



CSE 332: Data Abstractions

Lecture 3: Asymptotic Analysis

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Spring 2014

Announcements

- **Project 1** – phase A due Mon, phase B due Thurs
- **Homework 1** – due Friday at **beginning** of class
- Info sheets?

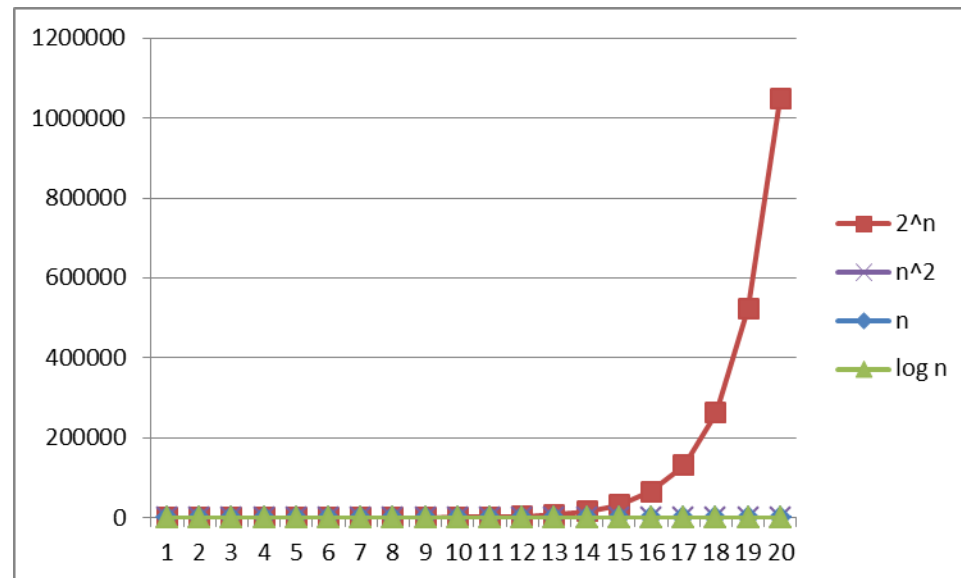
Today

- Analyzing code
- Big-Oh

