollary 3 *If $f(x) = O(g(x))$ and $h(x) > g(x)$ for sufficiently large x , it follows that $f(x) = O(h(x))$*

Proof. Since $f(x) = O(g(x))$, then there exist C and k such that

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x)| &\leq C |g(x)|, \forall x > k, \\ &\leq C |h(x)|, \forall x > \max(k, x') \\ &= C |h(x)|, \forall x > k' \\ f(x) &= O(h(x)). \end{aligned}$$

■

Notes:

- $x^2 + 2x + 1 = O(x^2)$; also it is $O(x^3)$.
- All functions used in the sequel are positive; hence we can drop $|\cdot|$.
- Shortly, x and $f(x)$ will denote problem size and algorithm complexity.

Example 4 Show that n^2 is not $O(n)$.

Suppose that $n^2 = O(n)$, then there exist n' and C such that

$$n^2 < Cn, \forall n > n',$$

which means

$$n < C, \forall n > n',$$

which is a contradiction.

Some Important Big-O Results

Theorem 5 Let $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots + a_n x^n$, where a_i are real numbers. Then $f(x) = O(x^n)$.

Proof. We consider $x > 1$, then

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x)| &= |a_0 + a_1 x + \cdots + a_n x^n| \\ &\leq |a_0| + |a_1 x| + \cdots + |a_n x^n| \quad (\text{triangle inequality}) \\ &= |a_0| + |a_1| x + \cdots + |a_n| x^n \\ &= x^n (|a_0| / x^n + |a_1| / x^{n-1} + \cdots + |a_n|) \\ &\leq x^n (|a_0| + |a_1| + \cdots + |a_n|) \\ &= Cx^n. \end{aligned}$$

■

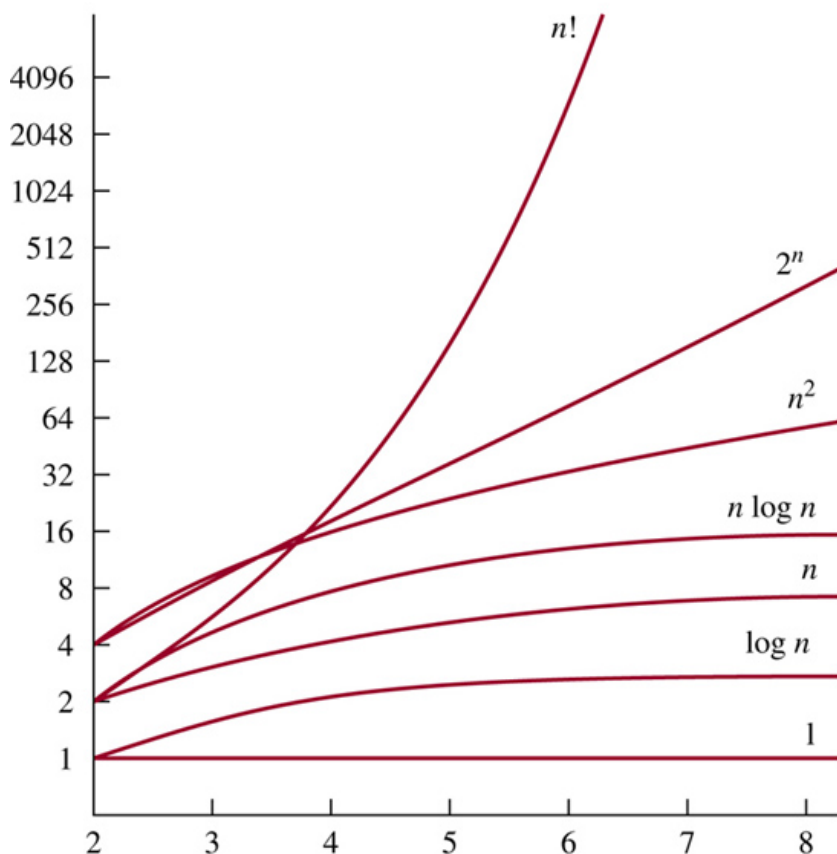
Example 6 Big-O can be used, even, to approximate mathematical expressions.

$$\begin{aligned} S_n &= 1 + 2 + \cdots + n \\ &\leq n + n + \cdots + n \\ &= n^2 \\ S_n &= O(n^2). \end{aligned}$$

However, no guarantee that this is the lower bound!

