

Divide-and-Conquer Algorithms and Recurrence Relations

Section 8.3

Section Summary

- Divide-and-Conquer Algorithms
 - Definition
 - Examples
- Divide-and-Conquer Recurrence Relations
 - Form of Rec. Relations
 - Master Theorem (important tool for solving rec. relations)

Divide-and-Conquer Algorithmic Paradigm

Definition: A *divide-and-conquer algorithm* works by first *dividing* a problem recursively into smaller size problems and then *conquering* the original problem using the solutions of the smaller problems.

Examples:

- Binary search
- Merge sort

Divide-and-Conquer Recurrence Relations

- $f(n)$ represents the number of operations to solve a problem of size n
- Suppose that a recursive algorithm divides a problem of size n into a subproblems, each subproblem is of size n/b .
- Suppose $g(n)$ extra operations are needed in the conquer step.
- Then $f(n)$ satisfies the following recurrence relation:
$$f(n) = af(n/b) + g(n)$$
- This is called a ***divide-and-conquer recurrence relation***.
- *What is the difference with the linear recurrence relations?*

Recursive Binary Search Algorithm

Example: Construct a recursive version of a binary search algorithm.

Solution: Assume we have a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n , an increasing sequence of integers. Initially $low = 1$ and $high = n$. We are searching for x .

```
procedure binary search(low, high, x : integers,  $1 \leq low \leq high \leq n$ )  
  if (low > high) then  
    return 0  
   $m := \lfloor (low + high) / 2 \rfloor$   
  if  $x == a_m$  then  
    return m  
  else if ( $x < a_m$ ) then  
    return binary search(low,  $m - 1$ , x)  
  else  
    return binary search( $m + 1$ , high, x)
```

{output is location of x in a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n if it appears, otherwise 0}

Example: Binary Search

- Binary search reduces the search for an element (key) in a list of size n to the search in a list of size $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$
 $(n, n-1, \lfloor n/2 \rfloor, \lfloor n/3 \rfloor)$
- ? operations are needed to implement this reduction (see slide 43 of Lecture 10).
- If $f(n)$ is the number of operations required to search for an element in a list of size n (in the worst case), n is divisible by 2, then

