

# CS1113

## Algorithm Complexity

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# Classifying Algorithm Run-time

comparing linear and binary search

growth of functions

big-oh notation

proof techniques

# Linear search vs Binary search

Previously, we looked at two algorithms for searching a sequence of data values: linear search and binary search.

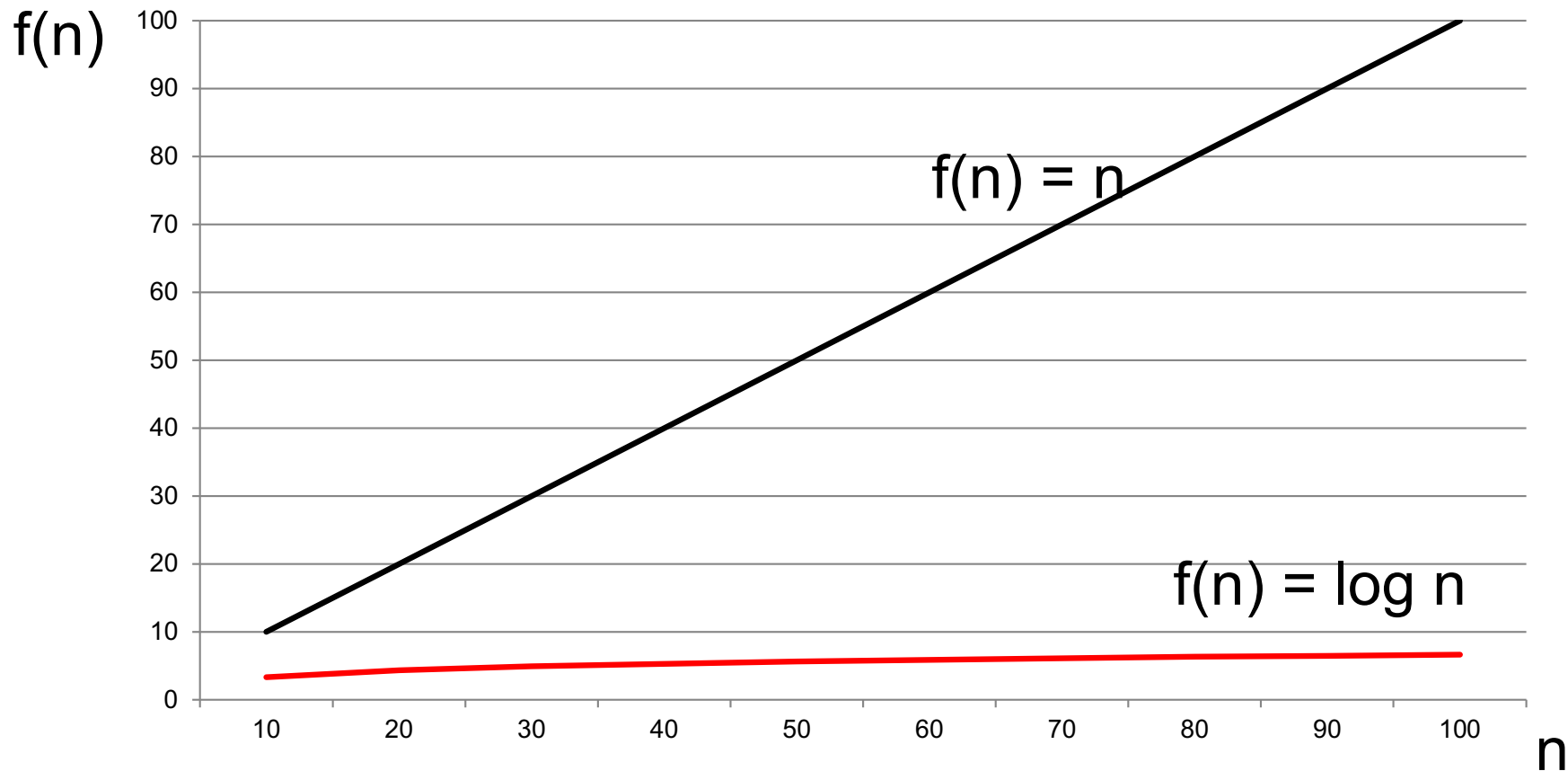
For each one, we worked out how much work it would have to do in the worst case. For a sequence of length  $n$ :

- linear search goes round its loop  $n$  times
- binary search goes round its loop  $\log_2 n$  times

and they each do a similar amount of work inside their loop.

