

# Design and Analysis of Algorithms Algorithm Analysis

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- Polynomial Running time
- Asymptotic Growth
- O-notation
- $\Omega$ -notation
- Θ-notation



Brute force. For many nontrivial problems, there is a natural brute-force search algorithm that checks every possible solution.

• Typically takes  $2^n$  time or worse for inputs of

size n.

• Unacceptable in practice.





# Polynomial Running time

Desirable Scaling Property. When the input size doubles, the algorithm should slow down by at most some constant factor *C*.

An algorithm is poly-time if the above scaling property holds.

There exist constants c > 0 and d > 0 such that, for every input of size n, the running time of the algorithm is bounded above by  $cn^d$  primitive computational steps.



# Polynomial Running time

We say that an algorithm is efficient if it has a polynomial running time.

It really works in practice

- In practice, the poly-time algorithms that people develop have low constants and low exponents.
- Breaking through the exponential barrier of brute force typically exposes some crucial structure of the problem.

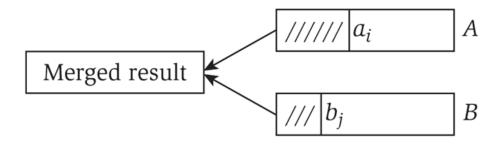
**Exceptions.** Some poly-time algorithms do have high constants and/or exponents are useless in practice.

Which would you prefer  $20n^{120}$  vs.  $n^{1+0.02lgn}$ ?



# Linear Running Time

Merge. Combine two sorted lists A and B into sorted whole.



```
\label{eq:continuous_problem} \begin{split} i &= 1, \ j = 1 \\ \text{while (both lists are nonempty) } \{ \\ &\quad \text{if } (a_i \leq b_j) \text{ append } a_i \text{ to output list and increment i} \\ &\quad \text{else} \qquad \text{append } b_j \text{ to output list and increment j} \\ \} \\ &\quad \text{append remainder of nonempty list to output list} \end{split}
```

Merging two lists, each of length n, takes O(n) time. After each compare, the length of output list increases by 1.



**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.

	п	$n \log_2 n$	$n^2$	$n^3$	1.5 <sup>n</sup>	2 <sup>n</sup>	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 <sup>25</sup> 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 <sup>17</sup> 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



## Types of Analyses

- Worst case. Running time guarantee for any input of size n.
- Probabilistic. Expected running time of a randomized algorithm.
- Average-case. Expected running time for a random input of size n.

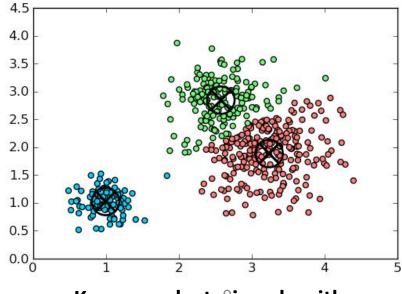


# Worst-Case Analysis

Worst case. Running time guarantee for any input of size n.

- Generally captures efficiency in practice.
- But hard to find effective alternative.

**Exceptions.** Some exponential-time algorithms are used widely in practice because the worst-case instances seem to be rate.



K-means clustering algorithm



In the insertion-sort example, we discussed that when analyzing algorithms we are

- interested in worst-case running time as function of input size n.
- not interested in exact constants in bound.
- not interested in lower order terms.

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# Asymptotic Growth

We want to express rate of growth of standard functions:

- -the leading term with respect to n.
- -ignoring constants in front of it

Ex. 
$$k_1n + k_2 \sim n$$
  
 $k_2nlogn \sim nlogn$   
 $k_1n^2 + k_2n + k_3 \sim n^2$ 

We also want to formalize e.g. that a *nlogn* algorithm is better than a  $n^2$  algorithm.



### **O-notation**

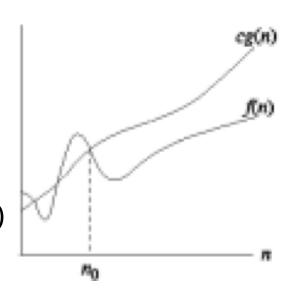
 $O(g(n)) = \{f(n): \text{ There exist positive constants } c \text{ and } n_0 \text{ such that } 0 \le f(n) \le cg(n) \text{ for all } n \ge n_0 \}$ 

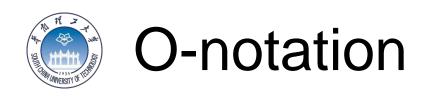
- --O(.) is used to asymptotically upper bound a function.
- --O(.) is used to bound worst-case running time.

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

- f(n) is  $O(n^2)$
- f(n) is also  $O(n^3)$
- f(n) is neither O(n) nor O(nlgn)

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





#### **Notational abuses**

O(q(n)) is a set of functions, but computer scientists often write f(n) = O(g(n)) instead of  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ 

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

- We have  $f(n) = O(n^3) = g(n)$ . Thus, f(n) = g(n).

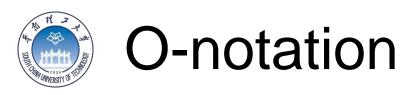
Non-negative functions. When using big O notation, we assume that the functions involved are non-negative.



