### CS2040 Data Structures and Algorithms Lecture Note #3

## **Analysis of Algorithms**

## **Objectives**

1

 To introduce the theoretical basis for measuring the efficiency of algorithms

2

 To learn how to use such measure to compare the efficiency of different algorithms

#### **Outline**

- 1. What is an Algorithm?
- 2. What do we mean by Analysis of Algorithms?
- 3. Big-O notation Upper Bound
- 4. How to find the complexity of a program?

## 1 What is an algorithm?

#### **1** Algorithm

- A step-by-step procedure for solving a problem.
- Properties of an algorithm:
  - Each step of an algorithm must be exact.
  - An algorithm must terminate.
  - An algorithm must be effective.
  - An algorithm should be general.



# 2 What do we mean by Analysis of Algorithms?

#### 2.1 What is Analysis of Algorithms?

#### Analysis of algorithms

- Provides tools for comparing the <u>efficiency</u> of different methods of solution (rather than programs)
- Efficiency = Complexity of algorithms

#### A comparison of algorithms

- Should focus on significant differences in the efficiency of the algorithms
- Should not consider reductions in computing costs due to clever coding tricks. Tricks may reduce the readability of an algorithm.

## 2.2 Determining the Efficiency/Complexity of Algorithms

- To evaluate rigorously the resources (time and space) needed by an algorithm and represent the result of the analysis with a formula
- We will emphasize more on the time requirement rather than space requirement here
- The time requirement of an algorithm is also called its time complexity

#### 2.3 By measuring the run time?

```
TimeTest.java
public class TimeTest {
 public static void main(String[] args)
    long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
    long total = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < 10000000; i++) {</pre>
     total += i;
    long stopTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
    long elapsedTime = stopTime - startTime;
    System.out.println(elapsedTime);
```

Note: The run time depends on the compiler, the computer used, and the current work load of the computer.

#### 2.4 Exact run time is not always needed

- Using exact run time is not meaningful when we want to compare two algorithms
  - coded in different languages,
  - using different data sets, or
  - running on different computers.

## 2.5 Determining the Efficiency of Algorithms

- Algorithm analysis should be independent of
  - Specific implementations
  - Compilers and their optimizers
  - Computers
  - Data

#### **2.6** Execution Time of Algorithms

- Instead of working out the exact timing, we count the number of some or all of the primitive operations (e.g. +, -, \*, /, assignment, ...) needed.
- Counting an algorithm's operations is a way to assess its efficiency
  - An algorithm's execution time is related to the number of operations it requires.

#### 2.7 Counting the number of statements

- To simplify the counting further, we can ignore
  - the different types of operations, and
  - different number of operations in a statement,
     and simply count the number of statements executed.

#### 2.8 Computation cost of an algorithm

How many operations are required?

Total Ops = A + B = 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} 100 + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sum_{j=1}^{n} 2)$$
  
=  $100n + \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2n = 100n + 2n^2 = 2n^2 + 100n$ 

#### 2.9 Approximation of analysis results

- Very often, we are interested only in using a simple term to indicate how efficient an algorithm is. The exact formula of an algorithm's performance is not really needed.
- Example:

Given the formula: 2n<sup>2</sup> + 100n

- the dominating term 2n² can tell us approximately how the algorithm performs by providing us with a measure of the growth rate (how the number of operations executed grows as n increases in size) of the algorithm
- This is called asymptotic analysis of the algorithm

#### 2.10 Asymptotic analysis

- Asymptotic analysis is an analysis of algorithms that focuses on
  - analyzing the problems of large input size,
  - considering only the leading term of the formula, and
  - ignoring the coefficient of the leading term
- Some notations are needed in asymptotic analysis

#### 2.11 Algorithm Growth Rates (1/2)

- An algorithm's time requirement can be measured as a function of the problem size, say n
- An algorithm's growth rate
  - Enables the comparison of one algorithm with another
  - Examples
    - Algorithm A requires time proportional to n<sup>2</sup>
    - Algorithm B requires time proportional to n