But what does this mean in practice? Is the difference significant?

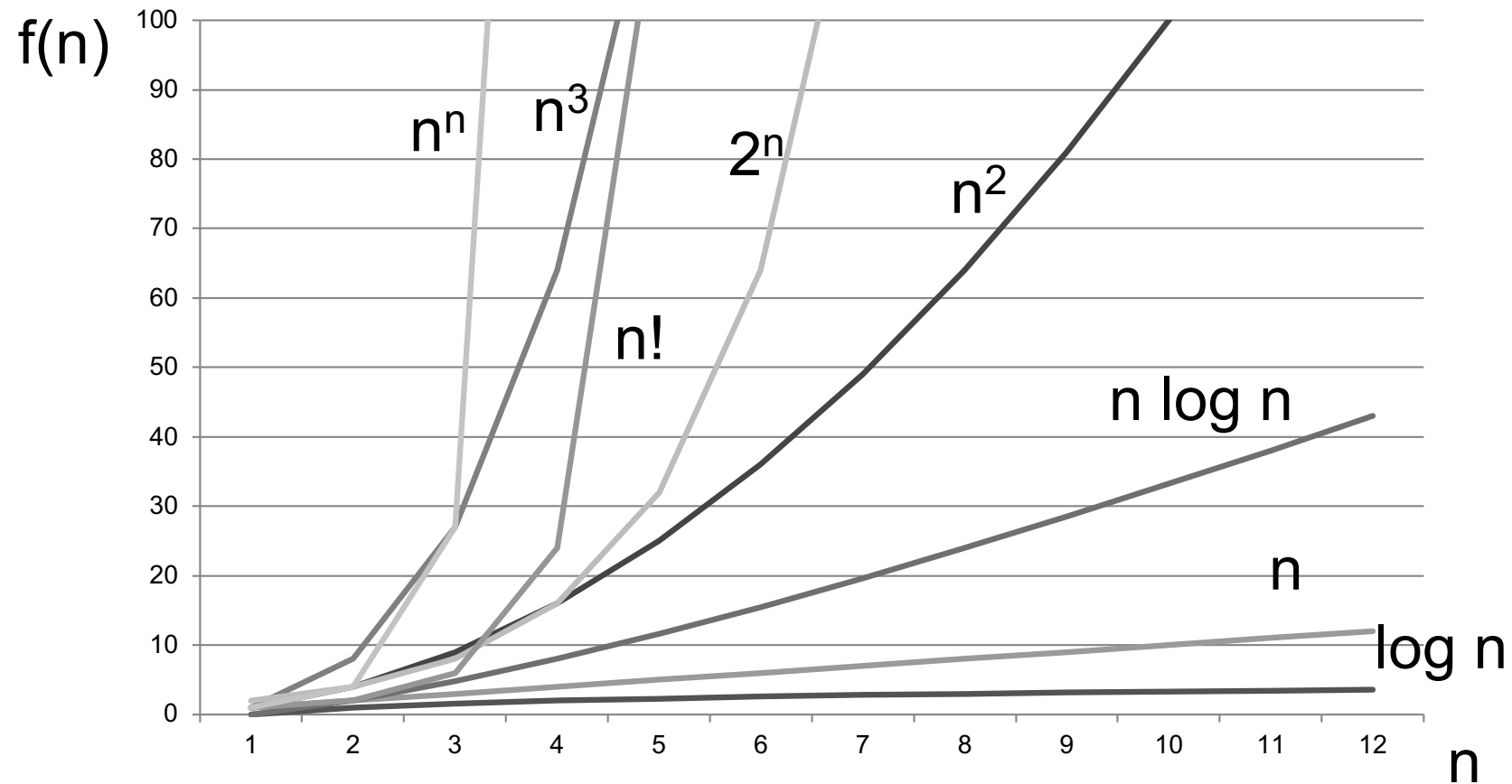
# Comparing $n$ and $\log n$



If the sequence has 100 elements, linear search may be 15 times slower.