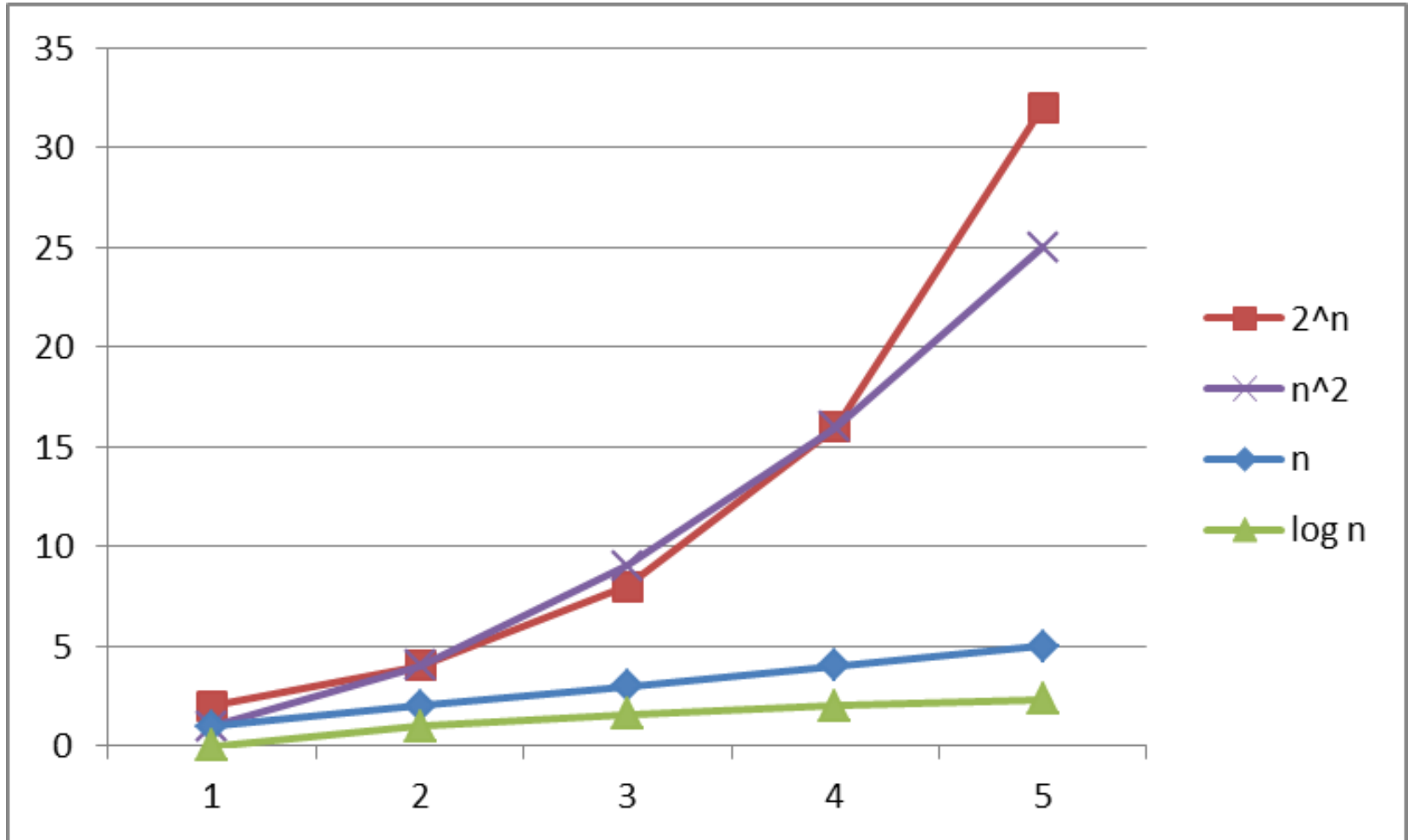
Logarithms and Exponents

- Since so much is binary in CS, \log almost always means \log_2
- Definition: $\log_2 x = y$ if $x = 2^y$
- So, $\log_2 1,000,000 =$ “a little under 20”
- Just as exponents grow *very* quickly, logarithms grow *very* slowly

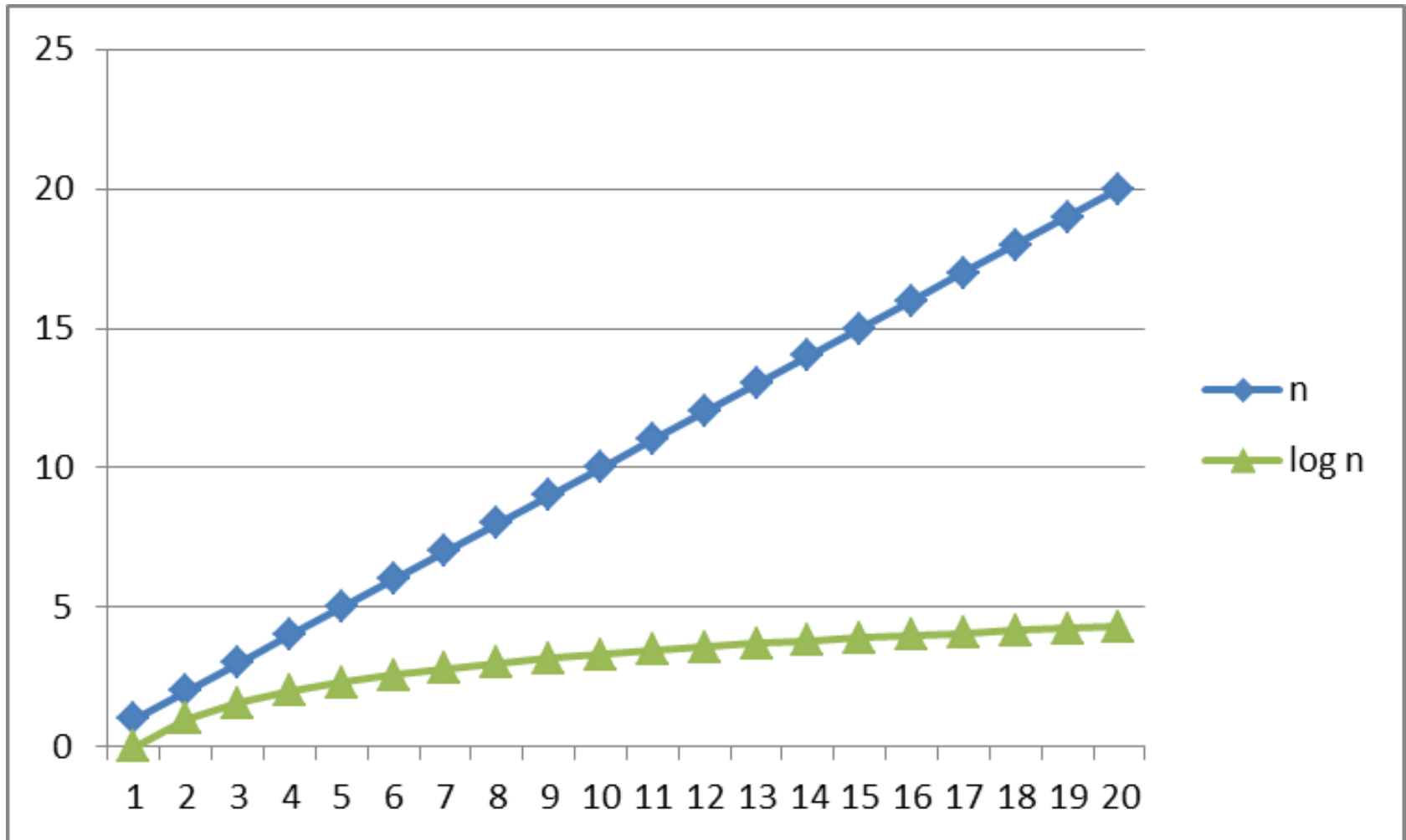
See Excel file
for plot data –
play with it!



