

EE 441 Data Structures

Lecture 3: Algorithm Complexity

Algorithm

- An algorithm :
 - A computable set of steps to achieve a desired result.
 - precisely specified using an appropriate mathematical formalism--such as a programming language.
- Efficiency of an algorithm:
 - Less consumption of computing resources (execution time (CPU cycles), memory)
 - We will focus on time efficiency



Measuring Efficiency

- Two algorithms that accomplish the same task
 - Which one is better???
- You can run the algorithm and see the efficiency!!
- Benchmarking:
 - Run the program and measure runtime
 - Disadvantage:
 - Execution time depends on a number of different factors:
 - Programming language, compiler, operating system, computer architecture, input data.
 - No information about the fundamental nature of the program



Measuring Efficiency

- Given an algorithm, is it possible to determine how long it will take to run?
 - Input is unknown
 - Do not want to trace all possible execution paths
- For different inputs, is it possible to determine how an algorithm's runtime changes?





Analysis of an Algorithm

- Predicting the resources that the algorithm requires
- Resources: memory, communication bandwidth, hardware but MOSTLY TIME
- In general the run time of a given algorithm grows by the size of the input
- Growth rate: How quickly the run time of an algorithm grows as a function of the problem input size
- Input size (N): number of items to be sorted, number of bits to represent the quantities etc.





Types of Analysis

- Worst case
 - Largest possible running time of algorithm on input of a given size.
 - Provides an upper bound on running time
 - An absolute guarantee that the algorithm would not run longer, no matter what the inputs are
- Best case
 - Provides a lower bound on running time
 - Input is the one for which the algorithm runs the fastest

 $Lower\ Bound \le Running\ Time \le Upper\ Bound$





Types of Analysis

- Average Case:
 - Obtain bound on running time of algorithm on random input as a function of input size.
 - Hard (or impossible) to accurately model real instances by random distributions.
 - Algorithm tuned for a certain distribution may perform poorly on other inputs.





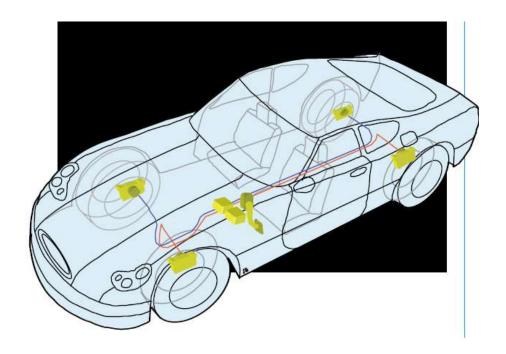
When does average case matter?

- Example: Design an algorithm that searches for a student in METU student database with certain properties (in third year, double major in physics)
- Worst case: No such student exists (rare). Algorithm searches the whole database and cannot find a match!
- Algorithm 1:
 - Average run time=1 sec
 - Worst case run time=8 sec
- Algorithm 2:
 - Average run time=4 sec
 - Worst case run time=5 sec
- WHICH ALGORITHM WILL YOU CHOOSE??



When does worst case matter?

- Example: Algorithm that computes the brake force in a brake by wire vehicle:
 - Brake is performed by a motor located at the wheels controlled by a computer
 - You are driving the car
 - You see the obstacle
 - The road is wet
 - You press on the brake

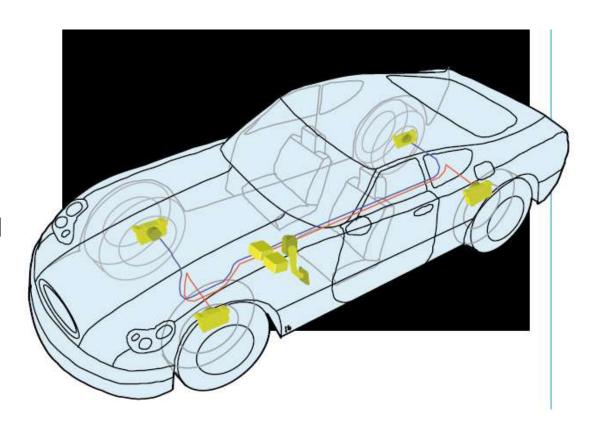






When does worst case matter?

