

# Chapter 2

Basics of Algorithm Analysis



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### Five Representative Problems

Interval scheduling: n log n greedy algorithm.

Weighted interval scheduling: n log n dynamic programming algorithm.

Bipartite matching: nk max-flow based algorithm.

Independent set: NP-complete.

Competitive facility location: PSPACE-complete.

### Algorithm's Performance

We can evaluate an algorithm's performance in four ways:

- Completeness: Is the algorithm guaranteed to find a solution when there is one?
- Optimality: Does the strategy find the optimal solution, as defined on page 68?
- Time complexity: How long does it take to find a solution?
- Space complexity: How much memory is needed to perform the search?

# 2.1 Computational Tractability

"For me, great algorithms are the poetry of computation.

Just like verse, they can be terse, allusive, dense, and even mysterious. But once unlocked, they cast a brilliant new light on some aspect of computing." - Francis Sullivan

### Polynomial-Time

Brute force. For many non-trivial problems, there is a natural brute force search algorithm that checks every possible solution.

- $\blacksquare$  Typically takes  $2^N$  time or worse for inputs of size N.
- Unacceptable in practice.

2n<sup>2</sup> for stable matching with n men and n women

Desirable scaling property. When the input size doubles, the algorithm should only slow down by some constant factor C.

There exists constants c > 0 and d > 0 such that on every input of size N, its running time is bounded by  $c N^d$  steps.

 $c(2N)^d = c2^dN^d$ 

Def. An algorithm is poly-time if the above scaling property holds.

choose  $C = 2^d$ 

#### Worst-Case Analysis

Worst case running time. Obtain bound on largest possible running time of algorithm on input of a given size N.

- Generally captures efficiency in practice.
- Draconian view, but hard to find effective alternative.

Average case running time. Obtain bound on running time of algorithm on random input as a function of input size N.

- Hard (or impossible) to accurately model real instances by random distributions.
- Algorithm tuned for a certain distribution may perform poorly on other inputs.

#### Worst-Case Polynomial-Time

Def. An algorithm is efficient if its running time is polynomial.

#### Justification: It really works in practice!

- Although  $6.02 \times 10^{23} \times N^{20}$  is technically poly-time, it would be useless in practice.
- In practice, the poly-time algorithms that people develop almost always have low constants and low exponents.
- Breaking through the exponential barrier of brute force typically exposes some crucial structure of the problem.

#### Exceptions.

- Some poly-time algorithms do have high constants and/or exponents, and are useless in practice.
- Some exponential-time (or worse) algorithms are widely used because the worst-case instances seem to be rare.

```
In <u>mathematical optimization</u>, <u>Dantzig</u>'s simplex algorithm

Unix grep

(or simplex method) is a popular <u>algorithm</u> for <u>linear programming</u>.
```

n! for stable matching

with n men and n women

 $O(n^2)$ 

## Why It Matters

**Table 2.1** The running times (rounded up) of different algorithms on inputs of increasing size, for a processor performing a million high-level instructions per second. In cases where the running time exceeds 10<sup>25</sup> years, we simply record the algorithm as taking a very long time.

	п	$n \log_2 n$	$n^2$	$n^3$	1.5 <sup>n</sup>	2 <sup>n</sup>	n!
n = 10	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	4 sec
n = 30	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	18 min	$10^{25}$ years
n = 50	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	11 min	36 years	very long
n = 100	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	1 sec	12,892 years	10 <sup>17</sup> years	very long
n = 1,000	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	1 sec	18 min	very long	very long	very long
n = 10,000	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	2 min	12 days	very long	very long	very long
n = 100,000	< 1 sec	2 sec	3 hours	32 years	very long	very long	very long
n = 1,000,000	1 sec	20 sec	12 days	31,710 years	very long	very long	very long

# 2.2 Asymptotic Order of Growth

#### Asymptotic Order of Growth

Upper bounds. T(n) is O(f(n)) if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that for all  $n \ge n_0$  we have  $T(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$ .

Lower bounds. T(n) is  $\Omega(f(n))$  if there exist constants c > 0 and  $n_0 \ge 0$  such that for all  $n \ge n_0$  we have  $T(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$ .

Tight bounds. T(n) is  $\Theta(f(n))$  if T(n) is both O(f(n)) and  $\Omega(f(n))$ .

Ex:  $T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 32$ .

- T(n) is  $O(n^2)$ ,  $O(n^3)$ ,  $\Omega(n^2)$ ,  $\Omega(n)$ , and  $\Theta(n^2)$ .
- T(n) is not O(n),  $\Omega(n^3)$ ,  $\Theta(n)$ , or  $\Theta(n^3)$ .

#### Notation

Slight abuse of notation. T(n) = O(f(n)).

Not transitive:

- $f(n) = 5n^3$ ;  $g(n) = 3n^2$
- $f(n) = O(n^3) = g(n)$
- but  $f(n) \neq g(n)$ .
- Better notation:  $T(n) \in O(f(n))$ .

Meaningless statement. Any comparison-based sorting algorithm requires at least O(n log n) comparisons.

- Statement doesn't "type-check."
- Use  $\Omega$  for lower bounds.

