

Algorithms & Data Structures

Lesson 3: Asymptotic Analysis

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Efficiency

- What does it mean for an algorithm to be *efficient*?
 - We primarily care about *time* (and sometimes *space*)
- Is the following a good definition?
 - “An algorithm is efficient if, when implemented, it runs quickly on real input instances”
 - Where and how well is it implemented?
 - What constitutes “real input”?
 - How does the algorithm *scale* as input size changes?

Gauging efficiency (performance)

- Well, why not just run the program and time it?
 - Too much *variability*, not reliable or *portable*:
 - Hardware: processor(s), memory, etc.
 - OS, Java version, libraries, drivers
 - Other programs running
 - Implementation dependent
 - Choice of input
 - Testing (inexhaustive) may *miss* worst-case input
 - Timing does not *explain* relative timing among inputs (what happens when n doubles in size)
- Often want to evaluate an *algorithm*, not an implementation
 - Even *before* creating the implementation

Comparing algorithms

When is one *algorithm* (not *implementation*) better than another?

- Various possible answers (clarity, security, ...)
- But a big one is *performance*: for sufficiently large inputs, runs in less time (our focus) or less space

We will focus on large inputs because probably any algorithm is “plenty good” for small inputs (if n is 10, probably anything is fast)

- Time difference really shows up as n grows

Answer will be *independent* of CPU speed, programming language, coding tricks, etc.

Answer is general and rigorous, complementary to “coding it up and timing it on some test cases”

- Can do analysis before coding!

We usually care about worst-case running times

- **Has proven reasonable in practice**
 - Provides some guarantees
- **Difficult to find a satisfactory alternative**
 - What about average case?
 - Difficult to express full range of input
 - Could we use randomly-generated input?
 - May learn more about generator than algorithm

Example

2	3	5	16	37	50	73	75	126
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Find an integer in a *sorted* array

```
// requires array is sorted
// returns whether k is in array
boolean find(int[] arr, int k){
    ???
}
```

Linear search

2	3	5	16	37	50	73	75	126
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Find an integer in a *sorted* array

```
// requires array is sorted
// returns whether k is in array
boolean find(int[] arr, int k){
    for(int i=0; i < arr.length; ++i)
        if(arr[i] == k)
            return true;
    return false;
}
```

Best case?

k is in arr[0]

c1 steps

= $O(1)$

Worst case?

k is not in arr

$c2 * (\text{arr.length})$

= $O(\text{arr.length})$

Binary search

2	3	5	16	37	50	73	75	126
---	---	---	----	----	----	----	----	-----

Find an integer in a *sorted* array

- Can also be done non-recursively but “doesn’t matter” here

```
// requires array is sorted
// returns whether k is in array
boolean find(int[] arr, int k){
    return help(arr,k,0,arr.length);
}

boolean help(int[] arr, int k, int lo, int hi) {
    int mid = (hi+lo)/2; // i.e., lo+(hi-lo)/2
    if(lo==hi)          return false;
    if(arr[mid]==k)      return true;
    if(arr[mid]< k)       return help(arr,k,mid+1,hi);
    else                 return help(arr,k,lo,mid);
}
```


Binary search

Best case: c_1 steps = $O(1)$

Worst case: $T(n) = c_2 \text{ steps} + T(n/2)$ where n is `hi-lo`

- $O(\log n)$ where n is `array.length`
- Solve *recurrence equation* to know that...

```
// requires array is sorted
// returns whether k is in array
boolean find(int[] arr, int k){
    return help(arr,k,0,arr.length);
}
boolean help(int[] arr, int k, int lo, int hi) {
    int mid = (hi+lo)/2;
    if(lo==hi)        return false;
    if(arr[mid]==k)    return true;
    if(arr[mid]< k)    return help(arr,k,mid+1,hi);
    else              return help(arr,k,lo,mid);
}
```