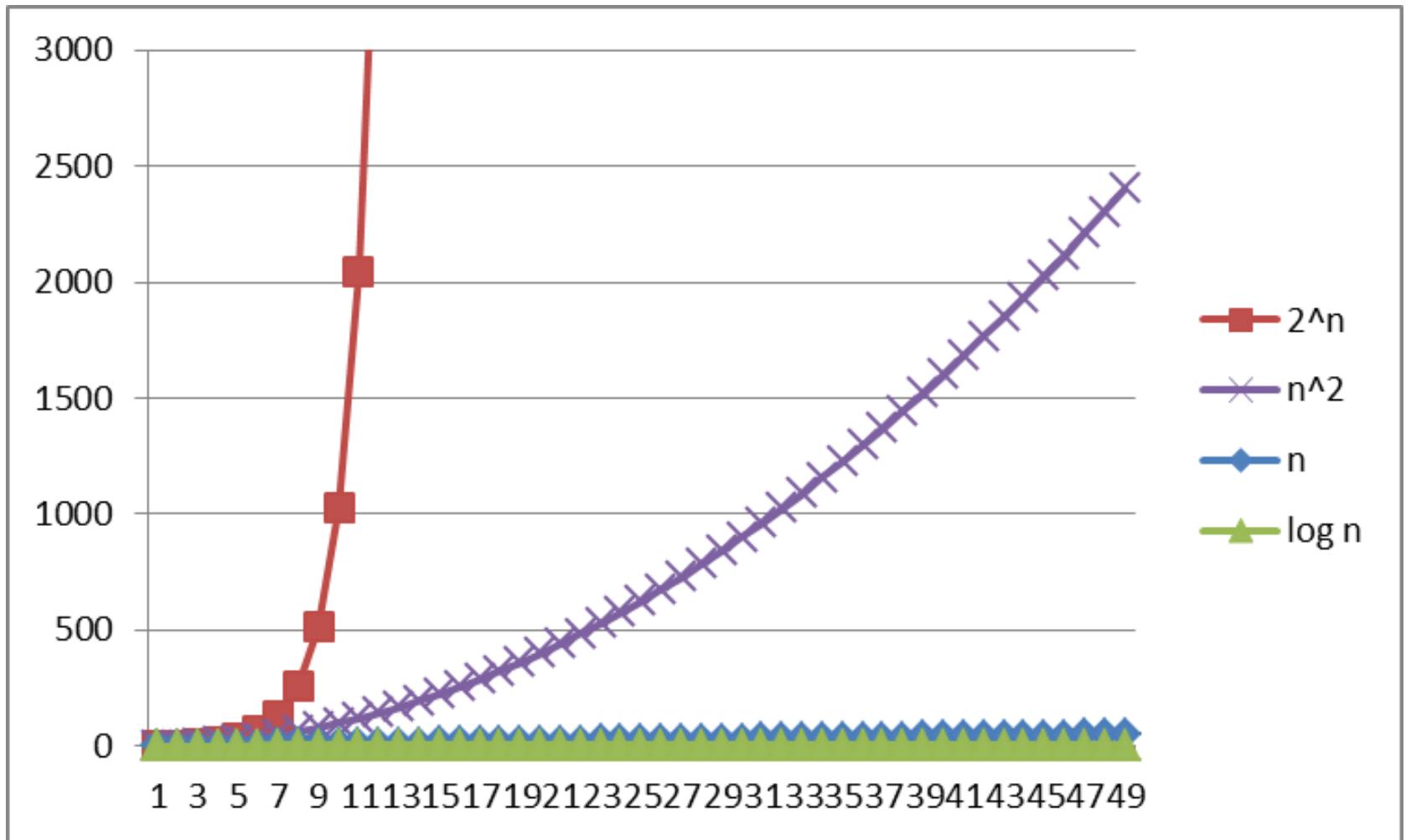
Logarithms and Exponents



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Logarithms and Exponents



Asymptotic notation

About to show formal definition, which amounts to saying:

1. Eliminate low-order terms
2. Eliminate coefficients

Examples:

- $4n + 5$
- $0.5n \log n + 2n + 7$
- $n^3 + 2^n + 3n$
- $n \log (10n^2)$

Examples

True or false?

1. $4+3n$ is $O(n)$
2. $n+2\log n$ is $O(\log n)$
3. $\log n+2$ is $O(1)$
4. n^{50} is $O(1.1^n)$

Notes:

- Do NOT ignore constants that are not multipliers:
 - n^3 is $O(n^2)$: **FALSE**
 - 3^n is $O(2^n)$: **FALSE**
- When in doubt, refer to the definition

Examples

True or false?

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------|
| 1. $4+3n$ is $O(n)$ | True |
| 2. $n+2\log n$ is $O(\log n)$ | False |
| 3. $\log n+2$ is $O(1)$ | False |
| 4. n^{50} is $O(1.1^n)$ | True |

Notes:

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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:

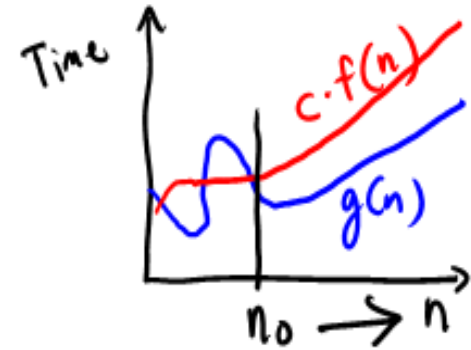
- $(3n^2+17)$ **is** $O(n^2)$
- $(3n^2+17)$ **=** $O(n^2)$

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

Formally Big-Oh

Definition: $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$ iff 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

This is “less than or equal to”

- So $3n^2 + 17$ is also $O(n^5)$ and $O(2^n)$ etc.

Using the definition of Big-Oh (Example 1)

For $g(n) = 4n$ & $f(n) = n^2$, prove $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$

- A valid proof is to find valid c & n_0
- When $n=4$, $g(n) = 16$ & $f(n) = 16$; this is the crossing over point
- So we can choose $n_0 = 4$, and $c = 1$

- Note: There are many possible choices:
ex: $n_0 = 78$, and $c = 42$ works fine

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

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

Using the definition of Big-Oh (Example 2)

For $g(n) = n^4$ & $f(n) = 2^n$, prove $g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$

- A valid proof is to find valid c & n_0
- One possible answer: $n_0 = 20$, and $c = 1$

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

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

What's with the **c**?