- An algorithm in the vehicle computer computes the actual braking force according to your braking force and road conditions.
- Sends the brake force value to the motor at the wheels

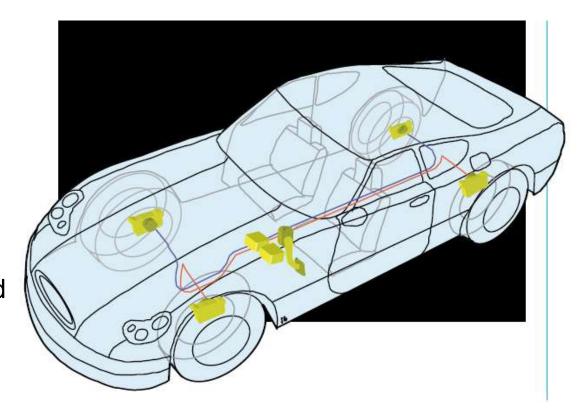


What is the design constraint of the algorithm???



When does worst case matter?

- Suppose: The algorithm has to generate a result in a maximum of 2msec such that you do not crash the object.
- The worst case run time should not exceed 2 msec
- You do not care about the average case!



Real time system that is life critical!



Measuring Efficiency

Analysis:

- Examine the program code
- Assume each execution of statement i takes time t_i (constant)
- Find how many times each statement is executed for a given input
- Find worst cases
- Some algorithms perform well for most cases but are very inefficient for few inputs: Average cases are important too!



Example

```
Checks including the last step where i>n
int sum (int n)
                        for the first time
int result=0; ∠
for (int i=1; i <=n; i++) \rightarrow t2a t2b t2c
result+=i;
                               →t3
                               \rightarrowt4
return result;
Time it takes to run:
T(n)=t1+t2a+(n+1)t2b+nt2c+nt3+t4
```





Some conclusions

- Running time T(n) depends on the problem size n.
- Usually T(n) is fixed for a certain n
- Question: What if the algorithm does some operations based on the outcome of a random variable?





Some conclusions

- We ignored the actual cost of each statement.
- We used t1 for time but we don't know how many nsec it takes to execute int result=0 on Intel core i7 processor.



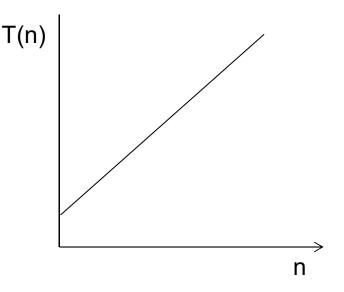
Rate of Growth

Remember:

$$T(n)=$$

$$n(t2b+t2c+t3)+t1+t2a+t2b+t4$$

$$T(n)=T_An+T_B$$



As $n \to \infty$:

T_B becomes insignificant with respect to nT_A T_A does not change the shape of the curve We are interested in the shape of the curve!!



Algorithm to solve a problem

- Problem:
 - An ordered array of N items
 - Find a desired item in the array
 - If the item exists in the array, return the index
 - Return -1 if no match is found
- There can be more than one solution >

Different algorithms





Algorithm 1: Sequential Search

- Idea:
 - Check all elements in the array one by one
 - from the beginning until:
 - The desired item is found → Success
 - End of the array
 no success

```
int SeqSearch(DataType list[],
   int n, DataType key)
         // note DataType must be
   defined earlier
         // e.g., typedef int
   DataType;
         // or typedef float
   DataType; etc.
   for (int i=0; i<n; i++)
         if (list[i]==key)
                 return i;
   return -1;
worst case:
n comparisons (operations) performed
expected (average):
n/2 comparisons
expected computation time \alpha n
```



Algorithm 1: Sequential Search

- expected computation time α n
- e.g., if the algorithm takes 1 ms with 100 elements

it takes ~5 ms with 500 elements ~200ms with

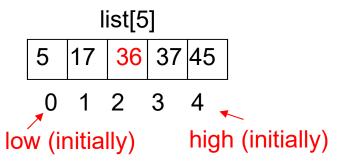
20000 elements etc.



