

## CSU22010: ALGORITHMS AND DATA STRUCTURES

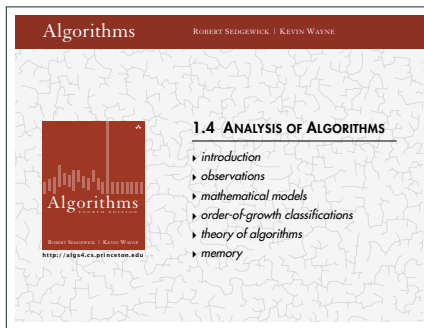
### Lecture 4: Order of Growth, Asymptotic Notation, Memory Performance

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- Estimate the performance of algorithms by
  - **Experiments** & Observations
  - **Precise** Mathematical Calculations
  - **Approximate** Mathematical Calculations using **Cost Models**
    - Every basic operation costs 1 time unit
    - Keep only the higher-order terms
    - Count only some operations
- This Lecture: Classification according to running time **order of growth**

# Doubling hypothesis

**Doubling hypothesis.** Quick way to estimate  $b$  in a power-law relationship.

Run program, **doubling** the size of the input.

N	time (seconds) †	ratio	lg ratio
250	0.0		–
500	0.0	4.8	2.3
1,000	0.1	6.9	2.8
2,000	0.8	7.7	2.9
4,000	6.4	8.0	3.0
8,000	51.1	8.0	3.0

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{T(2N)}{T(N)} &= \frac{a(2N)^b}{aN^b} \\ &= 2^b\end{aligned}$$

$$\lg(6.4 / 0.8) = 3.0$$

seems to converge to a constant  $b \approx 3$

**Hypothesis.** Running time is about  $a N^b$  with  $b = \lg \text{ratio}$ .

**Caveat.** Cannot identify logarithmic factors with doubling hypothesis.



## 1.4 ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

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- *introduction*
- *observations*
- *mathematical models*
- *order-of-growth classifications*
- *theory of algorithms*
- *memory*

## Common order-of-growth classifications

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**Definition.** If  $f(N) \sim c g(N)$  for some constant  $c > 0$ , then the **order of growth** of  $f(N)$  is  $g(N)$ .

- Ignores leading coefficient.
- Ignores lower-order terms.

**Ex.** The order of growth of the **running time** of this code is  $N^3$ .

```
int count = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
    for (int j = i+1; j < N; j++)
        for (int k = j+1; k < N; k++)
            if (a[i] + a[j] + a[k] == 0)
                count++;
```

**Typical usage.** With running times.

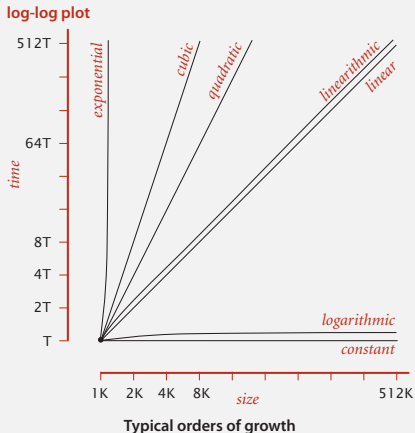
 where leading coefficient  
depends on machine, compiler, JVM, ...

# Common order-of-growth classifications

**Good news.** The set of functions

$1$ ,  $\log N$ ,  $N$ ,  $N \log N$ ,  $N^2$ ,  $N^3$ , and  $2^N$

suffices to describe the order of growth of most common algorithms.



# Common order-of-growth classifications

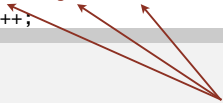
order of growth	name	typical code framework	description	example	$T(2N) / T(N)$
1	<b>constant</b>	<code>a = b + c;</code>	statement	add two numbers	1
$\log N$	<b>logarithmic</b>	<pre>while (N &gt; 1) {   N = N / 2;   ...   }</pre>	divide in half	binary search	$\sim 1$
$N$	<b>linear</b>	<pre>for (int i = 0; i &lt; N; i++) {   ...   }</pre>	loop	find the maximum	2
$N \log N$	<b>linearithmic</b>	[see mergesort lecture]	divide and conquer	mergesort	$\sim 2$
$N^2$	<b>quadratic</b>	<pre>for (int i = 0; i &lt; N; i++)   for (int j = 0; j &lt; N; j++)   {   ...   }</pre>	double loop	check all pairs	4
$N^3$	<b>cubic</b>	<pre>for (int i = 0; i &lt; N; i++)   for (int j = 0; j &lt; N; j++)     for (int k = 0; k &lt; N; k++)     {   ...   }</pre>	triple loop	check all triples	8
$2^N$	<b>exponential</b>	[see combinatorial search lecture]	exhaustive search	check all subsets	$T(N)$

