



# CSE 332: Data Abstractions

## Lecture 3: Asymptotic Analysis

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# *Announcements*

- **Project 1** – phase A due Mon, phase B due Thurs
- **Homework 1** – due Friday

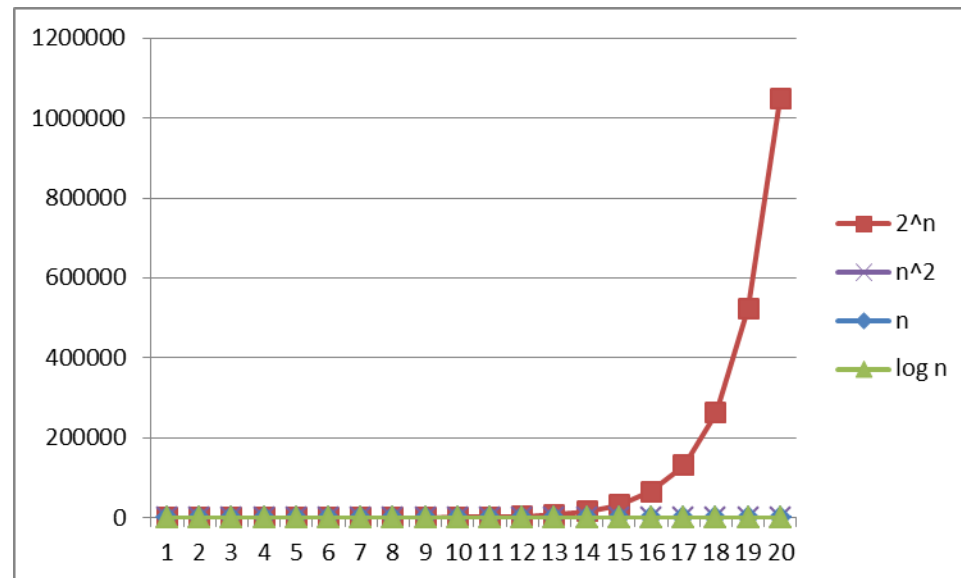