#### 2.12 Algorithm Growth Rates (2/2)

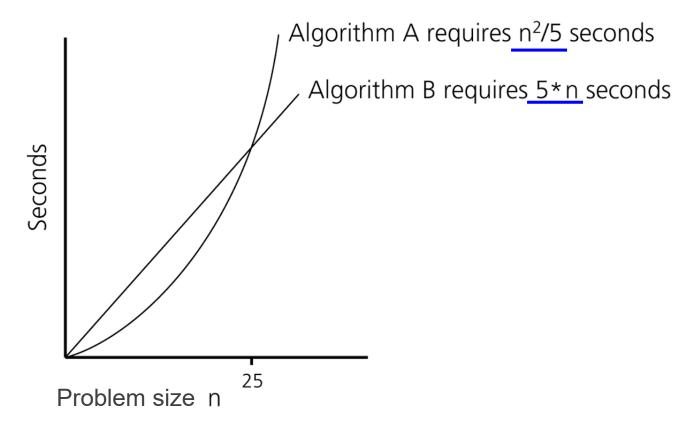


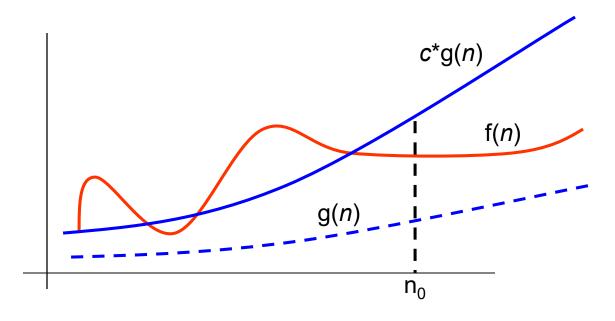
Figure - Time requirements as a function of the problem size n

 Algorithm efficiency is typically a concern for large problems only. Why?

## 3 Big O notation

### 3.1 Definition - Big O notation

- Given a function f(n), we say g(n) is an (asymptotic) upper bound of f(n), denoted as f(n) = O(g(n)), if there exist a constant c > 0, and a positive integer  $n_0$  such that  $f(n) \le c^*g(n)$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ .
- f(n) is said to be bounded from above by g(n).
- O() is called the "big O" notation.



### 3.2 Ignore the coefficients of all terms

Based on the definition, 2n<sup>2</sup> and 30n<sup>2</sup> have the same upper bound n<sup>2</sup>, i.e.,

```
f2(n) = 30n^2; g(n) = n^2.
Let c=31 and n_0=1, since 30n^2 \le cn^2 \ \forall \ n \ge n_0
Hence f2(n) = O(g(n))
```

They differ only in the choice of *c*.

- Therefore, in big O notation, we can omit the coefficients of all terms in a formula:
  - □ Example:  $f(n) = 2n^2 + 100n = O(n^2) + O(n)$

### 3.3 Finding the constants c and n<sub>0</sub>

• Given  $f(n) = 2n^2 + 100n$ , prove that  $f(n) = O(n^2)$ .

Observe that:  $2n^2 + 100n \le 2n^2 + n^2 = 3n^2$  whenever  $n \ge 100$ .

 $\rightarrow$  Set the constants to be c = 3 and  $n_0 = 100$ .

By definition, we have  $f(n) = O(n^2)$ .

#### **Notes:**

- 1.  $n^2 \le 2n^2 + 100n$  for all n, i.e.,  $g(n) \le f(n)$ , and yet g(n) is an asymptotic upper bound of f(n)
- 2. c and  $n_0$  are not unique. For example, we can choose c = 2 + 100 = 102, and  $n_0 = 1$  (because  $f(n) \le 102n^2 \ \forall \ n \ge 1$ )

Q: Can we write  $f(n) = O(n^3)$ ?

Yes

### 3.4 Is the bound tight?

- The complexity of an algorithm can be bounded by many functions.
- Example:
  - $\Box$  Let  $f(n) = 2n^2 + 100n$ .
  - □ f(n) is bounded by  $n^2$ ,  $n^3$ ,  $n^4$  and many others according to the definition of big O notation.
  - Hence, the following are all correct:
    - $f(n) = O(n^2)$ ;  $f(n) = O(n^3)$ ;  $f(n) = O(n^4)$
- However, we are more interested in the tightest bound which is  $n^2$  for this case.

### 3.5 Growth Terms: Order-of-Magnitude

- In asymptotic analysis, a formula can be simplified to a single term with coefficient 1
- Such a term is called a growth term (rate of growth, order of growth, order-of-magnitude)
- The most common growth terms can be ordered as follows: (note: many others are not shown)

```
O(1) < O(\log n) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n^2) < O(n^3) < O(2^n) < O(n!)
"slowest"
```

#### Note:

"log" = log base 2, or log<sub>2</sub>; "log<sub>10</sub>" = log base 10; "ln" = log base e. In big O, all these log functions are the same.
 (Why?)