- To capture this notion of similar asymptotic behavior, we allow a constant multiplier (called **c**)
- Consider:
$$\mathbf{g(n)} = 7n+5$$
$$\mathbf{f(n)} = n$$
- These have the same asymptotic behavior (linear), so **g(n)** is in $O(\mathbf{f(n)})$ even though **g(n)** is always larger
- There is no positive **n₀** such that **g(n)** ≤ **f(n)** for all $n \geq \mathbf{n_0}$
- The '**c**' in the definition allows for that:
$$\mathbf{g(n)} \leq \mathbf{c f(n)} \quad \text{for all } n \geq \mathbf{n_0}$$
- To prove **g(n)** is in $O(\mathbf{f(n)})$, have **c** = 12, **n₀** = 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 (can re-scale)
- 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)

Big Oh: Common Categories

From fastest to slowest

$O(1)$	constant (same as $O(k)$ for constant k)
$O(\log n)$	logarithmic
$O(n)$	linear
$O(n \log n)$	“ $n \log n$ ”
$O(n^2)$	quadratic
$O(n^3)$	cubic
$O(n^k)$	polynomial (where k is any constant > 1)
$O(k^n)$	exponential (where k is any constant > 1)

Usage note: “exponential” does not mean “grows really fast”, it means “grows at rate proportional to k^n for some $k > 1$ ”

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
$$g(n) \leq c f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$
- **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
$$g(n) \geq c f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$
- **Tight bound:** $\theta(f(n))$ is the set of all functions asymptotically equal to $f(n)$
 - Intersection of $O(f(n))$ and $\Omega(f(n))$ (use *different* c values)

Regarding use of terms

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

- People often say $O()$ to mean a tight bound
- Say we have $f(n)=n$; we could say $f(n)$ is in $O(n)$, which is true, but only conveys the upper-bound
- Since $f(n)=n$ is *also* $O(n^5)$, it's tempting to say “this algorithm is *exactly* $O(n)$ ”
- Somewhat incomplete; instead say it is $\theta(n)$
- That means that it is not, for example $O(\log n)$

Less common notation:

- “little-oh”: like “big-Oh” but strictly less than
 - Example: sum is $o(n^2)$ but not $o(n)$
- “little-omega”: like “big-Omega” but strictly greater than
 - Example: sum is $\omega(\log n)$ but not $\omega(n)$

What we are analyzing

- The most common thing to do is give an O or θ **bound** to the **worst-case** running **time** of an **algorithm**
- Example: True statements about binary-search algorithm
 - Common: $\theta(\log n)$ running-time in the worst-case
 - Less common: $\theta(1)$ in the best-case (item is in the middle)
 - Less common: Algorithm is $\Omega(\log \log n)$ in the worst-case (it is not really, really, really fast asymptotically)
 - 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 (without parallelism)
 - A **problem** cannot be $O(f(n))$ since you can always find a slower algorithm, but can mean **there exists** an 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 distribution of inputs
 - See CSE312 and STAT391
 - Sometimes uses randomization in the algorithm
 - Will see an example with sorting; also see CSE312
 - Sometimes an *amortized guarantee*
 - Will discuss in a later lecture

Summary

Analysis can be about:

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

Big-Oh Caveats

- Asymptotic complexity (Big-Oh) 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 $n^{1/10}$
- Comparing $O()$ for **small n** values can be misleading
 - Quicksort: $O(n \log n)$ (expected)
 - Insertion Sort: $O(n^2)$ (expected)
 - Yet in reality Insertion Sort is faster for small n 's
 - We'll learn about these sorts later

Addendum: Timing vs. Big-Oh?

- At the core of CS is a backbone of theory & mathematics
 - Examine the algorithm itself, mathematically, not the implementation
 - Reason about performance as a function of n
 - Be able to mathematically prove things about performance
- Yet, timing has its place
 - In the real world, we do want to know whether implementation A runs faster than implementation B on data set C
 - Ex: Benchmarking graphics cards
 - We will do some timing in project 3 (and in 2, a bit)
- Evaluating an algorithm? Use asymptotic analysis
- Evaluating an implementation of hardware/software? Timing can be useful

Extra slides

Powers of 2

- A bit is 0 or 1
- A sequence of n bits can represent 2^n distinct things
 - For example, the numbers 0 through 2^n-1
- 2^{10} is 1024 (“about a thousand”, kilo in CSE speak)
- 2^{20} is “about a million”, mega in CSE speak
- 2^{30} is “about a billion”, giga in CSE speak

Java: an `int` is 32 bits and signed, so “max int” is “about 2 billion”
a `long` is 64 bits and signed, so “max long” is $2^{63}-1$

Therefore...

Could give a unique id to...