# *Today*

- Analyzing code
- Big-Oh

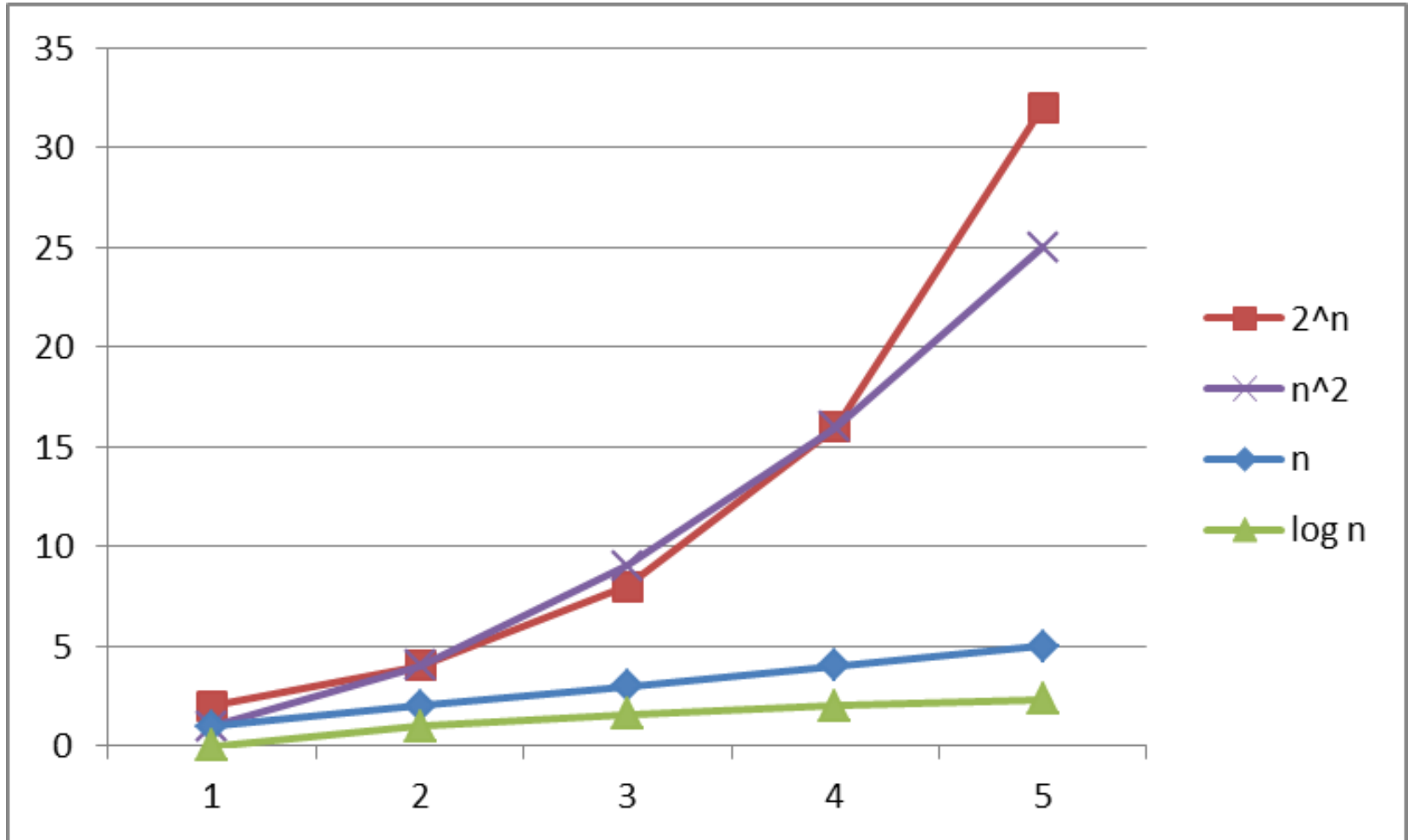
# Logarithms and Exponents

- 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

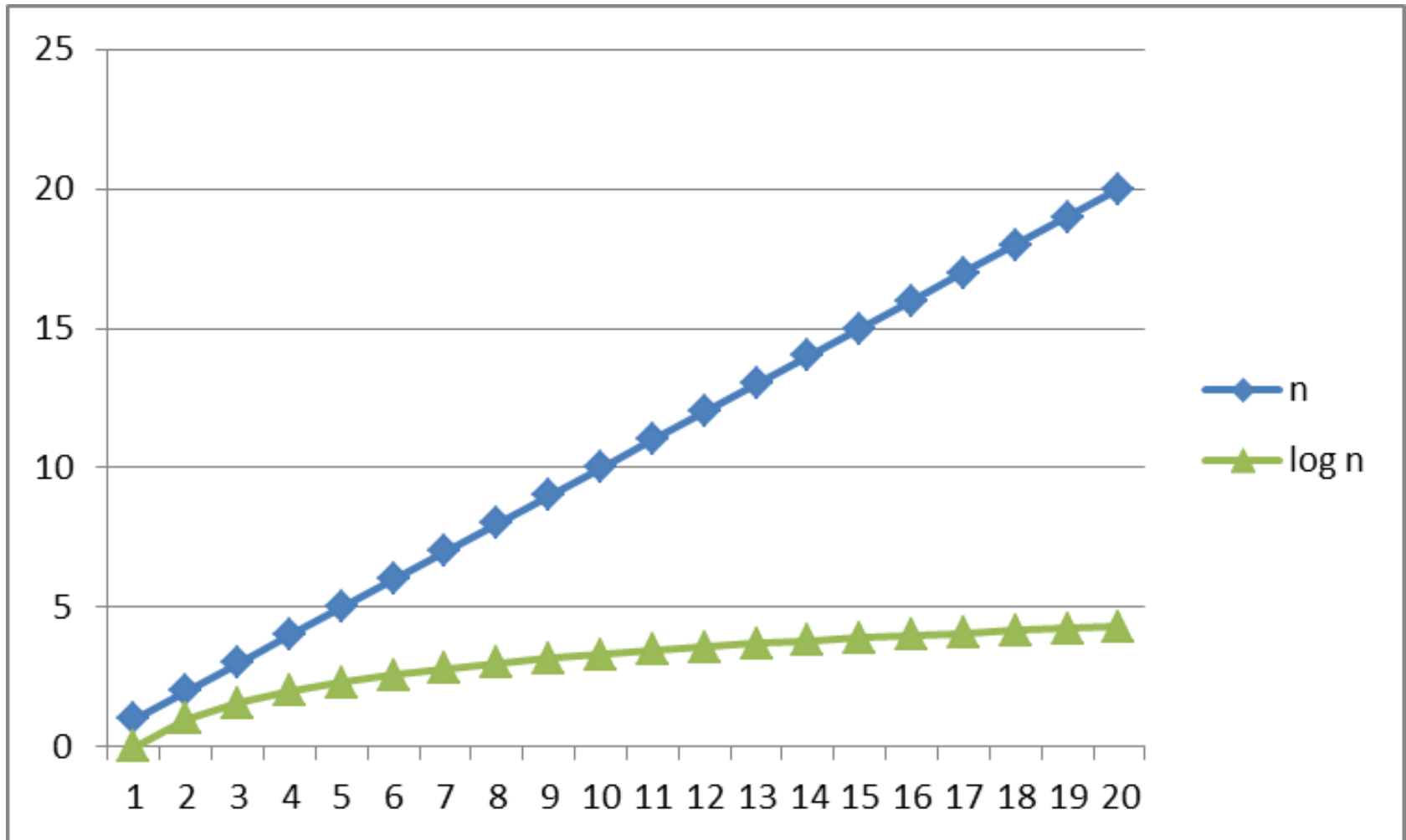
See Excel file  
for plot data –  
play with it!



