# **COSC 222 Data Structures**

Algorithm Analysis

## **Efficiency**

- Measure of efficiency is needed to compare one algorithm to another (assuming that both algorithms are correct and produce the same answers)
- Suggest some ways of how to measure efficiency
  - Time (How long does it take to run?)
  - Space (How much memory does it take?)
  - Other attributes?
    - Expensive operations, e.g. I/O
    - Energy, Power
    - Ease of programming, legal issues, etc.

# **Analyzing Runtime**

```
old2 = 1;
old1 = 1;
results = 0;
for (i=3; i<n; i++) {
    result = old2+old1;
    old1 = old2;
    old2 = result;
}</pre>
```

How long does this take?

## **Analyzing Runtime**

A simple mechanism: currentTimeMillis method of the System class

```
long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis(); // record the starting time
/* (run the algorithm) */
long endTime = System.currentTimeMillis(); // record the ending time
```

 Limitation: the measured times will vary greatly from machine to machine

long elapsed = endTime - startTime; // compute the elapsed time

## **Example**

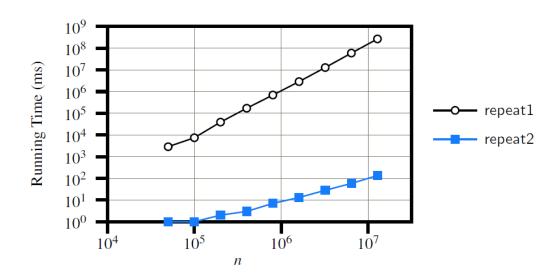
Two algorithms for constructing long strings in Java

```
/** Uses repeated concatenation to compose a String with n
copies of character c. */
 public static String repeat1(char c, int n) {
String answer = "";
 for (int j=0; j < n; j++)
    answer += c;
 return answer;
/** Uses StringBuilder to compose a String with n copies of
character c. */
public static String repeat2(char c, int n) {
 StringBuilder sb = new StringBuilder( );
 for (int j=0; j < n; j++)
    sb.append(c);
 return sb.toString( );
```

# **Example**

- repeat1 is already taking more than 3 days to compose a string of 12.8 million characters, repeat2 is able to do the same in a fraction of a second
- As the value of n is doubled, the running time of repeat1 typically increases more than fourfold, while the running time of repeat2 approximately doubles

n	repeat1 (in ms)	repeat2 (in ms)
50,000	2,884	1
100,000	7,437	1
200,000	39,158	2
400,000	170,173	3
800,000	690,836	7
1,600,000	2,874,968	13
3,200,000	12,809,631	28
6,400,000	59,594,275	58
12,800,000	265,696,421	135



#### **Limitations of Experiments**

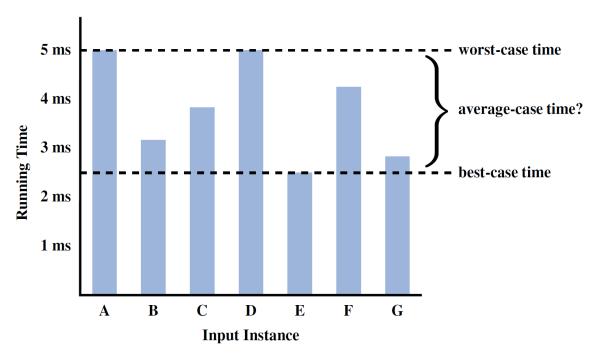
- While experimental studies of running times are valuable, there are three major limitations to their use for algorithm analysis:
  - It is necessary to **implement** the algorithm, which may be difficult
  - Experiments can be done only on a limited set of test inputs;
     hence, they leave out the running times of inputs not included in the experiment
  - In order to compare two algorithms, the same hardware and software environments must be used

#### **Theoretical Analysis**

- Evaluate the efficiency of an algorithm independent of the hardware/software environment
- Uses a high-level description of the algorithm instead of an implementation
- Takes into account all possible inputs

#### **Theoretical Analysis**

• In order to analyze the time complexity of an algorithm:



- Consider the **worst-case** scenario
- Count the **number of operations**
- Express the number as a function of input size n

#### **Number of Operations**

- What is meant by "number of operations"?
  - Assigning a value to a variable
  - Following an object reference
  - Performing an arithmetic operation (for example, adding two numbers)
  - Comparing two numbers
  - Accessing a single element of an array by index
  - Calling a method
  - Returning from a method

## **Analyzing Runtime**

- Running time is a function of n such as T(n)
- This is really nice because the runtime analysis doesn't depend on hardware or subjective conditions anymore

#### **Input Size**

- What is meant by the input size n? Provide some applicationspecific examples.
- Dictionary:
  - # words
- Restaurant:
  - # customers or # food choices or # employees
- Airline:
  - # flights or # luggage or # costumers
- We want to express the number of operations performed as a function of the input size n.