Let's proof the following trends:

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Notice that this is a log-scale.

We know that

$$\binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} + \cdots + \binom{n}{n} = (1+1)^n = 2^n$$
$$n < 2^n$$

$$\log n < n \quad (\text{base } 2)$$

Particularly, for $n > 2$

$$1 < \log n < n$$
$$n < n \log n < n^2$$

For $n \geq 4$,

$$2 \cdot 2 \cdots 2 < 1 \cdot 2 \cdots n < n \cdot n \cdots n$$
$$2^n < n! < n^n$$
$$n < \log n! < n \log n.$$

All the above are O relationships with $C = 1$. What is very interesting is that we can show that (at the end) $n \log n \leq 2 \log n!$, as well. Therefore, they are of the same order:

$$\log n! = O(n \log n),$$
$$n \log n = O(\log n!).$$

Proof of $n \log n = O(\log n!)$.

$$\begin{aligned}n! &= n \cdot (n-1) \cdots 1 \\&= 1 \cdot 2 \cdots n \\(n!)^2 &= (n \cdot 1) ((n-1) \cdot 2) \cdots (1 \cdot n) \\&= \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} (n-i)(i+1). \\&\geq \prod_{i=0}^{n-1} n && \text{(easy to show)} \\&= n^n\end{aligned}$$

$$2 \log n! \geq n \log n.$$

$$\begin{aligned}n &\leq (n-i)(i+1) && \equiv \\n &\leq ni + n - i^2 - i && \equiv \\0 &\leq (n-i-1)i && \Rightarrow \\0 &\leq i \leq n-1.\end{aligned}$$

■

Proof of $n^2 < 2^n$. base: for $n = 5$, $5^2 < 2^5$.

induction: Suppose the statement is true for some $n \geq 5$;
i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned}n^2 &< 2^n, \\(n+1)^2 &= n^2 + 2n + 1 \\&< n^2 + n^2 && (n^2 > 2n + 1 \ \forall n \geq 3) \\&= 2n^2 \\&< 2 \cdot 2^n \\&= 2^{(n+1)}.\end{aligned}$$

Hence, it is true for all $n \geq 5$. ■

A more general proof for n^m is given next:

Proof of $n^m < 2^n$. We show that $\forall m, \exists n_0(m)$ such that $n^m < 2^n \forall n > n_0$. Let's see Mathematica Notebook.

base: We need to get a base value n_0 , such that $n_0^m < 2^{n_0}$. Take $n_0 = 2^m$; indeed

$$(2^m)^m = 2^{m^2} < 2^{2^m},$$

if $m^2 < 2^m$; which was proven for $m \geq 5$.

induction: Suppose it is true for **some** $n \geq n_0$; i.e.,

$$n^m < 2^n, \quad n_0 \leq n.$$

$$\begin{aligned} (n+1)^m &= n^m + \binom{m}{1}n^{m-1} + \dots + \binom{m}{m} \\ &= n^m + n^{m-1} \left(\binom{m}{1} + \binom{m}{2}/n + \dots + \binom{m}{m}/n^{m-1} \right) \\ &< n^m + n^{m-1} \left(\binom{m}{0} + \binom{m}{1} + \binom{m}{2} + \dots + \binom{m}{m} \right) \\ &= n^m + n^{m-1} 2^m \\ &\leq n^m + n^{m-1} n \quad (2^m = n_0 \leq n \text{ is used}) \\ &= 2n^m \\ &< 2 \cdot 2^n \\ &= 2^{n+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, for $m \geq 5$, we proved that $n^m < 2^n \forall n \geq 2^m$; and since, $\forall n > 1$, $n^{m_1} < n^{m_2}$ when $m_1 < m_2$, then the statement is true for every m . ■

The Growth of Combinations of Functions

Theorem 7 Suppose $f_1(x) = O(g_1(x))$ and $f_2(x) = O(g_2(x))$. Then $(f_1 + f_2)(x) = O(\max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|))$.

