Asymptotic Analysis of Algorithms



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Algorithm and Data Structure



- A data structure is:
 - A systematic way to store and organize data in order to facilitate access and modifications
 - Never suitable for all purposes: it is important to know its *strengths* and *limitations*
- A *well-specified computational problem* precisely describes the desired *input/output relationship*.
 - Input: A sequence of *n* numbers $\langle a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \rangle$
 - **Output:** A permutation (reordering) $\langle a'_1, a'_2, \ldots, a'_n \rangle$ of the input sequence such that $a'_1 \le a'_2 \le \ldots \le a'_n$
 - An *instance* of the problem: (3, 1, 2, 5, 4)
- An *algorithm* is:
 - A solution to a well-specified computational problem
 - A *sequence of computational steps* that takes value(s) as *input* and produces value(s) as *output*

• Steps in an *algorithm* manipulate well-chosen *data structure(s)*.



Measuring "Goodness" of an Algorithm

1. Correctness :

- · Does the algorithm produce the expected output?
- Use JUnit to ensure this.

2. Efficiency:

- Time Complexity: processor time required to complete
- Space Complexity: memory space required to store data

Correctness is always the priority.

How about efficiency? Is time or space more of a concern?

Measuring Efficiency of an Algorithm



- *Time* is more of a concern than is *storage*.
- Solutions that are meant to be run on a computer should run *as fast as possible*.
- Particularly, we are interested in how *running time* depends on two *input factors*:
 - 1. size

e.g., sorting an array of 10 elements vs. 1m elements

2. structure

e.g., sorting an already-sorted array vs. a hardly-sorted array

- How do you determine the running time of an algorithm?
 - 1. Measure time via *experiments*
 - 2. Characterize time as a *mathematical function* of the input size



- Once the algorithm is implemented in Java:
 - Execute the program on *test inputs* of various *sizes* and *structures*.
 - For each test, record the *elapsed time* of the execution.

```
long startTime = System.currentTimeMillis();
/* run the algorithm */
long endTime = System.currenctTimeMillis();
long elapsed = endTime - startTime;
```

- Visualize the result of each test.
- To make *sound statistical claims* about the algorithm's *running time*, the set of input tests must be "reasonably" *complete*.

Example Experiment



- Computational Problem:
 - Input: A character c and an integer n
- Algorithm 1 using String Concatenations:

```
public static String repeat1(char c, int n) {
  String answer = "";
  for (int i = 0; i < n; i ++) {
    answer += c;
  }
  return answer; }</pre>
```

• Algorithm 2 using StringBuilder append's:

```
public static String repeat2(char c, int n) {
   StringBuilder sb = new StringBuilder();
   for (int i = 0; i < n; i ++) {    sb.append(c);   }
   return sb.toString(); }</pre>
```

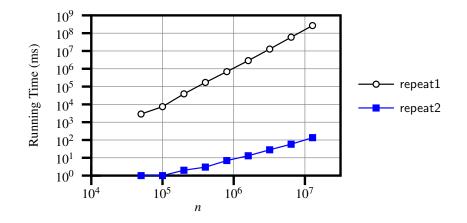

Example Experiment: Detailed Statistics

n	repeat1 (in ms)	repeat2 (in ms)
50,000	2,884	1
100,000	7,437	1
200,000	39,158	2
400,000	170,173	3
800,000	690,836	7
1,600,000	2,847,968	13
3,200,000	12,809,631	28
6,400,000	59,594,275	58
12,800,000	265,696,421 (≈ 3 days)	135

- As *input size* is doubled, *rates of increase* for both algorithms are *linear*:
 - Running time of repeat1 increases by ≈ 5 times.
 - Running time of repeat2 increases by ≈ 2 times.

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Experimental Analysis: Challenges



- 1. An algorithm must be *fully implemented* (i.e., translated into valid Java syntax) in order study its runtime behaviour *experimentally*.
 - What if our purpose is to *choose among alternative* data structures or algorithms to implement?
 - Can there be a *higher-level analysis* to determine that one algorithm or data structure is *superior* than others?
- 2. Comparison of multiple algorithms is only *meaningful* when experiments are conducted under the same environment of:
 - Hardware: CPU, running processes
 - Software: OS, JVM version
- **3.** Experiments can be done only on *a limited set of test inputs*.
 - · What if "important" inputs were not included in the experiments?