#### The Constant Function

 The simplest function we can think of is the constant function, that is,

$$f(n) = c$$

- For any argument n, the constant function f(n) assigns the value c.
- In other words, f(n) will always be equal to the constant value c.

## The Logarithm Function

 One of the interesting and sometimes even surprising aspects of the analysis of data structures and algorithms is the ubiquitous presence of the *logarithm function*,

$$f(n) = \log_b n$$
, for some constant  $b > 1$ .

- The value *b* is known as the *base* of the logarithm.
- This base is common, we will typically omit it from the notation when it is 2. That is, for us,

$$\log n = \log_2 n$$
.

# **Logarithm Rules**

• Given real numbers a > 0, b > 1, c > 0, and d > 1, we have:

- 1.  $\log_b(ac) = \log_b a + \log_b c$
- 2.  $\log_b(a/c) = \log_b a \log_b c$
- 3.  $\log_b(a^c) = c \log_b a$
- 4.  $\log_b a = \log_d a / \log_d b$
- 5.  $b^{\log_d a} = a^{\log_d b}$

#### The Linear Function

Another simple yet important function is the *linear function*,

$$f(n) = n$$
.

■ That is, given an input value *n*, the linear function *f* assigns the value *n* itself.

## The N-Log-N Function

 The function that assigns to an input n the value of n times the logarithm base-two of n

$$f(n) = n \log n$$
,

 This function grows a little more rapidly than the linear function and a lot less rapidly than the quadratic function

#### The Quadratic Function

 Given an input value n, the function f assigns the product of n with itself

$$f(n) = n^2$$

- There are many algorithms that have nested loops
  - the inner loop performs a linear number of operations
  - the outer loop is performed a linear number of times
  - Thus, the algorithm performs  $n \cdot n = n^2$  operations.

#### The Cubic Function

■ An input value *n* the product of *n* with itself three times

$$f(n) = n^3$$

 The cubic function appears less frequently in the context of algorithm analysis than the constant, linear, and quadratic functions

# **Polynomials**

- The linear, quadratic and cubic functions can each be viewed as being part of a larger class of functions, the *polynomials*.
- A polynomial function has the form

$$f(n) = a_0 + a_1 n + a_2 n^2 + a_3 n^3 + \dots + a_d n^d$$

where  $a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_d$  are constants, called the **coefficients** of the polynomial.

• The following functions are all polynomials:

$$f(n) = 2+5n+n^{2}$$
  
 $f(n) = 1+n^{3}$   
 $f(n) = 1$   
 $f(n) = n$   
 $f(n) = n^{2}$ 

## The Exponential Function

 Another function used in the analysis of algorithms is the exponential function,

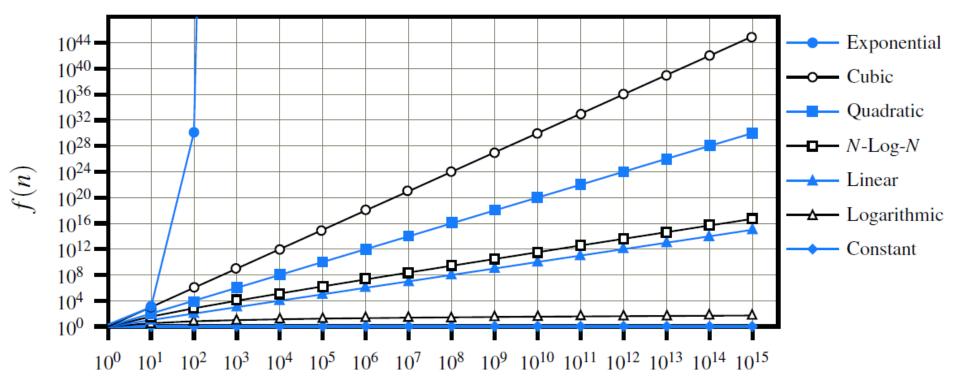
$$f(n) = b^n$$
,

where *b* is a positive constant, called the *base*, and the argument *n* is the *exponent*.