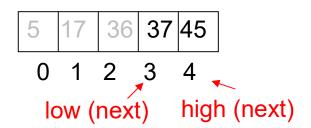


Algorithm 2: Binary Search

- Idea:
 - Use a sorted array
 - Compare the element at the middle with the searched item
 - Decide which half of the array can contain the searched item



- Search for 37
- Middle is 36
- If 37 exists it has to be in the higher part of the array







Algorithm 2: Binary Search

```
int BinarySearch(DataType list[], int low, int high,
DataType key)
       int mid;
       DataType midvalue;
       while (low<=high)
              mid=(low+high)/2; // note integer
division, middle of array
              midvalue=list[mid];
              if (key==midvalue) return mid;
              else if (key<midvalue) high=mid-1;
                     else low=mid+1;
       return -1;
                                         list∏
                             low (initially)
                                                  high (initially)
```



<u>e.g.</u> int list[5]={5,17,36,37,45}; low=0, high=4 key=44

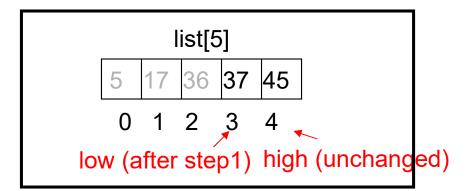
```
list[5]

5 | 17 | 36 | 37 | 45

0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4

low (initially) | high (initially)
```

1) mid=(0+4)/2=2 midvalue=list[2]=36 key>midvalue low=mid+1=3

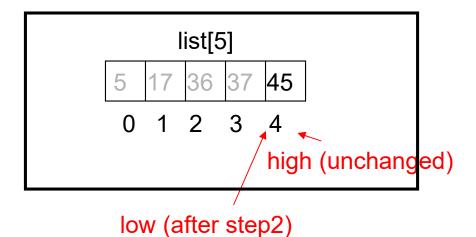




<u>e.g.</u> int list[5]={5,17,36,37,45}; low=0, high=4 key=44

2) mid=(3+4)/2=3 midvalue=list[3]=37 key>midvalue low=mid+1=4



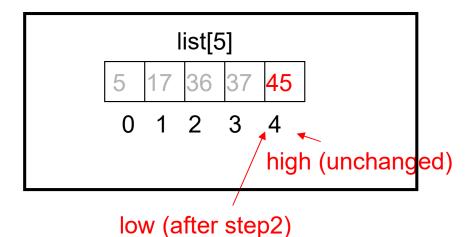


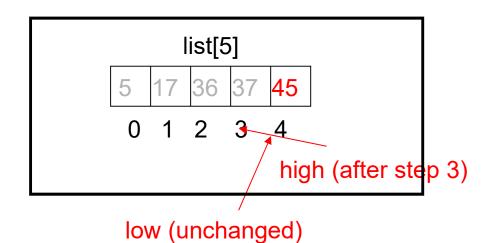


<u>e.g.</u> int list[5]={5,17,36,37,45}; low=0, high=4 key=44

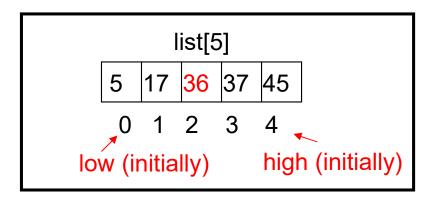
3) mid=(4+4)/2=4 midvalue=list[4]=45 key<midvalue high=mid-1=3

4) since high=3<low=4, exit the loop return -1 (not found)

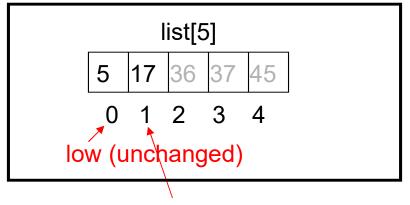




e.g.
int list[5]={5,17,36,37,45};
low=0, high=4 key=5
(the same example with different key)