## Example: 3-SUM

Q. Approximately how many **array accesses** as a function of input size  $N$ ?

```
int count = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
    for (int j = i+1; j < N; j++)
        for (int k = j+1; k < N; k++)
            if (a[i] + a[j] + a[k] == 0)
                count++;
```

"inner loop"


$$\binom{N}{3} = \frac{N(N-1)(N-2)}{3!}$$
$$\sim \frac{1}{6}N^3$$

A.  $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$  array accesses.

- Count only array accesses
- Cost of each array access: 1 time unit
- use tilde notation

Order of Growth:  $N^3$



## EXAMPLE: BINARY SEARCH

## Binary search demo

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**Goal.** Given a sorted array and a key, find index of the key in the array?

**Binary search.** Compare key against middle entry.

- Too small, go left.
- Too big, go right.
- Equal, found.



**successful search for 33**

6	13	14	25	33	43	51	53	64	72	84	93	95	96	97
0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
↑														↑
lo														hi

## Binary search: Java implementation

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### Trivial to implement?

- First binary search published in 1946.
- First bug-free one in 1962.
- Bug in Java's `Arrays.binarySearch()` discovered in 2006.

```
public static int binarySearch(int[] a, int key)
{
    int lo = 0, hi = a.length-1;
    while (lo <= hi)
    {
        int mid = lo + (hi - lo) / 2;
        if      (key < a[mid]) hi = mid - 1;
        else if (key > a[mid]) lo = mid + 1;
        else return mid;
    }
    return -1;
}
```

← one "3-way compare"

**Invariant.** If key appears in the array `a[]`, then  $a[lo] \leq key \leq a[hi]$ .

## Binary search: mathematical analysis

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**Proposition.** Binary search uses at most  $1 + \lg N$  key compares to search in a sorted array of size  $N$ .

**Def.**  $T(N)$  = # key compares to binary search a sorted subarray of size  $\leq N$ .

**Binary search recurrence.**  $T(N) \leq T(N/2) + 1$  for  $N > 1$ , with  $T(1) = 1$ .

$\uparrow$                        $\uparrow$   
left or right half      possible to implement with one  
(floored division)      2-way compare (instead of 3-way)

**Pf sketch.** [assume  $N$  is a power of 2]

$$\begin{aligned} T(N) &\leq T(N/2) + 1 && \text{[ given ]} \\ &\leq T(N/4) + 1 + 1 && \text{[ apply recurrence to first term ]} \\ &\leq T(N/8) + 1 + 1 + 1 && \text{[ apply recurrence to first term ]} \\ &\vdots \\ &\leq T(N/N) + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 && \text{[ stop applying, } T(1) = 1 \text{ ]} \\ &= 1 + \lg N \end{aligned}$$

- The base of the logarithm contributes only a constant factor to the running time.

$$\log_a N = \frac{\log_b N}{\log_b a} = c \cdot \log_b N$$

where  $c = 1/\log_b a$  is a constant (does not depend on  $N$ ).

- **EX.** BINS (Binary search) runs in  $T_{\text{BINS}}(N) \sim \lg N$ <sup>1</sup> time.

Suppose SUPERBINS, a faster algorithm for binary search, that runs in  $T_{\text{superbin}}(N) \sim \log_{16} N$  time.

Then we would have  $T_{\text{SUPERBINS}}(N) \sim \frac{1}{\log_2 16} \lg N = \frac{1}{4} \lg N \sim \frac{1}{4} T_{\text{BINS}}(N)$ .

Although the faster algorithm runs in 1/4 of the time of binary search, it still has the **same order of growth**:

- When the input size **doubles**, the running time increases by the same amount:

$$\frac{T_{\text{SUPERBINS}}(2N)}{T_{\text{SUPERBINS}}(N)} = \frac{\frac{1}{4} T_{\text{BINS}}(2N)}{\frac{1}{4} T_{\text{BINS}}(N)} = \frac{T_{\text{BINS}}(2N)}{T_{\text{BINS}}(N)}$$

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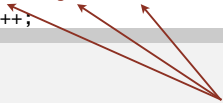
<sup>1</sup> $\lg N$  is notation for  $\log_2 N$

## Example: 3-SUM

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"inner loop"


$$\binom{N}{3} = \frac{N(N-1)(N-2)}{3!}$$
$$\sim \frac{1}{6}N^3$$

A.  $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$  array accesses.

Can we do better?

# An $N^2 \log N$ algorithm for 3-SUM

## Algorithm.

- Step 1: Sort the  $N$  (distinct) numbers.
- Step 2: For each pair of numbers  $a[i]$  and  $a[j]$ , binary search for  $-(a[i] + a[j])$ .