$$f(n) = f(n/2) + 3$$

Recursive Merge Sort

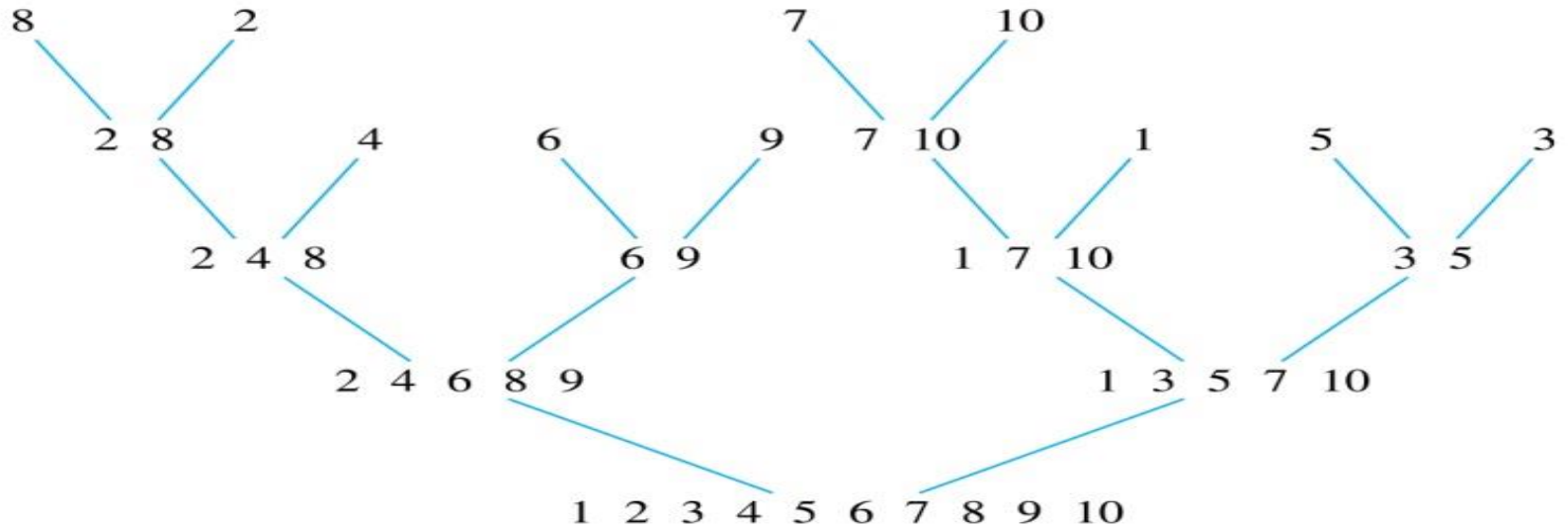
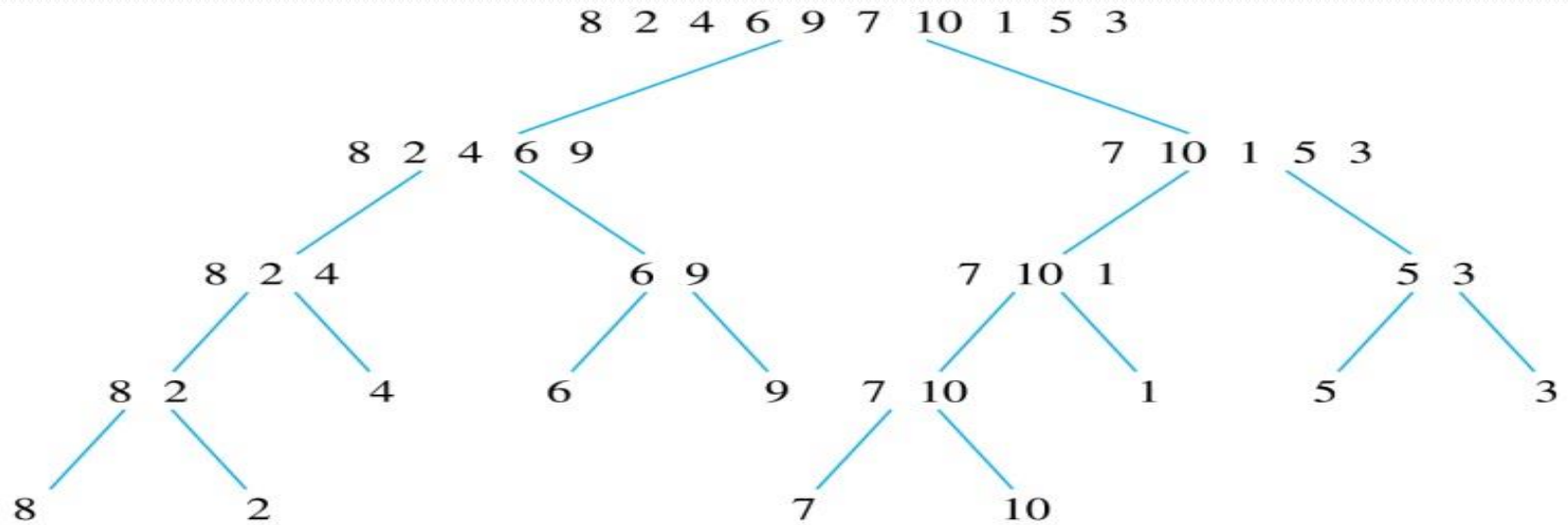
Example: Construct a recursive merge sort algorithm.

Solution: Begin with a list of n elements L .

```
procedure mergesort( $L = a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ )  
if  $n > 1$  then  
     $m := \lfloor n/2 \rfloor$   
     $L_1 := a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m$   
     $L_2 := a_{m+1}, a_{m+2}, \dots, a_n$   
     $L := \text{merge}(\text{mergesort}(L_1), \text{mergesort}(L_2))$ 
```

continued →

Merge Sort



Function Merge

- Fuction *merge*, which merges two sorted arrays.

```
procedure merge( $L_1, L_2$  :sorted lists)
```

```
 $L$  := empty list
```

```
while  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  are both nonempty
```

```
    remove smaller of first elements of  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  from its list;
```

```
    add it to  $L$ 
```

```
if this removal makes one list empty
```

```
    then remove all elements from the other list and append them to  $L$ 
```

```
return  $L$ 
```

```
{ $L$  is the merged list with the elements in increasing order}
```

Merging Two Lists

Example: Merge the two lists 2,3,5,6 and 1,4.

Solution:

TABLE 1 Merging the Two Sorted Lists 2, 3, 5, 6 and 1, 4.