1) mid=(0+4)/2=2 midvalue=list[2]=36 key<midvalue high=mid-1=1

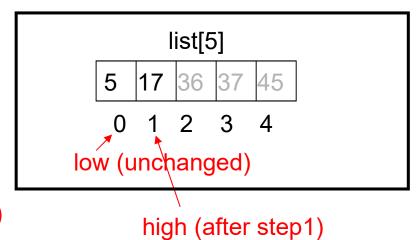


high (after step1)

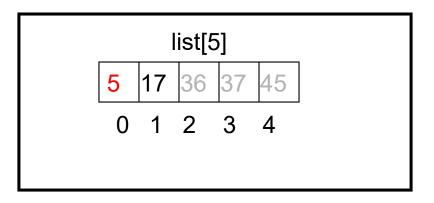




e.g.
int list[5]={5,17,36,37,45};
low=0, high=4 key=5
(the same example with different key)



2) mid=(0+1)/2=0 midvalue=list[0]=5 key=midvalue return 0 (found)





• In the worst case, Binary Search makes log₂n comparisons

e.g.	<u>n</u>	<u>log₂n</u>	(ceil) Smallest integer larger than or equal to	
	8	3	e.g. if Binary Search takes 1msec for 100	
	20	5	elements, it takes: t=k	
	32	5		
	100	7	1msec=k* \[log_2 100 \]	
	128	7		
	1000	10	k=1/7 msec/comparison	
	1024	10	Hence, t=(1/7)* \[\log_2 n \]	
	64000	16	t ₅₀₀ =(1/7)*	
	65536	16	t ₂₀₀₀₀ =(1/7)*	

Computational Complexity

- Compares growth of two functions
- Independent of constant multipliers and lower-order effects
- Metrics
 - Big-O Notation:O()
 - Big-Omega Notation: $\Omega()$
 - Big-Theta Notation: Θ()
- Allows us to evaluate algorithms
- Has precise mathematical definition
- Used in a sense to put algorithms into families
- May often be determined by inspection of an algorithm



Definition: Big-O Notation

Function f(n) is O(g(n)) if there exists a constant K and some n_0 such that

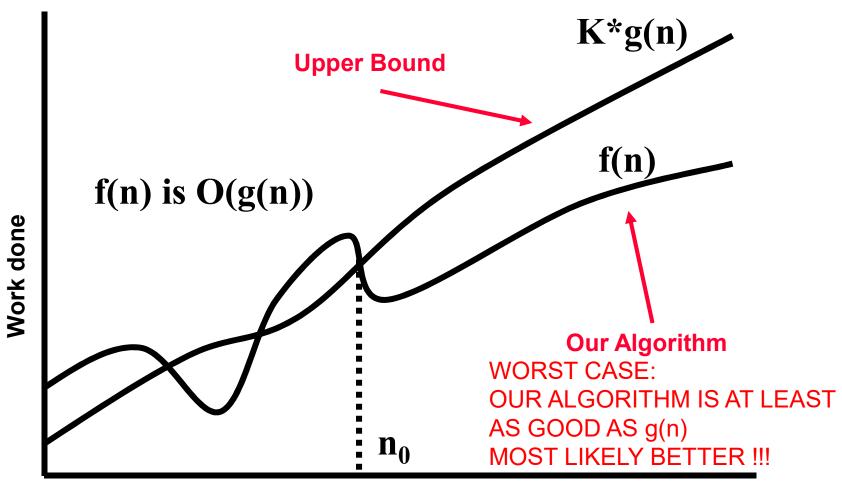
$$f(n) \le K^*g(n)$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$

i.e., as $n \rightarrow \infty$, f(n) is upper-bounded by a constant times g(n).