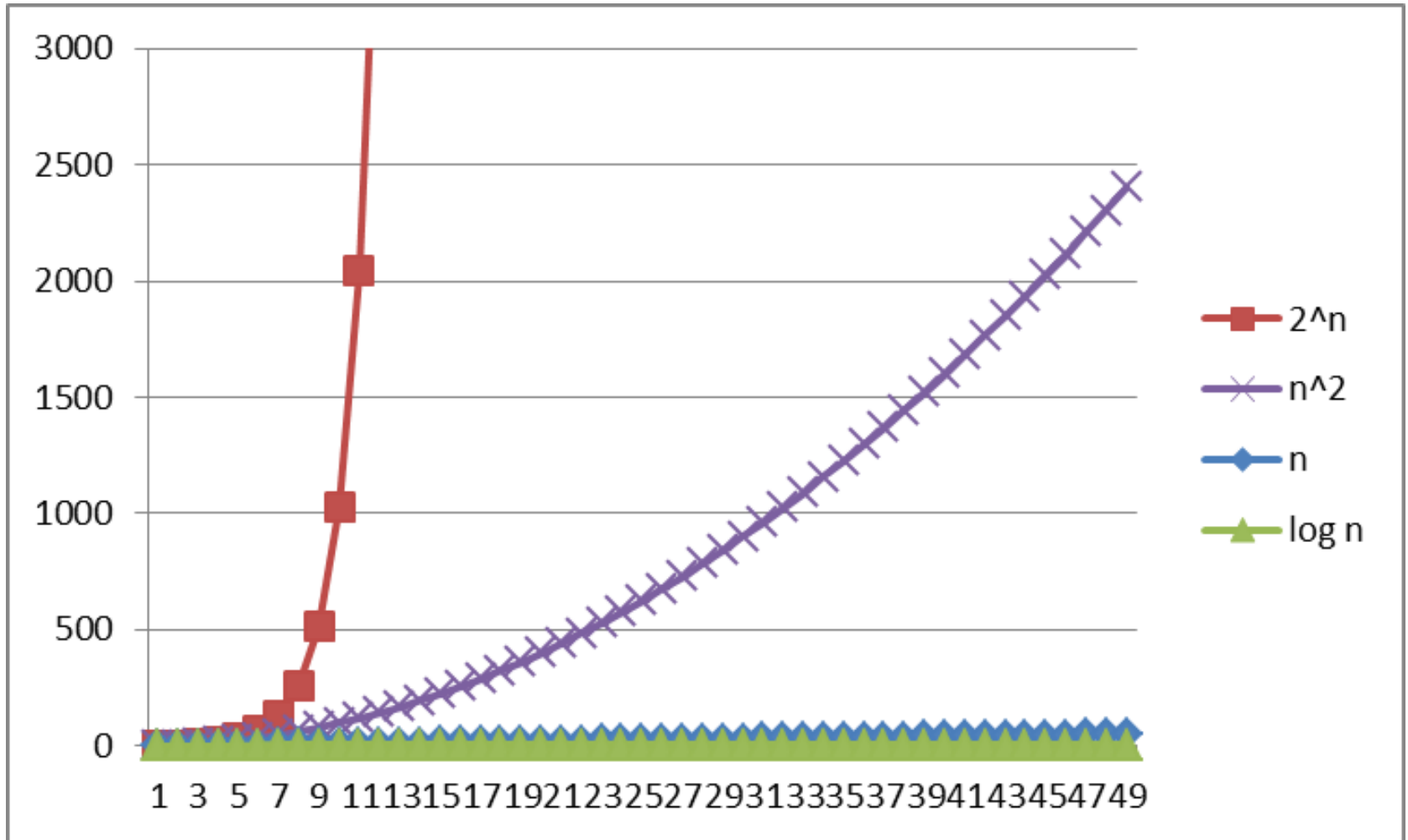
# Logarithms and Exponents



# Logarithms and Exponents



# 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:

- Do NOT ignore constants that are not multipliers:
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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:

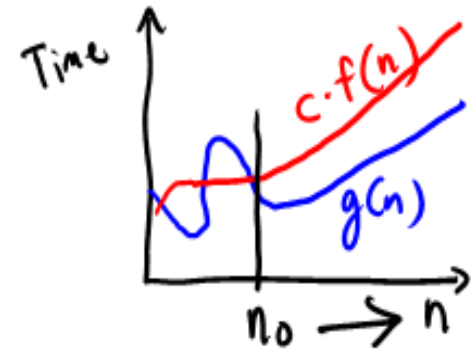
- $(3n^2+17)$  **is**  $O(n^2)$
- $(3n^2+17)$  **=**  $O(n^2)$