What is the order of growth?

### input

30 -40 -20 -10 40 0 10 5

### sort

-40 -20 -10 0 5 10 30 40

### binary search

(-40, -20)	60
(-40, -10)	50
(-40, 0)	40
(-40, 5)	35
(-40, 10)	30
⋮	⋮
(-20, -10)	30
⋮	⋮
(-10, 0)	10
⋮	⋮
( 10, 30)	-40
( 10, 40)	-50
( 30, 40)	-70

only count if  
 $a[i] < a[j] < a[k]$   
to avoid  
double counting

# An $N^2 \log N$ algorithm for 3-SUM

## Algorithm.

- Step 1: Sort the  $N$  (distinct) numbers.
- Step 2: For each pair of numbers  $a[i]$  and  $a[j]$ , binary search for  $-(a[i] + a[j])$ .

**Analysis.** Order of growth is  $N^2 \log N$ .

- Step 1:  $N^2$  with insertion sort.
- Step 2:  $N^2 \log N$  with binary search.

**Remark.** Can achieve  $N^2$  by modifying binary search step.

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### sort

-40 -20 -10 0 5 10 30 40

### binary search

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:	:
(-20, -10)	30
:	:
(-10, 0)	10
:	:
( 10, 30)	<del>-40</del>
( 10, 40)	-50
( 30, 40)	-70

only count if  
 $a[i] < a[j] < a[k]$   
to avoid  
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## Comparing programs

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**Hypothesis.** The sorting-based  $N^2 \log N$  algorithm for 3-SUM is significantly faster in practice than the brute-force  $N^3$  algorithm.

N	time (seconds)
1,000	0.1
2,000	0.8
4,000	6.4
8,000	51.1

ThreeSum.java

N	time (seconds)
1,000	0.14
2,000	0.18
4,000	0.34
8,000	0.96
16,000	3.67
32,000	14.88
64,000	59.16

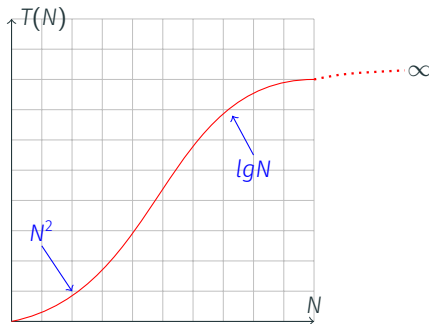
ThreeSumDeluxe.java

**Guiding principle.** Typically, better order of growth  $\Rightarrow$  faster in practice.

## ASYMPTOTIC NOTATION

# ASYMPTOTIC NOTATION

- In the Theory of Algorithms we are interested in the **order of growth** of runtime  $T(N)$ , expressed as a function of the input size  $N$ .
- $T(N)$  may not be a simple function and can have **different orders of growth** for different values of  $N$ .



- Rationale of asymptotic notation:
  - larger  $N$ 's are more important than smaller ones
  - consider the order of growth when  $N \rightarrow \infty$  (asymptotic order of growth)

→  $\Theta(g(N))$ : the **set** of functions with **asymptotic order of growth**  $g(N)$ .

EX. The (worst case) running time  $T(N)$  of Insertion Sort is in  $\Theta(N^2)$ .

We write  $T(N) = \Theta(N^2)$  <sup>†</sup>

---

<sup>†</sup>Abuse of notation, means  $T(N) \in \Theta(N^2)$ .

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→  $O(g(N))$ : the **set** of functions with **asymptotic order of growth**  $\leq g(N)$ .

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EX. The (worst case) running time  $T(N)$  of Insertion Sort is in  $O(N^3)$ .

We write  $T(N) = O(N^3)$  <sup>†</sup>

→  $\Omega(g(N))$ : the **set** of functions with **asymptotic order of growth**  $\geq g(N)$ .

EX. The (worst case) running time  $T(N)$  of Insertion Sort is in  $\Omega(N)$ .

We write  $T(N) = \Omega(N)$  <sup>†</sup>

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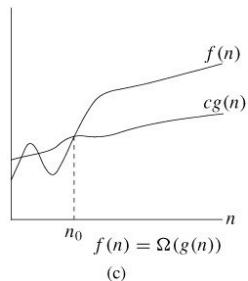
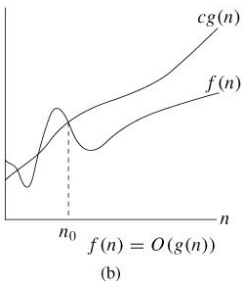
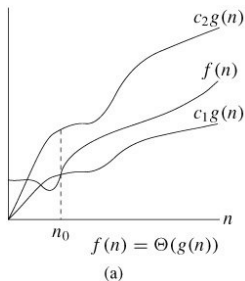
# Commonly-used notations in the theory of algorithms

