

COMP9024: Data Structures and Algorithms

Analysis of Algorithms

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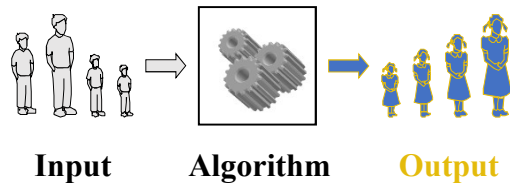
Contents

- Big-oh notation
- Big-theta notation
- Big-omega notation
- Asymptotic algorithm analysis

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Analysis of Algorithms



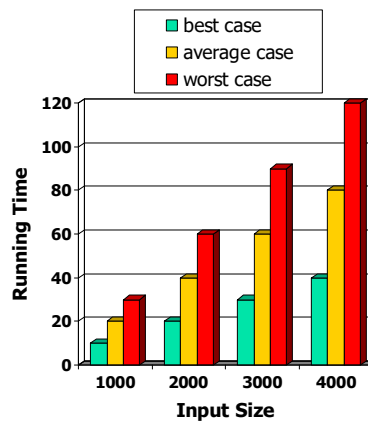
An **algorithm** is a step-by-step procedure for solving a problem in a finite amount of time.

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Running Time

- Most algorithms transform input objects into output objects.
- The running time of an algorithm typically grows with the input size.
- Average case time is often difficult to determine.
- We focus on the worst case running time.
 - Easier to analyze
 - Crucial to applications such as games, finance and robotics

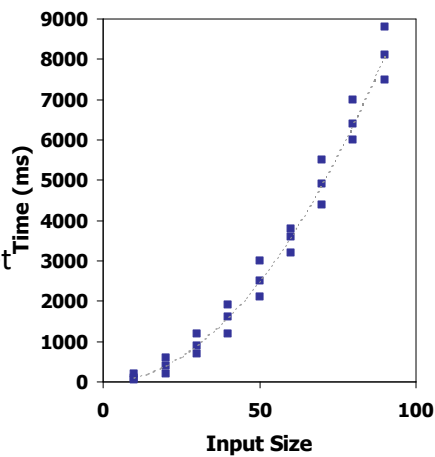


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Experimental Studies

- Write a program implementing the algorithm
- Run the program with inputs of varying size and composition
- Use a method like `System.currentTimeMillis()` to get an accurate measure of the actual running time
- Plot the results



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Limitations of Experiments

- It is necessary to implement the algorithm, which may be difficult
- Results may not be indicative of the running time on other inputs not included in the experiment.
- In order to compare two algorithms, the same hardware and software environments must be used



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Theoretical Analysis



- Uses a high-level description of the algorithm instead of an implementation
- Characterizes running time as a function of the input size, n .
- Takes into account all possible inputs
- Allows us to evaluate the speed of an algorithm independent of the hardware/software environment

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Pseudocode

- High-level description of an algorithm
- More structured than English prose
- Less detailed than a program
- Preferred notation for describing algorithms
- Hides program design issues

Example: find max element of an array

```
Algorithm arrayMax( $A, n$ )  
{  
  Input array  $A$  of  $n$  integers  
  Output maximum element of  $A$   
  
   $currentMax = A[0]$   
  for (  $i = 1; i < n; i++$ )  
    if  $A[i] > currentMax$   
       $currentMax = A[i]$   
  return  $currentMax$   
}
```

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C-Like Pseudocode Details



- Control flow
 - **if** ... [**else** ...]
 - **while** ...
 - **do** ... **while** ...
 - **for** ...
- Method declaration

Algorithm *method* (*arg* [, *arg*...])

Input ...

Output ...
- Method call

var.method (*arg* [, *arg*...])
- Return value

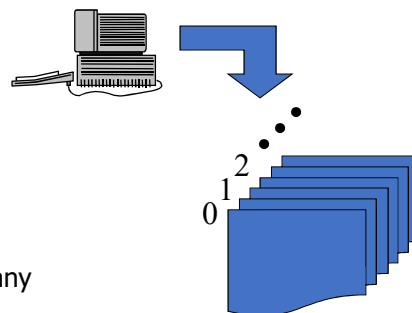
return *expression*
- Expressions
 - = Assignment
 - = Equality testing
 - n^2 Superscripts and other mathematical formatting allowed

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The Random Access Machine (RAM) Model

- A **CPU**
- An potentially unbounded bank of **memory** cells, each of which can hold an arbitrary number or character
 - Memory cells are numbered and accessing any cell in memory takes unit time.