<i>First List</i>	<i>Second List</i>	<i>Merged List</i>	<i>Comparison</i>
2 3 5 6	1 4		$1 < 2$
2 3 5 6	4	1	$2 < 4$
3 5 6	4	1 2	$3 < 4$
5 6	4	1 2 3	$4 < 5$
5 6		1 2 3 4	
		1 2 3 4 5 6	

Merge Sort Recurrence Relation

- The merge sort algorithm splits a list of n (assuming n is even) items to be sorted into two lists with $n/2$ items.
- It uses fewer than n comparisons to merge the two sorted lists.
- Hence, $M(n)$ - the number of comparisons required to sort a list of size n (for even n)

$$M(n) = 2M(n/2) + n$$

Estimating the Functions in Divide-and-Conquer Recurrence Relations

Theorem 1: Let f be an increasing function that satisfies the recurrence relation

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + c$$

whenever n is divisible by b , where $a \geq 1$, b is an integer greater than 1, and c is a positive real number.

Then $f(n)$ is $\begin{cases} O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } a > 1 \\ O(\log n) & \text{if } a = 1. \end{cases}$

Furthermore, when $a > 1$ and $n = b^k$, where k is a positive integer,

$$f(n) = C_1 n^{\log_b a} + C_2$$

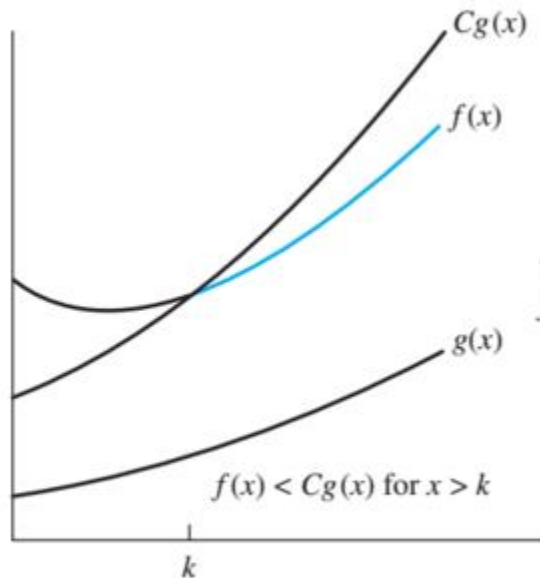
where $C_1 = f(1) + c/(a-1)$ and $C_2 = -c/(a-1)$.

Big-O Notation

Let f and g be functions from the set of integers or the set of real numbers to the set of real numbers. We say that $f(x)$ is $O(g(x))$ if there are constants C and k such that

$$|f(x)| \leq C|g(x)|$$

whenever $x > k$. [This is read as “ $f(x)$ is big-oh of $g(x)$.”]



The part of the graph of $f(x)$ that satisfies $f(x) < Cg(x)$ is shown in color.



The term big-O was coined by a German mathematician Paul Bachmann in 1892, and later used by Edmund Landau for number theory, and Donald Knuth for complexity of algorithms.

FIGURE 2 The Function $f(x)$ is $O(g(x))$.

Match each $f(n)$ with the set $O(g(n))$ that it belongs to, such that $g(n)$ is the smallest.

Functions

1) $f(n)=C,$

C – some constant

2) $f(n)= 5n+10$

3) $f(n)= an^2 +bn+c$

4) $f(n)=2n^3 + 3n^2$

5) $f(n)= 5\log_2 n +1$

6) $f(n)= (n+3) \ln n$

7) $f(n)=2^n + n^3 + n^2$

Sets of functions

a) $O(1)$

b) $O(\log n)$

c) $O(n)$

d) $O(n \log n)$

e) $O(n^2)$

f) $O(n^3)$

g) $O(2^n)$

(Time) complexity of an algorithm

- An estimate of the number of operations $f(n)$ used by the algorithm when its input has a particular size n
 - What is n in binary search, mergesort, matrix multiplication, computing the tree height?
- Complexity is frequently stated using big-O (or other asymptotic notation: Ω , Θ) estimate of $f(n)$.