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notation	provides	example	shorthand for	used to
<b>Big Theta</b>	asymptotic order of growth	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$ $10 N^2$ $5 N^2 + 22 N \log N + 3 N$ $\vdots$	classify algorithms
<b>Big Oh</b>	$\Theta(N^2)$ and smaller	$O(N^2)$	$10 N^2$ $100 N$ $22 N \log N + 3 N$ $\vdots$	develop upper bounds
<b>Big Omega</b>	$\Theta(N^2)$ and larger	$\Omega(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$ $N^5$ $N^3 + 22 N \log N + 3 N$ $\vdots$	develop lower bounds

# FORMAL DEFINITIONS OF ASYMPTOTIC NOTATION

(image CLRS book)

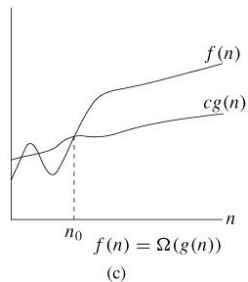
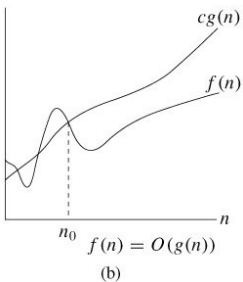
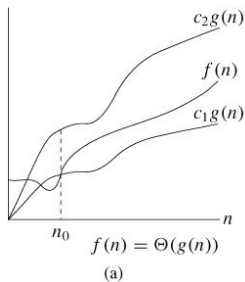


$\rightarrow \Theta(g(N)) = \left\{ f(N) : \text{there exist positive constants } c_1, c_2, N_0 \text{ such that} \right.$   
 $\left. 0 \leq c_1g(N) \leq f(N) \leq c_2g(N) \text{ for all } N \geq N_0 \right\}$



# FORMAL DEFINITIONS OF ASYMPTOTIC NOTATION

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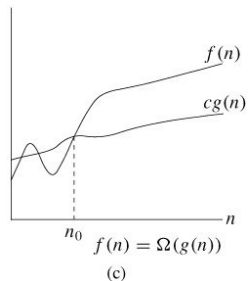
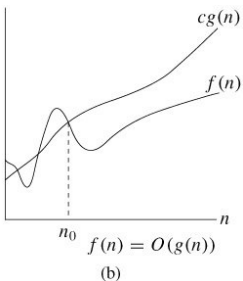
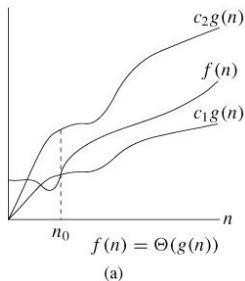


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$\rightarrow O(g(N)) = \{f(N) : \text{there exist positive constants } c, N_0 \text{ such that}$   
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# FORMAL DEFINITIONS OF ASYMPTOTIC NOTATION

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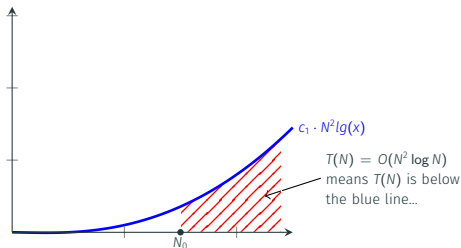
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 $0 \leq c_1g(N) \leq f(N) \text{ for all } N \geq N_0\}$

## EXERCISE: NECESSARY CONCLUSIONS

Suppose `myAlgorithm` has an asymptotic running time  $T(N) = O(N^2 \log N)$

Does that necessarily mean

- $T(N) = O(N^3)$ ?
- $T(N) = O(N^2)$ ?
- $T(N) = \Omega(N)$ ?
- $T(N) = \Omega(N^3)$ ?
- $T(N) = \Omega(N^2 \log N)$ ?
- $T(N) = \Theta(N^2 \log N)$ ?

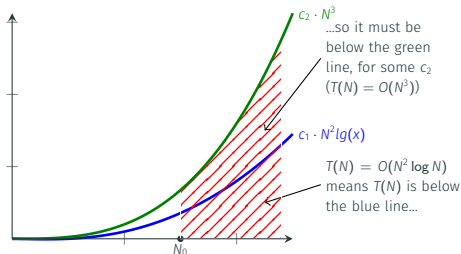


## EXERCISE: NECESSARY CONCLUSIONS

Suppose `myAlgorithm` has an asymptotic running time  $T(N) = O(N^2 \log N)$

Does that necessarily mean

- $T(N) = O(N^3)$ ? YES
- $T(N) = O(N^2)$ ? NO
- $T(N) = \Omega(N)$ ? NO
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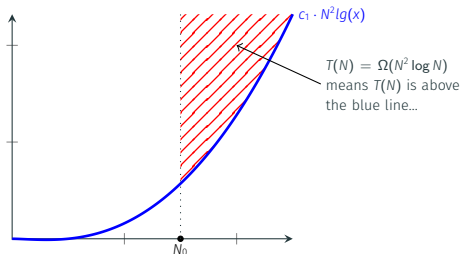