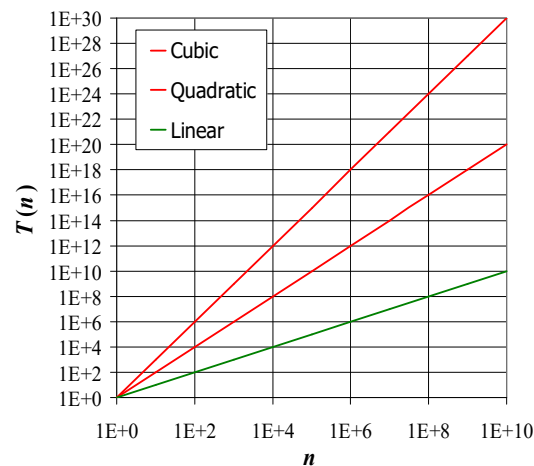


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Seven Important Functions

- Seven functions that often appear in algorithm analysis:
 - Constant ≈ 1
 - Logarithmic $\approx \log n$
 - Linear $\approx n$
 - N-Log-N $\approx n \log n$
 - Quadratic $\approx n^2$
 - Cubic $\approx n^3$
 - Exponential $\approx 2^n$
- In a log-log chart, the slope of the line corresponds to the growth rate of the function



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Primitive Operations



- Basic computations performed by an algorithm
 - Identifiable in pseudocode
 - Largely independent from the programming language
 - Exact definition not important (we will see why later)
 - Assumed to take a constant amount of time in the RAM model
- Examples:
 - Evaluating an expression
 - Assigning a value to a variable
 - Indexing into an array
 - Calling a method
 - Returning from a method

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Counting Primitive Operations

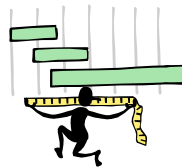
- By inspecting the pseudocode, we can determine the maximum number of primitive operations executed by an algorithm, as a function of the input size

Algorithm <i>arrayMax</i> (<i>A</i> , <i>n</i>)	# operations
{	
<i>currentMax</i> = <i>A</i> [0]	1
for (<i>i</i> = 1; <i>i</i> < <i>n</i> - 1; <i>i</i> ++)	<i>n</i>
if <i>A</i> [<i>i</i>] > <i>currentMax</i>	<i>n</i> - 1
<i>currentMax</i> = <i>A</i> [<i>i</i>]	<i>n</i> - 1
// increment counter <i>i</i>	<i>n</i> - 1
return <i>currentMax</i>	1
}	
	Total $4n - 1$

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Estimating Running Time



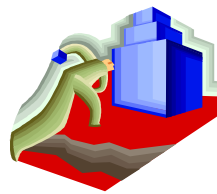
- Algorithm *arrayMax* executes $4n - 1$ primitive operations in the worst case. Define:
 - a = Time taken by the fastest primitive operation
 - b = Time taken by the slowest primitive operation
- Let $T(n)$ be worst-case time of *arrayMax*. Then
$$a(4n - 1) \leq T(n) \leq b(4n - 1)$$
- Hence, the running time $T(n)$ is bounded by two linear functions

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Growth Rate of Running Time

- Changing the hardware/ software environment
 - Affects $T(n)$ by a constant factor, but
 - Does not alter the growth rate of $T(n)$
- The linear growth rate of the running time $T(n)$ is an intrinsic property of algorithm *arrayMax*

