



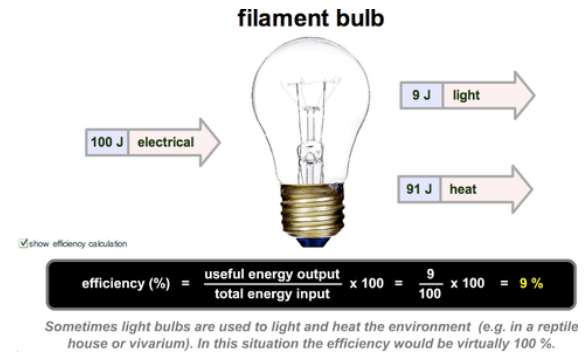
# CSE373: Data Structures and Algorithms

## Lecture 4: Asymptotic Analysis

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# Efficiency



- What does it mean for an algorithm to be *efficient*?
  - We primarily care about *time* (and sometimes *space*)
- Is the following a good definition?
  - “An algorithm is efficient if, when implemented, it runs **quickly on real input instances**”
  - What does “quickly” mean?
  - What constitutes “real input?”
  - How does the algorithm *scale* as input size changes?

# Gauging efficiency (performance)

- Uh, why not just run the program and time it?
  - Too much *variability*, not reliable or *portable*:
    - Hardware: processor(s), memory, etc.
    - OS, Java version, libraries, drivers
    - Other programs running
    - Implementation dependent
  - Choice of input
    - Testing (inexhaustive) may *miss* worst-case input
    - Timing does not *explain* relative timing among inputs (what happens when  $n$  doubles in size)
- Often want to evaluate an *algorithm*, not an implementation
  - Even *before* creating the implementation (“coding it up”)

# 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

*We will focus on large inputs* because probably any algorithm is “plenty good” for small inputs (if  $n$  is 10, probably anything is fast)

- Time difference really shows up as  $n$  grows

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!

# *We usually care about worst-case running times*

- Has proven reasonable in practice
  - Provides some guarantees
- Difficult to find a satisfactory alternative
  - What about average case?
  - Difficult to express full range of input
  - Could we use randomly-generated input?
  - May learn more about generator than algorithm



# Example

|   |   |   |    |    |    |    |    |     |
|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|-----|
| 2 | 3 | 5 | 16 | 37 | 50 | 73 | 75 | 126 |
|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|-----|

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

|   |   |   |    |    |    |    |    |     |
|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|-----|
| 2 | 3 | 5 | 16 | 37 | 50 | 73 | 75 | 126 |
|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|-----|

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?

k is in arr[0]

c1 steps

=  $O(1)$

Worst case?

k is not in arr

$c2 * (\text{arr.length})$

=  $O(\text{arr.length})$

# Binary search

|   |   |   |    |    |    |    |    |     |
|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|-----|
| 2 | 3 | 5 | 16 | 37 | 50 | 73 | 75 | 126 |
|---|---|---|----|----|----|----|----|-----|

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:**  $c_1$  steps =  $O(1)$

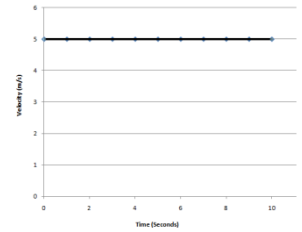
**Worst case:**  $T(n) = c_2$  steps +  $T(n/2)$  where  $n$  is `hi-lo`

- $O(\log n)$  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

- Determine the recurrence relation. What is the base case?
  - $T(n) = c_2 + T(n/2)$        $T(1) = c_1$       first eqn.
- “Expand” the original relation to find an equivalent general expression *in terms of the number of expansions*.
  - $T(n) = c_2 + c_2 + T(n/4)$       2<sup>nd</sup> eqn.  
     $= c_2 + c_2 + c_2 + T(n/8)$       3<sup>rd</sup> eqn.  
     $= \dots$   
     $= c_2(k) + T(n/(2^k))$       kth eqn.
- Find a closed-form expression by setting *the argument of T* to a **value** (e.g.  $n/(2^k) = 1$ ) which reduces the problem to a base case
  - $n/(2^k) = 1$  means  $n = 2^k$  means  $k = \log_2 n$
  - So  $T(n) = c_2 \log_2 n + T(1)$
  - So  $T(n) = c_2 \log_2 n + c_1$  (get to base case and do it)
  - So  $T(n)$  is  $O(\log n)$