Complexity of Binary Search

- **Binary Search Example:** Give a big- O estimate for the number of comparisons used by a binary search.
- **Solution:** Since the number of comparisons used by binary search in the worst case is
 - $f(n) = f(n/2) + 3$, where n is even,
 - by Theorem 1, it follows that $f(n)$ is $O(?)$

a) n

b) $n/2$

c) $n^{\log_2 1}$

d) $\log n$

Recursive algorithm for finding min/max of a sequence

rec_min_max (L)

- if $n=1$ then $\min=a_1$, $\max=a_1$
- else if $n>1$
 - split L into L₁ and L₂
 - $(\min_1, \max_1)=\text{rec_min_max}(L_1)$
 - $(\min_2, \max_2)=\text{rec_min_max}(L_2)$
 - $\min = \text{select_min}(\min_1, \min_2)$
 - $\max = \text{select_max}(\max_1, \max_2)$
- return (min, max)

What is the complexity of this algorithm?

- Recurrence relation for number of operations $f(n)$:
 - $f(n) = 2f(n/2) + 2$
- Big-O estimate of $f(n)$: $f(n) \in O(n)$
 - (since $a=b=2$ in Theorem 1, slide 53)

Solving divide-and-conquer recurrence relation of type $f(n) = af(n/b) + c$, $a=1$

Example 1. Let $f(n) = f(n/2) + 3$ and $f(1)=7$.

Find $f(n)$, where $n=2^k$, k is a positive integer.

- **Solution:** let's use backwards substitution:
- $f(n) = f(n/2) + 3 =$
- $= (f(n/4) + 3) + 3 =$
- $= ((f(n/8) + 3) + 3) + 3 = \dots$
- $= f(n/2^k) + 3k =$
- $= f(1) + 3\log_2 n =$
- $= 3\log_2 n + 7$

Answer:

$$f(n) = 3\log_2 n + 7,$$

$$f(n) \in O(\log_2 n) = O(\log n)$$

Derive $O()$ estimate of $f(n)$, true for any $n > 1$, where $f(1)=7$, $f(n)$ is increasing function of n , satisfying recurrence relation **$f(n) = f(n/2) + 3$** for any $n=2^k$ (k -integer, $k \geq 1$).

- $n > 1 \rightarrow \exists k$ (k -integer, $k \geq 1$, $2^k < n \leq 2^{k+1}$)
- $f(n)$ is increasing function of $n \rightarrow f(n) \leq f(2^{k+1}) = 3 \log_2 2^{k+1} + 7$ (see previous slide) =
- $= 3(k + 1) + 7 = 3k + 10 \leq$
- $\leq 3 \log_2 n + 10$ (since $2^k < n$)
- Thus, $f(n) \in O(\log_2 n) = O(\log n)$

Estimating the Functions in Divide-and-Conquer Recurrence Relations

Theorem 1: Let f be an increasing function that satisfies the recurrence relation

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + c$$

whenever n is divisible by b , where $a \geq 1$, b is an integer greater than 1, and c is a positive real number.

Then $f(n)$ is $\begin{cases} O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } a > 1 \\ O(\log n) & \text{if } a = 1. \end{cases}$

Furthermore, when $a > 1$ and $n = b^k$, where k is a positive integer,

$$f(n) = C_1 n^{\log_b a} + C_2$$

where $C_1 = f(1) + c/(a-1)$ and $C_2 = -c/(a-1)$.

Proof of Theorem 1 in the case $a=1$

1. Let $f(n) = f(n/b) + c$, ($a=1$)

a) Find $f(n)$, where $n=b^k$, k is a positive integer.

a) Doing backward substitutions we get as in example 1:

- $f(n) = f(n/b) + c =$
- $= (f(n/b^2) + c) + c =$
- $= ((f(n/b^3) + c) + c) + c = \dots$
- $= f(n/b^k) + ck =$
- $= f(1) + \log_b n =$
- $= \log_b n + f(1)$

Answer:

- a)** $f(n) = \log_b n + f(1)$,
 $f(n) \in O(\log_b n) = O(\log n)$

Continuing proof of Theorem 1 in the case $a=1$

b) Give O -estimate of $f(n)$ for any $n>1$, where $f(n)$ – increasing function, satisfying $f(n) = f(n/b) + c$ for $n=b^k$, k - positive integer.

- $n>1 \rightarrow \exists k$ (k -integer, $k \geq 1$, $b^k < n \leq b^{k+1}$)
- $f(n)$ is increasing function of $n \rightarrow f(n) \leq f(b^{k+1}) =$
- $= c \log_b(b^{k+1}) + f(1)$ (see previous slide) =
- $= c(k + 1) + f(1) =$
- $= ck + f(1) + c \leq$
- $\leq c \log_b n + f(1) + c$ (since $b^k < n$)
- Thus, $f(n) \in O(\log_2 n) = O(\log n)$

Solving divide-and-conquer recurrence relation of type $f(n) = af(n/b) + c, a > 1$

Example 2. Let $f(n) = 5f(n/2) + 3$ and $f(1)=7$.
Find $f(n)$, where $n=2^k$, k is a positive integer.