### O-notation

#### Ex.

- $1/3n^2 3n \in O(n^2)$ Because  $1/3n^2 - 3n \le cn^2$  if  $c \ge 1/3 - 3/n$  which holds for c = 1/3 and n > 1.
- $k_1n^2+k_2n+k_3 \in O(n^2)$ Because  $k_1n^2+k_2n+k_3 \leq (k_1+|k_2|+|k_3|)n^2$  and for  $c>k_1+|k_2|+|k_3|$  and  $n\geq 1$ ,  $k_1n^2+k_2n+k_3\leq cn^2$ .
- $k_1 n^2 + k_2 n + k_3 \subseteq O(n^3)$ As  $k_1 n^2 + k_2 n + k_3 \le (k_1 + |k_2| + |k_3|) n^3$  (upper bound).



#### Note:

When we say "the running time is  $O(n^2)$ " we mean that the worst-case running time is  $O(n^2)$  — the best case might be better.

Use of O-notation often makes it much easier to analyze algorithms; we can easily prove the  $O(n^2)$  insertion-sort time bound.



### Ω-notation

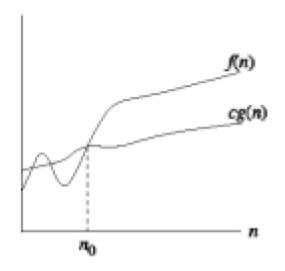
 $\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n): \text{ There exist positive constants } c \text{ and } n_0 \text{ such that } 0 \le cg(n) \le f(n) \text{ for all } n \ge n_0 \}$ 

• We use  $\Omega$ -notation to give a lower bound on a function.

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

- f(n) is both  $\Omega(n^2)$  and  $\Omega(n)$
- f(n) is neither  $\Omega(n^3)$  nor  $\Omega(n^3lgn)$

Typical usage. Any compare-based sorting algorithm requires  $\Omega(nlgn)$  compares in the worst case.



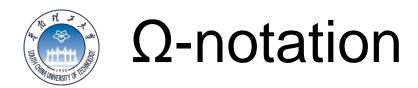


### Ω-notation

#### Ex.

•  $1/3n^2 - 3n \subseteq \Omega(n^2)$ Because  $1/3n^2 - 3n \ge cn^2$  if  $c \le 1/3 - 3/n$  which holds for c = 1/6 and n > 18.

- $k_1n^2+k_2n+k_3 \in \Omega(n^2)$
- $k_1n^2+k_2n+k_3 \in \Omega(n)$



#### Note:

When we say "the running time is  $\Omega(n^2)$ " we mean that the best-case running time is  $\Omega(n^2)$  — the worst case might be worse.

#### **Insertion-Sort:**

- Best case:  $\Omega(n)$  when the input array is already sorted.
- Worst case:  $O(n^2)$  when the input array is reverse sorted.



### Θ-notation

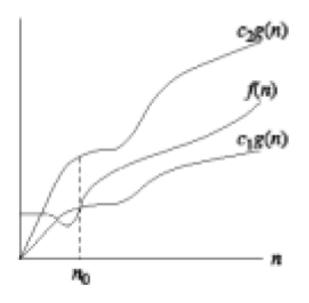
 $\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n): \text{ There exist positive constants } c_1, c_2 \text{ and } n_0 \text{ such that } 0 \le c_1 g(n) \le f(n) \le c_2 g(n) \text{ for all } n \ge n_0 \}$ 

- We use  $\Theta$ -notation to give a tight bound on a function.
- $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  if and only if f(n) = O(g(n)) and  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$

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

- f(n) is  $\Theta(n^2)$
- f(n) is neither  $\Theta(n)$  nor  $\Theta(n^3)$

Typical usage. Merge-Sort makes  $\Theta(nlgn)$  compares to sort n elements.





### Θ-notation

#### Ex.

- $k_1n^2+k_2n+k_3 \in \Theta(n^2)$
- $6nlogn + \sqrt{n}log^2n = \Theta(nlogn)$

We need to find  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ ,  $n_0 > 0$  such that  $c_1 n \log n \le 6 n \log n$ 

- $+\sqrt{n}\log^2 n \le c_2 n \log n \text{ for } n \ge n_0.$
- >  $c_1 n log n \le 6 n log n + \sqrt{n} log^2 n \rightarrow c_1 \le 6 + log n / \sqrt{n}$ , which is true if we choose  $c_1 = 6$  and  $n_0 = 1$ .
- >  $6nlogn + \sqrt{n}log^2n \le c_2nlogn \rightarrow 6 + logn/\sqrt{n} \ge c_2$ , which is true if we choose  $c_2 = 7$  and  $n_0 = 2$ . This is because  $logn \le \sqrt{n}$  if  $n \ge 2$ . So  $c_1 = 6$ ,  $c_2 = 7$  and  $n_0 = 2$  works.

### **Useful Facts**

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

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

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

Thus,  $f(n) \le 2cg(n)$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ , which implies f(n) is O(g(n)).

Similarly,  $f(n) \ge \frac{1}{2} cg(n)$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ , which implies f(n) is  $\Omega(g(n))$ .

• If  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{f(n)}{g(n)}=0$ , then f(n) is O(g(n)) but not O(g(n)).