

# Basics of Algorithms Analysis

## CS 2c03

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# Measuring the Running Time of a Program I

- The running time of a program depends on factors such as:
  - ① the input to the program,
  - ② the quality of code generated by the compiler used to create the object program,
  - ③ the nature and speed of the instructions on the machine used to execute the program, and
  - ④ the time complexity of the algorithm underlying the program.
- The fact that running time depends on the input tells us that the running time of a program should be defined as a function of the input.
- Often, the running time depends not on the exact input but only on the “size” of the input.

# Measuring the Running Time of a Program II

- It is customary, then, to talk of  $T(n)$ , the **running time** of a program on inputs of size  $n$ . For example, some program may have a running time  $T(n) = cn^2$ , where  $c$  is a constant.
- The units of  $T(n)$  will be left unspecified, but we can think of  $T(n)$  as being the number of instructions executed on an idealized computer.
- For many programs, the running time is really a function of the particular input, and not just of the input size.
- In that case we define  $T(n)$  to be **the worst case** running time, that is, the maximum, over all inputs of size  $n$ , of the running time on that input.
- We also consider  $T_{avg}(n)$ , **the average, over all inputs of size  $n$** , of the running time on that input.
- While  $T_{avg}(n)$  appears a fairer measure, *it is often fallacious to assume that all inputs are equally likely.*

# Measuring the Running Time of a Program III

- In practice, the average running time is often much harder to determine than the worst-case running time, both because the analysis becomes mathematically intractable and because the notion of “average” input frequently has no obvious meaning.
- Thus, we shall use worst-case running time as the principal measure of time complexity, although we shall mention average-case complexity wherever we can do so meaningfully.

# Cost of Basic Operations

**Observation.** Most primitive operations take constant time.

operation	example	nanoseconds <sup>†</sup>
variable declaration	<code>int a</code>	$c_1$
assignment statement	<code>a = b</code>	$c_2$
integer compare	<code>a &lt; b</code>	$c_3$
array element access	<code>a[i]</code>	$c_4$
array length	<code>a.length</code>	$c_5$
1D array allocation	<code>new int[N]</code>	$c_6 N$
2D array allocation	<code>new int[N][N]</code>	$c_7 N^2$

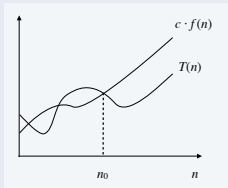
**Caveat.** Non-primitive operations often take more than constant time.

- We will assume that for basic operations  $T(n) = c$ .

# Big-Oh notation

## Definition (Upper bounds)

$T(n)$  is  $O(f(n))$  if there exist constants  $c > 0$  and  $n_0 \geq 0$  such that  $T(n) \leq c \cdot f(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ .



## Example

$$T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 1.$$

- $T(n)$  is  $O(n^2)$ . ← choose  $c = 50, n_0 = 1$
- $T(n)$  is also  $O(n^3)$ .
- $T(n)$  is neither  $O(n)$  nor  $O(n \log n)$ .

**Typical usage.** Insertion makes  $O(n^2)$  compares to sort  $n$  elements.

# Notational abuses

- **Equals sign.**  $O(f(n))$  is a set of functions, but computer scientists often write  $T(n) = O(f(n))$  instead of  $T(n) \in O(f(n))$ .

## Example

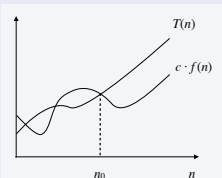
Consider  $f(n) = 5n^3$  and  $g(n) = 3n^2$ .

- - We have  $f(n) = O(n^3) = g(n)$ .
  - Thus,  $f(n) = g(n)$ .
- **Domain.** The domain of  $f(n)$  is typically the natural numbers  $\{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ .
  - Sometimes we restrict to a subset of the natural numbers.
  - Other times we extend to the reals.
- **Nonnegative functions.** When using big-Oh notation, we assume that the functions involved are (asymptotically) nonnegative.
- **Bottom line.** OK to abuse notation; not OK to misuse it.

# Big-Omega notation

## Definition (Lower bounds)

$T(n)$  is  $\Omega(f(n))$  if there exist constants  $c > 0$  and  $n_0 \geq 0$  such that  $T(n) \geq c \cdot f(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ .



## Example

$$T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 1.$$

- $T(n)$  is both  $\Omega(n^2)$  and  $\Omega(n)$ . ← choose  $c = 32, n_0 = 1$
- $T(n)$  is also  $O(n^3)$ .
- $T(n)$  is neither  $\Omega(n^3)$  nor  $\Omega(n^3 \log n)$ .

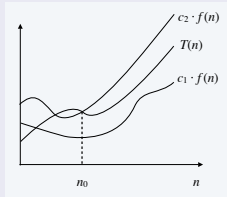
**Typical usage.** Any compare-based sorting algorithm requires  $\Omega(n \log n)$  compares in the worst case. We will discuss details later.