- **Solution:** let's use backwards substitution:
- $f(n) = 5f(n/2) + 3 =$
- $= 5(5f(n/4) + 3) + 3 =$
- $= 5(5(5f(n/8) + 3) + 3) + 3 = \dots$
- $= 5^k f(n/2^k) + 3(1 + 5 + 5^2 + \dots + 5^{k-1}) =$
- $= 5^k f(1) + 3(5^k - 1)/(5 - 1) =$
- $= 7 \cdot 5^k + \frac{3}{4}(5^k - 1) =$
- $= \left(7\frac{3}{4}\right)5^k - \frac{3}{4}$

Continue:

- Since $n=2^k$ we get:
- $(7\frac{3}{4})5^k - \frac{3}{4} = (7\frac{3}{4}) 5^{\log_2 n} - \frac{3}{4} =$
- $= (7\frac{3}{4}) (2^{\log_2 5})^{\log_2 n} - \frac{3}{4} =$
- $= (7\frac{3}{4}) (2^{\log_2 n})^{\log_2 5} - \frac{3}{4} =$
- $= (7\frac{3}{4}) n^{\log_2 5} - \frac{3}{4}.$

Answer:

$$f(n) = (7\frac{3}{4}) n^{\log_2 5} - \frac{3}{4}$$

$$f(n) \in O(n^{\log_2 5})$$

Give O-estimate of $f(n)$ for any $n > 1$, where $f(n)$ – increasing function, satisfying $f(1)=7$, $f(n) = 5f(n/2) + 3$ for $n=2^k$, k - positive integer.

- $n > 1 \rightarrow \exists k$ (k -integer, $k \geq 1$, $2^k < n \leq 2^{k+1}$)
 - $f(n)$ is increasing function of $n \rightarrow f(n) \leq f(2^{k+1}) =$
 - $= (7\frac{3}{4})5^{k+1} - \frac{3}{4}$ (see previous slide) =
 - $= (7\frac{3}{4}) * 5 * 5^k - \frac{3}{4} \leq$
 - $\leq (7\frac{3}{4}) * 5 * 5^{\log_2 n} - \frac{3}{4}$ (since $2^k < n$)
 - $= (7\frac{3}{4}) * 5 * n^{\log_2 5} - \frac{3}{4}$
- (since $5^{\log_2 n} = (2^{\log_2 5})^{\log_2 n} = (2^{\log_2 n})^{\log_2 5} = n^{\log_2 5}$)
- Thus, **$f(n) \in O(n^{\log_2 5})$**

Proof of Theorem 1 ($a>1$)

2. Let $f(n) = af(n/b) + c$, ($a>1$)

a) Find $f(n)$, where $n=b^k$, k is a positive integer.

b) Give O -estimate of $f(n)$ for any n .

- $f(n) = af(n/b) + c =$
- $=a(af(n/b^2)+c) + c=$
- $=a(a(af(n/b^3)+c)+c) + c=...$
- $= a^k f(n/b^k) + c(1+a+a^2...+a^{k-1})=$
- $= a^k f(1) + c(a^k-1)/(a-1)=$
- $= (f(1) + \frac{c}{a-1}) a^k - \frac{c}{a-1}$

Continue:

- Since $n=b^k$ we get:
- $a^k = a^{\log_2 n} =$
- $= (b^{\log_b a})^{\log_b n} =$
- $= (b^{\log_b n})^{\log_b a} =$
- $= n^{\log_b a}$
- Substitute into the expression on the previous slide and get an answer:

$$a) \quad f(n) = \left(f(1) + \frac{c}{a-1}\right) n^{\log_b a} - \frac{c}{a-1}.$$

$$f(n) \in O(n^{\log_b a})$$

b) Give O-estimate of $f(n)$ for any $n > 1$, where $f(n)$ – increasing function, satisfying $f(n) = af(n/b) + c$ for $n = b^k$, k - positive integer.