Solving Recurrence Relations

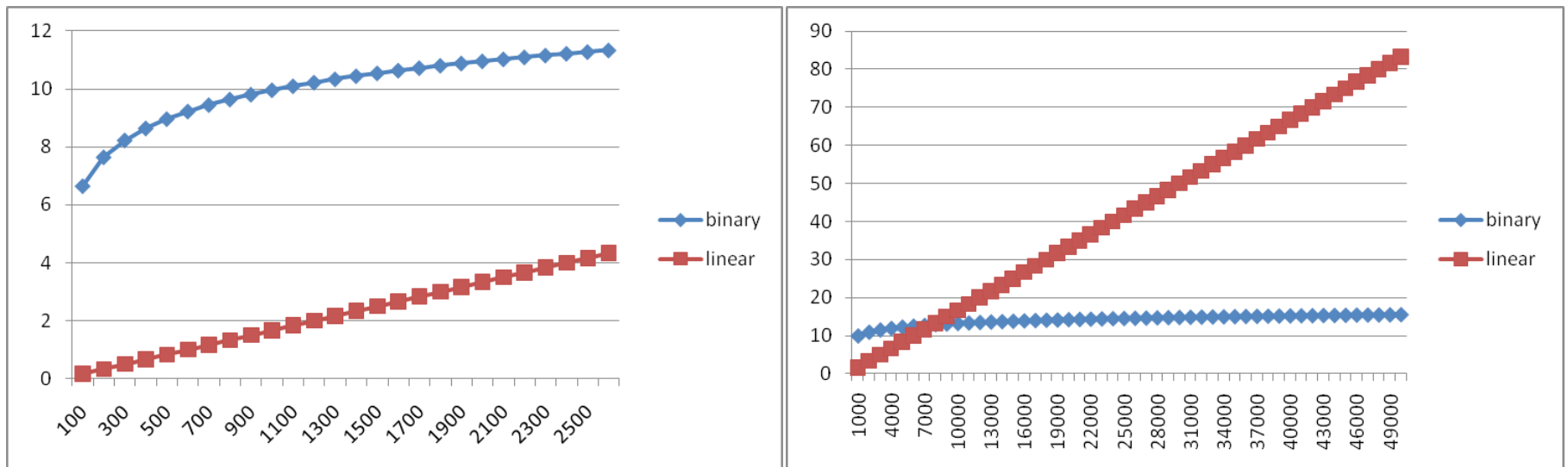
1. Determine the recurrence relation. What is the base case?
 - $T(n) = c_2 + T(n/2) \quad T(1) = c_1$
2. “Expand” the original relation to find an equivalent general expression *in terms of the number of expansions*.
 - $$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= c_2 + c_2 + T(n/4) \\ &= c_2 + c_2 + c_2 + T(n/8) \\ &= \dots \\ &= c_2(k) + T(n/(2^k)) \end{aligned}$$
3. Find a closed-form expression by setting *the number of expansions* to a value (e.g. 1) which reduces the problem to a base case
 - $n/(2^k) = 1$ means $n = 2^k$ means $k = \log_2 n$
 - So $T(n) = c_2 \log_2 n + T(1)$
 - So $T(n) = c_2 \log_2 n + c_1$ (get to base case and do it)
 - So $T(n)$ is $O(\log n)$

Ignoring constant factors

- So binary search is $O(\log n)$ and linear is $O(n)$
 - But which is faster?
- Could depend on constant factors
 - How *many* assignments, additions, etc. for each n
 - E.g. $T(n) = 5,000,000n$ vs. $T(n) = 5n^2$
 - And could depend on overhead unrelated to n
 - E.g. $T(n) = 5,000,000 + \log n$ vs. $T(n) = 10 + n$
- But there exists some n_0 such that for all $n > n_0$ binary search wins
- Let's play with a couple plots to get some intuition...

Example

- Let's try to “help” linear search
 - Run it on a computer 100x as fast (say 2014 model vs. 1994)
 - Use a new compiler/language that is 3x as fast
 - Be a clever programmer to eliminate half the work
 - So doing each iteration is 600x as fast as in binary search



Big-Oh relates functions

We use O on a function $f(n)$ (for example n^2) to mean *the set of functions with asymptotic behavior less than or equal to $f(n)$*

So $(3n^2+17)$ **is in** $O(n^2)$

- $3n^2+17$ and n^2 have the same asymptotic behavior

Confusingly, we also say/write:

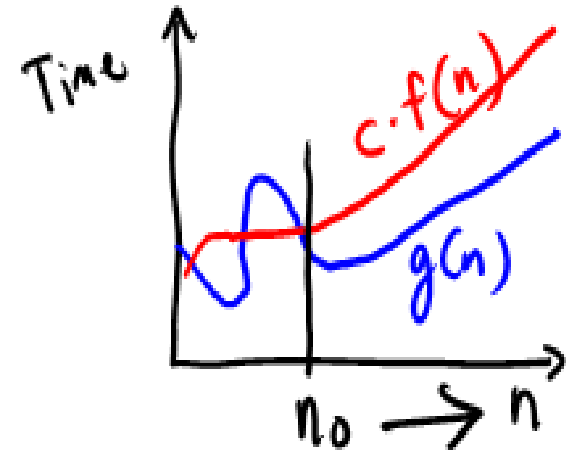
- $(3n^2+17)$ **is** $O(n^2)$
- $(3n^2+17)$ **=** $O(n^2)$

But we would never say $O(n^2) = (3n^2+17)$

Big-O, formally

Definition: $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$ if there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$g(n) \leq c f(n) \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_0$$



- To show $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$, pick a c large enough to “cover the constant factors” and n_0 large enough to “cover the lower-order terms”
 - Example: Let $g(n) = 3n^2 + 17$ and $f(n) = n^2$
 $c=5$ and $n_0=10$ is more than good enough
 $(3 \cdot 10^2) + 17 \leq 5 \cdot 10^2$ so $3n^2 + 17$ is $O(n^2)$
- This is “less than or equal to”
 - So $3n^2 + 17$ is also $O(n^5)$ and $O(2^n)$ etc.
 - But usually we’re interested in the tightest upper bound.