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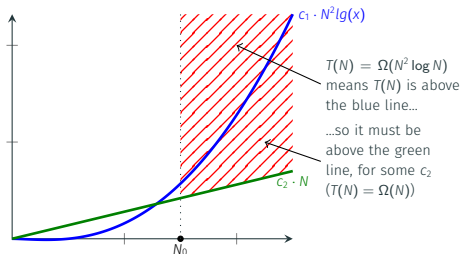


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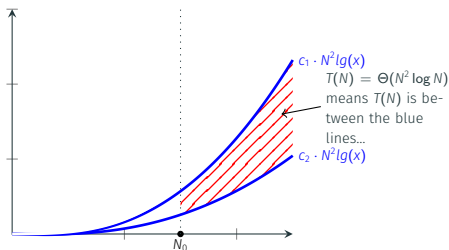


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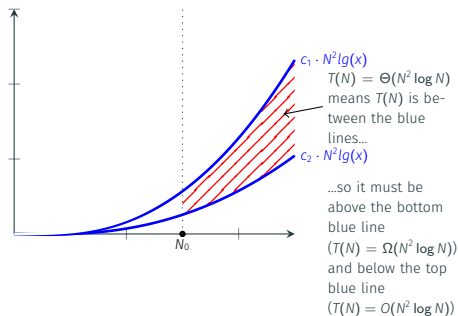


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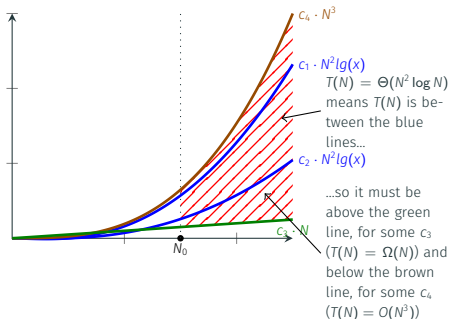


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→ Tilde notation: an approximate model

→ Asymptotic notation  $O/Theta/Omega$ : order of growth when  $N \rightarrow \infty$

- Tilde notation: an approximate model
- Asymptotic notation  $O/Theta/Omega$ : order of growth when  $N \rightarrow \infty$
- Common mistake 1: interpret  $O/Theta/Omega$  as worst/average/best case running times
- Common mistake 2: interpret asymptotic notation as an approximate model

- **Tilde notation:** an **approximate model**
- **Asymptotic notation**  $O/Theta/Omega$ : **order of growth** when  $N \rightarrow \infty$
- **Common mistake 1:** interpret  $O/Theta/Omega$  as worst/average/best case running times
- **Common mistake 2:** interpret asymptotic notation as an approximate model
- **Book S&W:** uses the Tilde-notation.
- **This module:** use asymptotic notation.
  - **Easy calculations** because of the **properties** of asymptotic notation

**Simplify:** Constant coefficients are equivalent to 1;  
Keep only highest order term

Ex:

$$\rightarrow \Theta(1) = \Theta(2) = \Theta(300)$$

$$\rightarrow \Theta(N^2) = \Theta(10N^2) = \Theta(100N^2)$$

$$\rightarrow \Theta(\lg N) = \Theta(\log_{10} N) = \Theta(\log_{20} N)$$

$$\rightarrow \Theta(N + \log N) = \Theta(N)$$

$$\rightarrow \Theta(10N^2 + 5 \log N + 30) = \Theta(N^2)$$

And the same for  $O$  and  $\Omega$

**Always use the simplest forms!**

**Addition:** keep only the highest order terms

### Theorem

$$\Theta(f(N)) + \Theta(g(N)) = \Theta(f(N)) \quad \text{when } f(N) \geq_{\infty} g(N)$$