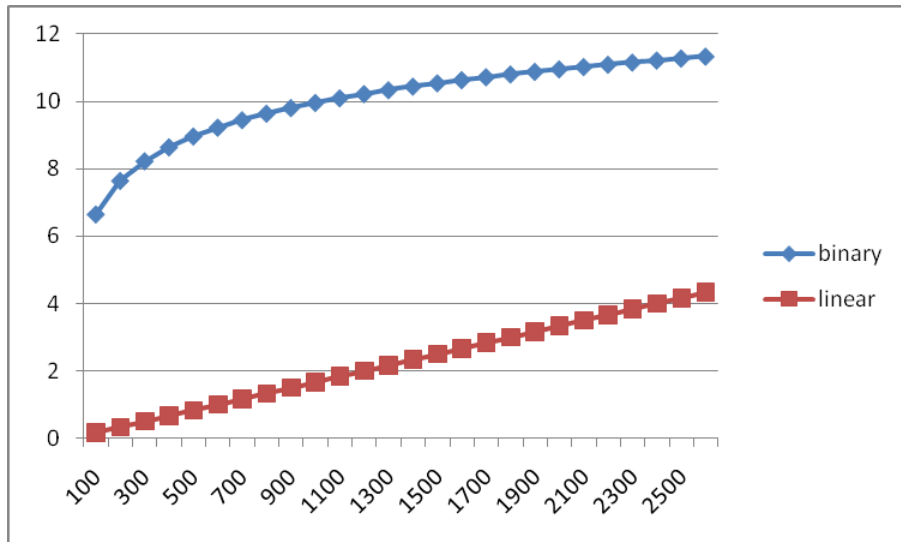
# Ignoring constant factors

- So binary search is  $O(\log n)$  and linear search is  $O(n)$ 
  - But which is faster?
- Could depend on constant factors
  - How *many* assignments, additions, etc. for each  $n$ 
    - E.g.  $T(n) = 5,000,000n$  vs.  $T(n) = 5n^2$
  - And could depend on overhead unrelated to  $n$ 
    - E.g.  $T(n) = 5,000,000 + \log n$  vs.  $T(n) = 10 + n$
- 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...

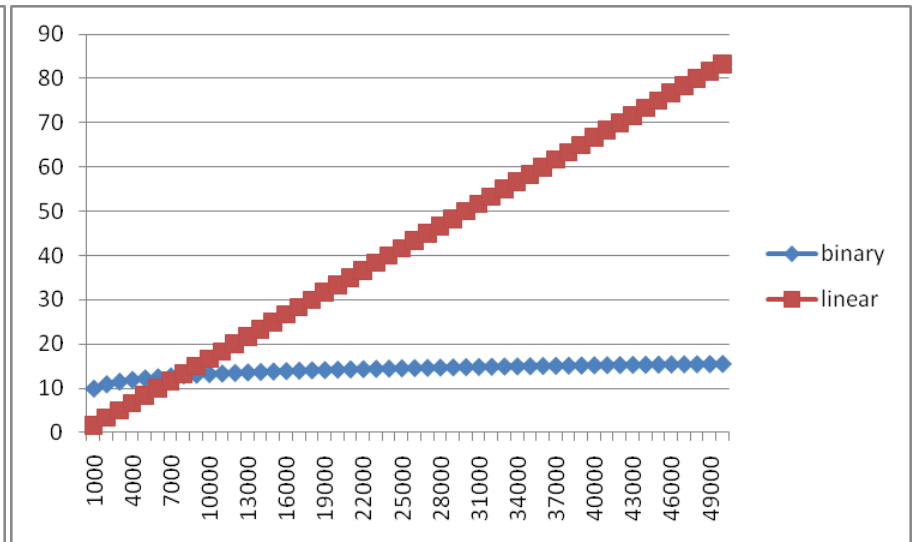
# Example

- Let's try to “help” linear search
  - Run it on a computer 100x as fast (say 2016 model vs. 1994)
  - 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

