

Algorithm Analysis

Algorithm Analysis

Textbook Ch 2,3

Outline

- Justification for analysis
- Landau symbols
- Run time of programs
- Best-, worst-, and average-case

Comparing algorithms

Suppose we have two algorithms. How can we tell which is better?

We could implement both algorithms, run them both

- Expensive and error prone

Preferably, we should analyze them mathematically

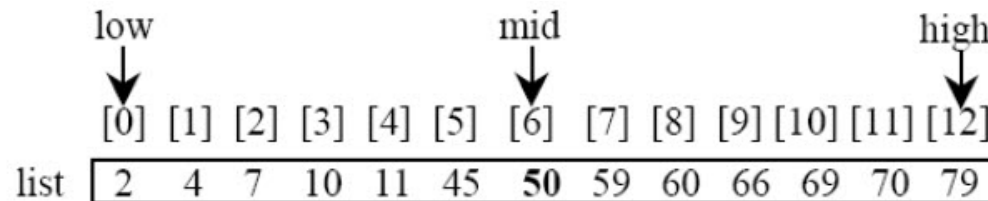
- *Algorithm analysis*

Example

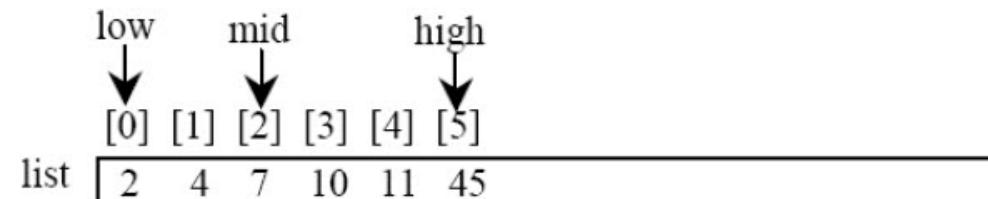
- Find a item in a sorted array of length N
- Algorithm 1: Linear search (check each item from left to right)
 - Do you use this approach when looking up a word in a dictionary?
- Algorithm 2: Binary search

key is 11

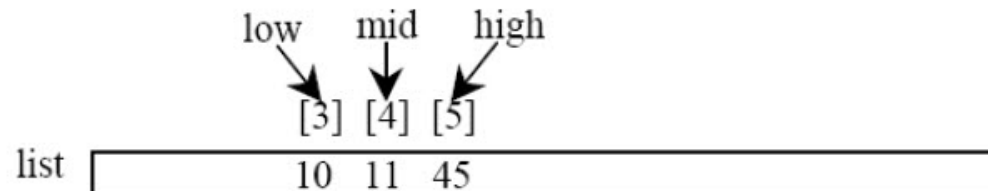
key < 50



key > 7



key == 11



Implementation

Algorithm 1: Linear search

```
int lfind(int key, int a[], int n)
{
    if (n==0) return -1;
    if (key == a[n-1]) return n-1;
    return lfind(key, a, n-1);
}
```

Algorithm 2: Binary search ([demo](#))

```
int bfind(int key, int a[], int left, int right)
{
    if (left+1 == right) return -1;
    int m = (left + right) / 2;
    if (key == a[m]) return m;
    if (key < a[m]) return bfind(key, a, left, m);
    else return bfind(key, a, m, right);
}
```

Empirical comparison

```
// create an array [0,1,2,...,n-1]
```

```
for (i=0; i<n; i++) a[i] = i;
```

```
// search each item in the array
```

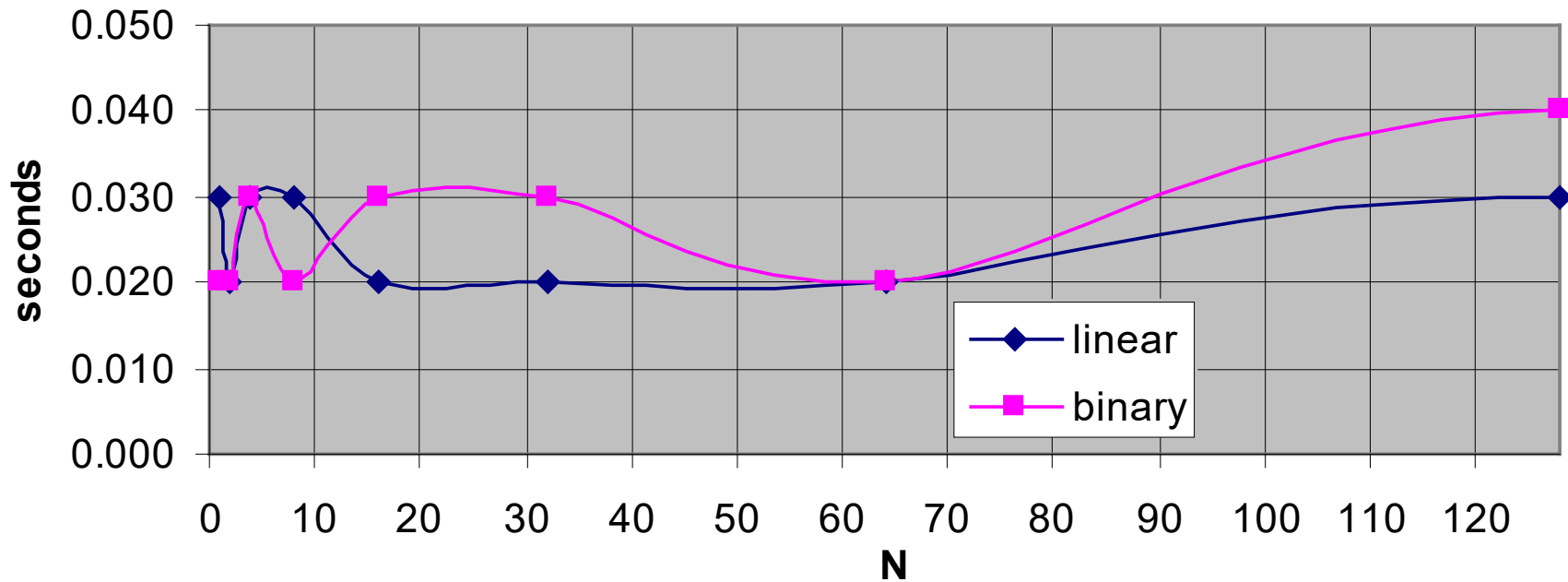
```
for (i=0; i<n; i++) lfind(i,a,n);
```

or

bfind(i,a,-1,n)