Proof.

$$|f_1(x)| \leq C_1 |g_1(x)|, \forall x > k_1$$

$$|f_2(x)| \leq C_2 |g_2(x)|, \forall x > k_2$$

$$\begin{aligned} |f_1(x) + f_2(x)| &\leq |f_1(x)| + |f_2(x)| \quad (\text{triangle inequality}) \\ &\leq C_1 |g_1(x)| + C_2 |g_2(x)|, \forall x > \max(k_1, k_2). \\ &\leq (C_1 + C_2) \max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|), \forall x > k \\ &= C \max(|g_1(x)|, |g_2(x)|), \forall x > k. \end{aligned}$$

■

Theorem 8 Suppose that $f_1(x) = O(g_1(x))$ and $f_2(x) = O(g_2(x))$. Then $(f_1 f_2)(x) = O(g_1(x) g_2(x))$.

Proof.

$$|f_1(x)| \leq C_1 |g_1(x)|, \forall x > k_1$$

$$|f_2(x)| \leq C_2 |g_2(x)|, \forall x > k_2$$

$$\begin{aligned} |f_1(x) f_2(x)| &= |f_1(x)| |f_2(x)| \\ &\leq C_1 |g_1(x)| C_2 |g_2(x)|, \forall x > \max(k_1, k_2) \\ &= C |g_1(x) g_2(x)|, \forall x > k. \end{aligned}$$

■

Motivation:

- E.g., One program is composed of two sequential algorithms.
- Estimates using O , frequently is easier than exact calculations.

Example 9 *A program has two sequential pieces of code, one is $3n \log(n!)$ steps followed by $(n^2 + 3) \log n$ steps. Approximately, what is the order of number of steps of the whole program.?*

$$\begin{aligned} f(n) &= \underline{3n \log(n!)} + \underline{(n^2 + 3) \log n} & (“=” \equiv “equal”) \\ &= \underline{O(n)} O(n \log n) + \underline{O(n^2)} O(\log n) & (“=” \equiv “is”) \\ &= O(n^2 \log n) + O(n^2 \log n) \\ &= O(n^2 \log n). \end{aligned}$$

Example 10

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= (x+1) \log(x^2 + 1) + 3x^2 \\ &\leq (x+1) \log(2x^2) + 3x^2 & (\forall x \geq 1) \\ &= (x+1) (\log 2 + 2 \log x) + 3x^2 \\ &= O(x \log x) + O(x^2) \\ &= O(x^2). \end{aligned}$$

Big- Ω (Big-Omega) and Big- Θ (Big-Theta)

Notation

- If O gives an upper bound, Ω gives a lower bound, and Θ gives both.
- This is a remedy for abusing O ; e.g., $x = O(x^{10})$ of course :)

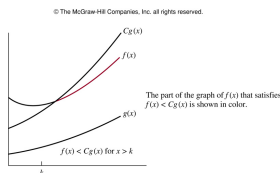
Definition 11 Let f and g be functions from $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We say that $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$ if $\exists C, k$ such that

$$|f(x)| \geq C|g(x)|, \forall x > k.$$

Corollary 12 Let f and g be functions from $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then, $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$ if and only if $g(x) = O(f(x))$.

Proof. The proof is trivial

$$|f(x)| \geq C|g(x)|, \forall x > k \iff |g(x)| \leq \frac{1}{C}|f(x)|, \forall x > k$$
$$f(x) = \Omega(g(x)) \iff g(x) = O(f(x))$$



Definition 13 Let f and g be functions from $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We say that $f(x) = \Theta(g(x))$ (or, $f(x)$ is of order $g(x)$) if $f(x) = O(g(x))$ and $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$.

Notice that (using the corollary above):

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) = \Theta(g(x)) &\equiv f(x) = O(g(x)) \ \& \ f(x) = \Omega(g(x)) \\ &\iff g(x) = \Omega(f(x)) \ \& \ g(x) = O(f(x)) \\ &\equiv g(x) = \Theta(f(x)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) = \Theta(g(x)) &\equiv f(x) = O(g(x)) \ \& \ f(x) = \Omega(g(x)) \\ &\iff f(x) = O(g(x)) \ \& \ g(x) = O(f(x)) \end{aligned}$$

Example 14 We showed above that $S_n (= 1 + 2 + \cdots + n) = O(n^2)$. Is this bound exaggerated? What is its lower bound? What is its exact order?