If the sequence has 1000 elements, linear search may be 100 times slower.

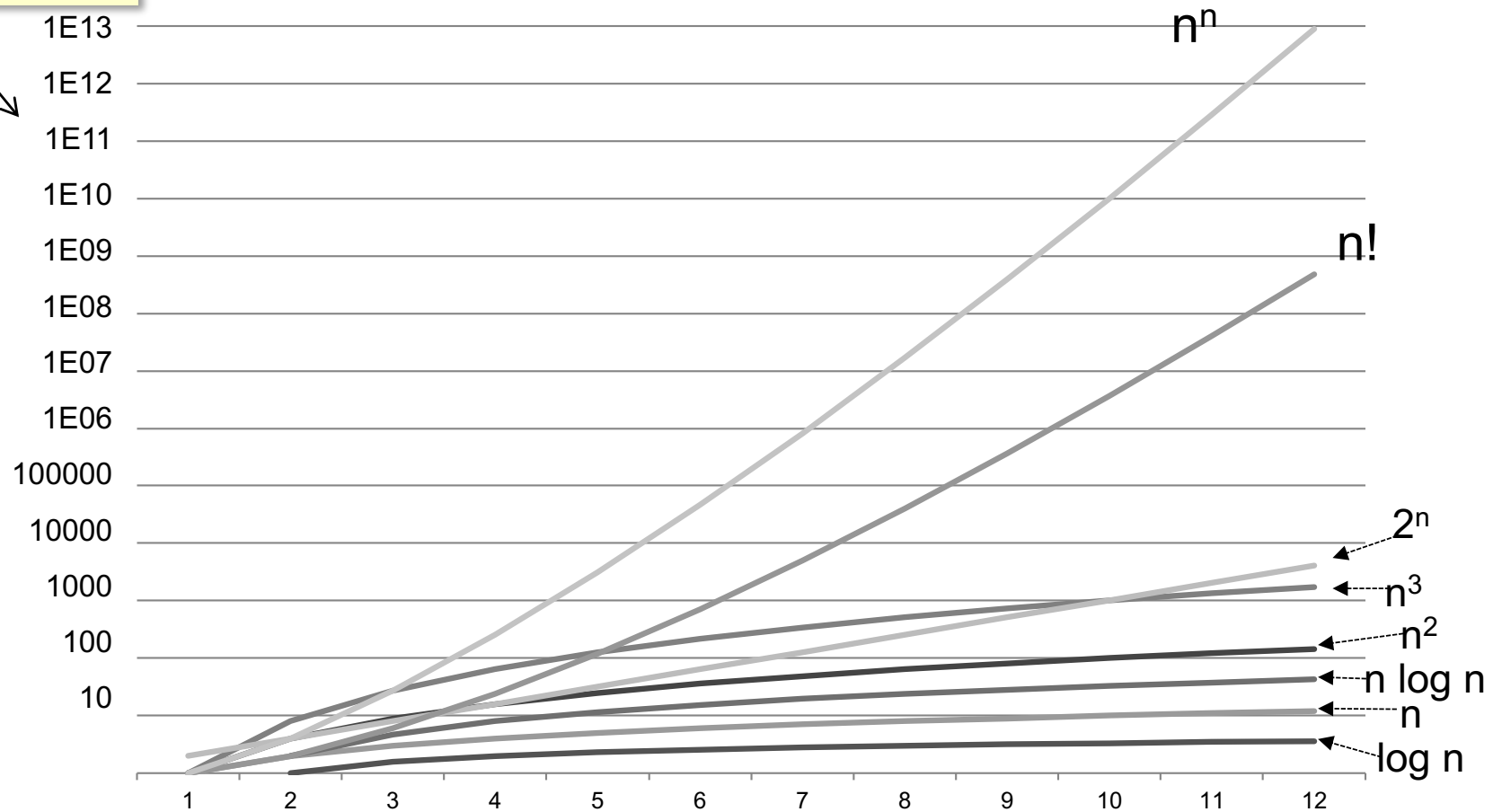
# Comparing other functions



Note:  $n^n$ ,  $n^3$ ,  $n!$  off the scale by  $n=5$ .