#### **Comparing Growth Rates**

The seven common functions used in algorithm analysis

constant	logarithm	linear	n-log-n	quadratic	cubic	exponential
1	$\log n$	n	$n \log n$	$n^2$	$n^3$	$a^n$



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#### **Asymptotic Analysis**

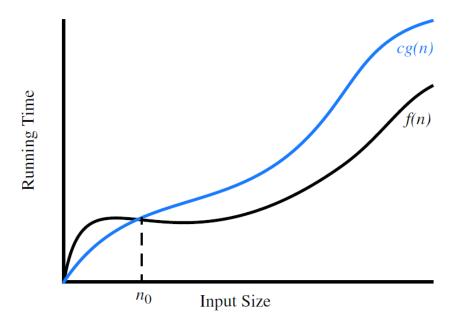
- We focus on the growth rate of the running time as a function of the input size n
- This approach reflects that each basic step in a pseudocode description or a high-level language implementation may correspond to a small number of primitive operations
  - without capturing so many details
  - without worrying about what happens for small inputs

## The "Big-Oh" Notation

- Let f(n) and g(n) be functions mapping positive integers to positive real numbers.
- We say that f(n) is O(g(n)) if there is a real constant c > 0 and an integer constant  $n_0 \ge 1$  such that

$$f(n) \le c \cdot g(n)$$
, for  $n \ge n_0$ .

■ This definition is often referred to as the "big-Oh" notation, for it is sometimes pronounced as "f(n) is **big-Oh** of g(n)."



## Prove $n \log n \in O(n^2)$

- We say f (n) is O(g(n)) if we can find f (n)  $\leq$  c  $\cdot$ g(n), for n  $\geq$  n<sub>0</sub>.
- $f(n) = n \log n$ ,  $O(g(n)) = O(n^2)$
- Guess or figure out values of c and n<sub>0</sub> that will work.

$$n \log n \le cn^2$$
  
 $\log n \le cn$ 

■ This is fairly trivial: log n <= n (for n>1) c=1 and n0 = 1 works!

# The "Big-Oh" Notation

- Example: 2n + 10 is O(n)
  - $-2n + 10 \le cn$
  - (c-2) *n* ≥ 10
  - $n \ge 10/(c 2)$
  - Pick c = 3 and  $n_0 = 10$
- Example: the function  $n^2$  is not O(n)
  - $n^2$  ≤ cn
  - $-n \leq c$
  - The above inequality cannot be satisfied since *c* must be a constant

# **Try it Activity**

- Prove  $T(n) = n^3 + 20n + 1 \in O(n^3)$ 
  - $n^3$  + 20n +1 ≤  $cn^3$  for  $n > n_0$
  - $-1 + 20/n^2 + 1/n^3 \le c$

holds for c=22 and  $n_0 = 1$ 

- Prove  $T(n) = n^3 + 20n + 1 \in O(n^4)$ 
  - $n^3 + 20 n + 1 \le cn^4 \text{ for } n > n_0$
  - $-1/n + 20/n^3 + 1/n^4 \le c$

holds for c=22 and  $n_0=1$ 

- Prove  $T(n) = n^3 + 20 n + 1 \in O(n^2)$ 
  - $n^3 + 20 n + 1 \le cn^2 \text{ for } n > n_0$
  - $n + 20/n + 1/n^2 \le c$

You cannot find such c or n0

# **Asymptotic Analysis Hacks**

- Eliminate low order terms
  - $-4n + 5 \Rightarrow 4n$
  - 0.5 n log n 2n + 7  $\Rightarrow$  0.5 n log n
  - $-2^{n} + n^{3} + 3n \Rightarrow 2^{n}$
- Eliminate coefficients
  - $-4n \Rightarrow n$
  - $0.5 \text{ n log n} \Rightarrow \text{n log n}$
  - $n \log (n^2) = 2 n \log n \Rightarrow n \log n$