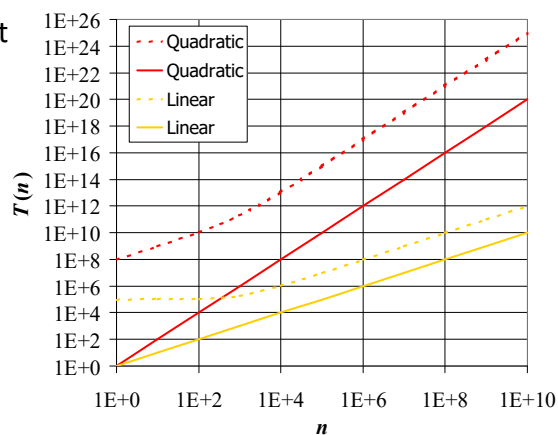


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Constant Factors

- The growth rate is not affected by
 - constant factors or
 - lower-order terms
- Examples
 - $10^2n + 10^5$ is a linear function
 - $10^5n^2 + 10^8n$ is a quadratic function

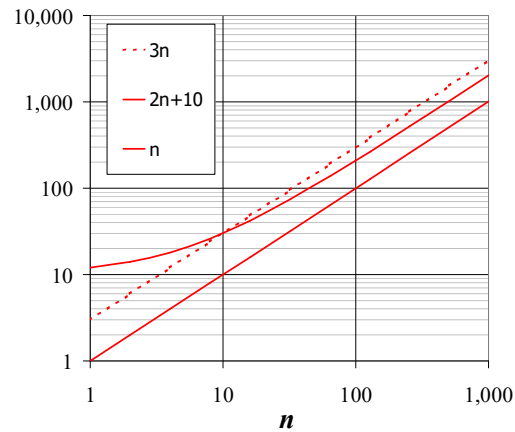


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Big-Oh Notation

- Given functions $f(n)$ and $g(n)$, we say that $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there are positive constants c and n_0 such that $f(n) \leq cg(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$
- Example: $2n + 10$ is $O(n)$
 - $2n + 10 \leq cn$
 - $(c - 2)n \geq 10$
 - $n \geq 10/(c - 2)$
 - Pick $c = 3$ and $n_0 = 10$

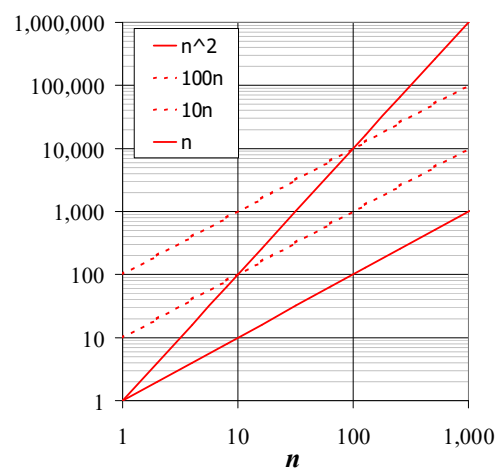


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Big-Oh Example

- Example: the function n^2 is not $O(n)$
 - $n^2 \leq cn$
 - $n \leq c$
 - The above inequality cannot be satisfied since c must be a constant



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More Big-Oh Examples



◆ $7n-2$

$7n-2$ is $O(n)$

need $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 1$ such that $7n-2 \leq c \cdot n$ for $n \geq n_0$

this is true for $c = 7$ and $n_0 = 1$

■ $3n^3 + 20n^2 + 5$

$3n^3 + 20n^2 + 5$ is $O(n^3)$

need $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 1$ such that $3n^3 + 20n^2 + 5 \leq c \cdot n^3$ for $n \geq n_0$

this is true for $c = 4$ and $n_0 = 21$

■ $3 \log n + 5$

$3 \log n + 5$ is $O(\log n)$

need $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 1$ such that $3 \log n + 5 \leq c \cdot \log n$ for $n \geq n_0$

this is true for $c = 8$ and $n_0 = 2$

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Big-Oh and Growth Rate

- The big-Oh notation gives an upper bound on the growth rate of a function
- The statement “ $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ ” means that the growth rate of $f(n)$ is no more than the growth rate of $g(n)$
- We can use the big-Oh notation to rank functions according to their growth rate

	$f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$	$g(n)$ is $O(f(n))$
$g(n)$ grows more	Yes	No
$f(n)$ grows more	No	Yes
Same growth	Yes	Yes

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Big-Oh Rules (1/3)