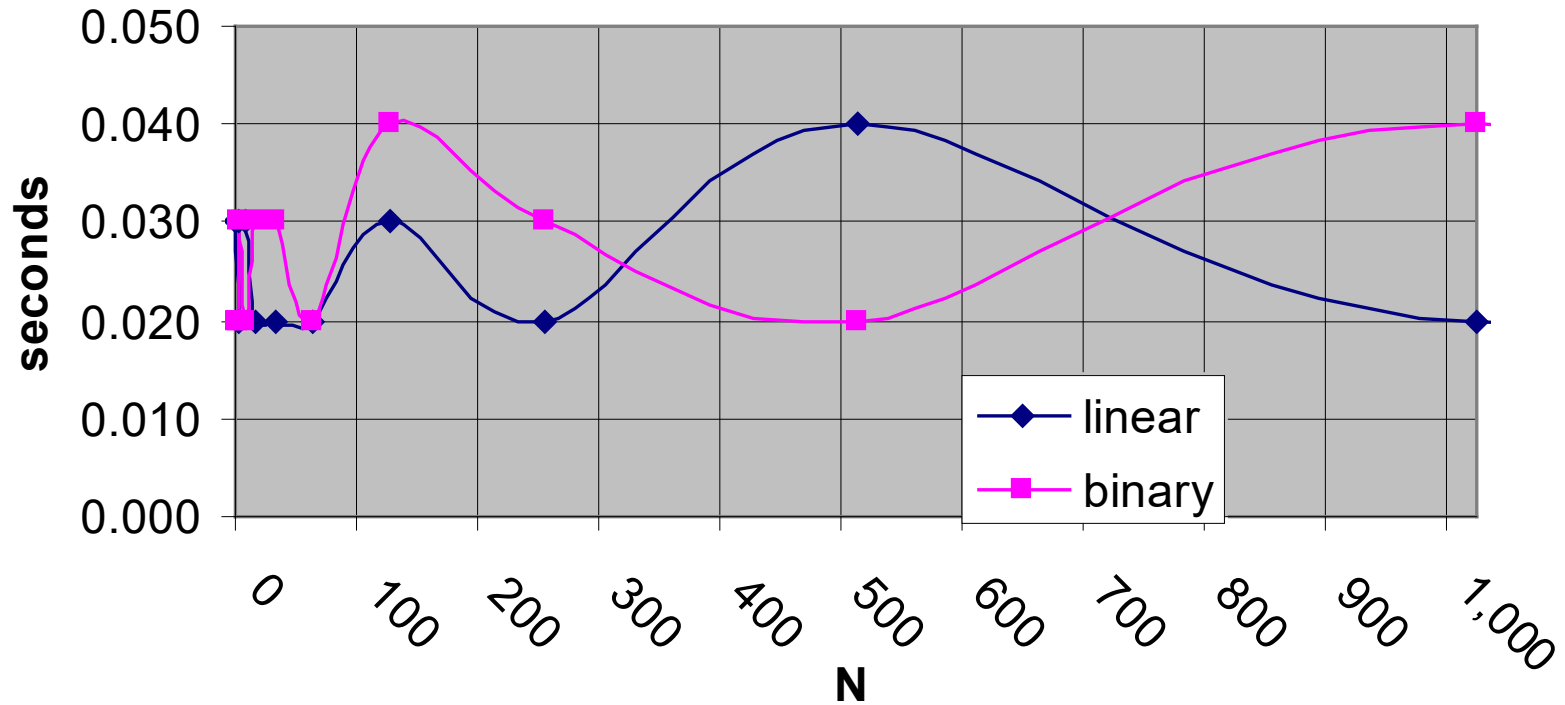
Empirical comparison

linear vs binary search



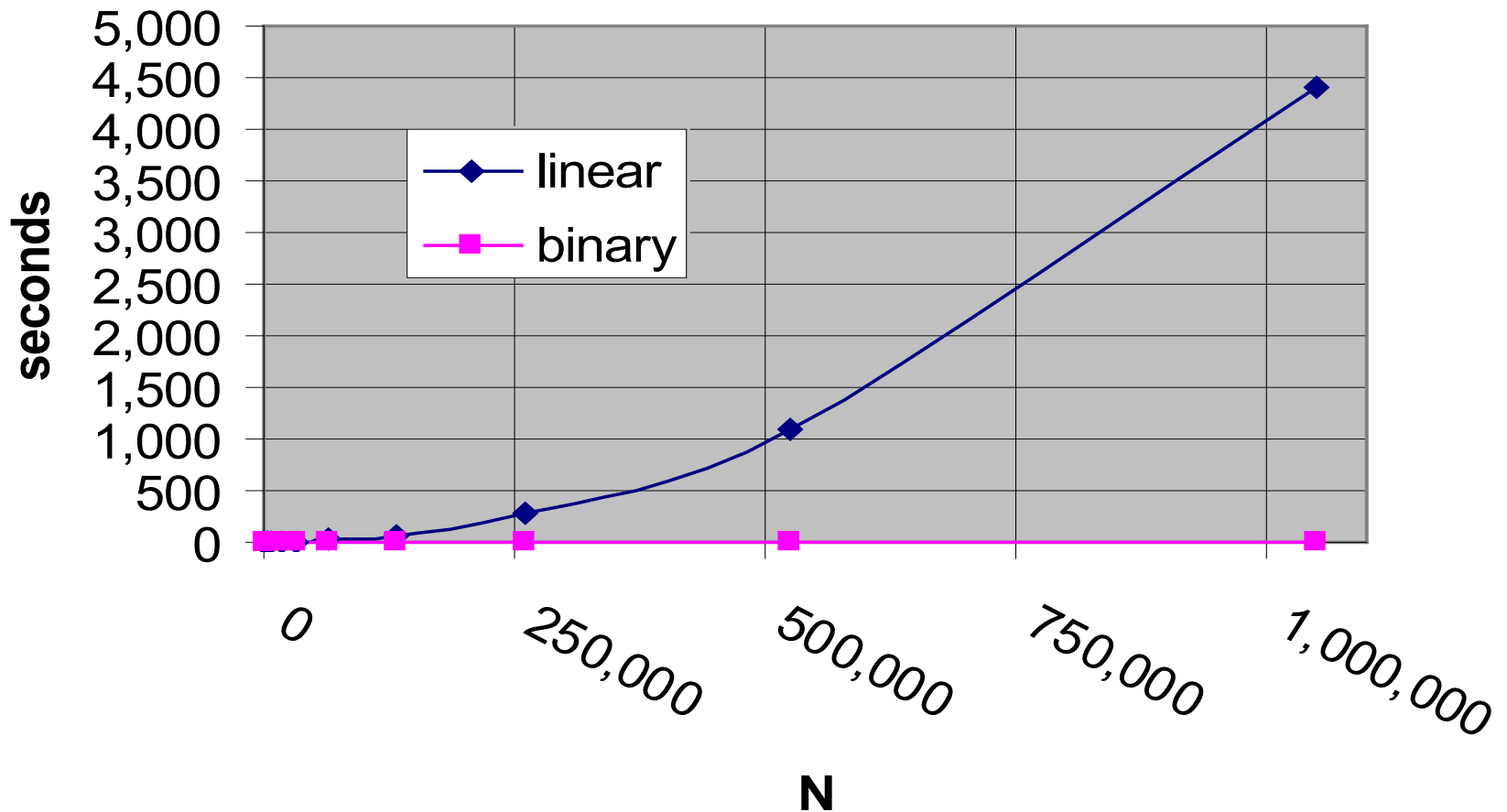
Empirical comparison

linear vs binary search



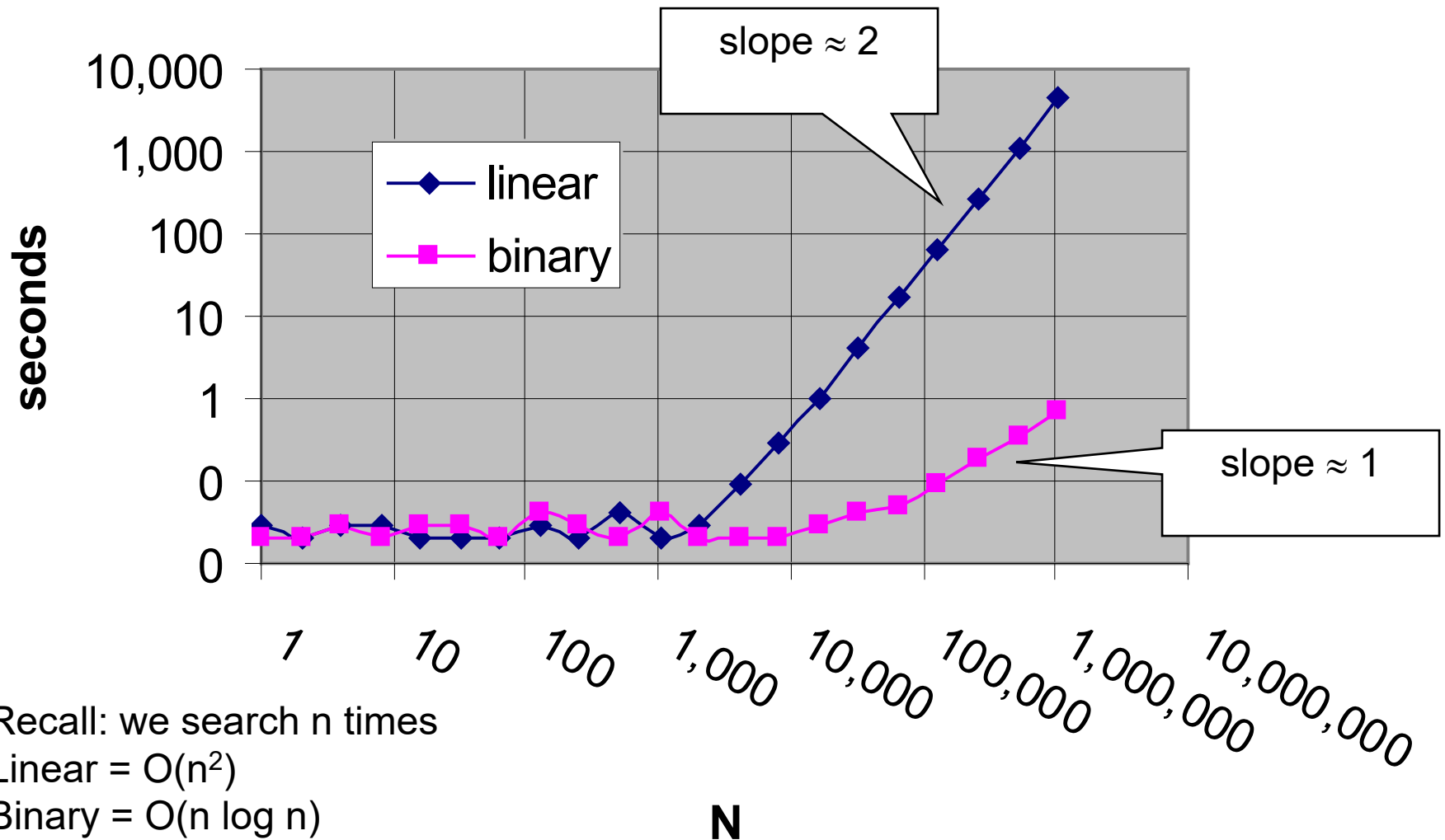
Empirical comparison

linear vs binary search



Empirical comparison

linear vs binary search - log/log plot

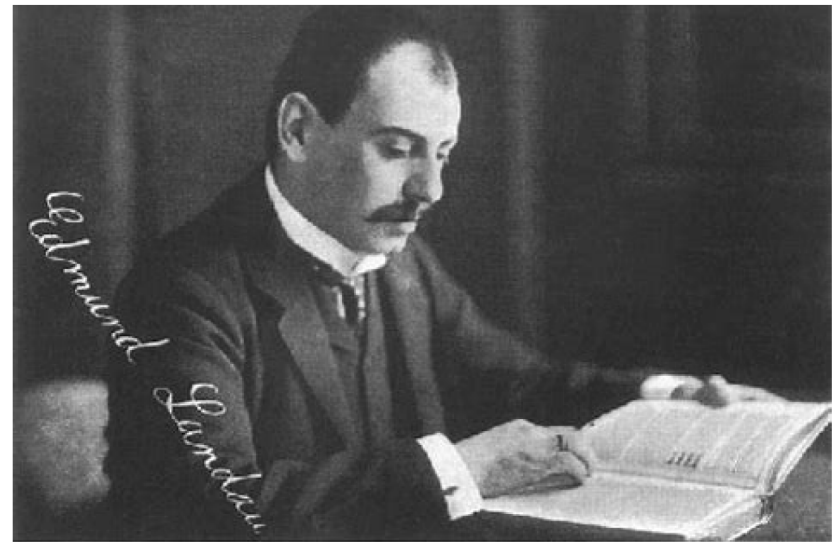


Analytical comparison

- Linear search
 - $O(n)$
- Binary search
 - $O(\log n)$
- So binary search is better than linear search