### 3.6 Examples on big O notation

- $f1(n) = \frac{1}{2}n + 4$ = O(n)
- $f2(n) = 240n + 0.001n^2$  $= O(n^2)$
- $f3(n) = n \log n + \log n + n \log (\log n)$ =  $O(n \log n)$

## 3.7 Order-of-Magnitude Analysis and Big O Notation (1/2)

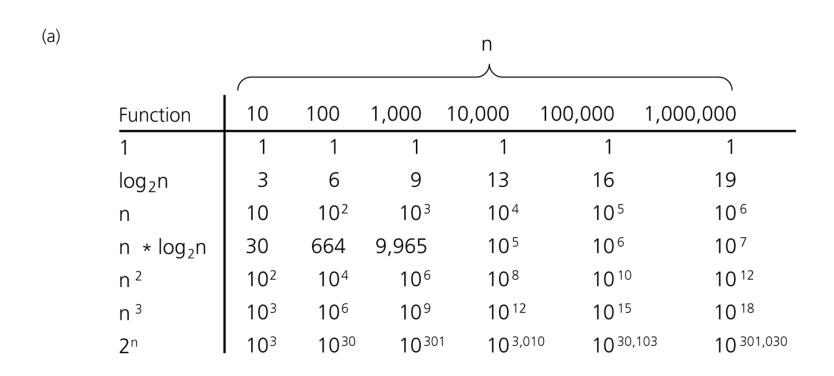


Figure - Comparison of growth-rate functions in tabular form

## 3.8 Order-of-Magnitude Analysis and Big O Notation (2/2)

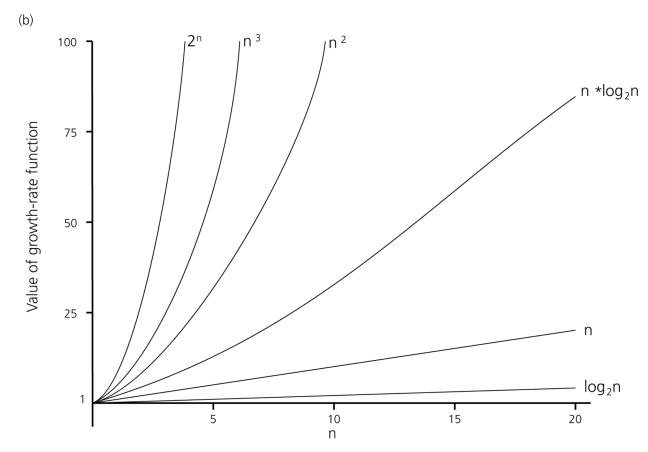


Figure - Comparison of growth-rate functions in graphical form

## 3.9 Summary: Order-of-Magnitude Analysis and Big O Notation

Order of growth of some common functions:

$$O(1) < O(\log n) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n^2) < O(n^3) < O(2^n) < O(n!)$$

- Properties of growth-rate functions
  - You can ignore low-order terms
  - You can ignore a multiplicative constant in the high-order term
  - $\bigcirc \mathsf{O}(\mathsf{f}(n)) + \mathsf{O}(\mathsf{g}(n)) = \mathsf{O}(\mathsf{f}(n) + \mathsf{g}(n))$

# 4 How to find the complexity of a program?

#### 4.1 Some rules of thumb and examples

- Basically just count the number of statements executed.
- If there are only a small number of simple statements in a program O(1)
- If there is a 'for' loop dictated by a loop index that goes up to n
- If there is a nested 'for' loop with outer one controlled by n and the inner one controlled by m O(n\*m)
- For a loop with a range of values n, and each iteration reduces the range by a fixed constant fraction (eg: ½)
   O(log n)
- For a recursive method, each call is usually O(1). So
  - $\Box$  if *n* calls are made O(n)
  - if  $n \log n$  calls are made  $O(n \log n)$  Infinite Geometric series 1+1/2+1/4+1/8...=2

#### 4.2 Examples on finding complexity (1/2)

What is the complexity of the following code fragment?

```
int sum = 0;
for (int i=1; i<n; i=i*2) {
    sum++;
}</pre>
```

It is clear that sum is incremented only when

$$i = 1, 2, 4, 8, ..., 2^k$$
 where  $k = \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$ 

There are k+1 iterations. So the complexity is O(k) or  $O(\log n)$ 

#### Note:

- In Computer Science, log n means log<sub>2</sub> n.
- When 2 is replaced by 10 in the 'for' loop, the complexity is  $O(\log_{10} n)$  which is the same as  $O(\log_2 n)$ . (Why?)
- $\log_{10} n = \log_2 n / \log_2 10$

#### 4.2 Examples on finding complexity (2/2)

What is the complexity of the following code fragment? (For simplicity, let's assume that n is some power of 3.)

```
int sum = 0;
for (int i=1; i<n; i=i*3) {
   for (j=1; j<=i; j++) {
      sum++;
   }
}</pre>
```

```
• f(n) = 1 + 3 + 9 + 27 + ... + 3^{(\log_3 n)}

= 1 + 3 + ... + n/9 + n/3 + n

= n + n/3 + n/9 + ... + 3 + 1 (reversing the terms in previous step)

= n * (1 + 1/3 + 1/9 + ...)

\leq n * (3/2)

= 3n/2

= O(n)

Why is (1 + 1/3 + 1/9 + ...) \leq 3/2?

This is sum of infinite geometric series see word file "analysis of algorithms useful equalities.docx"
```