- Usually, g(n) is selected among:
 - log n (note log_an=k*log_bn for any a,b∈ℜ)
 - n, n^k (polynomial)
 - kⁿ (exponential)



Big-O Notation



Size of input





Comparing Two Algorithms

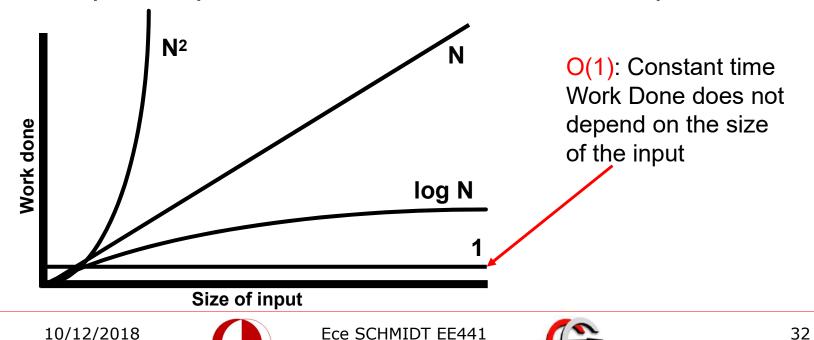
n	Seq. Search	Binary Search
n	O(n)	O(logn)
100	1 msec	1 msec
500	5 msec	1.3 msec
20000	200 msec	2.1 msec
	•••	•••





Comparing Algorithms

- The O() of algorithms determined using the formal definition of O() notation:
 - Establishes the worst they perform
 - Helps compare and see which has "better" performance



Examples

```
e.g. f(n)=n^2+250n+10^6 is O(n^2) because f(n) \le n^2+n^2+n^2 \quad \text{for } n \ge 10^3 \\ = 3n^2 \\ \text{K} \qquad \qquad n_0 e.g. f(n)=2^n+10^{23}n+\sqrt{n} is O(2^n) because 10^{23}n < 2^n \quad \text{for } n > n_0 \quad \text{and } \sqrt{n} < 2^n \quad \forall n \quad f(n) \le 3^*2^n \quad \text{for } n > n_0
```



No Uniqueness

- There is no unique set of values for n₀ and K in proving the asymptotic bounds
- Prove that $100n + 5 = O(n^2)$
 - $100n + 5 \le 100n + n = 101n \le 101n^2$

for all n ≥ 5

 $n_0 = 5$ and K = 101 is a solution

- $100n + 5 \le 100n + 5n = 105n \le 105n^2$ for all $n \ge 1$

 $n_0 = 1$ and K = 105 is also a solution

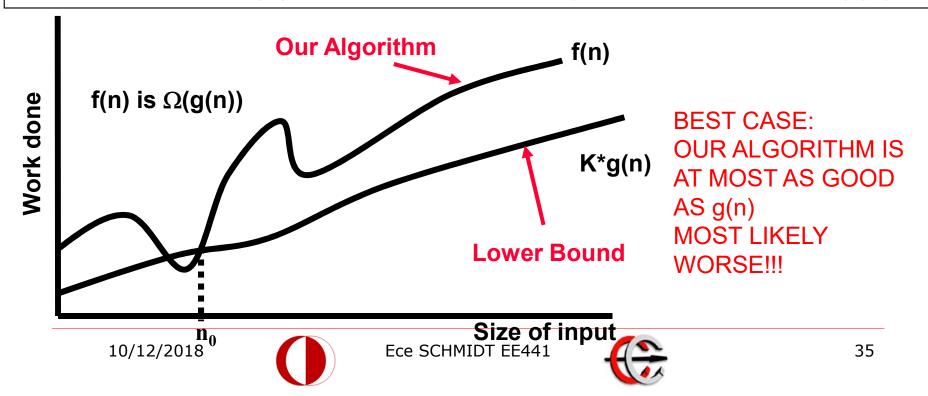
Must find **SOME** constants K and n₀ that satisfy the asymptotic notation relation

Big-Omega Notation

Function f(n) is $\Omega(g(n))$ if there exists a constant K and some n_0 such that

$$K^*g(n) \le f(n)$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$

i.e., as $n \rightarrow \infty$, f(n) is lower-bounded by a constant times g(n).