Moving Beyond Experimental Analysis



- A better approach to analyzing the *efficiency* (e.g., *running times*) of algorithms should be one that:
 - Allows us to calculate the *relative efficiency* (rather than absolute elapsed time) of algorithms in a ways that is *independent of* the hardware and software environment.
 - Can be applied using a *high-level description* of the algorithm (without fully implementing it).
 - Considers *all* possible inputs.
- We will learn a better approach that contains 3 ingredients:
 - 1. Counting primitive operations
 - 2. Approximating running time as a function of input size
 - 3. Focusing on the *worst-case* input (requiring the most running time)

Counting Primitive Operations



[e.g., return result;]

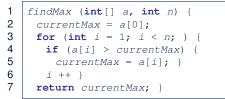
- A primitive operation corresponds to a low-level instruction with
 - a constant execution time.
 - Assignment [e.g., x = 5;] Indexing into an array [e.g., a[i]]
 - Arithmetic, relational, logical op. [e.g., a + b, z > w, b1 && b2] [e.g., acc.balance]
 - Accessing a field of an object
 - Returning from a method
 - Why is a method call is in general not a primitive operation?
- The *number of primitive operations* required by an algorithm should be *proportional* to its *actual running time* on a specific environment: $RT = \sum_{i=1}^{N} t(i)$ [N = # of PO's]
 - Say c is the absolute time of executing a primitive operation on a specific computer platform.

•
$$RT = \sum_{i=1}^{N} t(i) = \mathbf{c} \times \mathbf{N} \approx \mathbf{N}$$

 \Rightarrow approximate # of primitive operations that its steps contain.



Example: Counting Primitive Operations



of times i < n in Line 3 is executed? [*n*] # of times the loop body (Line 4 to Line 6) is executed? [n-1]

- Line 2: 2
 - Line 3: *n* + 1
 - Line 4: (*n*−1) · 2
 - Line 5: (*n*−1) · 2
 - Line 6: (*n*−1) · 2
 - Line 7:
 - Total # of Primitive Operations: 7n -

7n - 2

[1 indexing + 1 assignment]

[1 indexing + 1 comparison]

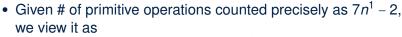
[1 indexing + 1 assignment]

[1 addition + 1 assignment]

[1 return]

[1 assignment + n comparisons]

Example: Approx. # of Primitive Operations



- We say
 - *n* is the *highest power*
 - 7 and 2 are the *multiplicative constants*
 - 2 is the *lower term*
- When approximating a function (considering that input size may be very large):
 - Only the *highest power* matters.
 - multiplicative constants and lower terms can be dropped.
 - \Rightarrow 7*n* 2 is approximately *n*

Exercise: Consider $7n + 2n \cdot \log n + 3n^2$:

- o highest power?
- multiplicative constants?
- lower terms?

[n²] [7, 2, 3] [7n + 2n · log n]

Approximating Running Time as a Function of Input Size



Given the *high-level description* of an algorithm, we associate it with a function f, such that f(n) returns the *number of primitive operations* that are performed on an *input of size n*.

$$\circ f(n) = 5$$

$$\circ f(n) = log_2 n$$

$$\circ f(n) = 4 \cdot n$$

$$\circ f(n) = n^2$$

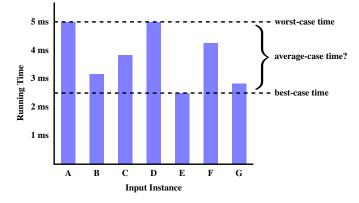
$$\circ f(n) = n^3$$

$$\circ f(n) = 2^n$$

[constant] [logarithmic] [linear] [quadratic] [cubic] [exponential]



Focusing on the Worst-Case Input



- *Average-case* analysis calculates the *expected running times* based on the probability distribution of input values.
- *worst-case* analysis or *best-case* analysis?

What is Asymptotic Analysis?



Asymptotic analysis

- Is a method of describing *behaviour in the limit*:
 - How the *running time* of the algorithm under analysis changes as the *input size* changes without bound
 - e.g., contrast $RT_1(n) = n$ with $RT_2(n) = n^2$
- Allows us to compare the *relative* performance of alternative algorithms:
 - For large enough inputs, the *multiplicative constants* and *lower-order* terms of an exact running time can be disregarded.
 - e.g., $RT_1(n) = 3n^2 + 7n + 18$ and $RT_1(n) = 100n^2 + 3n 100$ are considered **equally efficient**, *asymptotically*.
 - e.g., $RT_1(n) = n^3 + 7n + 18$ is considered **less efficient** than $RT_1(n) = 100n^2 + 100n + 2000$, *asymptotically*.



We may consider three kinds of *asymptotic bounds* for the *running time* of an algorithm:

- Asymptotic upper bound
- Asymptotic lower bound
- Asymptotic tight bound

[*O*] [Ω] [Θ]

Asymptotic Upper Bound: Definition



- Let *f*(*n*) and *g*(*n*) be functions mapping positive integers (input size) to positive real numbers (running time).
 - f(n) characterizes the running time of some algorithm.
 - O(g(n)) denotes a collection of functions.
- O(g(n)) consists of *all* functions that can be upper bounded by g(n), starting at some point, using some constant factor.
- $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ if there are:
 - A real constant c > 0
 - An integer *constant* $n_0 \ge 1$

such that:

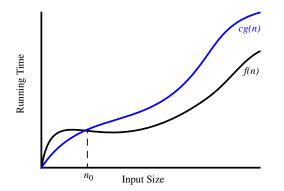
 $f(n) \leq \mathbf{c} \cdot \mathbf{g}(n) \quad \text{for } n \geq n_0$

- For each member function f(n) in O(g(n)), we say that:
 - $f(n) \in O(g(n))$
 - *f*(*n*) **is** *O*(*g*(*n*))
- f(n) is order of g(n)

[f(n) is a member of "big-Oh of g(n)"] [f(n) is "big-Oh of g(n)"]



Asymptotic Upper Bound: Visualization



From n_0 , f(n) is upper bounded by $c \cdot g(n)$, so f(n) is O(g(n)).