Outline

- Justification for analysis
- Landau symbols
- Run time of programs
- Best-, worst-, and average-case



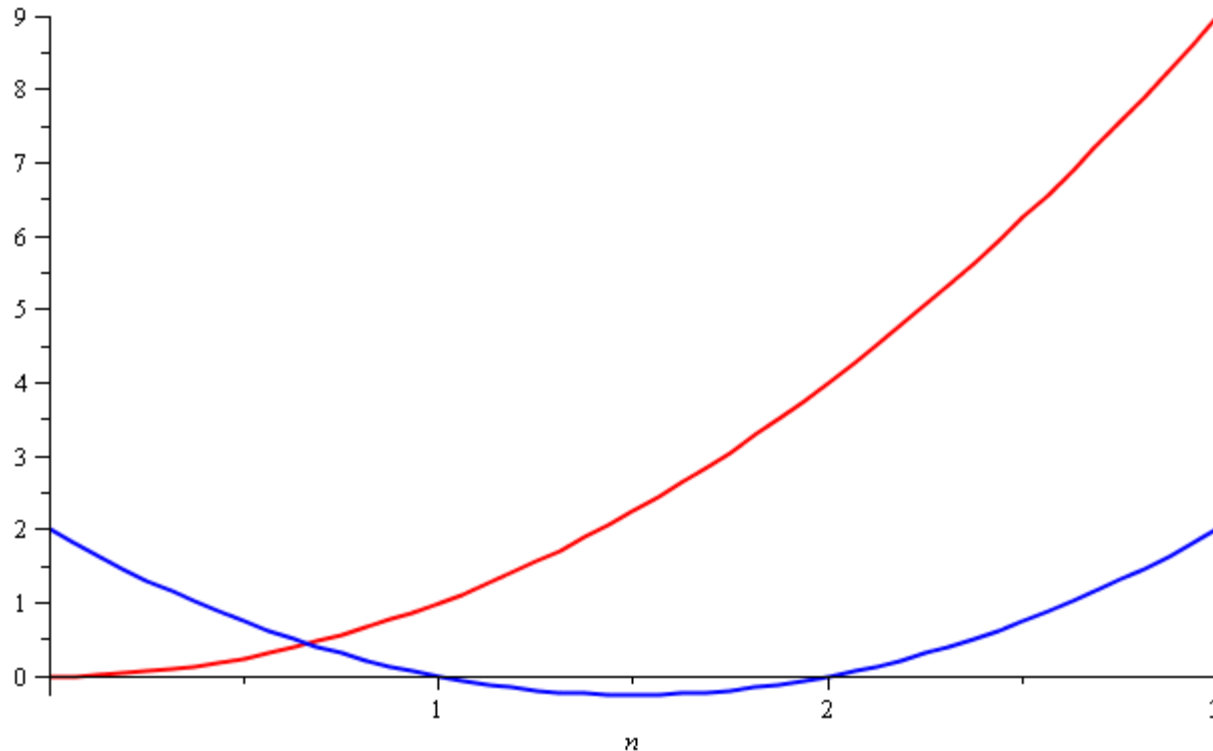
Edmund Landau

Quadratic Growth

Consider the two functions

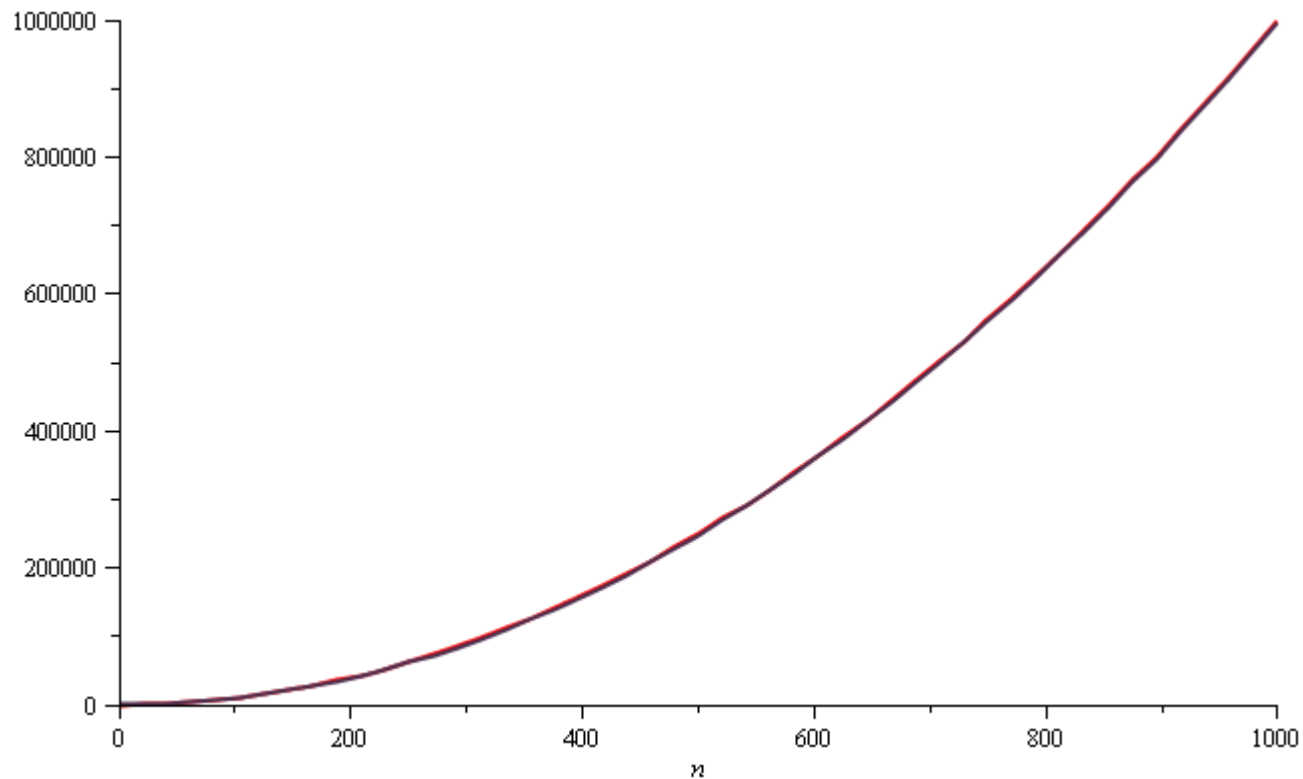
$$f(n) = n^2 \text{ and } g(n) = n^2 - 3n + 2$$

Around $n = 0$, they look very different



Quadratic Growth

Yet on the range $n = [0, 1000]$, they are (relatively) indistinguishable:



Quadratic Growth

The absolute difference is large, for example,

$$f(1000) = 1\,000\,000$$

$$g(1000) = 997\,002$$

but the relative difference is very small

$$\left| \frac{f(1000) - g(1000)}{f(1000)} \right| = 0.002998 < 0.3\%$$

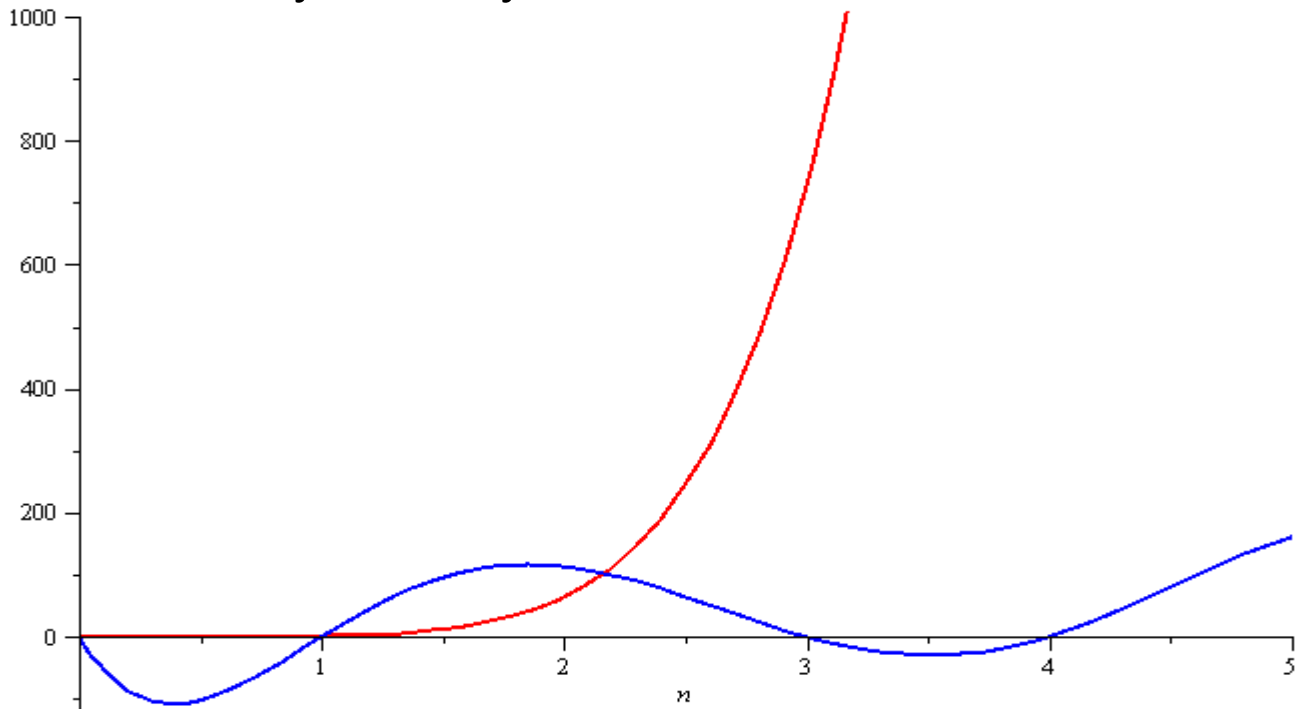
and this difference goes to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Polynomial Growth