### Properties

#### Transitivity.

- If f = O(g) and g = O(h) then f = O(h).
- If  $f = \Omega(g)$  and  $g = \Omega(h)$  then  $f = \Omega(h)$ .
- If  $f = \Theta(g)$  and  $g = \Theta(h)$  then  $f = \Theta(h)$ .

#### Additivity.

- If f = O(h) and g = O(h) then f + g = O(h).
- If  $f = \Omega(h)$  and  $g = \Omega(h)$  then  $f + g = \Omega(h)$ .
- If  $f = \Theta(h)$  and  $g = \Theta(h)$  then  $f + g = \Theta(h)$ .

## Asymptotic Bounds for Some Common Functions

Polynomials.  $a_0 + a_1 n + ... + a_d n^d$  is  $\Theta(n^d)$  if  $a_d > 0$ .

Polynomial time. Running time is  $O(n^d)$  for some constant d independent of the input size n.

Logarithms.  $O(\log_a n) = O(\log_b n)$  for any constants a, b > 0.

can avoid specifying the base

Logarithms. For every x > 0,  $\log n = O(n^x)$ .

log grows slower than every polynomial

Exponentials. For every r > 1 and every d > 0,  $n^d = O(r^n)$ .

every exponential grows faster than every polynomial

## 2.4 A Survey of Common Running Times

#### Linear Time: O(n)

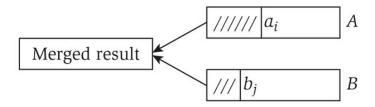
Linear time. Running time is proportional to input size.

Computing the maximum. Compute maximum of n numbers  $a_1, ..., a_n$ .

```
max ← a₁
for i = 2 to n {
   if (aᵢ > max)
      max ← aᵢ
}
```

#### Linear Time: O(n)

Merge. Combine two sorted lists  $A = a_1, a_2, ..., a_n$  with  $B = b_1, b_2, ..., b_n$  into sorted whole.



```
\label{eq:continuous_posterior} \begin{split} &i=1,\ j=1\\ &\text{while (both lists are nonempty) } \{\\ &\quad \text{if } (a_i \leq b_j) \text{ append } a_i \text{ to output list and increment i}\\ &\quad \text{else} \qquad \text{append b}_j \text{ to output list and increment j}\\ &\}\\ &\text{append remainder of nonempty list to output list} \end{split}
```

Claim. Merging two lists of size n takes O(n) time.

Pf. After each comparison, the length of output list increases by 1.

## O(n log n) Time

O(n log n) time. Arises in divide-and-conquer algorithms.

also referred to as linearithmic time

Sorting. Mergesort and heapsort are sorting algorithms that perform  $O(n \log n)$  comparisons.

Largest empty interval. Given n time-stamps  $x_1$ , ...,  $x_n$  on which copies of a file arrive at a server, what is largest interval of time when no copies of the file arrive?

sorting takes O(nlogn)

O(n log n) solution. Sort the time-stamps. Scan the sorted list in order, identifying the maximum gap between successive time-stamps.

take O(n)

#### Quadratic Time: O(n2)

Quadratic time. Enumerate all pairs of elements.

Closest pair of points. Given a list of n points in the plane  $(x_1, y_1)$ , ...,  $(x_n, y_n)$ , find the pair that is closest.

 $O(n^2)$  solution. Try all pairs of points.

```
min \leftarrow (x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2

for i = 1 to n {

    for j = i+1 to n {

        d \leftarrow (x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2

        if (d < min)

        min \leftarrow d

    }

}
```

Remark.  $\Omega(n^2)$  seems inevitable, but this is just an illusion.  $\leftarrow$  see chapter 5

Cubic Time: O(n3)

Cubic time. Enumerate all triples of elements.

Set disjointness. Given n sets  $S_1$ , ...,  $S_n$  each of which is a subset of 1, 2, ..., n, is there some pair of these which are disjoint?

 $O(n^3)$  solution. For each pairs of sets, determine if they are disjoint.

```
foreach set S<sub>i</sub> {
   foreach other set S<sub>j</sub> {
     foreach element p of S<sub>i</sub> {
        determine whether p also belongs to S<sub>j</sub>
     }
     if (no element of S<sub>i</sub> belongs to S<sub>j</sub>)
        report that S<sub>i</sub> and S<sub>j</sub> are disjoint
   }
}
```

#### Polynomial Time: O(nk) Time

Independent set of size k. Given a graph, are there k nodes such that no two are joined by an edge?

 $O(n^k)$  solution. Enumerate all subsets of k nodes.

```
foreach subset S of k nodes {
   check whether S is an independent set
   if (S is an independent set)
      report S is an independent set
   }
}
```

• Check whether S is an independent set =  $O(k^2)$ .

Number of k element subsets = 
$$O(k^2 n^k / k!) = O(n^k).$$

$$poly-time for k=17, but not practical$$

$$n = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k(k-1)(k-2)\cdots(2)(1)} \le \frac{n^k}{k!}$$

## Exponential Time

Independent set. Given a graph, what is maximum size of an independent set?

 $O(n^2 2^n)$  solution. Enumerate all subsets.

```
2n: total number of subsets of an n-element set

S* ← φ

foreach subset S of nodes {

   check whether S is an independent set

   if (S is largest independent set seen so far)

       update S* ← S

}
```