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_n &\geq \lceil n/2 \rceil + (\lceil n/2 \rceil + 1) + \cdots + n \\
 &\geq \lceil n/2 \rceil + \lceil n/2 \rceil + \cdots + \lceil n/2 \rceil \\
 &= (n - \lceil n/2 \rceil + 1) \lceil n/2 \rceil \\
 &\geq (n/2) (n/2) \\
 &= n^2/4 \\
 &= \Omega(n^2).
 \end{aligned}$$

This proves that $S_n = \Theta(n^2)$. Compare to the exact formula:

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

Theorem 15 Suppose $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$, i.e., a polynomial of degree n , where $a_i \neq 0$. Then

$$f(x) = \Theta(x^n).$$

Proof. We proved $f(x) = O(x^n)$. Let's show $f(x) = \Omega(x)$.

$$|f(x)| = \left| \sum_{i=1}^n a_i x^i \right|,$$

OLOG, $a_n > 0$; otherwise $|\sum_{i=1}^n -a_i x^i| = |\sum_{i=1}^n a_i x^i|$.

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x)| &= \left| \sum_{a_i > 0} a_i x^i - \sum_{a_i < 0} |a_i| x^i \right| \\ &\geq \sum_{a_i > 0} a_i x^i - \sum_{a_i < 0} |a_i| x^i \\ &\geq a_n x^n - \sum_{a_i < 0} |a_i| x^{n-1} \quad (\forall x > 1) \\ &= a_n x^n - s x^{n-1}. \end{aligned}$$

We can say $a_n x^n - s x^{n-1} > c x^n$ iff

$$\begin{aligned} (a_n - c) x^n &> s x^{n-1} \\ x &> \frac{s}{a_n - c} \quad (c < a_n) \end{aligned}$$

$$|f(x)| > c x^n \quad \forall 0 < c < a_n, \quad x > \frac{s}{a_n - c}$$

$$|f(x)| = \Omega(x^n).$$

■

Example 16 Show that $H_n = O(\log n)$, where H_n is the n^{th} harmonic number

$$H_n = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n}.$$

By drawing the curve $y = 1/x$, $x \geq 1$, we observe that

$$\sum_{j=2}^n \frac{1}{j} < \int_1^n \frac{1}{x} dx.$$

$$H_n = 1 + \sum_{j=2}^n \frac{1}{j}$$

$$< 1 + \int_1^n \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= 1 + \ln n$$

$$< 2 \ln n = \left(\frac{2}{\log e} \right) \log n \quad (\ln \text{ for base } e.)$$

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

3.3 Complexity of Algorithms (Analysis of Algorithms)

- Time complexity: time required for solving the problem.
- Space complexity: memory required for solving the problem.

Let's stick now to the Analysis of Algorithms concerning Time Complexity.

Time Complexity

Definition 17 (Time Complexity) *of an algorithm is expressed in terms of the number of basic operations used by the algorithm when the input has a particular size.*

Very Important Comments:

- We defined *Time Complexity* in number of steps, not absolute time, not to be machine dependent.

- Not all operations are *basic*; e.g.,

- `x = MatrixMultiplication(A, B);`

- `x = 0;`

- Not all basic operations take same execution time.

- `x = 3 * 4;`

- `x = 3 + 4;`

- Therefore, we have to **define step(s)**.

General Framework of Analysis of Algorithms:

- The best is to obtain an exact expression for complexity T (number of steps) as a function of n (problem size): $T = T(n)$.
- $T = \Theta(f(n))$ or $T = O(f(n))$.
- Sometimes T is a r.v. (not deterministic)
 - Worst-case complexity: $\max(T)$.
 - Best-case complexity: $\min(T)$.
 - Average-case complexity: $E[T]$

Example 18 (a max. of a list) :

```
xmax = list[0];  
for(i=1; i<n; i++)  
    if (list[i]>xmax)  
        xmax = list[i];
```

What is the step(s)?

- If a step is ***any*** comparison: then we have $2(n-1)$ for both $i < n$, $\text{list}[i] > \text{xmax}$, and another 1 for $i < n$ when exiting the loop.

$$\begin{aligned}T_1 &= 2(n-1) + 1 = 2n - 1. \\ &= \Theta(n).\end{aligned}$$

- If a step is an ***element*** comparison

$$\begin{aligned}T_2 &= n - 1 \\ &= \Theta(n).\end{aligned}$$

For both definitions, the worst-, best-, and average-case are the same since the algorithm is deterministic. All are $\Theta(n)$.