To demonstrate with another example,

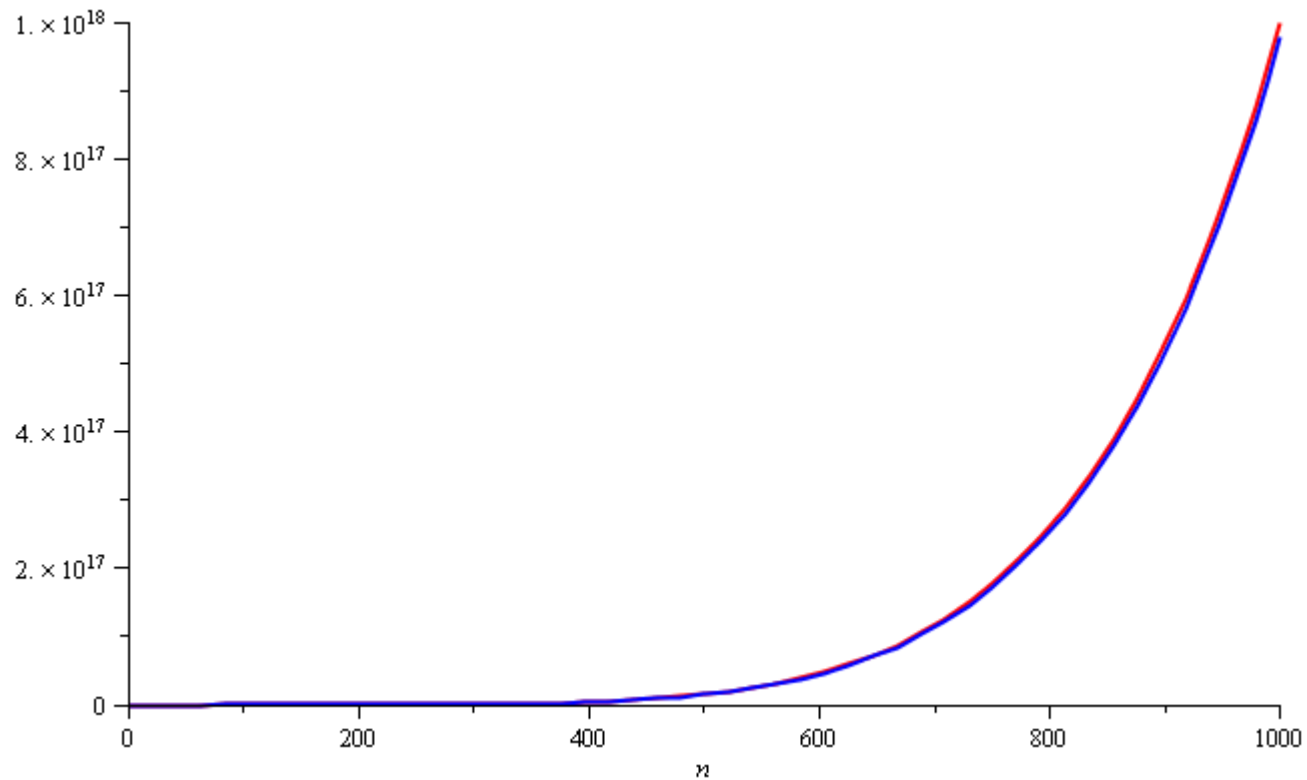
$$f(n) = n^6 \quad \text{and} \quad g(n) = n^6 - 23n^5 + 193n^4 - 729n^3 + 1206n^2 - 648n$$

Around $n = 0$, they are very different



Polynomial Growth

Still, around $n = 1000$, the relative difference is less than 3%



Polynomial Growth

The justification for both pairs of polynomials being similar is that, in both cases, they each had the same leading term:

n^2 in the first case, n^6 in the second

What if the coefficients of the leading terms were different?

- In this case, both functions would exhibit the same rate of growth, however, one would always be **proportionally larger**

However, if the two functions describe the run-time of two algorithms

- We can always run the slower algorithm on a faster computer to make them equally fast

In contrast: **can we make linear search equally fast to binary search by using a faster computer** (say, an **Ultimate Laptop**)?

Weak ordering

Consider the following definitions:

- We will consider two functions to be equivalent, $f \sim g$, if

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c \text{ where } 0 < c < \infty$$

- We will state that $f < g$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$

For functions we are interested in, these define a weak ordering

Weak ordering

Let $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ describe the run-time of two algorithms

- If $f(n) \sim g(n)$, then it is **always possible** to improve the performance of one function over the other by purchasing a faster computer
- If $f(n) < g(n)$, then you can **never** purchase a computer fast enough so that the second function always runs in less time than the first

Landau Symbols

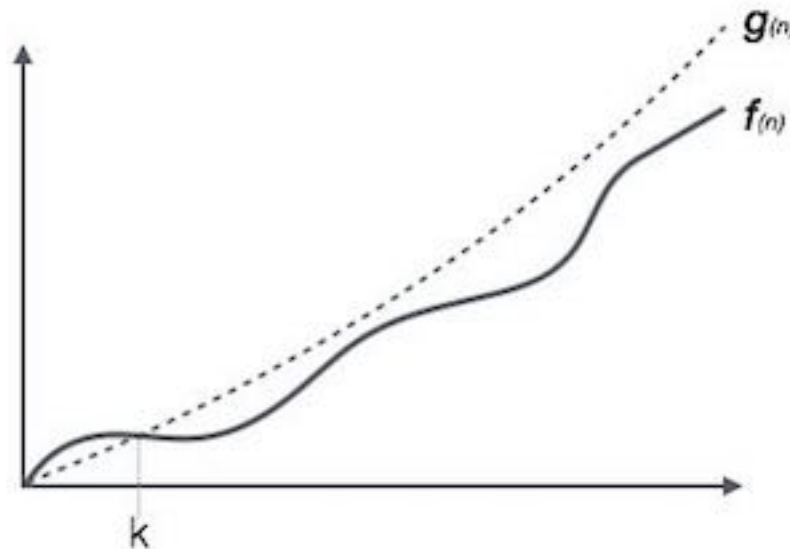
Better known as big O notation

A function $f(n) = \mathbf{O}(g(n))$ if there exists k and c such that

$$f(n) < c g(n)$$

whenever $n > k$

- The function $f(n)$ has a rate of growth no greater than that of $g(n)$



Landau Symbols

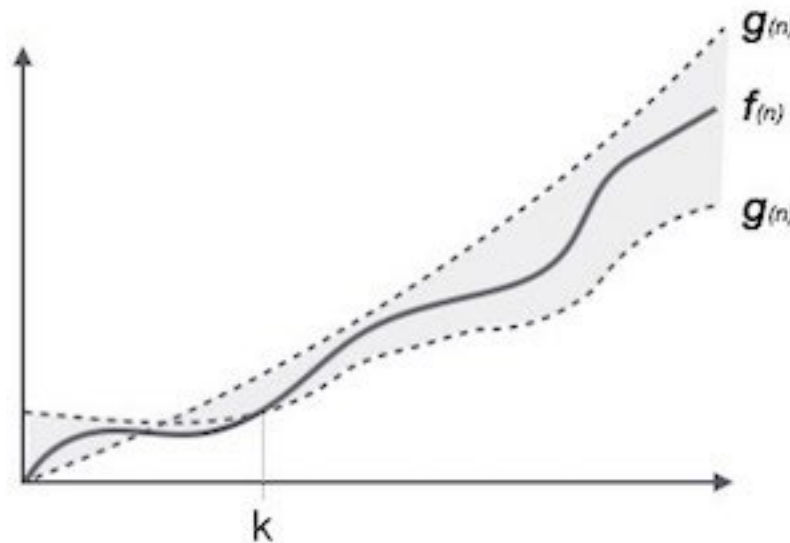
Another Landau symbol is Θ

A function $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if there exist positive k , c_1 , and c_2 such that

$$c_1 g(n) < f(n) < c_2 g(n)$$

whenever $n > k$

- The function $f(n)$ has a rate of growth equal to that of $g(n)$



Landau Symbols

If $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ are polynomials of the **same degree** with positive leading coefficients:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c \quad \text{where} \quad 0 < c < \infty$$

From the definition, this means given $c > \varepsilon > 0$ there

exists a $k > 0$ such that $\left| \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} - c \right| < \varepsilon$ whenever $n > k$

That is,

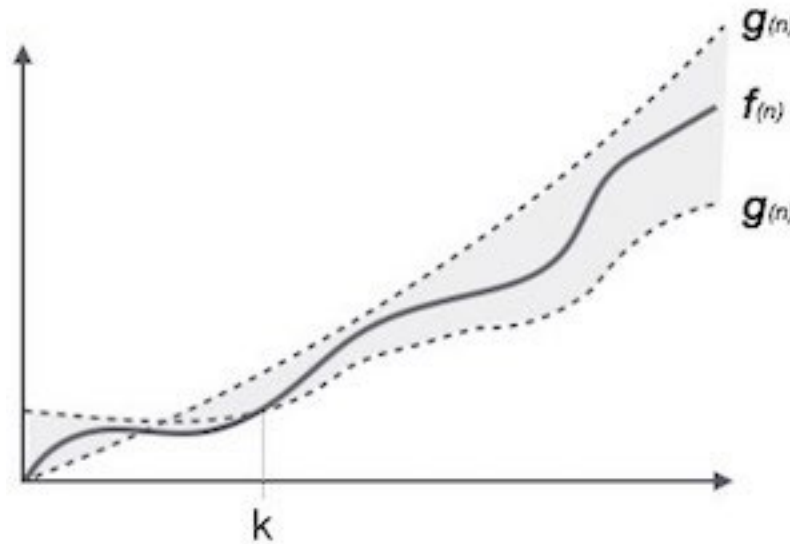
$$c - \varepsilon < \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < c + \varepsilon$$

$$g(n)(c - \varepsilon) < f(n) < g(n)(c + \varepsilon)$$

Landau Symbols

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c$ where $0 < c < \infty$, it follows that $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$

$$g(n)(c - \varepsilon) < f(n) < g(n)(c + \varepsilon)$$



Landau Symbols

We have a similar definition for **O**:

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c$ where $0 \leq c < \infty$, it follows that **$f(n) = O(g(n))$**

There are other possibilities we would like to describe:

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$, we will say **$f(n) = o(g(n))$**

- The function $f(n)$ has a rate of growth less than that of $g(n)$

We would also like to describe the opposite cases:

- The function $f(n)$ has a rate of growth greater than that of $g(n)$
- The function $f(n)$ has a rate of growth greater than or equal to that of $g(n)$

Landau Symbols

We will at times use five possible descriptions

$$f(n) = \mathbf{o}(g(n)) \qquad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$$

$$f(n) = \mathbf{O}(g(n)) \qquad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty$$

$$f(n) = \mathbf{\Theta}(g(n)) \qquad 0 < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty$$

$$f(n) = \mathbf{\Omega}(g(n)) \qquad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} > 0$$

$$f(n) = \mathbf{\omega}(g(n)) \qquad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \infty$$


Landau Symbols

Graphically, we can summarize these as follows:

We say $f(n) =$

$\mathbf{O}(g(n))$	$\mathbf{\Omega}(g(n))$
$\mathbf{o}(g(n))$	$\mathbf{\Theta}(g(n))$
$\mathbf{\omega}(g(n))$	

if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} =$


$0 \qquad 0 < c < \infty \qquad \infty$

Landau Symbols

For the functions we are interested in, it can be said that

$f(n) = \mathbf{O}(g(n))$ is equivalent to $f(n) = \mathbf{\Theta}(g(n))$ or $f(n) = \mathbf{o}(g(n))$

and

$f(n) = \mathbf{\Omega}(g(n))$ is equivalent to $f(n) = \mathbf{\Theta}(g(n))$ or $f(n) = \mathbf{\omega}(g(n))$

Landau Symbols

Some other observations we can make are:

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$$

$$f(n) = \mathbf{O}(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) = \mathbf{\Omega}(f(n))$$

$$f(n) = \mathbf{o}(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow g(n) = \mathbf{\omega}(f(n))$$

Big- Θ as an Equivalence Relation

If we look at the first relationship, we notice that

$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ seems to describe an equivalence relation:

1. $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if and only if $g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
2. $f(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
3. If $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ and $g(n) = \Theta(h(n))$, it follows that $f(n) = \Theta(h(n))$

Consequently, we can group all functions into equivalence classes, where all functions within one class are big-theta Θ of each other

Big- Θ as an Equivalence Relation

For example, all of

$$\begin{array}{lll} n^2 & 100000 n^2 - 4 n + 19 & n^2 + 1000000 \\ 323 n^2 - 4 n \ln(n) + 43 n + 10 & & 42n^2 + 32 \\ & n^2 + 61 n \ln^2(n) + 7n + 14 \ln^3(n) + \ln(n) & \end{array}$$

are big- Θ of each other

$$E.g., 42n^2 + 32 = \Theta(323 n^2 - 4 n \ln(n) + 43 n + 10)$$

Big- Θ as an Equivalence Relation

We will select just one element to represent the entire class of these functions: n^2

- We **could choose any function**, but this is the simplest

Big- Θ as an Equivalence Relation

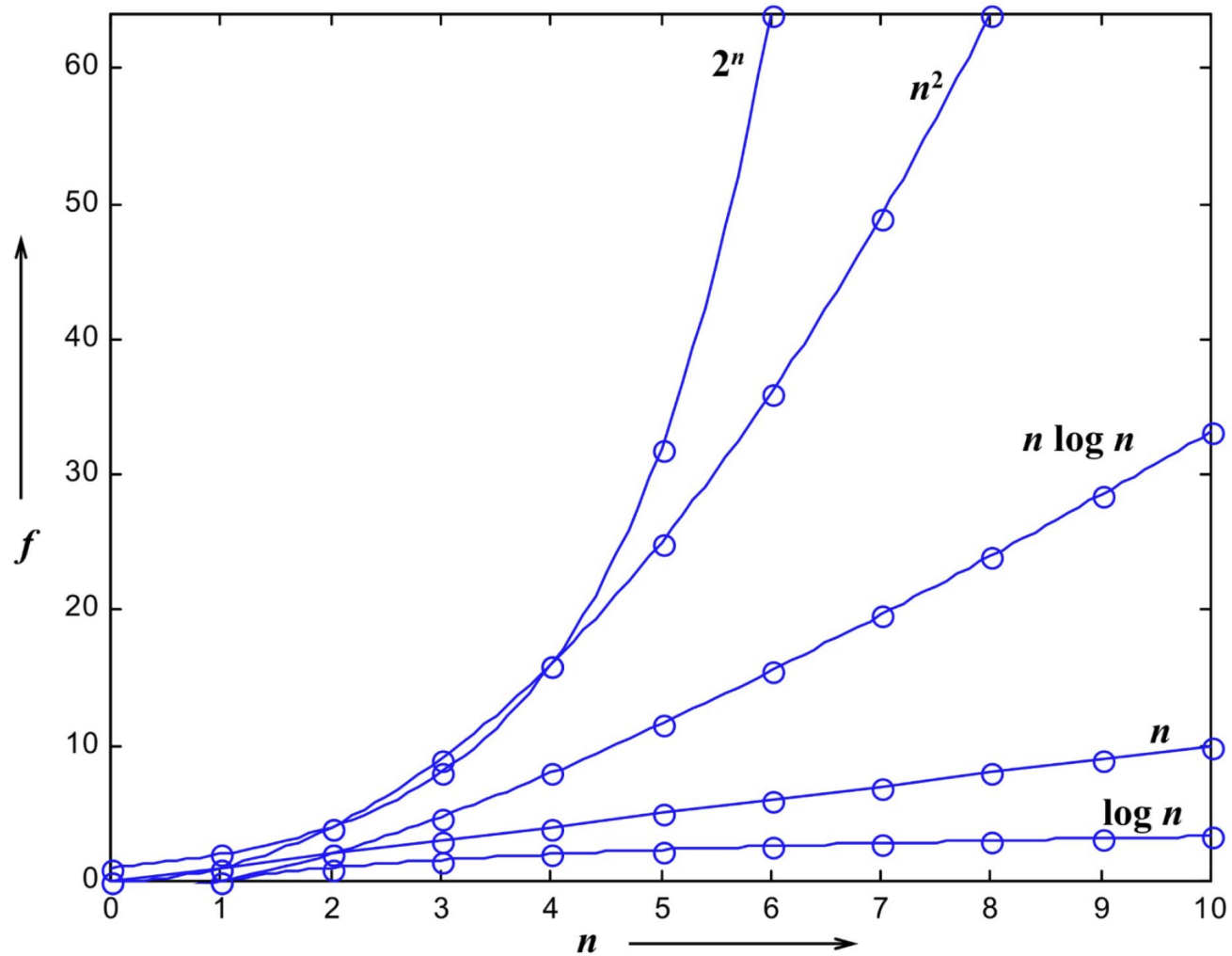
The most common classes are given names:

$\Theta(1)$	constant
$\Theta(\ln(n))$	logarithmic
$\Theta(n)$	linear
$\Theta(n \ln(n))$	" $n \log n$ "
$\Theta(n^2)$	quadratic
$\Theta(n^3)$	cubic
$2^n, e^n, 4^n, \dots$	exponential

Empirical comparison

	1	2	4	8	16	32
1	1	1	1	1	1	1
$\log n$	0	1	2	3	4	5
n	1	2	4	8	16	32
$n \log n$	0	2	8	24	64	160
n^2	1	4	16	64	256	1024
n^3	1	8	64	512	4096	32768
2^n	2	4	16	256	65536	4294967296
$n !$	1	2	24	40326	2092278988000	26313×10^{33}

Empirical comparison plot



Logarithms and Exponentials

Recall that all **logarithms are scalar multiples of each other**

- Therefore $\log_b(n) = \Theta(\ln(n))$ for any base b

On the other hand, there is no single equivalence class for exponential functions:

- If $1 < a < b$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a^n}{b^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{a}{b}\right)^n = 0$
- Therefore $a^n = o(b^n)$

But any exponentially growing function is almost universally undesirable to have!