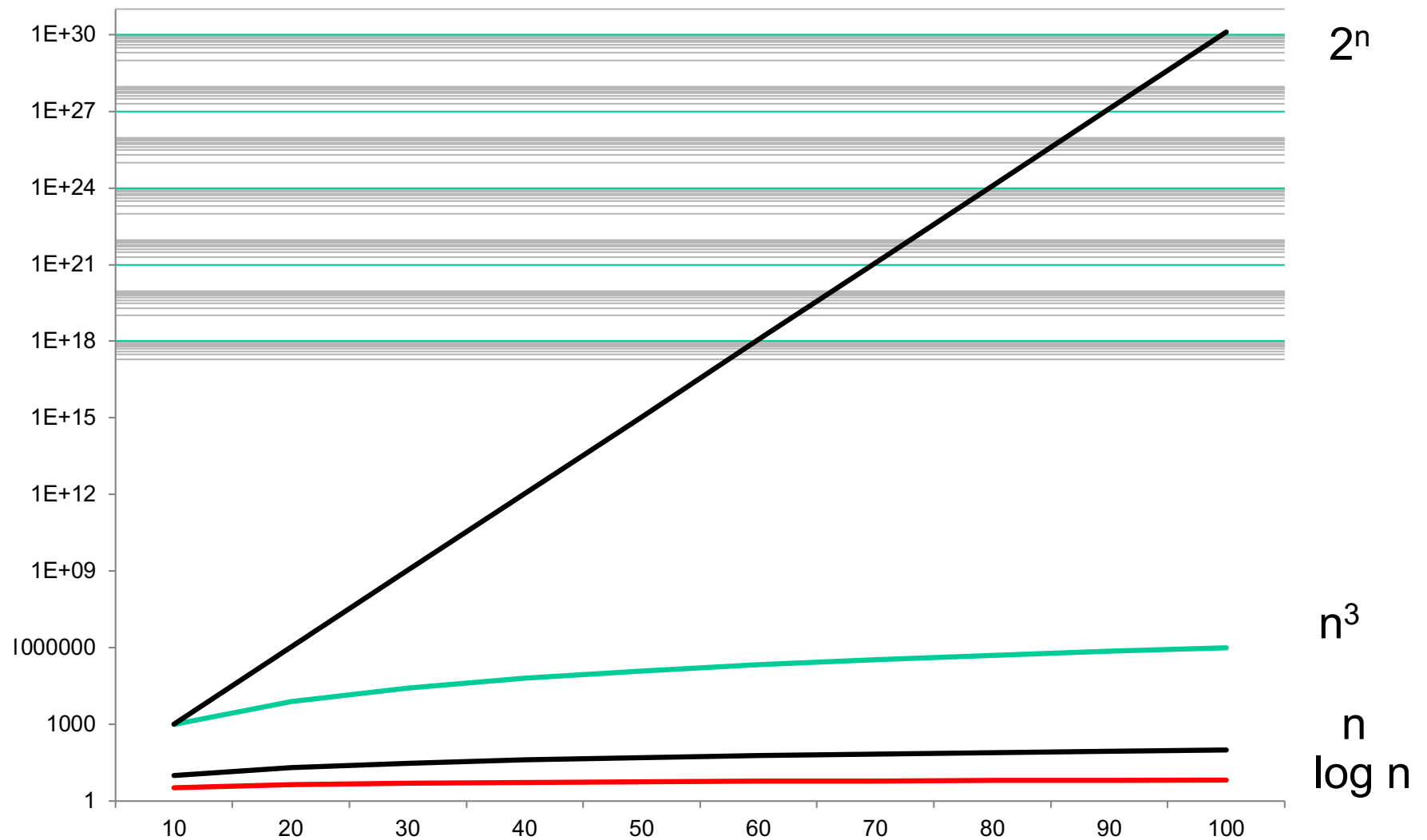
# comparing functions

Note the  
scale



Note: when we reach  $n=12$ ,  $n^3$  is now less than  $2^n$  and  $n!$

# Comparing functions for larger input



## Comparing functions (continued)

- As we extended out the graph, the difference between the functions became clearer and more consistent
- For larger values of  $n$ , the differences are significant
  - choosing an algorithm with a high run-time will make your program useless for large data sets
- Also note that we were only comparing simple functions of  $n$ 
  - we didn't look at, for example,  $n^2+n+3$ ,  $4n+1$ , or  $2n^2+5n$
- We only need a general picture of how quickly a function grows, and we use the simple functions as a reference