- $n > 1 \rightarrow \exists k$ (k -integer, $k \geq 1$, $b^k < n \leq b^{k+1}$)
 - $f(n)$ is increasing function of $n \rightarrow f(n) \leq f(b^{k+1}) =$
 - $= (f(1) + \frac{c}{a-1}) a^{k+1} - \frac{c}{a-1}$ (see previous slide) =
 - $= (f(1) + \frac{c}{a-1}) * a * a^k - \frac{c}{a-1} \leq$
 - $\leq (f(1) + \frac{c}{a-1}) * a * a^{\log_b n} - \frac{c}{a-1}$ (since $b^k < n$)
 - $= (f(1) + \frac{c}{a-1}) * a * n^{\log_b a} - \frac{c}{a-1}$
- (since $a^{\log_b n} = (b^{\log_b a})^{\log_b n} = (b^{\log_b n})^{\log_b a} = n^{\log_b a}$)
- Thus, **$f(n) \in O(n^{\log_b a})$**

Complexity of Merge Sort

Since most frequent operations in merge sort are comparisons – let's give a big- O estimate for the number of comparisons used by merge sort.

- Recurrence relation:
 - $f(n) = 2f(n/2) + n$
- Does it satisfy conditions of Theorem 1?
 - No, since n is not a constant.

Estimating the Size of Divide-and-conquer Functions (*continued*)

Theorem 2. Master Theorem: Let f be an increasing function that satisfies the recurrence relation

$$f(n) = af(n/b) + cn^d$$

whenever $n = b^k$, where k is a positive integer greater than 1, and c and d are real numbers with c positive and d nonnegative. Then

$$f(n) \text{ is } \begin{cases} O(n^d) & \text{if } a < b^d, \\ O(n^d \log n) & \text{if } a = b^d, \\ O(n^{\log_b a}) & \text{if } a > b^d. \end{cases}$$

Complexity of Merge Sort

Solution: Since the number of comparisons used by merge sort to sort a list of n elements is determined by

$$M(n) = 2M(n/2) + n,$$

by the master theorem $M(n)$ is

- a) $O(\log n)$
- b) $O(n)$
- c) $O(n \log n)$
- d) $O(n^2)$

Closest-Pair Problem by Exhaustive Search

Find the two closest points in a set of n points in 2D (given by their (x,y) coordinates).

Algorithm:

$$d = (x[0] - x[1])^2 + (y[0] - y[1])^2$$

for($i=0$; $i < n-2$; $i++$)

for($j = i + 1$; $j < n - 1$; $j++$)

$$cur_d = (x[i] - x[j])^2 + (y[i] - y[j])^2$$

if($cur_d < d$)

$$d = cur_d;$$

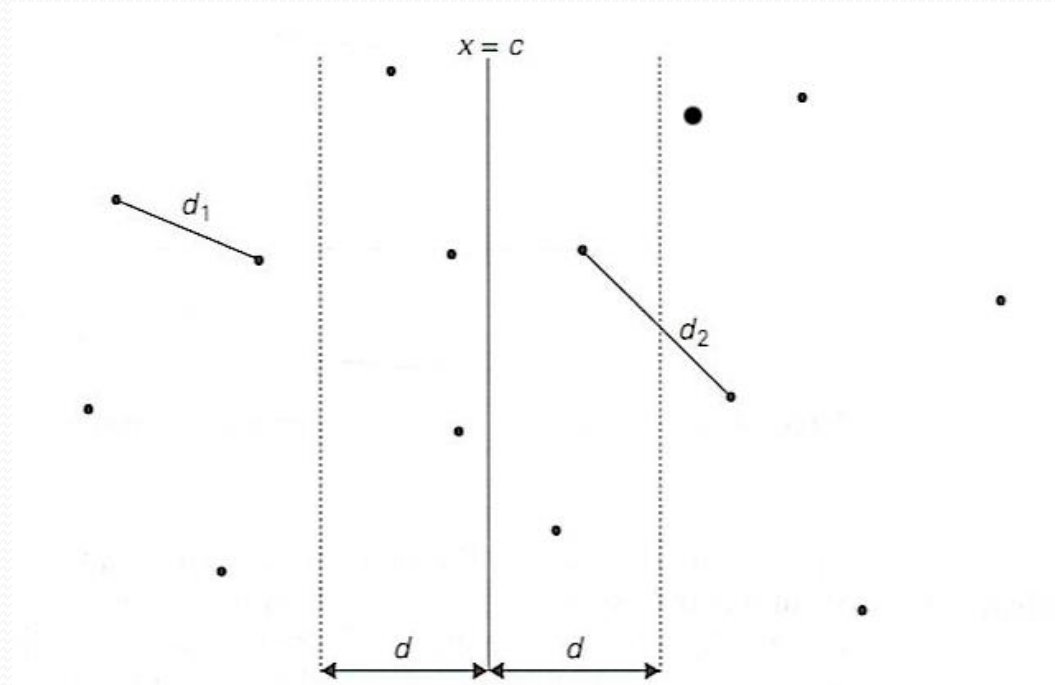
$closestPair = (i, j)$;

return $closestPair$;

What is the asymptotic time efficiency of the algorithm?