Logarithms and Exponentials

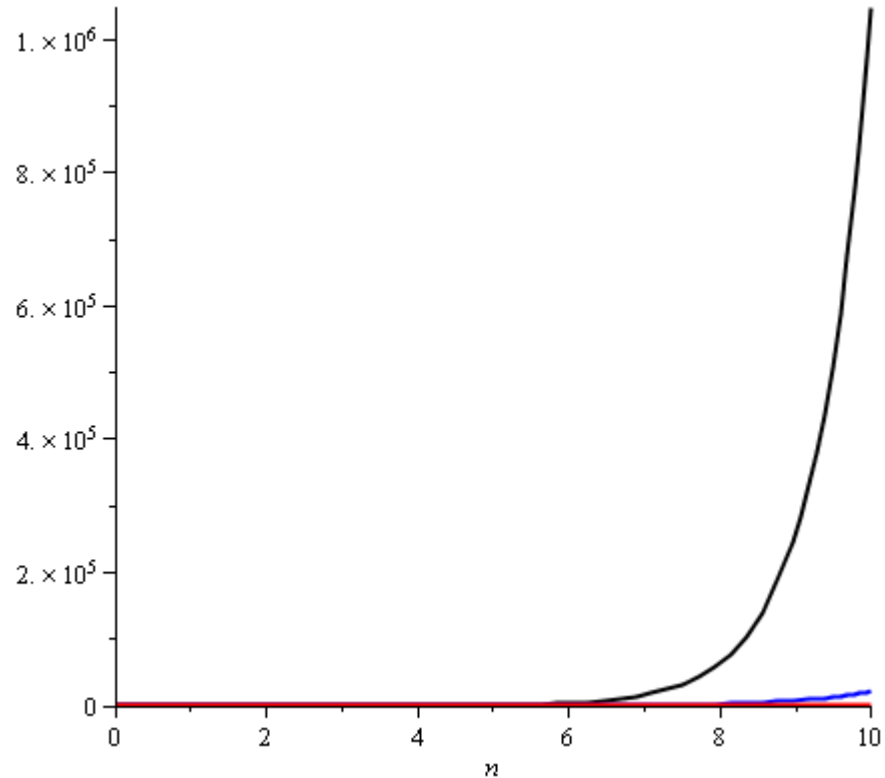
Plotting 2^n , e^n , and 4^n on the range $[1, 10]$ already shows how significantly different the functions grow

Note:

$$2^{10} = 1024$$

$$e^{10} \approx 22\,026$$

$$4^{10} = 1\,048\,576$$



Little-o as a Weak Ordering

We can show that, for example

$$\ln(n) = o(n^p)$$

for any $p > 0$

Proof: Using l'Hôpital's rule, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(n)}{n^p} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/n}{pn^{p-1}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{pn^p} = \frac{1}{p} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-p} = 0$$

Conversely, $1 = o(\ln(n))$

Little-o as a Weak Ordering

If p and q are real positive numbers where $p < q$

- It follows that $n^p = o(n^q)$
- For example, matrix-matrix multiplication is $\Theta(n^3)$ but a refined algorithm is $\Theta(n^{\lg(7)})$ where $\lg(7) \approx 2.81$
- Also, $n^p = o(\ln(n)n^p)$, but $\ln(n)n^p = o(n^q)$
 - n^p has a slower rate of growth than $\ln(n)n^p$, but
 - $\ln(n)n^p$ has a slower rate of growth than n^q for $p < q$
 - Ex: $n \ln n = o(n^{1.000000000001})$

Little-o as a Weak Ordering

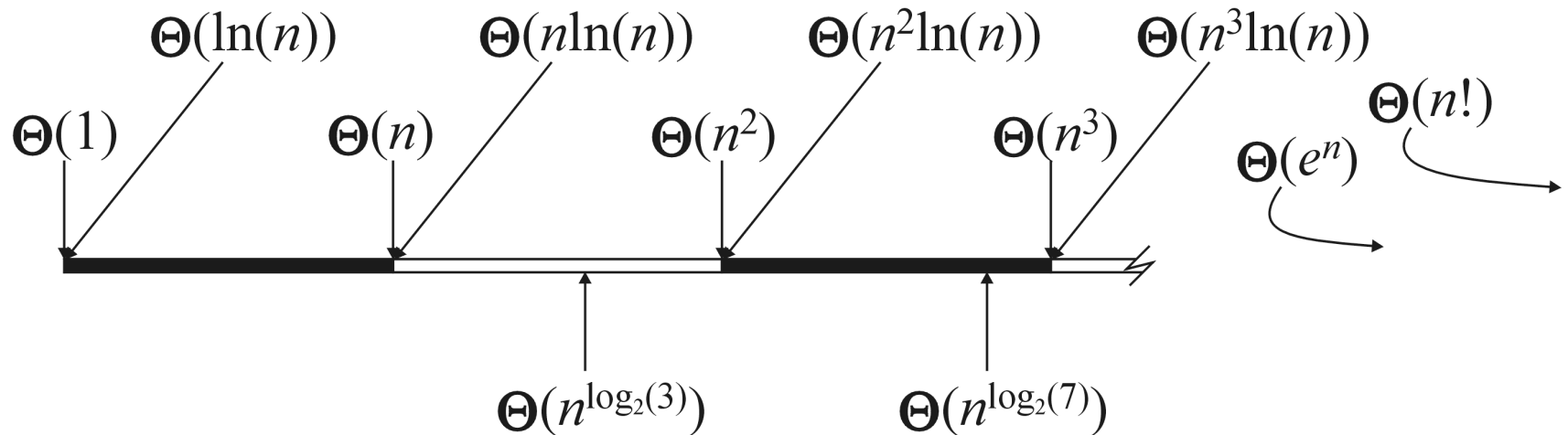
If we restrict ourselves to functions $f(n)$ which are $\Theta(n^p)$ and $\Theta(\ln(n)n^p)$, we note:

- It is never true that $f(n) = o(f(n))$
- If $f(n) \neq \Theta(g(n))$, it follows that either
$$f(n) = o(g(n)) \text{ or } g(n) = o(f(n))$$
- If $f(n) = o(g(n))$ and $g(n) = o(h(n))$, it follows that $f(n) = o(h(n))$

This defines a weak ordering!

Little-o as a Weak Ordering

Graphically, we can show this relationship by marking these against the real line



Outline

- Justification for analysis
- Landau symbols
- Run time of programs
- Best-, worst-, and average-case

Algorithms Analysis

To properly investigate the determination of run times asymptotically:

- We will begin with machine instructions and basic operations
- Control statements
- Conditional-controlled loops
- Functions
- Recursive functions

Operators

There is a close relationship between basic operations and machine instructions, so we may assume each operation requires a fixed number of CPU cycles, i.e., $\Theta(1)$ time:

- Variable assignment `=`
- Integer operations `+` `-` `*` `/` `%` `++` `--`
- Logical operations `&&` `||` `!`
- Bitwise operations `&` `|` `^` `~`
- Relational operations `==` `!=` `<` `<=` `>=` `>`
- Memory allocation and deallocation `new` `delete`

Blocks of Operations

Each operation runs in $\Theta(1)$ time and therefore any fixed number of operations also run in $\Theta(1)$ time, for example:

```
// Swap variables a and b  
int tmp = a;  
a = b;  
b = tmp;
```

Blocks in Sequence

Suppose you have now analyzed a number of blocks of code run in sequence

```
template <typename T>
void update_capacity( int delta ) {
    T *array_old = array;
    int capacity_old = array_capacity;
    array_capacity += delta;
    array = new T[array_capacity];

    for ( int i = 0; i < capacity_old; ++i ) {
        array[i] = array_old[i];
    }

    delete[] array_old;
}
```

$\Theta(1)$

$\Theta(n)$

$\Theta(1)$

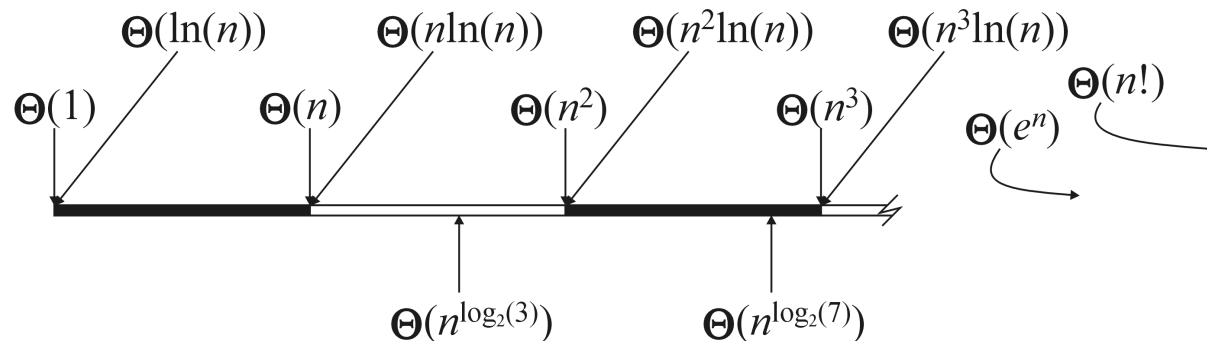
To calculate the total run time, add the entries: $\Theta(1 + n + 1) = \Theta(n)$

Blocks in Sequence

Other examples:

- Run three blocks of code which are $\Theta(1)$, $\Theta(n^2)$, and $\Theta(n)$
Total run time $\Theta(1 + n^2 + n) = \Theta(n^2)$
- Run two blocks of code which are $\Theta(n \ln(n))$, and $\Theta(n^{1.5})$
Total run time $\Theta(n \ln(n) + n^{1.5}) = \Theta(n^{1.5})$

Recall this linear ordering from the previous topic



- When considering a sum, take the dominant term

Blocks in Sequence

What if we have both big O and big Theta?