  - can we have any confidence in this comparison?



# Big-oh notation

Consider two functions  $f$  and  $g$ , mapping positive integers to positive integers ( so  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  and  $g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  )

We will say  $f(x)$  is  $O(g(x))$  if there are two constant values  $k$  and  $C$  so that whenever  $x$  is bigger than  $k$ ,  $f(x) \leq C * g(x)$  .

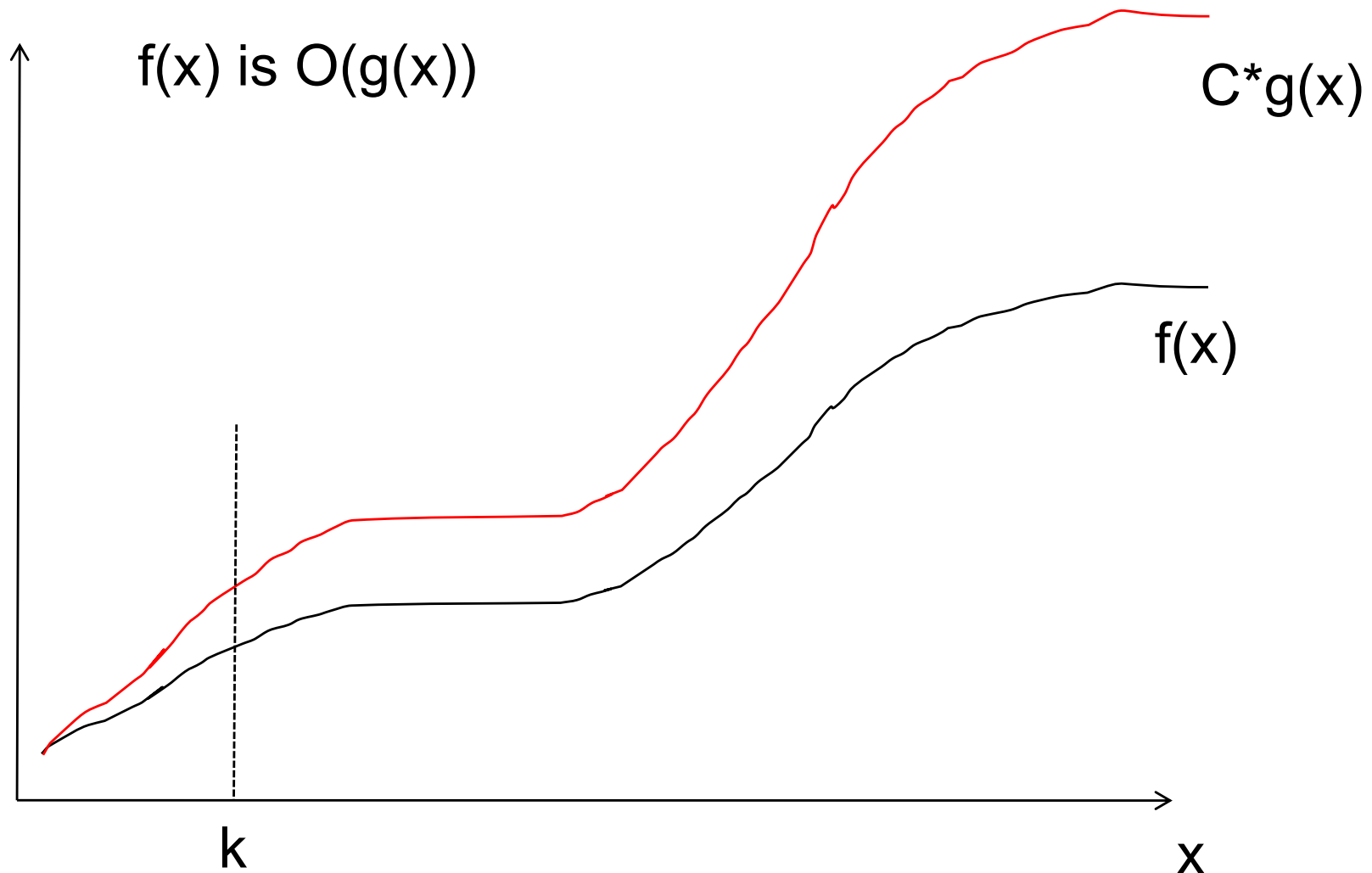
This means that when  $x$  is big enough,  $f(x)$  is never more than some constant multiple of  $g(x)$ , and so  $f(x)$  will not become drastically worse than  $g(x)$ .