not enough iterations to show it



enough iterations to show it



# 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:

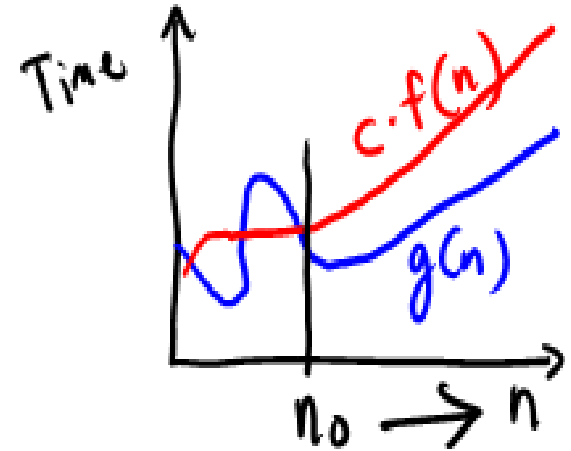
- $(3n^2+17)$  **is**  $O(n^2)$
- $(3n^2+17)$  **=**  $O(n^2)$

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

# Big-O, formally

Definition:  $g(n)$  is in  $O(f(n))$  if 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  
 $(3 \cdot 10^2) + 17 \leq 5 \cdot 10^2$  so  $3n^2 + 17$  is  $O(n^2)$
- This is “less than or equal to”
  - So  $3n^2 + 17$  is also  $O(n^5)$  and  $O(2^n)$  etc.
    - But usually we’re interested in the **tightest** upper bound.

## Example 1, using formal definition

- Let  $g(n) = 1000n$  and  $f(n) = n$ 
  - To prove  $g(n)$  is in  $O(f(n))$ , find a valid  $c$  and  $n_0$
  - We can just let  $c = 1000$ .
  - That works for any  $n_0$ , such as  $n_0 = 1$ .
  - $g(n) = 1000n \leq c f(n) = 1000n$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

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

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

## Example 1', using formal definition

- Let  $g(n) = 1000n$  and  $f(n) = n^2$ 
  - To prove  $g(n)$  is in  $O(f(n))$ , find a valid  $c$  and  $n_0$
  - The “cross-over point” is  $n=1000$ 
    - $g(n) = 1000 \cdot 1000$  and  $f(n) = 1000^2$
  - So we can choose  $n_0=1000$  and  $c=1$
  - Then  $g(n) = 1000n \leq c f(n) = 1n^2$  for all  $n \geq 1000$

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

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



## *Examples 1 and 1'*

- Which is it?
- Is  $g(n) = 1000n$  called  $f(n)$  or  $f(n^2)$ ?
- By definition, it can be either one.
- We prefer to use the smallest one.

## Example 2, using formal definition

- Let  $g(n) = n^4$  and  $f(n) = 2^n$ 
  - To prove  $g(n)$  is in  $O(f(n))$ , find a valid  $c$  and  $n_0$
  - We can choose  $n_0=20$  and  $c=1$ 
    - $g(n) = 20^4$  vs.  $f(n) = 1 \cdot 2^{20}$
    - 160,000 vs 1,048,576
  - $g(n) = n^4 \leq c f(n) = 1 \cdot 2^n$  for all  $n \geq 20$
  - If I were doing a complexity analysis, would I pick  $O(2^n)$ ?