- if the leading term is big- Θ , then the result must be big- Θ , otherwise
- if the leading term is big- O , we can say the result is big- O

For example,

$$O(n) + O(n^2) + O(n^4) = O(n + n^2 + n^4) = O(n^4)$$

$$O(n) + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^2)$$

$$O(n^2) + \Theta(n) = O(n^2)$$

$$O(n^2) + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^2)$$

Control Statements

Next, we will look at the following control statements

These are statements which potentially alter the execution of instructions

- Conditional statements

`if, switch`

- Condition-controlled loops

`for, while, do-while`

- Count-controlled loops

`for i from 1 to 10 do ... end do; # Maple`

- Collection-controlled loops

`foreach (int i in array) { ... } // C#`

Control Statements

Given any collection of nested control statements, it is always necessary to work inside out

- Determine the run times of the inner-most statements and work your way out

```
for(i=0; i<n; i++) {  
    // do something...  
    for(j=0; j<m; j++) {  
        // do something else...  
    }  
}
```

Control Statements

Given

```
if ( condition ) {  
    // true body  
} else {  
    // false body  
}
```

The run time of a conditional statement is:

- the run time of the condition (the test), plus
- the run time of the body which is run

In most cases, the run time of the condition is $\Theta(1)$

Control Statements

In some cases, it is easy to determine which statement must be run:

```
int factorial ( int n ) {  
    if ( n == 0 ) {  
        return 1;  
    } else {  
        return n * factorial ( n - 1 );  
    }  
}
```

Control Statements

In others, it is less obvious

- Find the maximum entry in an array:

```
int find_max( int *array, int n ) {  
    max = array[0];  
  
    for ( int i = 1; i < n; ++i ) {  
        if ( array[i] > max ) {  
            max = array[i];  
        }  
    }  
  
    return max;  
}
```

Control Statements

If we had information about the distribution of the entries of the array, we may be able to determine it

- if the list is sorted (ascending) it will always be run
- if the list is sorted (descending) it will never be run
- if the list is randomly distributed, then??? We don't know.

Control Statements

- Conditional

if C then S1 else S2

- Suppose you are doing a big O analysis

$\text{Time}(C) + \text{Max}(\text{Time}(S1), \text{Time}(S2))$ or

$\text{Time}(C) + \text{Time}(S1) + \text{Time}(S2)$?

Condition-controlled Loops

The C++ for loop is a condition controlled statement:

```
for ( int i = 0; i < N; ++i ) {  
    // ...  
}
```

is identical to

```
int i = 0;                                // initialization  
while ( i < N ) {                          // condition  
    // ...  
    ++i;                                  // increment  
}
```


Condition-controlled Loops

If the body does not depend on the variable (in this example, `i`), then the run time of

```
for ( int i = 0; i < n; ++i ) {  
    // code which is Theta(f(n))  
}
```

is $\Theta(n f(n))$

If the body is $\mathbf{O}(f(n))$, then the run time of the loop is $\mathbf{O}(n f(n))$

Condition-controlled Loops

For example,

```
int sum = 0;
for ( int i = 0; i < n; ++i ) {
    sum += 1;      // Theta(1)
}
```

This code has run time

$$\Theta(n \cdot \mathbf{1}) = \Theta(n)$$

Condition-controlled Loops

Another example

```
int sum = 0;
for ( int i = 0; i < n; ++i ) {
    for ( int j = 0; j < n; ++j ) {
        sum += 1;      // Theta(1)
    }
}
```

The previous example showed that the inner loop is $\Theta(n)$, thus the outer loop is

$$\Theta(n \cdot n) = \Theta(n^2)$$

Condition-controlled Loops

Another example

```
int sum = 0;
for ( int i = 0; i < n; ++i ) {
    for ( int j = 0; j < i; ++j ) {
        sum += i + j;
    }
}
```

The inner loop is $\Theta(i)$, hence the outer is

$$\Theta\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} i\right) = \Theta\left(\frac{n(n-1)}{2}\right) = \Theta(n^2)$$

Analysis of Repetition Statements

Final example:

```
int sum = 0;
for ( int i = 0; i < n; ++i ) {
    for ( int j = 0; j < i; ++j ) {
        for ( int k = 0; k < j; ++k ) {
            sum += i + j + k;
        }
    }
}
```

From inside to out:

$\Theta(1)$

$\Theta(j)$

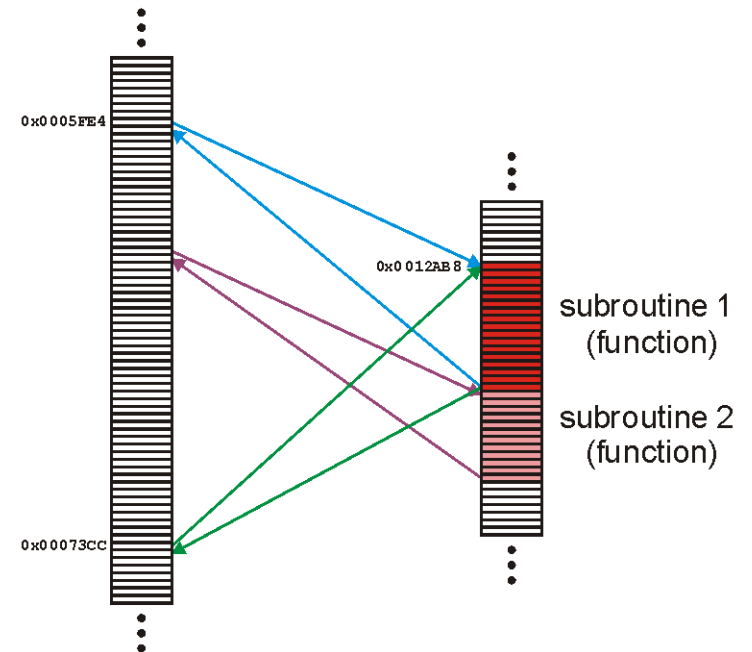
$\Theta(i^2)$

$\Theta(n^3)$

Functions

A function (or subroutine) is code which has been separated out:

- repeated operations
 - e.g., mathematical functions
- to group related tasks
 - e.g., initialization



Functions

Because a subroutine (function) can be called from anywhere, we must:

- prepare the appropriate environment
- deal with arguments (parameters)
- jump to the subroutine
- execute the subroutine
- deal with the return value
- clean up

We will assume that the overhead required to make a function call and to return is $\Theta(1)$.

Functions

Given a function $f(n)$ (the run time of which depends on n) we will associate the run time of $f(n)$ by some function $T_f(n)$

- We may write this as $T(n)$
- This includes the time required to both call and return from the function

Functions

Consider this function:

```
void Disjoint_sets::set_union( int m, int n ) {
```

```
    m = find( m );
```

```
    n = find( n );
```

```
    if ( m == n ) {  
        return;
```

```
    }
```

```
    --num_disjoint_sets;
```

```
    if ( tree_height[m] >= tree_height[n] ) {  
        parent[n] = m;
```

```
        if ( tree_height[m] == tree_height[n] ) {
```

```
            ++( tree_height[m] );
```

```
            max_height = std::max( max_height, tree_height[m] );
```

```
        }
```

```
    } else {
```

```
        parent[m] = n;
```

```
    }
```

```
}
```

$$T_{\text{set_union}} = 2T_{\text{find}} + \Theta(1)$$

$2T_{\text{find}}$

$\Theta(1)$

Recursive Functions

A function is relatively simple (and boring) if it simply performs operations and calls other functions

Most interesting functions designed to solve problems usually end up calling themselves

- Such a function is said to be *recursive*

Recursive Functions

As an example, we could implement the factorial function recursively:

```
int factorial( int n ) {  
    if ( n <= 1 ) {  
        return 1;  $\Theta(1)$   
    } else {  
        return n * factorial( n - 1 );  $T_1(n-1) + \Theta(1)$   
    }  
}
```

Recursive Functions

The analysis of the run time of this function yields a recurrence relation:

$$T_1(n) = T_1(n - 1) + \Theta(1) \quad T_1(1) = \Theta(1)$$

This recurrence relation has Landau symbols...

- Replace each Landau symbol with a representative function:

$$T_1(n) = T_1(n - 1) + 1 \quad T_1(1) = 1$$

- Then it is easy to prove that $T_1(n) = \Theta(n)$

Outline

- Justification for analysis
- Landau symbols
- Run time of programs
- Best-, worst-, and average-case

Cases

When determining the run time of an algorithm, because the data may not be deterministic, we may be interested in:

- Best-case run time
- Average-case run time
- Worst-case run time

In many cases, these will be significantly different

Cases

Searching a list linearly is simple enough

We will count the number of comparisons

- Best case:
 - The first element is the one we're looking for: $O(1)$
- Worst case:
 - The last element is the one we're looking for, or it is not in the list: $O(n)$
- Average case?
 - We need some information about the list...

Cases

Assume the item we are looking for is in the list and equally likely distributed

If the list is of size n , then there is a $1/n$ chance of it being in the i th location

Thus, we sum

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{1}{n} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{n+1}{2}$$

which is $\mathbf{O}(n)$

Cases

Suppose we have a different distribution:

- there is a 50% chance that the element is the first
- for each subsequent element, the probability is reduced by $\frac{1}{2}$

We could write:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i}{2^i} < \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{i}{2^i} = 2$$

which is $\mathbf{O}(1)$

Cases

- Best-case run time
 - Not so useful
- Average-case run time
 - Need to choose a distribution over input instances
 - Average-case analysis may tell us more about the choice of distributions than about the algorithm itself.
- Worst-case run time
 - Most widely used to capture efficiency in practice.
 - Draconian view, but hard to find effective alternative.
 - Exceptions: some worst-case exponential-time algorithms are widely used because the worst-case instances seem to be rare.
 - E.g., the simplex algorithm

Cases

Previously, we had an example where we were looking for the number of times a particular assignment statement was executed:

```
int find_max( int * array, int n ) {  
    max = array[0];  
  
    for ( int i = 1; i < n; ++i ) {  
        if ( array[i] > max ) {  
            max = array[i];  
        }  
    }  
  
    return max;  
}
```

Cases

This example is taken from Preiss

- The best case was once (first element is largest)
- The worst case was n times

For the average case, we must consider:

- What is the probability that the i^{th} object is the largest of the first i objects?