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  $\mathbf{g(n)}$  is in  $O(\mathbf{f(n)})$  even though  $\mathbf{g(n)}$  is always larger
- There is no positive  $\mathbf{n_0}$  such that  $\mathbf{g(n)} \leq \mathbf{f(n)}$  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  $\mathbf{g(n)}$  is in  $O(\mathbf{f(n)})$ , have  $\mathbf{c} = 12$ ,  $\mathbf{n_0} = 1$

# *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  $\theta$  **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

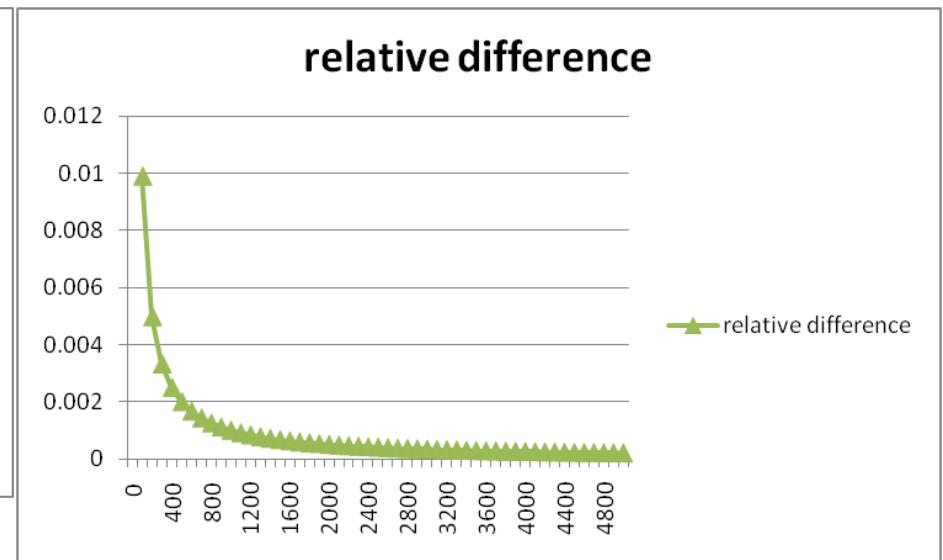
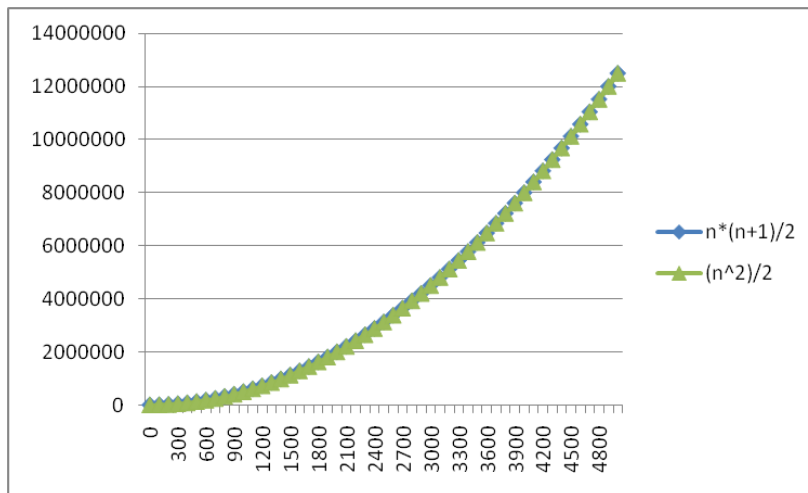
- How long does this pseudocode run?

```
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

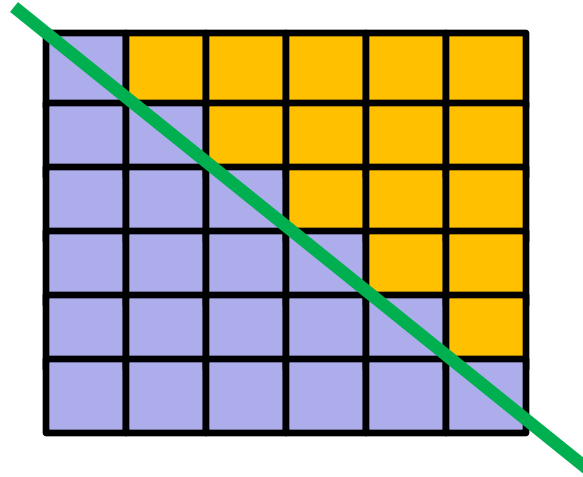
$N*(N+1)/2$  vs. just  $N^2/2$



# 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