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

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

# Comparison

| • $n$ | $n^4$     | $2^n$                   |
|-------|-----------|-------------------------|
| • 10  | 10,000    | 1,024                   |
| • 20  | 160,000   | 1,048,576               |
| • 30  | 810,000   | 1,073,741,824           |
| • 40  | 2,560,000 | $1.0995 \times 10^{12}$ |

# What's with the $c$

- The constant multiplier  $c$  is what allows functions that differ only in their largest coefficient to have the same asymptotic complexity

- Consider:

$$g(n) = 7n+5$$

$$f(n) = n$$

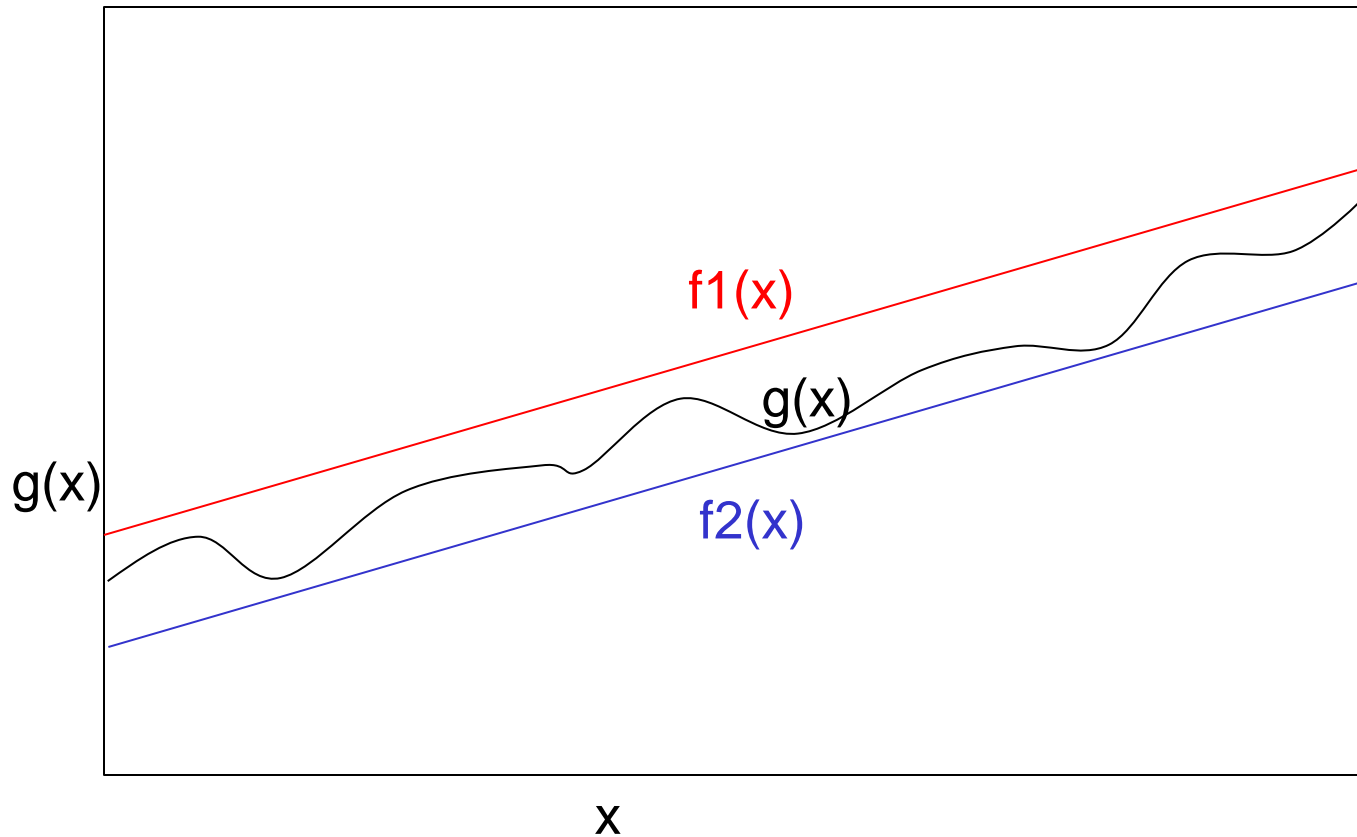
- These have the same asymptotic behavior (linear)
  - So  $g(n)$  is in  $O(f(n))$  even though  $g(n)$  is always larger
  - The  $c$  allows us to provide a coefficient so that  $g(n) \leq c f(n)$
- In this example:
  - To prove  $g(n)$  is in  $O(f(n))$ , have  $c = 12$ ,  $n_0 = 1$   
 $(7*1)+5 \leq 12*1$