Example 19 (linear search) :

```
for ( $i=1$ ;  $i \leq n$ ;  $i++$ )  
    if ( $x == list[i]$ )  
        return  $i$ ;
```

What is the step(s)?

- *a step is an **element** comparison*

$$T = i, 1 \leq i \leq n.$$

$$\leq n$$

$$= O(n)$$

$$\min T = 1 = \Theta(1).$$

$$\max T = n = \Theta(n).$$

$$E[T] = \sum_{i=1}^n i \Pr(i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n i \frac{1}{n} \quad (\text{only for } i \sim \text{Uniform}(1, n))$$

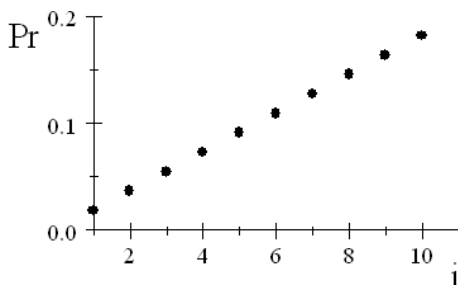
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n i$$

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

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

What about if the element exists with, e.g., a linear pmf

$$\Pr(i) = \frac{2}{n(n+1)}i, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n.$$



$$\begin{aligned} E[T] &= \sum_{i=1}^n i \Pr(i) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n i \frac{2}{n(n+1)} i \\ &= \frac{2}{3}n + \frac{1}{3} \quad (\text{homework}) \\ &> \frac{1}{2}(n+1) \quad \forall n > 1. \end{aligned}$$

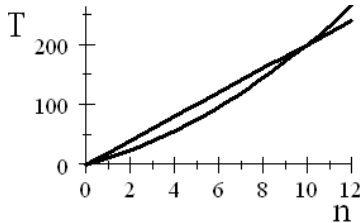
Notice: This is a field by itself: “Probabilistic Analysis of Algorithms”

Understanding the Complexity of Algorithms

- To compare two algorithms you must use the same *step* definition.
- Absolute vs. asymptotic complexity; e.g., which is better, A1 and A2:

$$T_1(n) = n^2 + 10n \quad = \Theta(n^2)$$

$$T_2(n) = 20n \quad = \Theta(n).$$



- The following algorithm is the best:

If $n < n_0$ then A1 else A2

- Do not Use O where it is Θ
- If $\max(T) = O(n^b)$, the problem is called **tractable**.
- However, $\max(T) = O(n^{100})$, will take unrealistic time
- If $\max(T) \neq O(n^b)$, the problem is called **intractable**.

TABLE 1 Commonly Used Terminology for the Complexity of Algorithms.

<i>Complexity</i>	<i>Terminology</i>
$\Theta(1)$	Constant complexity
$\Theta(\log n)$	Logarithmic complexity
$\Theta(n)$	Linear complexity
$\Theta(n \log n)$	$n \log n$ complexity
$\Theta(n^b)$	Polynomial complexity
$\Theta(b^n)$, where $b > 1$	Exponential complexity
$\Theta(n!)$	Factorial complexity

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TABLE 2 The Computer Time Used by Algorithms.

<i>Problem Size</i>	<i>Bit Operations Used</i>					
n	$\log n$	n	$n \log n$	n^2	2^n	$n!$
10	3×10^{-9} s	10^{-8} s	3×10^{-8} s	10^{-7} s	10^{-6} s	3×10^{-3} s
10^2	7×10^{-9} s	10^{-7} s	7×10^{-7} s	10^{-5} s	4×10^{13} yr	*
10^3	$1(0 \times 10^{-8})$ s	10^{-6} s	1×10^{-5} s	10^{-3} s	*	*
10^4	$1(3 \times 10^{-8})$ s	10^{-5} s	1×10^{-4} s	10^{-1} s	*	*
10^5	$1(7 \times 10^{-8})$ s	10^{-4} s	2×10^{-3} s	10 s	*	*
10^6	2×10^{-8} s	10^{-3} s	2×10^{-2} s	17 min	*	*

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