Ex:

$$\rightarrow \Theta(1) + \Theta(1) = \Theta(1)$$

$$\rightarrow \Theta(N^2) + \Theta(N \log N) = \Theta(N^2)$$

$$\rightarrow \Theta(\log N) + \Theta(N \log N) = \Theta(N \log N)$$

And the same for  $O$  and  $\Omega$

### **Multiplication:** multiply inner functions

#### Theorem

$$\Theta(f(N)) \times \Theta(g(N)) = \Theta(f(N) \times g(N))$$

Ex:

$$\rightarrow \Theta(1) \times \Theta(1) = \Theta(1)$$

$$\rightarrow \Theta(N^2) \times \Theta(N \log N) = \Theta(N^3 \log N)$$

$$\rightarrow \Theta(\log N) \times \Theta(2^N) = \Theta(2^N \log N)$$

And the same for  $O$  and  $\Omega$

```
1 public static int binarySearch(int[] a, int key) {  
2     int lo = 0, hi = a.length-1;  
3     while (lo <= hi) {  
4         int mid = lo + (hi - lo)/2;  
5         if (key < a[mid]) hi = mid - 1;  
6         else if (key > a[mid]) lo = mid + 1;  
7         else return mid;  
8     }  
9     return -1;  
10 }
```

Asymptotic (worst case) analysis:



## EXAMPLE: BINARY SEARCH

```
1 public static int binarySearch(int[] a, int key) {
2     int lo = 0, hi = a.length-1;
3     while (lo <= hi) {
4         int mid = lo + (hi - lo)/2;
5         if (key < a[mid]) hi = mid - 1;
6         else if (key > a[mid]) lo = mid + 1;
7         else return mid;
8     }
9     return -1;
10 }
```

**Asymptotic (worst case) analysis:**

Line 2: executed  $\Theta(1)$  times, execution takes  $\Theta(1)$  time  $\Rightarrow T_2 = \Theta(1)$

Lines 3 – 8: executed  $\Theta(\log N)$  times, each execution takes  $\Theta(1)$  time  $\Rightarrow$   
 $T_{3-8} = \Theta(\log N) \times \Theta(1) = \Theta(\log N)$

Lines 9 – 10: executed  $\Theta(1)$  times, execution takes  $\Theta(1)$  time  $\Rightarrow T_{9-10} = \Theta(1)$

## EXAMPLE: BINARY SEARCH

```
1  public static int binarySearch(int[] a, int key) {
2      int lo = 0, hi = a.length-1;
3      while (lo <= hi) {
4          int mid = lo + (hi - lo)/2;
5          if      (key < a[mid]) hi = mid - 1;
6          else if (key > a[mid]) lo = mid + 1;
7          else return mid;
8      }
9      return -1;
10 }
```

Asymptotic (worst case) analysis:

Line 2: executed  $\Theta(1)$  times, execution takes  $\Theta(1)$  time  $\Rightarrow T_2 = \Theta(1)$

Lines 3 – 8: executed  $\Theta(\log N)$  times, each execution takes  $\Theta(1)$  time  $\Rightarrow$   
 $T_{3-8} = \Theta(\log N) \times \Theta(1) = \Theta(\log N)$

Lines 9 – 10: executed  $\Theta(1)$  times, execution takes  $\Theta(1)$  time  $\Rightarrow T_{9-10} = \Theta(1)$

Total Running time:  $T(N) = T_2 + T_{3-8} + T_{9-10} = \Theta(1) + \Theta(\log N) + \Theta(1) = \Theta(\log N)$

```
1  public void insertion_sort(int[] a) {  
2      for (int j = 1; j < a.length; j++) {  
3          int i = j - 1;  
4          while(i >= 0 && a[i] > a[i+1]) {  
5              int temp = a[i];  
6              a[i] = a[i+1];  
7              a[i+1] = temp;  
8              i--;  
9          }  
10     }  
11 }
```

Asymptotic (worst case) analysis:

## EXAMPLE: INSERTION SORT

```
1 public void insertion_sort(int[] a) {  
2     for (int j = 1; j < a.length; j++) {  
3         int i = j - 1;  
4         while(i >= 0 && a[i] > a[i+1]) {  
5             int temp = a[i];  
6             a[i] = a[i+1];  
7             a[i+1] = temp;  
8             i--;  
9         }  
10    }  
11 }
```

Asymptotic (worst case) analysis:

Lines 2,3,10: executed  $\Theta(N)$  times, execution takes  $\Theta(1)$  time  $\Rightarrow T_{2,3,10} = \Theta(N)$

## EXAMPLE: INSERTION SORT

```
1  public void insertion_sort(int[] a) {  
2      for (int j = 1; j < a.length; j++) {  
3          int i = j - 1;  
4          while(i >= 0 && a[i] > a[i+1]) {  
5              int temp = a[i];  
6              a[i] = a[i+1];  
7              a[i+1] = temp;  
8              i--;  
9          }  
10     }  
11 }
```

Asymptotic (worst case) analysis:

Lines 2,3,10: executed  $\Theta(N)$  times, execution takes  $\Theta(1)$  time  $\Rightarrow T_{2,3,10} = \Theta(N)$