# 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
  - Both are  $O(n^2)$
- Eliminate low-order terms because they have vanishingly small impact as  $n$  grows
  - $5n^5 + 40n^4 + 30n^3 + 20n^2 + 10n + 1$  is ?
  - $O(n^5)$
- Do NOT ignore constants that are not multipliers
  - $n^3$  is not  $O(n^2)$
  - $3^n$  is not  $O(2^n)$

# Upper and Lower Bounds

$f_1(x)$  is an upper bound for  $g(x)$ ;  $f_2(x)$  is a lower bound.  
 $g(x) \leq f_1(x)$  and  $g(x) \geq f_2(x)$ .



# More *Asymptotic*\* Notation

\*approaching  
arbitrarily closely

- **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  $f(n)$ 
  - $g(n)$  is in  $\theta(f(n))$  if **both**  $g(n)$  is in  $O(f(n))$  **and**  $g(n)$  is in  $\Omega(f(n))$

# Correct terms, in theory

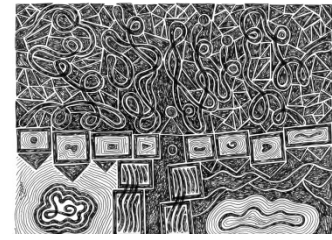
A common error is to say  $O(f(n))$  when you mean  $\theta(f(n))$

- 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”: intersection of “big-Oh” and *not* “big-Theta”
  - For all  $c$ , there exists an  $n_0$  such that...  $\leq$
  - Example: array sum is  $O(n)$  and  $o(n^2)$  but not  $o(n)$
- “little-omega”: intersection of “big-Omega” and *not* “big-Theta”
  - For all  $c$ , there exists an  $n_0$  such that...  $\geq$
  - Example: array sum is  $O(n)$  and  $\omega(\log n)$  but not  $\omega(n)$

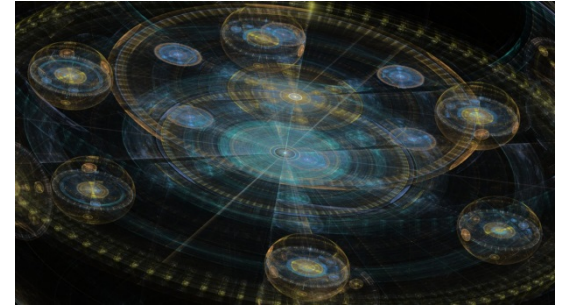




# What we are analyzing: *Complexity*

- The most common thing to do is give an  $O$  upper bound to the worst-case running time of an algorithm
- Example: **binary-search algorithm**
  - Common:  $O(\log n)$  running-time in the worst-case
  - Less common:  $\theta(1)$  in the best-case (item is in the middle)
  - Less common (but very good to know): the find-in-sorted-array **problem** is  $\Omega(\log n)$  in the worst-case (lower bound)
    - No algorithm can do better
    - A **problem** cannot be  $O(f(n))$  since you can always make a slower 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 *probability distribution* of inputs
  - Sometimes uses *randomization* in the algorithm
    - Will see an example with sorting
  - Sometimes an *amortized guarantee*
    - Average time over any sequence of operations



# 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)

# *Addendum: Timing vs. Big-Oh Summary*

- Big-oh is an essential part of computer science's mathematical foundation
  - Examine the algorithm itself, not the implementation
  - Reason about (even prove) performance as a function of  $n$
- Timing also has its place
  - Compare implementations
  - Focus on data sets you care about (versus worst case)
  - Determine what the constant factors “really are”

# *Practice: What is the big-Oh complexity?*

1.  $g(n) = 45n \log n + 2n^2 + 65$

2.  $g(n) = 1000000n + .01 * 2^n$

3. 

```
int sum = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < n; i=i+2){
    sum = sum + i;
}
```

4. 

```
int sum = 0;
for (int i = n; i > 1; i=i/2){
    sum = sum + i;
}
```