#### Typical Growth Rates in Order

- constant: O(1)
- logarithmic:  $O(\log n)$  ( $\log_k n$ ,  $\log n^2 \in O(\log n)$ )
- poly-log:  $O(log^k n) (= O(log n)^k, k is a constant > 1)$
- Sub-linear:  $O(n^c)$  (c is a constant, 0 < c < 1)
- linear: O(n)
- (log-linear): O(n log n) (usually called "n log n")
- (superlinear):  $O(n^{1+c})$  (c is a constant, 0 < c < 1)
- quadratic: O(n²)
- cubic: O(n<sup>3</sup>)
- polynomial: O(n<sup>k</sup>) (k is a constant)
- exponential: O(c<sup>n</sup>) (c is a constant > 1)

#### Which One is faster?

Post #1

 $n^3 + 2n^2$ 

■ n<sup>0.1</sup>

 $n + 100n^{0.1}$ 

Post #2

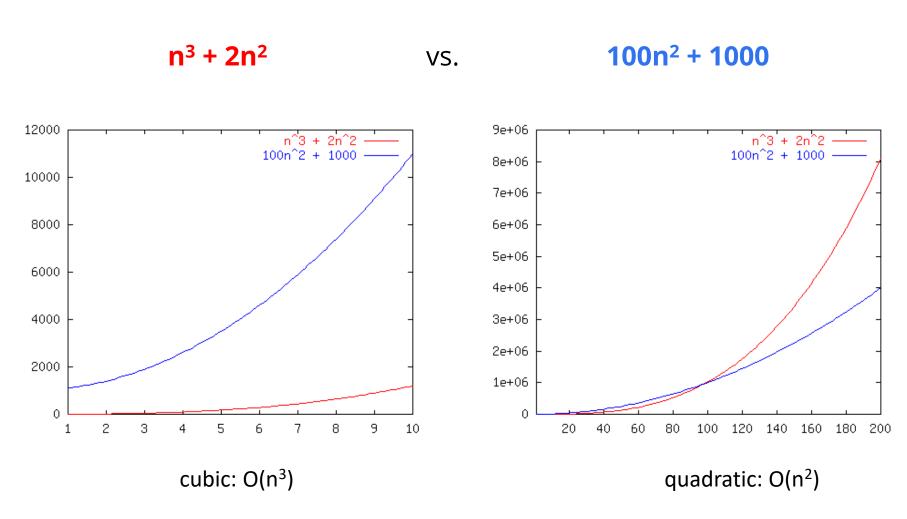
 $100n^2 + 1000$ 

log n

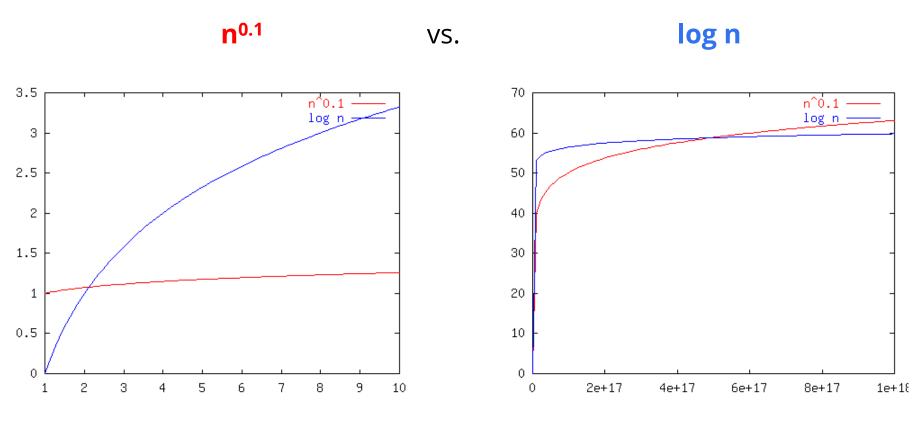
 $2n + 10 \log n$ 

Note that faster means smaller, not larger!