Lines 4 – 9: executed  $\Theta(\log N^2)$  times, each execution takes  $\Theta(1)$  time  $\Rightarrow$   
 $T_{4-9} = \Theta(N^2) \times \Theta(1) = \Theta(N^2)$

Line 11: executed  $\Theta(1)$  times, execution takes  $\Theta(1)$  time  $\Rightarrow T_{11} = \Theta(1)$

Total Running time:  $T(N) = T_{2,3,10} + T_{4-9} + T_{11} = \Theta(N) + \Theta(N^2) + \Theta(1) = \Theta(N^2)$

## EXERCISE: ASYMPTOTIC ANALYSIS

A software engineer was asked to design an algorithm which will input two **unsorted** arrays of integers, A (of size  $N$ ) and B (also of size  $N$ ), and will output **true** when all integers in A are present in B. The engineer came up with **two** alternatives. **Which one is better?**

```
1 boolean isContained1(int[] A, int[] B) {
2     boolean AInB = true;
3     for (int i = 0; i < A.length; i++) {
4         boolean iInB = linearSearch(B, A[i]);
5         AInB = AInB && iInB;
6     }
7     return AInB;
8 }
```

```
1 boolean isContained2(int[] A, int[] B) {
2     int[] C = new int[B.length];
3     for (int i = 0; i < B.length; i++) { C[i] = B[i] }
4     sort(C); // heapsort
5     boolean AInC = true;
6     for (int i = 0; i < A.length; i++) {
7         boolean iInC = binarySearch(C, A[i]);
8         AInC = AInC && iInC;
9     }
10    return AInC;
11 }
```

## EXERCISE: COMPARISONS

Write the following asymptotic order of growths in ascending order, from the most to the least efficient, using  $<$  or  $=$  to show the equivalences and inequivalences between them.

$$\Theta(N \log N)$$

$$\Theta(N)$$

$$\Theta(N^2 + 3N + 1)$$

$$\Theta(1)$$

$$\Theta(5N)$$

$$\Theta(N^3 + \log N)$$

$$\Theta(N^2)$$

$$\Theta(10)$$

$$\Theta(10N^3 + 2 \lg(N))$$

$$\Theta(10 \lg(N))$$

$$\Theta(2^N)$$



## 1.4 ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

---

- *introduction*
- *observations*
- *mathematical models*
- *order-of-growth classifications*
- *theory of algorithms*
- *memory*



# Types of analyses

---

~~Best case.~~ Lower bound on cost.

- ~~• Determined by “easiest” input.~~
- ~~• Provides a goal for all inputs.~~

Worst case. Upper bound on cost.

- Determined by “most difficult” input.
- Provides a guarantee for all inputs.

Average case. Expected cost for random input.

- Need a model for “random” input.
- Provides a way to predict performance.

this course

Ex 1. Array accesses for brute-force 3-SUM.

~~Best:  $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$~~

Average:  $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$

Worst:  $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$

Ex 2. Compares for binary search.

~~Best:  $\sim 1$~~

Average:  $\sim \lg N$

Worst:  $\sim \lg N$

# Theory of algorithms

---

## Goals.

- Establish “difficulty” of a problem.
- Develop “optimal” algorithms.

## Approach.

- Suppress details in analysis: analyze “to within a constant factor.”
- Eliminate variability in input model: focus on the worst case.

**Upper bound.** Performance guarantee of algorithm for any input.

**Lower bound.** Proof that no algorithm can do better. (for worst case inputs)

**Optimal algorithm.** Lower bound = upper bound (to within a constant factor).

# Theory of algorithms: example 1

---

## Goals.

- Establish “difficulty” of a problem and develop “optimal” algorithms.
- Ex. 1-SUM = “*Is there a 0 in the array?*”

## Upper bound. A specific algorithm.

- Ex. Brute-force algorithm for 1-SUM: Look at every array entry.
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 1-SUM is  $O(N)$ .

## Lower bound. Proof that no algorithm can do better.

- Ex. Have to examine all  $N$  entries (any unexamined one might be 0).
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 1-SUM is  $\Omega(N)$ . (for worst case inputs)

## Optimal algorithm.

- Lower bound equals upper bound (to within a constant factor).
- Ex. Brute-force algorithm for 1-SUM is optimal: its running time is  $\Theta(N)$ .

## Theory of algorithms: example 2

---

### Goals.

- Establish “difficulty” of a problem and develop “optimal” algorithms.
- Ex. 3-SUM.

### Upper bound. A specific algorithm.

- Ex. Brute-force algorithm for 3-SUM.
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 3-SUM is  $O(N^3)$ .

## Theory of algorithms: example 2

---

### Goals.

- Establish “difficulty” of a problem and develop “optimal” algorithms.
- Ex. 3-SUM.