We read this as " $f(x)$  is big-oh of  $g(x)$ "

Formally,

$f(x)$  is  $O(g(x))$  if and only if  $\exists k \exists C \forall x > k \ f(x) \leq C * g(x)$

# What does big-oh mean for function growth?



For all values of  $x > k$ ,  $f(x)$  will be below the red line.

# Big-oh Example

$x^2+1$  is  $O(x^2)$

Proof [From the definition of  $O(\cdot)$ , this claims that for some  $k$ , there is a constant  $C$  so that whenever  $x > k$ , then  $x^2+1 \leq C \cdot x^2$ . That is what we want to prove – i.e. find  $k$  and  $C$ .]

When  $x > 0$ ,  $x^2+1 \leq x^2+x^2 = 2x^2$  ( $x \in \mathbb{N}$ , so  $x \geq 1$ , and  $x^2 \geq 1$ )

So if  $k=0$  and  $C=2$ , we have: whenever  $x > k$ ,  $x^2+1 \leq C \cdot x^2$ .

Therefore,  $x^2+1$  is  $O(x^2)$ .

This says that  $x^2+1$  does not grow significantly faster than  $x^2$ . So any algorithm taking  $x^2+1$  steps will be roughly similar to an algorithm taking  $x^2$  steps.

# Proof techniques: direct proof

- On the previous slide, we proved that  $x^2+1$  is  $O(x^2)$ .
- By **proof**, we mean a convincing argument that the statement is correct.
- In this case, we gave a **direct proof**
  - we started with what we knew, and applied reasoning to turn those known facts into the statement we wanted
- in logic, we used direct proof to prove that conclusions followed from initial facts
  - the logic proofs were formal – we listed all facts, showed all steps, and used only valid rules of inference
  - normally, our proofs will be more informal – we may skip steps, and rely on human understanding

## Example 2

$4x^2+5x-3$  is  $O(x^2)$

Proof

So  $4x^2+5x-3$  does not grow too fast compared to  $x^2$

## Example 3

$x^3+2x^2+2$  is not  $O(x^2)$

Proof [First, we will assume  $x^3+2x^2+2$  is  $O(x^2)$ , and then we will show that this leads to a contradiction.]