Cases

To consider this question, we must assume that elements in the array are evenly distributed

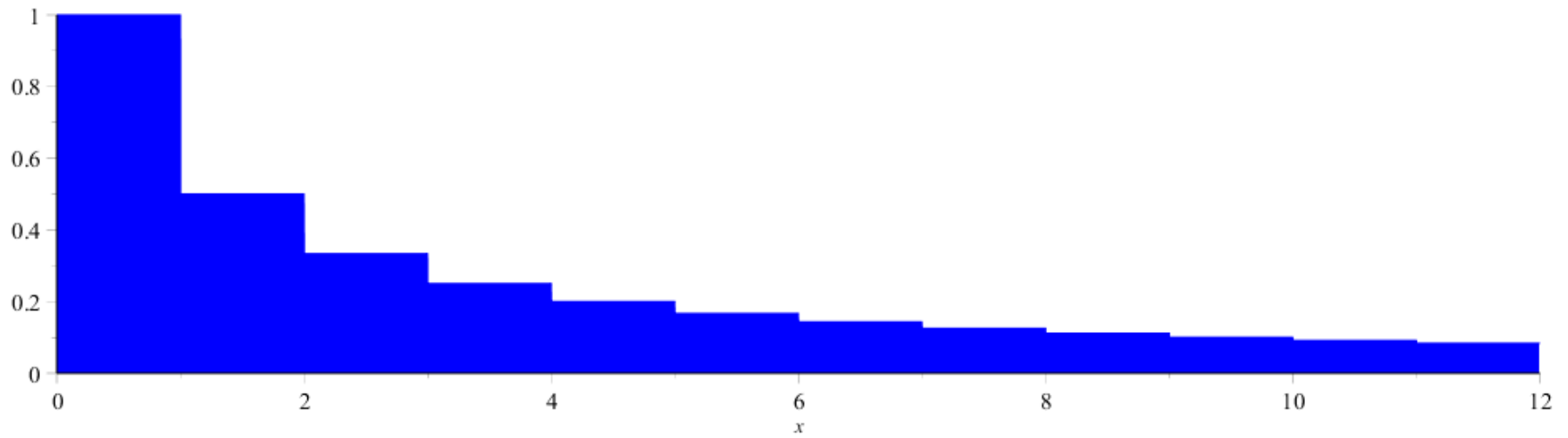
Thus, given a sub-list of size k , the probability that any one element is the largest is $1/k$

Thus, given a value i , there are $i + 1$ objects, hence

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{i+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{i} = ?$$

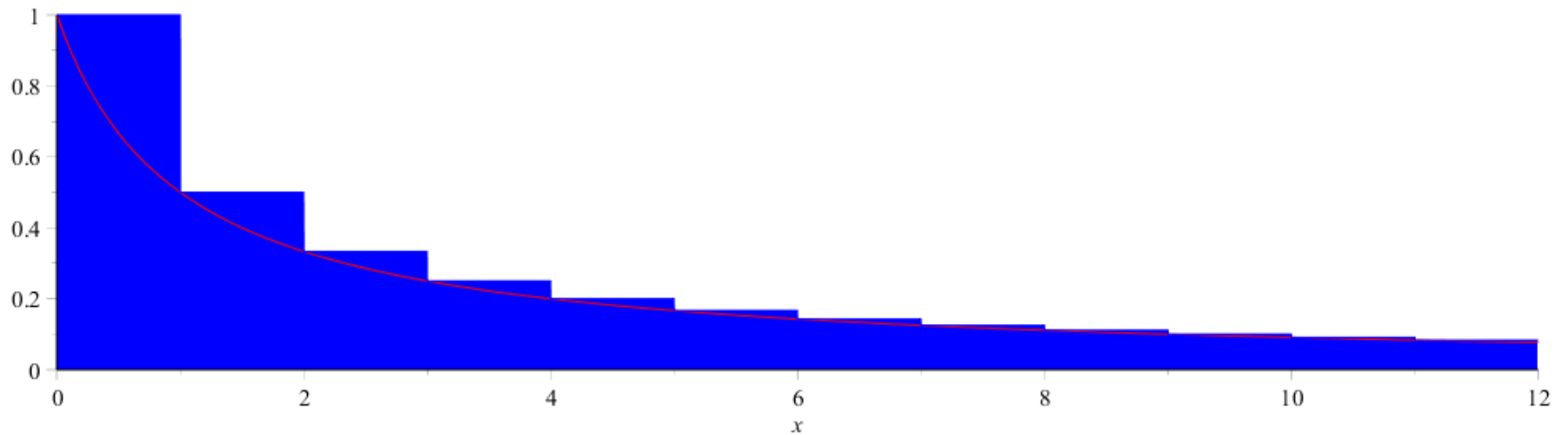
Cases

We can approximate the sum by an integral – what is the area under:



Cases

We can approximate this by the $1/(x+1)$ integrated from 0 to n



Cases

From calculus:

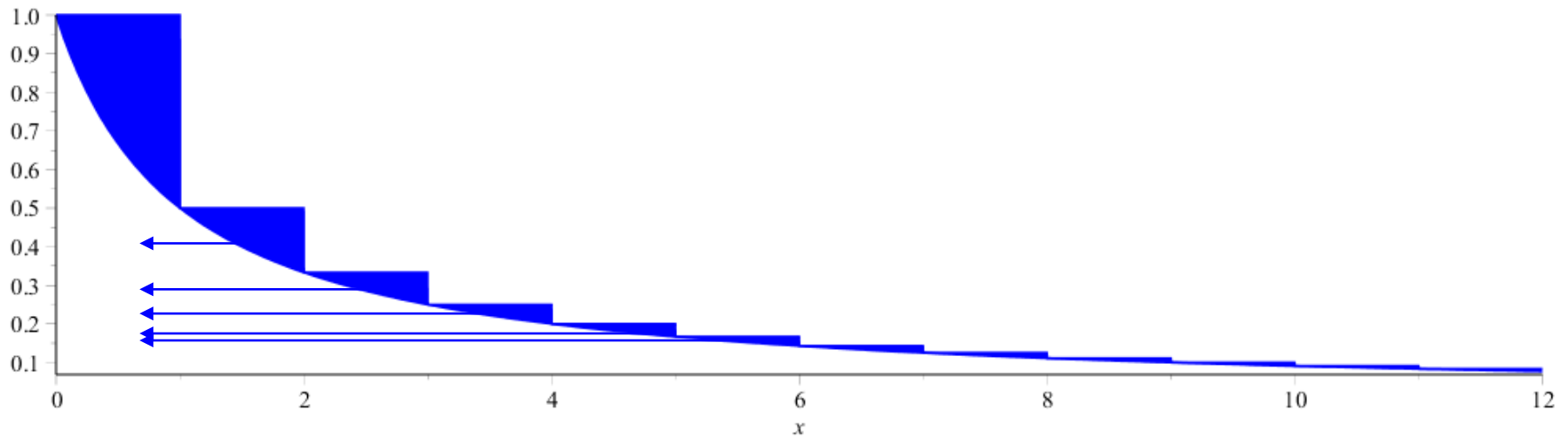
$$\int_0^n \frac{1}{x+1} dx = \int_1^{n+1} \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln(x) \Big|_1^{n+1} = \ln(n+1) - \ln(1) = \ln(n+1)$$

How about the error? Our approximation would be useless if the error was $\mathbf{O}(n)$

Cases

Consider the following image which highlights the errors

- The errors can be *fit* into the box $[0, 1] \times [0, 1]$

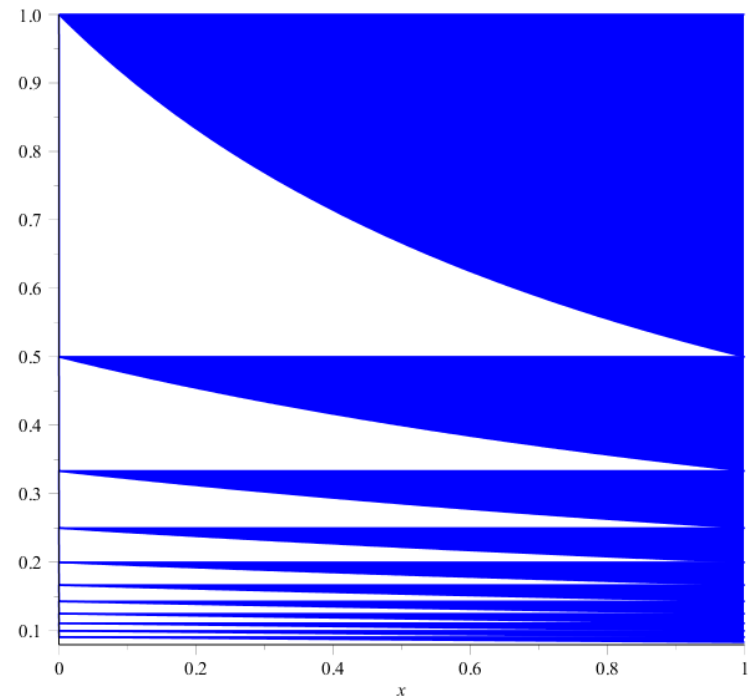


Cases

Consequently, the error must be < 1

In fact, it converges to $\gamma \approx 0.57721566490$

- Therefore, the error is $\Theta(1)$



Cases

Thus, the number of times that the assignment statement will be executed, assuming an even distribution is $\mathbf{O}(\ln(n))$

Cases

Thus, the total run of:

```
int find_max( int *array, int n ) {  
    max = array[0];  
  
    for ( int i = 1; i < n; ++i ) {  
        if ( array[i] > max ) {  
            max = array[i];  
        }  
    }  
  
    return max;  
}
```

is $\Theta\left(1 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \left(1 + \frac{1}{i+1}\right)\right) = \Theta(1 + n + \ln(n)) = \Theta(n)$

Summary

- Justification for analysis
- Landau symbols
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- Run time of programs
 - Basic operations
 - Control statements
 - Conditional-controlled loops
 - Functions
 - Recursive functions
- Best-, worst-, and average-case