- If $f(n)$ is a polynomial of degree d , then $f(n)$ is $O(n^d)$, i.e.,
 1. Drop lower-order terms
 2. Drop constant factors
- Use the smallest possible class of functions
 - Say " $2n$ is $O(n)$ " instead of " $2n$ is $O(n^2)$ "
- Use the simplest expression of the class
 - Say " $3n + 5$ is $O(n)$ " instead of " $3n + 5$ is $O(3n)$ "

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Big-Oh Rules (2/3)



- $5n^5 + 20n^4 - 3n^3 \log^2 n + 10^7 n$ is $O(n^5)$
Step 1: Drop lower-order terms: $5n^5$
Step 2: Drop constant factors: n^5
Therefore, $5n^5 + 20n^4 - 3n^3 \log^2 n + 10^7 n$ is $O(n^5)$.
- $10n^5 + 200n^4 \log n - 3n^3 \log^2 n + 5000n$
Step 1: Drop lower-order terms: $10n^5$
Step 2: Drop constant factors: n^5
Therefore, $10n^5 + 200n^4 \log n - 3n^3 \log^2 n + 5000n$ is $O(n^5)$.
- $10 \cdot 2^n + 200n^{400} - 3n^3 \log^2 n + 500n$
Step 1: Drop lower-order terms: $10 \cdot 2^n$
Step 2: Drop constant factors: 2^n
 $10 \cdot 2^n + 200n^{400} - 3n^3 \log^2 n + 500n$ is $O(2^n)$.

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Big-Oh Rules (3/3)



- $1+2^3+3^3+\dots+n^3$
Step 1: Drop lower-order terms: n^3
Step 2: Drop constant factors: n^3
Therefore, $1+2^3+3^3+\dots+n^3$ is $O(n^3)$ ✗
- The drop-constant-factor rule is only applicable to an arithmetic expression with a constant number of terms.
- $1+2^3+3^3+\dots+n^3 < n \cdot n^3 = O(n^4)$

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Asymptotic Algorithm Analysis

- The asymptotic analysis of an algorithm determines the running time in big-Oh notation.
- To perform the asymptotic analysis
 - We find the worst-case number of primitive operations executed as a function of the input size
 - We express this function with big-Oh notation
- Example:
 - We determine that algorithm *arrayMax* executes at most $4n - 1$ primitive operations
 - We say that algorithm *arrayMax* “runs in $O(n)$ time”
- Since constant factors and lower-order terms are eventually dropped anyhow, we can disregard them when counting primitive operations

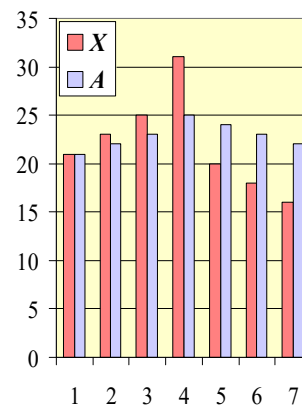
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Computing Prefix Averages

- We further illustrate asymptotic analysis with two algorithms for prefix averages
- The i -th prefix average of an array X is average of the first $(i + 1)$ elements of X :

$$A[i] = (X[0] + X[1] + \dots + X[i]) / (i + 1)$$
- Computing the array A of prefix averages of another array X has applications to financial analysis



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Prefix Averages (Quadratic)

- The following algorithm computes prefix averages in quadratic time by applying the definition

Algorithm <i>prefixAveragesI</i> (X, n)	
{	
Input array X of n integers	
Output array A of prefix averages of X	#operations
$A = \text{new array of } n \text{ integers};$	n
for ($i = 0; i < n; i++$)	$n+1$
{	n
$s = X[0];$	$1 + 2 + \dots + (n-1)$
for ($j = 1; j \leq i; j++$)	$1 + 2 + \dots + (n-1)$
$s = s + X[j];$	n
$A[i] = s / (i + 1);$	
}	
return $A;$	1
}	

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Arithmetic Progression

- The total number of primitive operations of **prefixAverages1** is

$$n+n+1+n+1+2+\dots+(n-1)+1+2+\dots+(n-1)+n+1$$

$$=n^2+3n+2=O(n^2).$$
- Thus, algorithm *prefixAverages1* runs in $O(n^2)$ time, or we say the time complexity of *prefixAverages1* is $O(n^2)$.