Closest-Pair Problem by Divide-and-Conquer

- 1) Divide the points given into two subsets S_1 and S_2 by a vertical line $x = c$ so that half the points lie to the left or on the line and half the points lie to the right or on the line.
- 2) Find recursively the closest pairs for the left and right subsets. Set $d = \min\{d_1, d_2\}$



Closest Pair by Divide-and-Conquer (cont.)

$$d = \min\{d_1, d_2\}.$$

3) For every point $P(x, y)$ in the left d -strip, we inspect points in the right d -strip, that may be closer to P than d .

- These points are located in the rectangle $(0, d) \times (y-d, y+d)$
- distance between each pair of such points $\geq d_2 \geq d$
- there can be at most 6 such points.

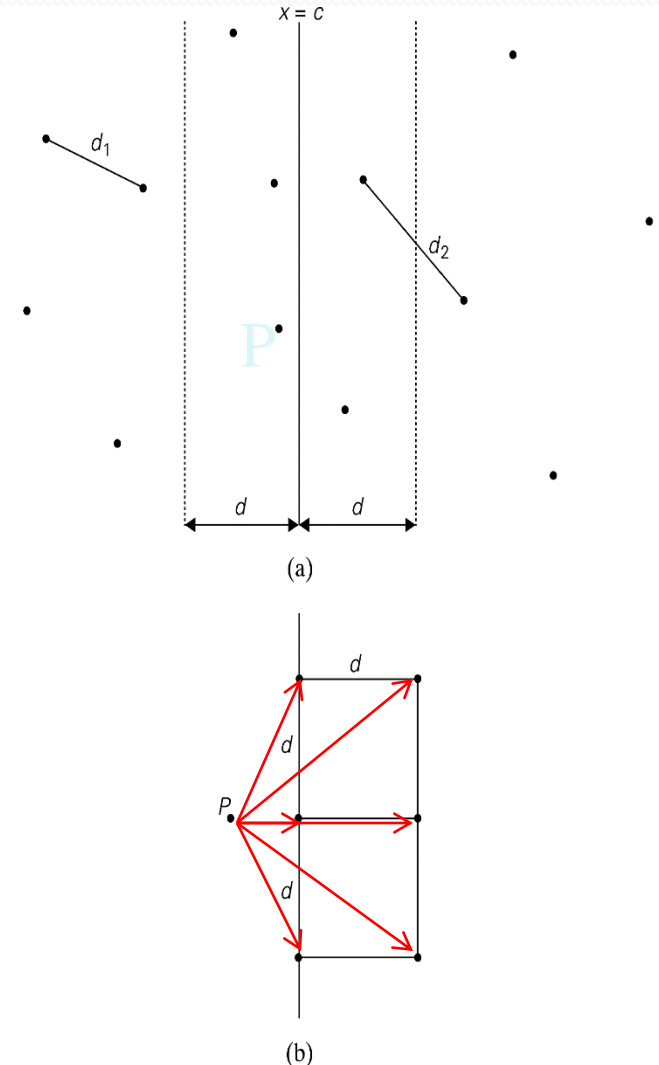


FIGURE 4.7 (a) Idea of the divide-and-conquer algorithm for the closest-pair problem. (b) The six points that may need to be examined for point P .

Pseudocode of Closest Pair Problem

ClosestPair($A[]$ -array of points in 2d):
if (number of points == 2)
 $(a, b) = (A[0], A[1])$
else if (number of points == 3)
 select closest pair out of 3 pairs
else if (number of points > 3) then
 Partition($A[]$, $A_{\text{left}}[]$, $A_{\text{right}}[]$)
 $(p, q) = \text{ClosestPair}(A_{\text{left}}[])$
 $(r, s) = \text{ClosestPair}(A_{\text{right}}[])$
 $(a, b) = \text{Select}((p, q), (r, s), \text{left d-strip}, \text{right d-strip})$
return (a, b)

Complexity of the Closest-Pair Algorithm

Running time of the algorithm is described by

$$f(n) = 2f(n/2) + 6n,$$

Applying recursion tree method or Master method we get: $f(n) \in \Theta(n \log n)$.