# Big-Theta notation

## Definition (Tight bounds)

$T(n)$  is  $\Theta(f(n))$  if there exist constants  $c_1 > 0$ ,  $c_2 > 0$  and  $n_0 \geq 0$  such that  $c_1 \cdot f(n) \leq T(n) \leq c_2 \cdot f(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ .



## Example

$$T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 1.$$

- $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(n^2)$ . ← choose  $c_1 = 32$ ,  $c_2 = 50$ ,  $n_0 = 1$
- $T(n)$  is neither  $\Theta(n)$  nor  $\Theta(n^3)$ .

**Typical usage.** Mergesort makes  $\Omega(n \log n)$  compares to sort  $n$  elements. We will discuss details later.

## Proposition

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c > 0$ , then  $f(n)$  is  $\Theta(g(n))$ .

## Proof.

By definition of the limit, there exists  $n_0$  such such that for all  $n \geq n_0$

$$\frac{1}{2}c < \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < 2c$$

- Thus,  $f(n) \leq 2cg(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ , which implies  $f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$ .
- $f(n) \geq \frac{1}{2}cg(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ , which implies  $f(n)$  is  $\Omega(g(n))$ . □

## Proposition

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$ , then  $f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$ .

In the textbook, if  $f(n)$  is  $\Theta(g(n))$  we will write

$$f(n) \sim g(n).$$

Formally:

## Definition

$$f(x) \sim g(x) \iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 1.$$

# Asymptotic bounds for some common functions

- **Polynomials.** Let  $T(n) = a_0 + a_1n + \dots + a_dn^d$  with  $a_d > 0$ . Then,  $T(n)$  is  $\Theta(n^d)$ .

*Proof.*  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_0 + a_1n + \dots + a_dn^d}{n^d} = a_d > 0$ .

- **Logarithms.**  $\Theta(\log_a n)$  is  $\Theta(\log_b n)$  for any constants  $a, b > 0$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\log_a n = \frac{\log_n n}{\log_b a}$ .

- **Exponentials and polynomials.** For every  $r > 1$  and every  $d > 0$ ,  $n^d$  is  $O(r^n)$ .

*Proof.* Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^d}{r^n} = 0$ .

# Big-Oh notation with multiple variables

## Definition (Upper bounds)

$T(m, n)$  is  $O(f(m, n))$  if there exist constants  $c > 0$ ,  $m^0 \geq 0$ , and  $n_0 \geq 0$  such that  $T(m, n) \leq c \cdot f(m, n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$  and  $m \geq m_0$ .

## Example

$$T(m, n) = 32mn^2 + 17mn + 32n^3.$$

- $T(m, n)$  is both  $O(mn^2 + n^3)$  and  $O(mn^3)$ .
- $T(m, n)$  is neither  $O(n^3)$  nor  $O(mn^2)$ .

**Typical usage.** Breadth-first search takes  $O(m + n)$  time to find the shortest path from  $s$  to  $t$  in a digraph. We will discuss details later.

# Why it matters

**Table 2.1** The running times (rounded up) of different algorithms on inputs of increasing size, for a processor performing a million high-level instructions per second. In cases where the running time exceeds  $10^{25}$  years, we simply record the algorithm as taking a very long time.

	$n$	$n \log_2 n$	$n^2$	$n^3$	$1.5^n$	$2^n$	$n!$
$n = 10$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	4 sec
$n = 30$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	18 min	$10^{25}$ years
$n = 50$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	11 min	36 years	very long
$n = 100$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	1 sec	12,892 years	$10^{17}$ years	very long
$n = 1,000$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	1 sec	18 min	very long	very long	very long
$n = 10,000$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	2 min	12 days	very long	very long	very long
$n = 100,000$	< 1 sec	2 sec	3 hours	32 years	very long	very long	very long
$n = 1,000,000$	1 sec	20 sec	12 days	31,710 years	very long	very long	very long

**Typical  $O(\dots)$ :** (notation  $\log n = \log_2 n$ )

- $O(\log n)$   $O(\log(\log(n))) \dots$
- $O(n)$
- $O(n \log n)$
- $O(n^2)$   $O(n^k)$
- $O(2^n)$   $O(k^n)$

**Classification:**

$\left. \begin{array}{l} O(\log n) \\ O(n) \\ O(n \log n) \end{array} \right\} \text{desired}$

$O(n^k)$  : may be acceptable for small  $k$

$O(2^n)$  : UNACCEPTABLE

## Fact

*For every  $k \geq 0$  and every  $\alpha > 1$ , there exists  $n_0$  such that for every  $n > n_0$ :*

$$n^k < \alpha^n$$

## Another classification:

$O(n^k)$  : polynomial, i.e. **might be OK**

$O(\alpha^n)$  : non-polynomial, i.e. **usually BAD**



## Lemma

- ①  $O(f(n)) + O(g(n)) = O(f(n) + g(n)) = O(\max(f(n), g(n)))$
- ②  $O(f(n))O(g(n)) = O(f(n)g(n))$