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Prefix Averages (Linear)

- The following algorithm computes prefix averages in linear time by keeping a running sum

Algorithm <i>prefixAverages2</i> (<i>X</i> , <i>n</i>)	
{ Input array <i>X</i> of <i>n</i> integers	
Output array <i>A</i> of prefix averages of <i>X</i>	#operations
<i>A</i> = new array of <i>n</i> integers	<i>n</i>
<i>s</i> = 0	1
for (<i>i</i> = 0; <i>i</i> < <i>n</i> ; <i>i</i> ++)	<i>n</i>
{ <i>s</i> = <i>s</i> + <i>X</i> [<i>i</i>]	<i>n</i>
<i>A</i> [<i>i</i>] = <i>s</i> / (<i>i</i> + 1)	<i>n</i>
}	
return <i>A</i>	1
}	

- Algorithm *prefixAverages2* runs in $O(n)$ time

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Binary Search (1/4)

The following recursive algorithm searches for a value in a sorted array:

BinarySearch(v, a, lo, hi)

Input value v

array a[lo..hi] of values

Output true if v in a[lo..hi]

false otherwise

mid=(lo+hi)/2

if lo>hi **return** false

if a[mid]=v **return** true

else if a[mid]<v

return BinarySearch(v,a,mid+1,hi)

else

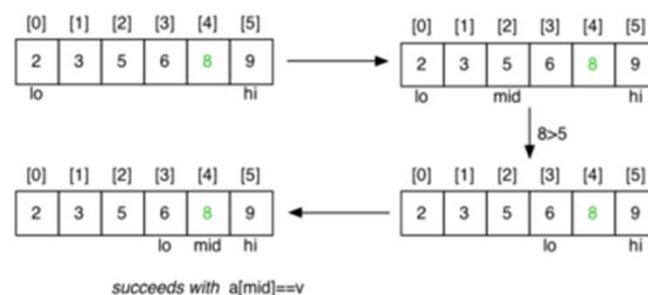
return BinarySearch(v,a,lo,mid-1)

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Binary Search (2/4)

Successful search for a value of 8:

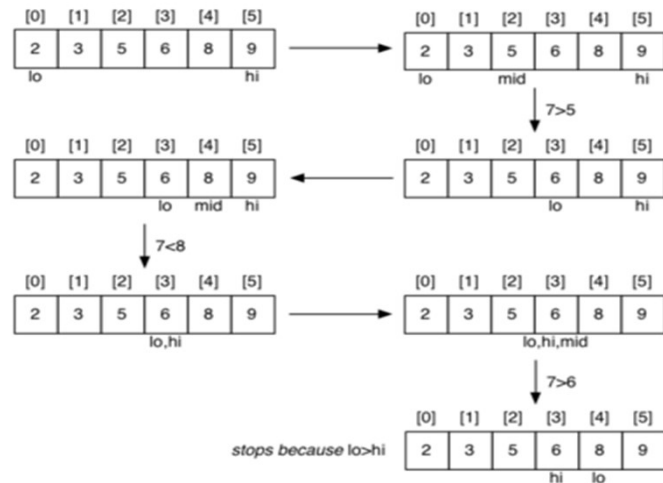


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Binary Search (3/4)

Unsuccessful search for a value of 7:



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Binary Search (4/4)

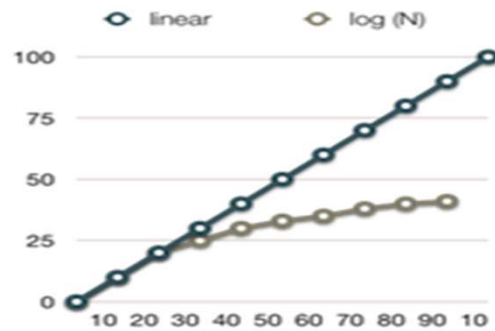
Time complexity analysis:

- A single call of `BinarySearch()` takes $O(1)$ time
- The number of calls of `BinarySearch()` is $O(\log n)$ in the worst case
- Therefore, the time complexity of the binary search is $O(\log n)$

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Linear Time vs Logarithmic Time



A logarithmic time algorithm is much faster than a linear time one

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Computing Powers (1/3)

- The power function, $p(x,n)=x^n$, can be defined recursively:

$$p(x,n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ x \cdot p(x,n-1) & \text{else} \end{cases}$$

- This leads to an power function that runs in $O(n)$ time (for we make n recursive calls).
- We can do better than this, however.

