



CSE332: Data Abstractions

Lecture 3: Asymptotic Analysis

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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

Large inputs because probably any algorithm is “plenty good” for small inputs (if n is 10, probably anything is fast)

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!

Analyzing code (“worst case”)

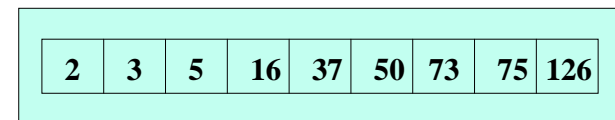
Basic operations take “some amount of” *constant time*

- Arithmetic (fixed-width)
- Assignment
- Access one Java field **or array index**
- Etc.

(This is an *approximation of reality*: a very useful “lie”.)

Consecutive statements	Sum of times
Conditionals	Time of test plus slower branch
Loops	Sum of iterations
Calls	Time of call's body
Recursion	Solve <i>recurrence equation</i>

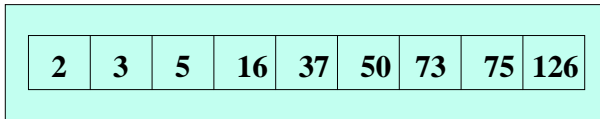
Example



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

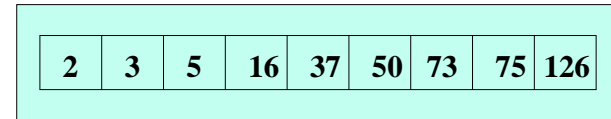


Find an integer in a *sorted* array

```
// 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: 6ish steps = $O(1)$
Worst case: 6ish*(arr.length)
= $O(\text{arr.length})$

Binary search



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: 8ish steps = $O(1)$

Worst case: $T(n) = 10\text{ish} + T(n/2)$ 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

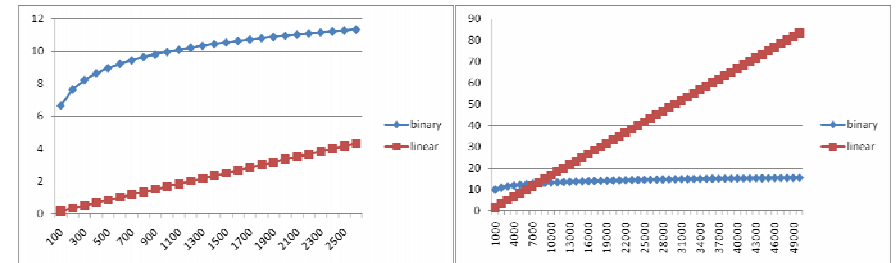
1. Determine the recurrence relation. What is the base case?
 - $T(n) = 10 + T(n/2)$ $T(1) = 8$
2. “Expand” the original relation to find an equivalent general expression *in terms of the number of expansions*.
 - $T(n) = 10 + 10 + T(n/4)$
= $10 + 10 + 10 + T(n/8)$
= ...
= $10k + T(n/(2^k))$
3. Find a closed-form expression by setting *the number of expansions* to a value which reduces the problem to a base case
 - $n/(2^k) = 1$ means $n = 2^k$ means $k = \log_2 n$
 - So $T(n) = 10 \log_2 n + 8$ (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
 - And could depend on size of 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 2010 model vs. 1990)
 - 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
- Note: 600x still helpful for problems without logarithmic algorithms!



Another example: sum array

Two "obviously" linear algorithms: $T(n) = O(1) + T(n-1)$

Iterative:

```
int sum(int[] arr){
    int ans = 0;
    for(int i=0; i<arr.length; ++i)
        ans += arr[i];
    return ans;
}
```

Recursive:

- Recurrence is $k + k + \dots + k$ for n times

```
int sum(int[] arr){
    return help(arr,0);
}
int help(int[] arr, int i) {
    if(i==arr.length)
        return 0;
    return arr[i] + help(arr,i+1);
}
```

What about a binary version?

```
int sum(int[] arr){
    return help(arr,0,arr.length);
}
int help(int[] arr, int lo, int hi) {
    if(lo==hi) return 0;
    if(lo==hi-1) return arr[lo];
    int mid = (hi+lo)/2;
    return help(arr,lo,mid) + help(arr,mid,hi);
}
```

Recurrence is $T(n) = O(1) + 2T(n/2)$

- $1 + 2 + 4 + 8 + \dots$ for $\log n$ times
- $2^{(\log n)} - 1$ which is proportional to n (definition of logarithm)

Easier explanation: it adds each number once while doing little else

"Obvious": You can't do better than $O(n)$ – have to read whole array

Parallelism teaser

- But suppose we could do two recursive calls *at the same time*
 - Like having a friend do half the work for you!

```
int sum(int[] arr) {
    return help(arr, 0, arr.length);
}
int help(int[] arr, int lo, int hi) {
    if (lo == hi) return arr[lo];
    if (lo == hi - 1) return arr[lo];
    int mid = (hi + lo) / 2;
    return help(arr, lo, mid) + help(arr, mid, hi);
}
```

- If you have as many “friends of friends” as needed the recurrence is now $T(n) = O(1) + 1T(n/2)$
 - $O(\log n)$: same recurrence as for `find`

Really common recurrences

Should know how to solve recurrences but also recognize some really common ones:

$T(n) = O(1) + T(n-1)$	linear
$T(n) = O(1) + 2T(n/2)$	linear
$T(n) = O(1) + T(n/2)$	logarithmic
$T(n) = O(1) + 2T(n-1)$	exponential
$T(n) = O(n) + T(n-1)$	quadratic (see previous lecture)
$T(n) = O(n) + T(n/2)$	linear
$T(n) = O(n) + 2T(n/2)$	$O(n \log n)$

Note big-Oh can also use more than one variable

- Example: can sum all elements of an n -by- m matrix in $O(nm)$

Asymptotic notation

About to show formal definition, which amounts to saying:

1. Eliminate low-order terms
2. Eliminate coefficients

Examples:

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

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:

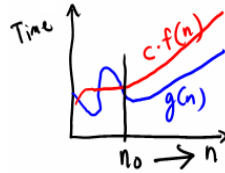
- $(3n^2+17)$ **is** $O(n^2)$
- $(3n^2+17) = O(n^2)$

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

Formally Big-Oh (Dr? Ms? Mr? ☺)

Definition:

$g(n)$ is in $O(f(n))$ if there exist constants c and n_0 such that $g(n) \leq c f(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0$



- 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.

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 $f(n)$
 - Intersection of $O(f(n))$ and $\Omega(f(n))$ (use *different* c values)

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”: 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: 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)

Usually asymptotic is valuable

- 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 $n^{1/10}$