- for each polynomial  $f(n) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$ , where  $a_n \neq 0$ , we have:

$$O(f(n)) = O(x^n)$$

- $O(2^n + n^{10000000000}) = O(2^n)$
- $O(n^{10000000000}) = O(2^n)$
- $O(2^n) \neq O(n^k)$  for any  $k$
- Since  $\log_b n = \frac{1}{\log b} \log n$ , for any  $b$  we have

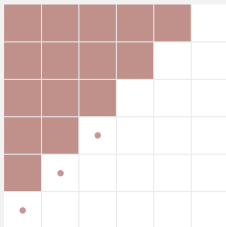
$$O(\log_b n) = O(\log n)$$

# Some Examples I

Q. How many instructions as a function of input size  $N$ ?

```
int count = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
    for (int j = i+1; j < N; j++)
        if (a[i] + a[j] == 0)
            count++;
```

Pf. [  $n$  even]



$$\begin{aligned} 0 + 1 + 2 + \dots + (N-1) &= \frac{1}{2}N(N-1) \\ &= \binom{N}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$0 + 1 + 2 + \dots + (N-1) = \frac{1}{2}N^2 - \frac{1}{2}N$$

half of square      half of diagonal


- $T(n) = \Theta(N^2) = \sim N^2$  (loose loops counting).

# Some Examples II

Q. Approximately how many **array accesses** as a function of input size  $N$ ?

```
int count = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
    for (int j = i+1; j < N; j++)
        for (int k = j+1; k < N; k++)
            if (a[i] + a[j] + a[k] == 0)
                count++;
```

"inner loop"


$$\binom{N}{3} = \frac{N(N-1)(N-2)}{3!}$$

- $T(n) = \Theta(N^3) = \sim N^3$  (loose loops counting).

- **Goal.** Given a sorted array and a key, find index of the key in the array?
- **Binary search.** Compare key against middle entry.
  - Too small, go left.
  - Too big, go right.
  - Equal, found.

*See Binary Search Demo.*

# Binary Search: Time Complexity

## Proposition

*Binary search uses at most  $1 + \log N$  key compares to search in a sorted array of size  $N$ , i.e. it has time complexity  $T(N) = O(\log N)$ .*

## Proof: Sketch.

Binary search recurrence:  $T(N) \leq T(N/2) + 1$  for  $N > 1$ , with  $T(1) = 1$ .  
Assume  $N$  is a power of 2.

$$\begin{aligned} T(N) &\leq T(N/2) + 1 && \text{[given]} \\ &\leq T(N/4) + \underbrace{1 + 1}_{2=\log 4} && \text{[apply recurrence to first term]} \\ &\leq T(N/8) + \underbrace{1 + 1 + 1}_{3=\log 8} && \text{[apply recurrence to second term]} \\ &\vdots \\ &\leq T(N/N) + \underbrace{1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_{\log N} && \text{[stop applying, } T(1) = 1\text{]} \\ &= 1 + \log N = O(\log N). \end{aligned}$$



# Binary Search: Java

```
public static int binarySearch(int[] a, int key)
{
    int lo = 0, hi = a.length-1;
    while (lo <= hi)
    {
        int mid = lo + (hi - lo) / 2;
        if      (key < a[mid]) hi = mid - 1;
        else if (key > a[mid]) lo = mid + 1;
        else return mid;
    }
    return -1;
}
```

← one "3-way compare"

**Best case.** Lower bound on cost.

- Determined by “easiest” input.
- Provides a goal for all inputs.

**Worst case.** Upper bound on cost.

- Determined by “most difficult” input.
- Provides a guarantee for all inputs.

**Average case.** Expected cost for random input.

- Need a model for “random” input.
- Provides a way to predict performance.

# Summary of Complexity Measurements

notation	provides	example	shorthand for	used to
<b>Tilde</b>	leading term	$\sim 10 N^2$	$10 N^2$ $10 N^2 + 22 N \log N$ $10 N^2 + 2 N + 37$	provide approximate model
<b>Big Theta</b>	asymptotic order of growth	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$ $10 N^2$ $5 N^2 + 22 N \log N + 3 N$	classify algorithms
<b>Big Oh</b>	$\Theta(N^2)$ and smaller	$O(N^2)$	$10 N^2$ $100 N$ $22 N \log N + 3 N$	develop upper bounds
<b>Big Omega</b>	$\Theta(N^2)$ and larger	$\Omega(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$ $N^5$ $N^3 + 22 N \log N + 3 N$	develop lower bounds

- The most popular and the most useful is **Big-Oh**.