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Computing Powers (2/3)

- We can derive a more efficient linearly recursive algorithm by using repeated squaring:

$$p(x, n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ x \cdot p(x, (n-1)/2)^2 & \text{if } x > 0 \text{ is odd} \\ p(x, n/2)^2 & \text{if } x > 0 \text{ is even} \end{cases}$$

- For example,

$$2^4 = 2^{(4/2)^2} = (2^{4/2})^2 = (2^2)^2 = 4^2 = 16$$

$$2^5 = 2^{1+(4/2)^2} = 2(2^{4/2})^2 = 2(2^2)^2 = 2(4^2) = 32$$

$$2^6 = 2^{(6/2)^2} = (2^{6/2})^2 = (2^3)^2 = 8^2 = 64$$

$$2^7 = 2^{1+(6/2)^2} = 2(2^{6/2})^2 = 2(2^3)^2 = 2(8^2) = 128.$$

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Computing Powers (3/3)

Time complexity analysis:

- Each call of Power() takes $O(1)$ time
- There are $O(\log n)$ calls
- Time complexity: $O(\log n)$

Algorithm Power(x, n)

```
{  
  Input : A number  $x$  and integer  $n = 0$   
  Output : The value  $x^n$   
  if  $n = 0$  return 1  
  if  $n$  is odd  
    {  $y = \text{Power}(x, (n - 1) / 2)$   
      return  $x * y * y$  }  
  else  
    {  $y = \text{Power}(x, n / 2)$   
      return  $y * y$  }  
}
```

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Computing Fibonacci Numbers (1/3)

- Fibonacci numbers are defined recursively:

$$F_0 = 0$$

$$F_1 = 1$$

$$F_i = F_{i-1} + F_{i-2} \quad \text{for } i > 1.$$

- As a recursive algorithm (first attempt):

```
Algorithm BinaryFib(k)
{ Input : Nonnegative integer k
  Output : The kth Fibonacci number  $F_k$ 
  if (  $k = 0$  or  $1$ ) return k;
  else
    return BinaryFib(k - 1) + BinaryFib(k - 2);
}
```

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Computing Fibonacci Numbers (2/3)

- Let n_k denote number of recursive calls made by BinaryFib(k). Then
 - $n_0 = 1$
 - $n_1 = 1$
 - $n_2 = n_1 + n_0 + 1 = 1 + 1 + 1 = 3$
 - $n_3 = n_2 + n_1 + 1 = 3 + 1 + 1 = 5$
 - $n_4 = n_3 + n_2 + 1 = 5 + 3 + 1 = 9$
 - $n_5 = n_4 + n_3 + 1 = 9 + 5 + 1 = 15$
 - $n_6 = n_5 + n_4 + 1 = 15 + 9 + 1 = 25$
 - $n_7 = n_6 + n_5 + 1 = 25 + 15 + 1 = 41$
 - $n_8 = n_7 + n_6 + 1 = 41 + 25 + 1 = 67$.
- Note that the value at least doubles for every other value of n_k . That is, $n_k > 2^{k/2}$. It is exponential!
- Time complexity: $O(2^k)$

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Computing Fibonacci Numbers (3/3)

To compute F_k 's only once, we remember the value of each F_k :

```
Algorithm LinearFibonacci(k):  
{ Input : A nonnegative integer k  
  Output : Pair of Fibonacci numbers ( $F_k$ ,  $F_{k-1}$ )  
  if ( $k = 1$ ) return ( $k$ , 0);  
  else  
    {  
      ( $i$ ,  $j$ ) = LinearFibonacci( $k - 1$ );  
      return ( $i + j$ ,  $i$ );  
    }  
}
```

Time complexity: $O(k)$

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* Space Complexity Analysis for Recursive Algorithms (1/9)

- In general, space complexity analysis is easier than time complexity analysis.
- The hard part in analyzing the space complexity of a recursive algorithm is in the stack space complexity.
- We need to understand how a recursive method is executed on computers.
- Key concept: stack frame or activation record.