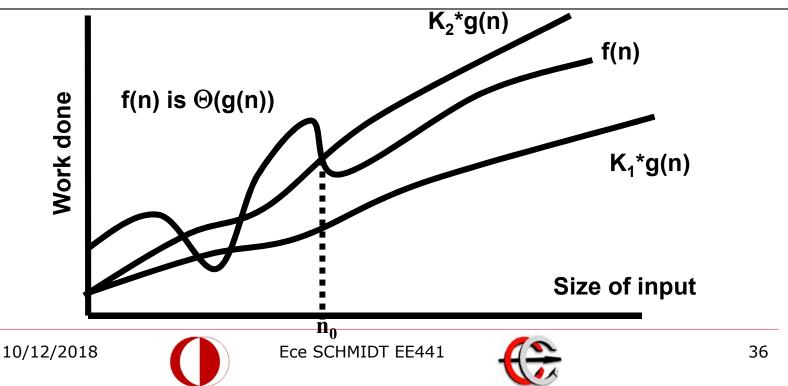


Big-Theta Notation

Function f(n) is $\Theta(g(n))$ if there exist constants K_1 and K_2 and some n_0 such that

$$K_1^*g(n) \le f(n) \le K_2^*g(n)$$
 for all $n \ge n_0$

i.e., as $n \rightarrow \infty$, f(n) is upper and lower bounded by some constants times g(n).



Asymptotic Notation

- O notation: asymptotic "less than":
 - f(n) is O(g(n)) implies: f(n) "≤" g(n)
- Ω notation: asymptotic "greater than":
 - f(n) is Ω (g(n)) implies: f(n) "≥" g(n)
- • O notation: asymptotic "equality": TIGHT

 BOUND
 - f(n)is $\Theta(g(n))$ implies: f(n) "=" g(n)



Theorem

• Theorem:

```
f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow f = O(g(n)) \text{ and } f = \Omega(g(n))
f(n) \text{ is } \Theta(g(n)) \text{ if } f(n) \text{ is both } O(g(n)) \text{ and } \Omega(g(n))
```



Properties

Transitivity:

- $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ and $g(n) = \Theta(h(n)) \Rightarrow f(n) = \Theta(h(n))$
- Same for O and Ω
- Example:
 - f(n)=log(n), g(n)=n², h(n)=n!
 - Given: f(n) is O(g(n)).
 - g(n) is $O(h(n)) \Rightarrow f(n)$ is O(h(n)) = O(n!)





Properties

- Additivity:
 - $f(n) = \Theta(h(n))$ and $g(n) = \Theta(h(n))$ then $f(n) + g(n) = \Theta(h(n))$
 - Same for O and Ω
- Reflexivity:
 - $f(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
 - Same for O and Ω
- Symmetry:
 - $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if and only if $g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$
- Transpose symmetry:
 - f(n) = O(g(n)) if and only if $g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$



Common Asymptotic Bounds

- Polynomials. $a_0 + a_1 n + ... + a_d n^d$ is $\Theta(n^d)$ if $a_d > 0$.
- Polynomial time. Running time is O(n^d) for some constant d that is independent of the input size n.