#### Case 1



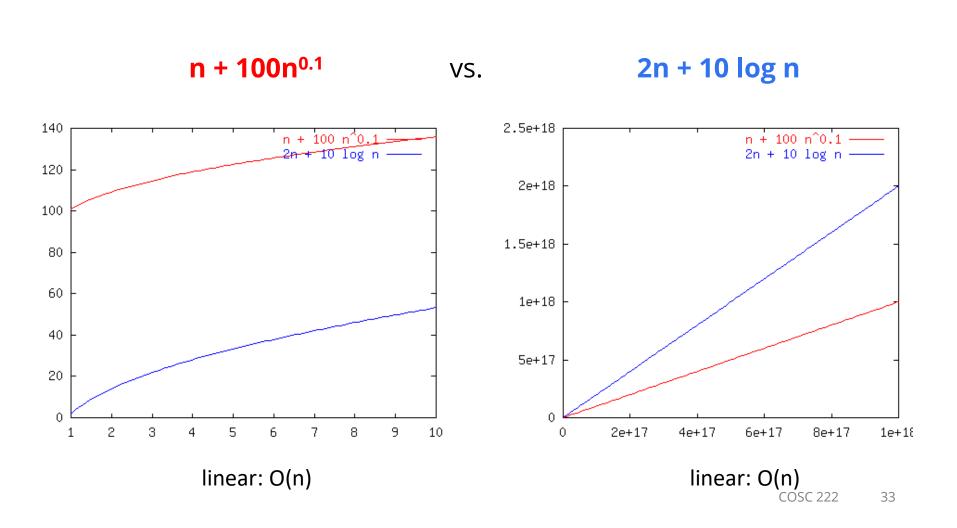
#### Case 2



Sub-linear:  $O(n^c)$  (c is a constant, 0 < c < 1)

logarithmic: O(log n)

#### Case 3



#### O(...) Examples

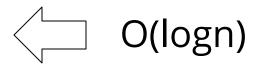
```
Let f(n) = 3n<sup>2</sup> + 6n - 7
- f(n) is O(n<sup>2</sup>)
- f(n) is O(n<sup>3</sup>)
- f(n) is O(n<sup>4</sup>)
- ...

f(n) = 4 n log n + 34 n - 89
- f(n) is O(n log n)
- f(n) is O(n<sup>2</sup>)
```

• If it's O(n<sup>2</sup>), it's also O(n<sup>3</sup>) etc! However, we always use the smallest one

```
for (int count = 0; count < n; count++)
     /* some sequence of O(1) steps */
 }
for (int count = 0; count < n; count+=2)
     /* some sequence of O(1) steps */
 }
```

```
count = 1
while (count < n)
count *= 2;
/* some sequence of O(1) steps */
count = 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, ...
 = 2^0, 2^1, 2^2, ... 2^k
n = 2^k
or, k = log n
```



```
for (int count = 0; count < n; count++)
{
    for (int count2 = 0; count2 < n; count2++)
    {
        /* some sequence of O(1) steps */
    }
}</pre>
```

```
for (int count = 0; count < n; count++)
{
    for (int count2 = count; count2 < n; count2++)
    {
        /* some sequence of O(1) steps */
    }
}</pre>
```

```
Algorithm 1

Algorithm 2

int x = 0;

int y = 0;

for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {

  for (int j=0; j<n; j++) {

    x += 2;

    x += 2;

    y += x*2;

  }

Algorithm 2

int x = 0;

int y = 0;

for (int i=0; i<n; i++)

    x += 2;

for (int j=0; j<n; j++)

  y += 2*j;

}
```

```
Algorithm 1

Algorithm 2

int x = 0;

int y = 0;

for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {

  for (int j=0; j<n; j++) {

    x += 2;

    x += 2;

    y += x*2;

  }

Algorithm 2

int x = 0;

int y = 0;

for (int i=0; i<n; i++)

    x += 2;

for (int j=0; j<n; j++)

    y += 2*j;

}
```

**Algorithm 2** is asymptotically **faster** than Algorithm 1.

# **Relatives of Big-Oh**

#### big-Omega

• f(n) is  $\Omega$  (g(n)) if there is a constant c > 0 and an integer constant  $n_0 \ge 1$  such that

$$f(n) \ge c g(n)$$
 for  $n \ge n_0$ 

#### big-Theta

• f(n) is  $\Theta(g(n))$  if there are constants c' > 0 and c'' > 0 and an integer constant  $n_0 \ge 1$  such that

$$c'g(n) \le f(n) \le c''g(n)$$
 for  $n \ge n_0$ 

# **Questions?**