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* Space Complexity Analysis for Recursive Algorithms (2/9)

- A stack frame for a function stores the local variables, some parameters, the return address, and some other stuff such as values of some registers.
- A stack frame is created in the stack space whenever a function is called.
- A stack frame is freed when the function returns.
- The frame size of each frame can be determined at compile time.

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* Space Complexity Analysis for Recursive Algorithms (3/9)

- A call graph is a weighted directed graph $G = (V, E, W)$ where
 - $V = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ is a set of nodes each of which denotes an execution of a function;
 - $E = \{v_i \rightarrow v_j: v_i \text{ calls } v_j\}$ is a set of directed edges each of which denotes the caller-callee relationship, and
 - $W = \{w_i (i=1, 2, \dots, n): w_i \text{ is the frame size of } v_i\}$ is a set of stack frame sizes.
- The maximum size of stack space needed for method calls can be derived from the call graph.

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* Space Complexity Analysis for Recursive Algorithms (4/9)

- How to compute the maximum size of stack space needed for a method call?

Step 1: Draw the call graph.

Step 2: Find the longest weighted path in the call graph.

The total weight of the longest weighted path is the maximum stack size needed for the function calls.

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* Space Complexity Analysis for Recursive Algorithms (5/9)

Assumptions:

- func3() is called 20 times
- Frame sizes (bytes):
 - main(): 10
 - func1(): 20
 - func2(): 60
 - func3(): 80
 - func4(): 10
 - func5(): 30

```
int main(void)
```

```
{ ...  
  func1();  
  ...  
  func2();  
}
```

```
void func1()
```

```
{ ...  
  func3();  
  ...  
}
```

```
void func2()
```

```
{ ...  
  func4();  
  ...  
  func5();  
  ...  
}
```

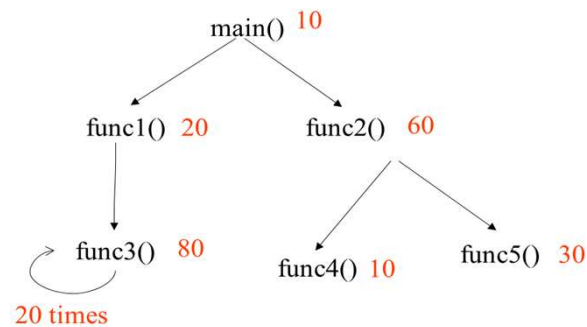
```
int func3()
```

```
{ ...  
  x=func3();  
  ...  
}
```

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* Space Complexity Analysis for Recursive Algorithms (6/9)



The longest path is $\text{main}() \rightarrow \text{func1}() \rightarrow \text{func3}() \dots \rightarrow \text{func3}()$ with a length (total weight) of $10+20+80*20=1630$. So the maximum stack space needed for $\text{main}()$ is 1630 bytes.

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* Space Complexity Analysis for Recursive Algorithms (7/9)

The above approach can be generalized to recursive algorithms.

- The frame size of each algorithm is represented by big O.
- Compute the longest path length in terms of big O.

Consider the previous example.

- Assume that the frame sizes of all the methods except $\text{func4}()$ are $O(1)$, and the frame size of $\text{func4}()$ is $O(n)$. The space complexity of $\text{main}()$ is $O(n)$.
- Assume that the frame sizes of all the methods are $O(1)$. The space complexity of $\text{main}()$ is $O(1)$.