- Every person in the U.S. with 29 bits
- Every person in the world with 33 bits
- Every person to have ever lived with 38 bits (estimate)
- Every atom in the universe with 250-300 bits

So if a password is 128 bits long and randomly generated,
do you think you could guess it?

Properties of logarithms

- $\log(A*B) = \log A + \log B$
 - So $\log(N^k) = k \log N$
- $\log(A/B) = \log A - \log B$
- $x = \log_2 2^x$
- $\log(\log x)$ is written $\log \log x$
 - Grows as slowly as 2^{2^y} grows fast
 - Ex:
$$\log_2 \log_2 4\text{billion} \sim \log_2 \log_2 2^{32} = \log_2 32 = 5$$
- $(\log x)(\log x)$ is written $\log^2 x$
 - It is greater than $\log x$ for all $x > 2$

Log base doesn't matter (much)

“Any base B log is equivalent to base 2 log within a constant factor”

- And we are about to stop worrying about constant factors!
- In particular, $\log_2 x = 3.22 \log_{10} x$
- In general, we can convert log bases via a constant multiplier
- Say, to convert from base A to base B :

$$\log_B x = (\log_A x) / (\log_A B)$$

Algorithm Analysis

As the “size” of an algorithm’s input grows

(integer, length of array, size of queue, etc.):

- How much longer does the algorithm take (time)
- How much more memory does the algorithm need (space)

Because the curves we saw are so different, we often only care about “which curve we are like”

Separate issue: Algorithm *correctness* – does it produce the right answer for all inputs

- Usually more important, naturally

Example

- What does this pseudocode return?

```
x := 0;  
for i=1 to N do  
  for j=1 to i do  
    x := x + 3;  
return x;
```

- Correctness: For any $N \geq 0$, it returns...

Example

- What does this pseudocode return?

```
x := 0;  
for i=1 to N do  
  for j=1 to i do  
    x := x + 3;  
return x;
```

- Correctness: For any $N \geq 0$, it returns $3N(N+1)/2$
- Proof: By induction on n
 - $P(n)$ = after outer for-loop executes n times, \mathbf{x} holds $3n(n+1)/2$
 - Base: $n=0$, returns 0
 - Inductive: From $P(k)$, \mathbf{x} holds $3k(k+1)/2$ after k iterations. Next iteration adds $3(k+1)$, for total of $3k(k+1)/2 + 3(k+1)$
 $= (3k(k+1) + 6(k+1))/2 = (k+1)(3k+6)/2 = 3(k+1)(k+2)/2$

Example

- How long does this pseudocode run?

```
x := 0;
for i=1 to N do
  for j=1 to i do
    x := x + 3;
return x;
```

- Running time: For any $N \geq 0$,
 - Assignments, additions, returns take “1 unit time”
 - Loops take the sum of the time for their iterations
- So: $2 + 2 \cdot (\text{number of times inner loop runs})$
 - And how many times is that?

Example

- How long does this pseudocode run?

```
x := 0;  
for i=1 to N do  
  for j=1 to i do  
    x := x + 3;  
return x;
```

- How many times does the **inner loop** run?