Example 1, using formal definition

- Let $g(n) = 1000n$ and $f(n) = n^2$
 - To prove $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$, find a valid c and n_0
 - The “cross-over point” is $n=1000$
 - $g(n) = 1000 \cdot 1000$ and $f(n) = 1000^2$
 - So we can choose $n_0=1000$ and $c=1$
 - Many other possible choices, e.g., larger n_0 and/or c

Definition: $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$ if there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$g(n) \leq c f(n) \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_0$$

Example 2, using formal definition

- Let $g(n) = n^4$ and $f(n) = 2^n$
 - To prove $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$, find a valid c and n_0
 - We can choose $n_0=20$ and $c=1$
 - $g(n) = 20^4$ vs. $f(n) = 1 \cdot 2^{20}$
- Note: There are many correct possible choices of c and n_0

Definition: $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$ if there exist positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$g(n) \leq c f(n) \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_0$$

What's with the c

- The constant multiplier c is what allows functions that differ only in their largest coefficient to have the same asymptotic complexity

- Consider:

$$g(n) = 7n+5$$

$$f(n) = n$$

- These have the same asymptotic behavior (linear)
 - So $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$ even though $g(n)$ is always larger
 - The c allows us to provide a coefficient so that $g(n) \leq c f(n)$
- In this example:
 - To prove $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$, have $c = 12$, $n_0 = 1$
 $(7*1)+5 \leq 12*1$

What you can drop

- Eliminate coefficients because we don't have units anyway
 - $3n^2$ versus $5n^2$ doesn't mean anything when we have not specified the cost of constant-time operations
- Eliminate low-order terms because they have vanishingly small impact as n grows
- Do NOT ignore constants that are not multipliers
 - n^3 is not $O(n^2)$
 - 3^n is not $O(2^n)$

(This all follows from the formal definition)

More Asymptotic Notation

- Upper bound: $O(f(n))$ is the set of all functions asymptotically less than or equal to $f(n)$
 - $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$ if there exist constants c and n_0 such that $g(n) \leq c f(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0$
- Lower bound: $\Omega(f(n))$ is the set of all functions asymptotically greater than or equal to $f(n)$
 - $g(n)$ is in $\Omega(f(n))$ if there exist constants c and n_0 such that $g(n) \geq c f(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0$
- Tight bound: $\theta(f(n))$ is the set of all functions asymptotically equal to $f(n)$
 - $g(n)$ is in $\theta(f(n))$ if **both** $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$ **and** $g(n)$ is in $\Omega(f(n))$

Correct terms, in theory

A common error is to say $O(f(n))$ when you mean $\theta(f(n))$

- Since a linear algorithm is also $O(n^5)$, it's tempting to say “this algorithm is exactly $O(n)$ ”
- That doesn't mean anything, say it is $\theta(n)$
- That means that it is not, for example $O(\log n)$

Less common notation:

- “little-oh”: intersection of “big-Oh” and *not* “big-Theta”
 - For all c , there exists an n_0 such that... \leq
 - Example: array sum is $o(n^2)$ but not $o(n)$
- “little-omega”: intersection of “big-Omega” and *not* “big-Theta”
 - For all c , there exists an n_0 such that... \geq
 - Example: array sum is $\omega(\log n)$ but not $\omega(n)$

What we are analyzing

- The most common thing to do is give an O upper bound to the worst-case running time of an algorithm
- Example: binary-search algorithm
 - Common: $O(\log n)$ running-time in the worst-case
 - Less common: $\theta(1)$ in the best-case (item is in the middle)
 - Less common (but very good to know): the find-in-sorted-array **problem** is $\Omega(\log n)$ in the worst-case
 - No algorithm can do better
 - A **problem** cannot be $O(f(n))$ since you can always make a slower algorithm

Other things to analyze

- **Space instead of time**
 - Remember we can often use space to gain time
- **Average case**
 - Sometimes only if you assume something about the *probability distribution* of inputs
 - Sometimes uses randomization in the algorithm
 - Will see an example with sorting
 - Sometimes an *amortized guarantee*
 - Average time over any sequence of operations
 - Will discuss in a later lecture

Big-Oh Caveats

- Asymptotic complexity focuses on behavior for large n and is independent of any computer / coding trick
- But you can “abuse” it to be misled about trade-offs
- Example: $n^{1/10}$ vs. $\log n$
 - Asymptotically $n^{1/10}$ grows more quickly
 - But the “cross-over” point is around $5 * 10^{17}$
 - So if you have input size less than 2^{58} , prefer $n^{1/10}$
- For *small* n , an algorithm with worse asymptotic complexity might be faster. If you care about performance for small n then the constant factors can matter

Summary

Analysis can be about:

- The problem or the algorithm (usually algorithm)
- Time or space (usually time)
- Best-, worst-, or average-case (usually worst)
- Upper-, lower-, or tight-bound (usually upper or tight)