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* Space Complexity Analysis for Recursive Algorithms (8/9)

Recursive algorithm for Fibonacci numbers:

```
Algorithm Fib(k)
{ Input : Nonnegative integer k
  Output : The kth Fibonacci number  $F_k$ 
  if (  $k = 0$  or  $1$ ) return k;
  else
    return Fib(k - 1) + Fib(k - 2);
}
```

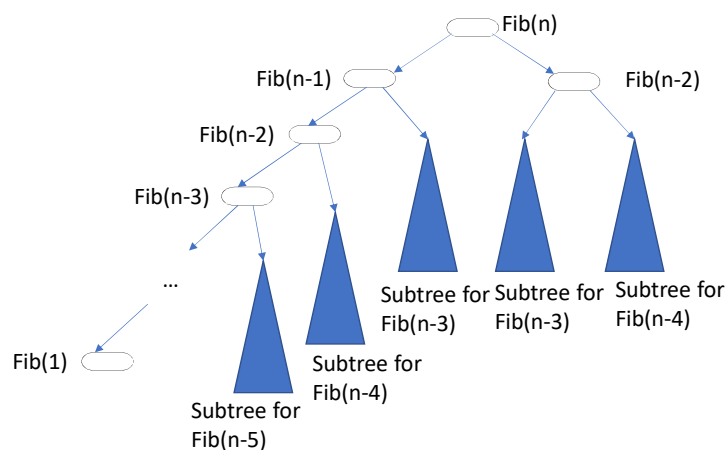
What is the space complexity of Fib(n) in terms of big-O?

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* Space Complexity Analysis for Recursive Algorithms (9/9)

What is the space complexity of BinaryFib(n) in terms of big-O?



The space complexity:
the number of node on
the longest path * frame
size = $n * c = O(n)$

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Math you need to Review



- Summations
- Logarithms and Exponents

- **properties of logarithms:**

$$\log_b(xy) = \log_b x + \log_b y$$

$$\log_b(x/y) = \log_b x - \log_b y$$

$$\log_b x^a = a \log_b x$$

$$\log_b a = \log_x a / \log_x b$$

- **properties of exponentials:**

$$a^{(b+c)} = a^b a^c$$

$$a^{bc} = (a^b)^c$$

$$a^b / a^c = a^{(b-c)}$$

$$b = a^{\log_a b}$$

$$b^c = a^{c \cdot \log_a b}$$

- Proof techniques
- Basic probability

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Relatives of Big-Oh



- **Big-Omega**

- $f(n)$ is $\Omega(g(n))$ if there is a constant $c > 0$ and an integer constant $n_0 \geq 1$ such that $f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$

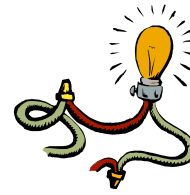
- **Big-Theta**

- $f(n)$ is $\Theta(g(n))$ if there are constants $c' > 0$ and $c'' > 0$ and an integer constant $n_0 \geq 1$ such that $c' \cdot g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c'' \cdot g(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$

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Intuition for Asymptotic Notation



Big-Oh

- $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if $f(n)$ is asymptotically **less than or equal** to $g(n)$

Big-Omega

- $f(n)$ is $\Omega(g(n))$ if $f(n)$ is asymptotically **greater than or equal** to $g(n)$

Big-Theta

- $f(n)$ is $\Theta(g(n))$ if $f(n)$ is asymptotically **equal** to $g(n)$

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Example Uses of the Relatives of Big-Oh



■ $5n^2$ is $\Omega(n^2)$

$f(n)$ is $\Omega(g(n))$ if there is a constant $c > 0$ and an integer constant $n_0 \geq 1$ such that $f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$
let $c = 5$ and $n_0 = 1$

■ $5n^2$ is $\Omega(n)$

$f(n)$ is $\Omega(g(n))$ if there is a constant $c > 0$ and an integer constant $n_0 \geq 1$ such that $f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$
let $c = 1$ and $n_0 = 1$

■ $5n^2$ is $\Theta(n^2)$

$f(n)$ is $\Theta(g(n))$ if it is $\Omega(n^2)$ and $O(n^2)$. We have already seen the former, for the latter recall that $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there is a constant $c > 0$ and an integer constant $n_0 \geq 1$ such that $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$ for $n \geq n_0$
Let $c = 5$ and $n_0 = 1$

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Summary

- Big-Oh, big-theta and big-omega notations
- Asymptotic analysis of algorithms
- Examples of algorithms with logarithmic, linear, polynomial, exponential time complexity
- Suggested reading:
 - Sedgewick, Ch.2.1-2.4,2.6