Matrix Multiplication.

We start from the standard algorithm for matrix multiplication:

```
SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY(A, B)
1  n = A.rows
2  let C be a new  $n \times n$  matrix
3  for i = 1 to n
4      for j = 1 to n
5           $c_{ij} = 0$ 
6          for k = 1 to n
7               $c_{ij} = c_{ij} + a_{ik} \cdot b_{kj}$ 
8  return C
```

The triple nested loop clearly implies a time $\Theta(n^3)$, which is not quite as bad as it looks since we are dealing with n^2 elements, so $n^3 = (n^2)^{1.5}$.

If we are going to try some clever Divide & Conquer scheme, we could start by coming up with a non-clever one... Here it is: if n is a power of 2, we can always subdivide an n -by- n matrix into 4 $n/2$ -by- $n/2$ ones:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \quad (4.9)$$

so that we rewrite the equation $C = A \cdot B$ as

$$\begin{pmatrix} C_{11} & C_{12} \\ C_{21} & C_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} B_{11} & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_{22} \end{pmatrix}. \quad (4.10)$$

Equation (4.10) corresponds to the four equations

$$C_{11} = A_{11} \cdot B_{11} + A_{12} \cdot B_{21}, \quad (4.11)$$

$$C_{12} = A_{11} \cdot B_{12} + A_{12} \cdot B_{22}, \quad (4.12)$$

$$C_{21} = A_{21} \cdot B_{11} + A_{22} \cdot B_{21}, \quad (4.13)$$

$$C_{22} = A_{21} \cdot B_{12} + A_{22} \cdot B_{22}. \quad (4.14)$$

Each of these four equations specifies two multiplications of $n/2 \times n/2$ matrices and the addition of their $n/2 \times n/2$ products. We can use these equations to create a straightforward, recursive, divide-and-conquer algorithm:

The Algorithm:

SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE(A, B)

```
1   $n = A.rows$ 
2  let  $C$  be a new  $n \times n$  matrix
3  if  $n == 1$ 
4       $c_{11} = a_{11} \cdot b_{11}$ 
5  else partition  $A, B$ , and  $C$  as in equations (4.9)
6       $C_{11} = \text{SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE}(A_{11}, B_{11})$ 
           +  $\text{SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE}(A_{12}, B_{21})$ 
7       $C_{12} = \text{SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE}(A_{11}, B_{12})$ 
           +  $\text{SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE}(A_{12}, B_{22})$ 
8       $C_{21} = \text{SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE}(A_{21}, B_{11})$ 
           +  $\text{SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE}(A_{22}, B_{21})$ 
9       $C_{22} = \text{SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE}(A_{21}, B_{12})$ 
           +  $\text{SQUARE-MATRIX-MULTIPLY-RECURSIVE}(A_{22}, B_{22})$ 
10 return  $C$ 
```

A pretty immediate conclusion is that multiplying 2 n -by- n matrices involves 8 multiplications of $n/2$ -by- $n/2$ matrices and 4 additions of $n/2$ -by- $n/2$ matrices.

Adding 2 n -by- n matrices cost $\Theta(n^2)$, and the total cost of the 4 additions remains $\Theta(n^2)$.

Partitioning of matrices has cost that depends on the method: copying would have a $\Theta(n^2)$ cost (because of the n^2 elements), using indices that provide information on the original array (avoiding copying) could cost as little as $\Theta(1)$.

The recursion relation is: $f(n)=8f(n/2)+n^2$

Applying the master theorem we get:

$$f(n) = O(n^3),$$

so we did not reduce time complexity

of the original algorithm for matrix multiplication. ☹️

Fast Matrix Multiplication

- One can ask the question: do we need all 8 multiplications or can we find a clever way or coming up with fewer?
- Volker Strassen in 1969 suggested reducing the multiplication of 2 matrices to 7 multiplications of $(n/2) \times (n/2)$ matrices and 15 additions of $(n/2) \times (n/2)$ matrices.
- Recurrence relation for Strassen algorithm:
 - $f(n) = 7f(n/2) + 15n$
- Find the complexity of Strassen algorithm (big-O estimate of $f(n)$).