Suppose  $x^3+2x^2+2$  **is**  $O(x^2)$ . Then, by the definition of  $O(\cdot)$ , there is some pair of constants  $k$  and  $C$  such that for every  $x > k$ ,  $x^3+2x^2+2 \leq C \cdot x^2$ .

Consider any value of  $x$  bigger than  $k$ .

So we have  $x^3+2x^2+2 \leq Cx^2$

Then we must have  $x+2+2/x^2 \leq C$

Therefore  $x+2 \leq C$  (since  $2/x^2 > 0$ , and we are no longer adding it)

But if we pick any value of  $x$  s.t.  $x > C$ , we must have  $x+2 > C$ .

These last two statements contradict each other, so something is wrong in our reasoning. The only thing we could have got wrong is the assumption that  $x^3+2x^2+2$  is  $O(x^2)$ . Therefore,  $x^3+2x^2+2$  is not  $O(x^2)$ .

# The implications

By the previous example,  $x^3+2x^2+2$  will grow much faster than  $x^2$  when  $x$  is large.

So if we have two algorithms, A and B, for handling the same task, where the input is of size  $n$ , and

- the number of steps required by A is  $O(n^2)$
- the number of steps required by B is  $n^3+2n^2+2$ ,

then if the input might be large, we should prefer algorithm A.

For large input, algorithm B will require more time than A, and as the input gets larger, the gap in performance will continue to get bigger.

# Proof Technique: proof by contradiction

The proof of the previous example used **proof by contradiction**.

We wanted to prove some statement.

We first assume the negation of the statement. We then apply reasoning to show that that assumption leads to a contradiction. If all our reasoning is correct, then the only thing that could be wrong is the assumption. Therefore, the statement must be correct.



# Polynomial growth

If  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + a_{n-2} x^{n-2} + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$   
where each  $a_i$  is a constant, then  $f(x)$  is  $O(x^n)$

Proof      Let  $x > 1$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + a_{n-2} x^{n-2} + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0 \\ &\leq |a_n| x^n + |a_{n-1}| x^{n-1} + |a_{n-2}| x^{n-2} + \dots + |a_2| x^2 + |a_1| x + |a_0| \\ &\leq |a_n| x^n + |a_{n-1}| x^n + |a_{n-2}| x^n + \dots + |a_2| x^n + |a_1| x^n + |a_0| x^n \\ &= (|a_n| + |a_{n-1}| + |a_{n-2}| + \dots + |a_2| + |a_1| + |a_0|) x^n \\ &= C x^n, \text{ for } C = |a_n| + |a_{n-1}| + |a_{n-2}| + \dots + |a_2| + |a_1| + |a_0| \end{aligned}$$

so we can take  $k=0$ ,  $C = |a_n| + |a_{n-1}| + |a_{n-2}| + \dots + |a_2| + |a_1| + |a_0|$   
and so  $f(x)$  is  $O(x^n)$

If the running time of an algorithm is a polynomial function of the input size  $x$ , we only need to worry about the highest power of  $x$

# Summary

- we are interested in how many steps our algorithms might need in the worst case
  - we call this the (worst case) **run-time** of the algorithm
- we state the run-time as a function of the size of the input
  - if the function grows too quickly, then programs that implement the algorithms become inefficient
- we use the big-oh notation to classify different functions
  - if  $f(x)$  is not  $O(g(x))$ , then  $f(x)$  will soon become significantly larger than  $g(x)$
  - if the run-time function is a polynomial, we only care about the highest power
- we have a simple hierarchy of run-times based on big-oh:

$$\log n < n < n \log n < n^2 < n^3 < \dots < 2^n < n! < n^n$$

# Next lecture ...

## algorithms for sorting data