#### 4.3 Non-recursive Binary Search Algorithm (1)

- Requires array to be sorted in ascending order
- Maintain subarray where x (the search key) might be located
- Repeatedly compare x with m, the middle element of current subarray
  - $\Box$  If x = m, found it!
  - If x > m, continue search in subarray after m
  - If x < m, continue search in subarray before m</li>

#### 4.3 Non-recursive Binary Search Algorithm (2)

Data in the array a[] are sorted in ascending order

```
public static int binSearch(int[] a, int len, int x)
{
   int mid, low = 0;
   int high = len - 1;
   while (low <= high) {</pre>
      mid = (low + high) / 2;
      if (x == a[mid]) return mid;
      else if (x > a[mid]) low = mid + 1;
      else high = mid - 1;
   return -1;
```

#### 4.3 Non-recursive Binary Search Algorithm (3)

- At any point during binary search, part of array is "alive" (might contain the point x)
- Each iteration of loop eliminates at least half of previously "alive" elements
- At the beginning, all n elements are "alive", and after
  - $\square$  After 1 iteration, at most n/2 elements are left, or alive
  - □ After 2 iterations, at most  $(n/2)/2 = n/4 = n/2^2$  are left
  - □ After 3 iterations, at most  $(n/4)/2 = n/8 = n/2^3$  are left
  - After i iterations, at most n/2i are left
  - At the final iteration, at most 1 element is left

#### 4.3 Non-recursive Binary Search Algorithm (4)

In the worst case, we have to search all the way up to the last iteration k with only one element left.

We have:

```
n/2^k = 1

2^k = n

k = \log n
```

Hence, the binary search algorithm takes O(f(n)), or O(log n) times

#### 4.4 Time complexity of recursion: Fibonacci numbers

- Fibonacci numbers: 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, ...
  - The first two Fibonacci numbers are both 1 (arbitrary numbers)
  - The rest are obtained by adding the previous two together.
- Calculating the n<sup>th</sup> Fibonacci number recursively:

```
Fib(n) = 1 for n=1, 2
= Fib(n-1) + Fib(n-2) for n > 2
```

```
// Precond: n > 0
public static int fib(int n) {
  if (n <= 2)
    return 1;
  else
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}</pre>
```

#### 4.4 Time complexity of recursion: Fibonacci numbers

 Function for total number of operations is almost exactly like the recursive case of Fibonacci

```
T(n) = T(n-1)+T(n-2)+4 (1 comparison, 1 addition, 2 subtraction)
\Rightarrow T(n) < 2T(n-1)+c
                                    (replace 4 by some constant c)
        < 2(2T(n-2)+c)+c (expand T(n-1) to be 2*T(n-2)+c)
\Rightarrow
        < 4T(n-2)+2c+c
         < 8T(n-3)+4c+2c+c
                                                (cont. the expansion)
\Rightarrow
                                               (will stop when n is 1)
\Rightarrow
        < 2^{n}(T(1))+2^{n-1}c+2^{n-2}c+...+c
                                                             (T(1) is c)
        < 2^{n*}(1+1/2+1/4+1/8+...)*c
\Rightarrow
         = O(2^n)
```

#### 4.5 Analysis of Different Cases

#### Worst-Case Analysis

- Interested in the worst-case behaviour.
- A determination of the maximum amount of time that an algorithm requires to solve problems of size n

#### Best-Case Analysis

- Interested in the best-case behaviour
- Not useful

#### Average-Case Analysis

- A determination of the average amount of time that an algorithm requires to solve problems of size n
- Have to know the probability distribution
- The hardest

#### 4.6 The Efficiency of Searching Algorithms

- Example: Efficiency of Sequential Search (data not sorted)
  - Worst case: O(n)
    Which case?
  - □ Average case: O(n)
  - Best case: O(1)
    Why? Which case?
  - Unsuccessful search?
- Q: What is the best case complexity of Binary Search (data sorted)?
  - Best case complexity is not interesting. Why?

### 4.7 Keeping Your Perspective

- If the problem size is always small, you can probably ignore an algorithm's efficiency
- Weigh the trade-offs between an algorithm's time requirements and its memory requirements
- Order-of-magnitude analysis focuses on large problems
- There are other measures, such as big Omega (Ω), big theta (Θ), little oh (ο), and little omega (ω). These may be covered in more advanced module.

## End of file