Example

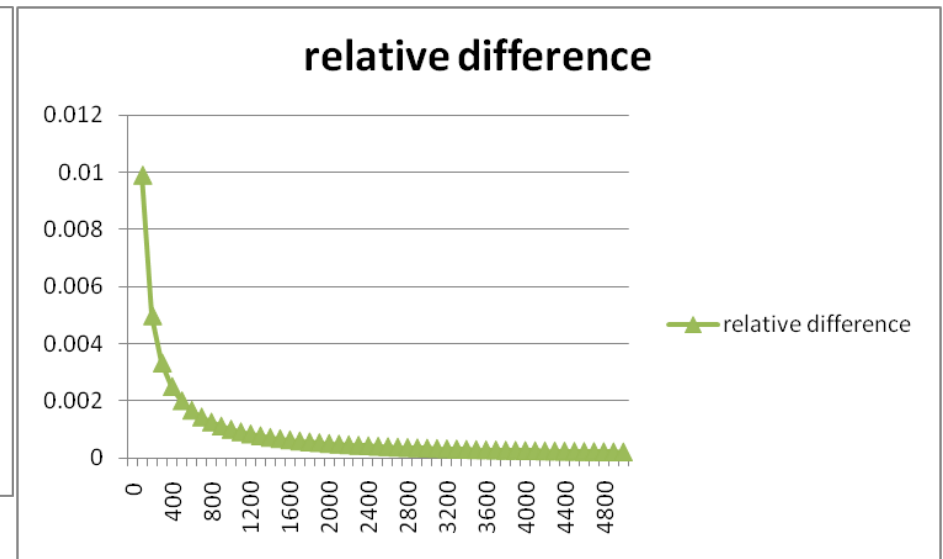
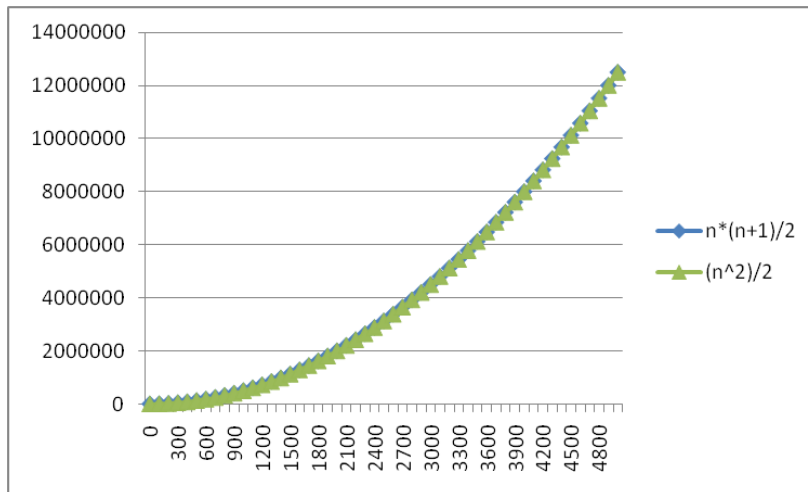
- How long does this pseudocode run?

```
x := 0;
for i=1 to N do
  for j=1 to i do
    x := x + 3;
return x;
```

- The total number of loop iterations is $N*(N+1)/2$
 - This is a very common loop structure, worth memorizing
 - This is *proportional to* N^2 , and we say $O(N^2)$, “big-Oh of”
 - For large enough N , the N and constant terms are irrelevant, as are the first assignment and return
 - See plot... $N*(N+1)/2$ vs. just $N^2/2$

Lower-order terms don't matter

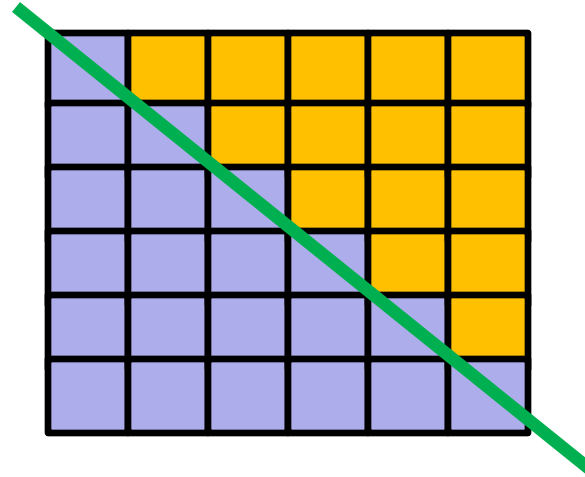
$N*(N+1)/2$ vs. just $N^2/2$



Geometric interpretation

$$\sum_{i=1}^N i = N*N/2 + N/2$$

```
for i=1 to N do
  for j=1 to i do
    // small work
```



- Area of square: $N*N$
- Area of lower triangle of square: $N*N/2$
- Extra area from squares crossing the diagonal: $N*1/2$
- As N grows, fraction of “extra area” compared to lower triangle goes to zero (becomes insignificant)

Recurrence Equations

- For running time, what the loops did was irrelevant, it was how many times they executed.
- Running time as a function of input size n (here loop bound):
$$T(n) = n + T(n-1)$$

(and $T(0) = 2$ ish, but usually implicit that $T(0)$ is some constant)
- Any algorithm with running time described by this formula is $O(n^2)$
- “Big-Oh” notation also ignores the constant factor on the high-order term, so $3N^2$ and $17N^2$ and $(1/1000) N^2$ are all $O(N^2)$
 - As N grows large enough, no smaller term matters
 - Next time: Many more examples + formal definitions