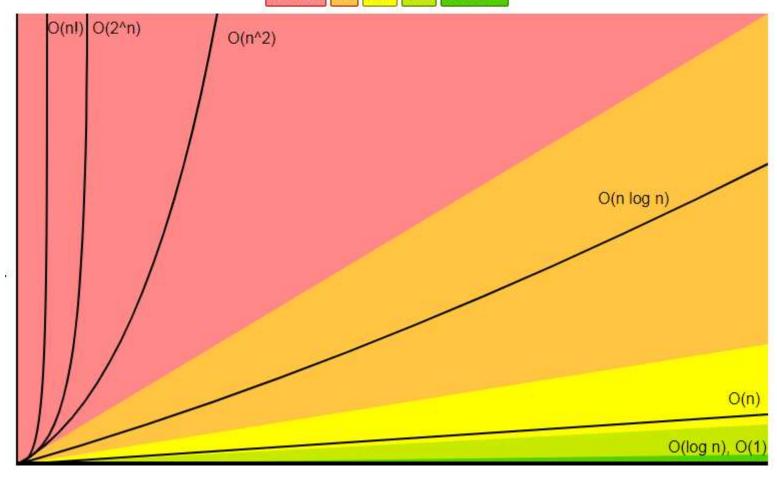
Common Asymptotic Bounds

- Logarithms. O(log_an) = O(log_bn) for any constants a, b > 0.
 - So, you can state logarithms without base
- For every x > 0, $\log n = O(n^x)$.
 - every polynomial grows faster than every log
- Exponentials. For every r > 1 and every d
 > 0, n^d = O(rⁿ).
 - every exponential grows faster than every polynomial



Compare

Horrible Bad Fair Good Excellent http://bigocheatsheet.com/





- $f(n) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + 3n \text{ is } \Theta(n^2)$
- We want K_1, K_2 and n_0 such that

$$K_1 n^2 \le \frac{1}{2} n^2 + 3n \le K_2 n^2$$

• Divide all expression by n^2

$$K_1 \le \frac{1}{2} + 3\frac{1}{n} \le K_2$$

Holds for n > 1, $K_1 = 0.5$ and $K_2 = 3.5$



- myfunc1: $\Theta(n)$
- myfunc2: $\Theta(n^2)$
- myfunc3:0(1)

```
int RandFunc(int n, int seed)
{int x= Rand(seed);
for(int i=0;i<n;i++)
{if(x%2==0)myfunc1+myfunc3;
else myfunc2+myfunc1;}
}</pre>
```

- If x is always even: n times execute myfunc1+myfunc3 $n(\Theta(n) + O(1)) = (\Theta(n^2) + \Theta(n)) = \Theta(n^2)$
- If x is always odd: n times execute myfunc2+myfunc1 $n(\Theta(n^2) + \Theta(n)) = \Theta(n^3) + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^3)$

- If x is always even: n times execute myfunc1+myfunc3 $n(\Theta(n) + O(1)) = (\Theta(n^2) + \Theta(n)) = \Theta(n^2)$
- If x is always odd: n times execute myfunc2+myfunc1 $n(\Theta(n^2) + \Theta(n)) = \Theta(n^3) + \Theta(n^2) = \Theta(n^3)$
- Worst case:
 - x is always odd: $\Theta(n^3) \Rightarrow O(n^3)$
- Best case:
 - x is always even: $\Theta(n^2) \Rightarrow \Omega(n^2)$
- There is no Θ for RandFunc

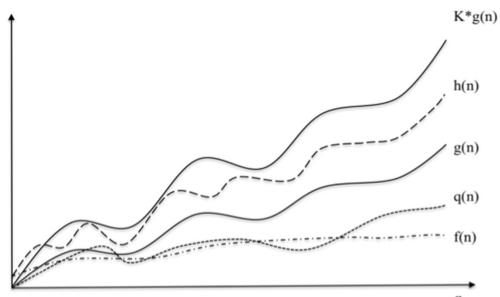




```
\sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i x^i
```

```
int Power (int a[], int n, int x)  \{\text{int xpower=1; t1} \\ \text{result=a[0]*xpower; t2}   \text{for (int i=1;i<=n;i++) t3a t3b t3c} \\ \text{xpower=x*xpower; t4}   \text{result+=a[i]*xpower;} \} \text{ t5} \\ \text{return result; t6}   T(n)=t1+t2+t3a+(n+1)t3b+n(t3c+t4+t5)+t6   T(n)=TA+nTB   O(n), O(n), O(n)
```





Consider the given figure. Let $p(n) = h(n) + f(n)^n$ Find the TIGHTEST O(.), Ω (.) and Θ (.) complexities of h(n), q(n) and p(n) expressed in terms of f(n) and g(n).

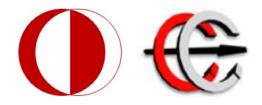
Solution:

h(n): $\Theta(g(n))$

q(n): O(g(n)), $\Omega(f(n))$

p(n): $\Theta(g(n))$





EE 441 Data Structures

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