### Upper bound. A specific algorithm.

- Ex. **Improved** algorithm for 3-SUM.
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 3-SUM is  $O(N^2 \log N)$ .

### Lower bound. Proof that no algorithm can do better.

- Ex. Have to examine all  $N$  entries to solve 3-SUM.
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for solving 3-SUM is  $\Omega(N)$ .

### Open problems.

- Optimal algorithm for 3-SUM?
- Subquadratic algorithm for 3-SUM?
- Quadratic lower bound for 3-SUM?

# Algorithm design approach

---

## Start.

- Develop an algorithm.
- Prove a lower bound.

## Gap?

- Lower the upper bound (discover a new algorithm).
- Raise the lower bound (more difficult).

## Golden Age of Algorithm Design.

- 1970s–.
- Steadily decreasing upper bounds for many important problems.
- Many known optimal algorithms.

## Caveats.

- Overly pessimistic to focus on worst case?
- Need better than “to within a constant factor” to predict performance.



## 1.4 ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

---

- *introduction*
- *observations*
- *mathematical models*
- *order-of-growth classifications*
- *theory of algorithms*
- *memory*

# Basics

---

Bit. 0 or 1.

Byte. 8 bits.

Megabyte (MB). 1 million or  $2^{20}$  bytes.

Gigabyte (GB). 1 billion or  $2^{30}$  bytes.

NIST



most computer scientists



64-bit machine. We assume a 64-bit machine with 8-byte pointers.

- Can address more memory.
- Pointers use more space.



some JVMs "compress" ordinary object pointers to 4 bytes to avoid this cost





# Typical memory usage for primitive types and arrays

---

type	bytes
boolean	1
byte	1
char	2
int	4
float	4
long	8
double	8

**primitive types**

type	bytes
char[]	$2N + 24$
int[]	$4N + 24$
double[]	$8N + 24$

**one-dimensional arrays**

type	bytes
char[][]	$\sim 2MN$
int[][]	$\sim 4MN$
double[][]	$\sim 8MN$

**two-dimensional arrays**

## Typical memory usage for objects in Java

---

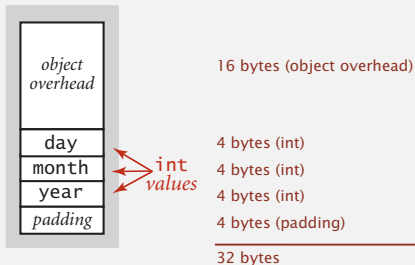
**Object overhead.** 16 bytes.

**Reference.** 8 bytes.

**Padding.** Each object uses a multiple of 8 bytes.

**Ex 1.** A Date object uses 32 bytes of memory.

```
public class Date
{
    private int day;
    private int month;
    private int year;
    ...
}
```



## Typical memory usage summary

---

### Total memory usage for a data type value:

- Primitive type: 4 bytes for int, 8 bytes for double, ...
- Object reference: 8 bytes.
- Array: 24 bytes + memory for each array entry.
- Object: 16 bytes + memory for each instance variable.
- Padding: round up to multiple of 8 bytes.

↖ + 8 extra bytes per inner class object  
(for reference to enclosing class)

**Shallow memory usage:** Don't count referenced objects.

**Deep memory usage:** If array entry or instance variable is a reference, count memory (recursively) for referenced object.

## Example

Q. How much memory does `WeightedQuickUnionUF` use as a function of  $N$ ?  
Use tilde notation to simplify your answer.

```
public class WeightedQuickUnionUF  
{
```

```
    private int[] id;  
    private int[] sz;  
    private int count;
```

```
    public WeightedQuickUnionUF(int N)  
    {
```

```
        id = new int[N];  
        sz = new int[N];  
        for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) id[i] = i;  
        for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) sz[i] = 1;  
    }  
    ...
```

```
}
```

← 16 bytes  
(object overhead)

← 8 + (4N + 24) bytes each  
(reference + int[] array)

← 4 bytes (int)

← 4 bytes (padding)

---

8N + 88 bytes

A.  $8N + 88 \sim 8N$  bytes.

# Turning the crank: summary

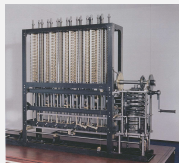
---

## Empirical analysis.

- Execute program to perform experiments.
- Assume power law and formulate a hypothesis for running time.
- Model enables us to **make predictions**.

## Mathematical analysis.

- Analyze algorithm to count frequency of operations.
- Use tilde notation to simplify analysis.
- Model enables us to **explain behavior**.



## Scientific method.

- Mathematical model is independent of a particular system; applies to machines not yet built.
- Empirical analysis is necessary to validate mathematical models and to make predictions.