Asymptotic Upper Bound: Example (1)



Prove: The function 8n + 5 is O(n).

Strategy: Choose a real constant c > 0 and an integer constant $n_0 \ge 1$, such that for every integer $n \ge n_0$:

 $8n + 5 \le c \cdot n$

Can we choose c = 9? What should the corresponding n_0 be?

n	8n + 5	9n
1	13	9
2	21	18
3	29	27
4	37	36
5	45	45
6	53	54

Therefore, we prove it by choosing c = 9 and $n_0 = 5$. We may also prove it by choosing c = 13 and $n_0 = 1$. Why?



Prove: The function $f(n) = 5n^4 + 3n^3 + 2n^2 + 4n + 1$ is $O(n^4)$. **Strategy**: Choose a real constant c > 0 and an integer constant $n_0 \ge 1$, such that for every integer $n \ge n_0$:

$$5n^4 + 3n^3 + 2n^2 + 4n + 1 \le c \cdot n^4$$

f(1) = 5 + 3 + 2 + 4 + 1 = 15Choose c = 15 and $n_0 = 1!$

Asymptotic Upper Bound: Proposition (1)



If f(n) is a polynomial of degree d, i.e.,

$$f(n) = a_0 \cdot n^0 + a_1 \cdot n^1 + \dots + a_d \cdot n^d$$

and a_0, a_1, \ldots, a_d are integers (i.e., negative, zero, or positive), then f(n) is $O(n^d)$.

Proof:

- **1.** We know that for $n \ge 1$: $n^0 \le n^1 \le n^2 \le \cdots \le n^d$
- **2.** By choosing $c = |a_0| + |a_1| + \dots + |a_d|$:

 $a_0 \cdot n^0 + a_1 \cdot n^1 + \dots + a_d \cdot n^d \le |a_0| \cdot n^d + |a_1| \cdot n^d + \dots + |a_d| \cdot n^d$

3. By choosing $n_0 = 1$:

 $a_0 \cdot 1^0 + a_1 \cdot 1^1 + \dots + a_d \cdot 1^d \le |a_0| \cdot 1^d + |a_1| \cdot 1^d + \dots + |a_d| \cdot 1^d$ That is, we prove by choosing

$$c = |a_0| + |a_1| + \dots + |a_d|$$

 $n_0 = 1$

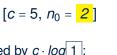


$O(n^0) \subset O(n^1) \subset O(n^2) \subset \ldots$

If a function f(n) is *upper bounded* by another function g(n) of degree d, $d \ge 0$, then f(n) is also upper bounded by all other functions of a *strictly higher degree* (i.e., d + 1, d + 2, *etc.*).

Asymptotic Upper Bound: More Examples

- $5n^2 + 3n \cdot logn + 2n + 5$ is $O(n^2)$
- $20n^3 + 10n \cdot logn + 5$ is $O(n^3)$
- 3 · *logn* + 2 is *O*(*logn*)
 - Why can't n₀ be 1?
 - Choosing $n_0 = 1$ means $\Rightarrow f(1)$ is upper-bounded by $c \cdot \log 1$:
 - We have $f(1) = 3 \cdot log 1 + 2$, which is 2.
 - We have $c \cdot \log 1$, which is 0.
 - $\Rightarrow f(1)$ is not upper-bounded by $c \cdot \log 1$
- 2^{*n*+2} is O(2^{*n*})
- 2*n* + 100 · *logn* is *O*(*n*)



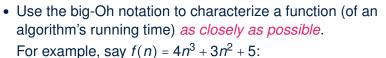
[Contradiction!]
$$[c = 4, n_0 = 1]$$

 $c = 102, n_0 = 1$]

 $[c = 15, n_0 = 1]$

 $[c = 35, n_0 = 1]$

Using Asymptotic Upper Bound Accurately



- Recall: $O(n^3) \subset O(n^4) \subset O(n^5) \subset \ldots$
- It is the *most accurate* to say that f(n) is $O(n^3)$.
- It is also true, but not very useful, to say that f(n) is $O(n^4)$ and that f(n) is $O(n^5)$.
- Do not include *constant factors* and *lower-order terms* in the big-Oh notation.

For example, say $f(n) = 2n^2$ is $O(n^2)$, do not say f(n) is $O(4n^2 + 6n + 9)$.

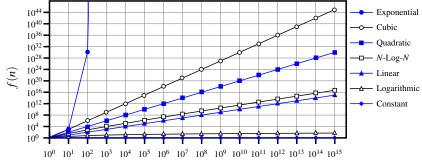
Classes of Functions



upper bound	class	cost
<i>O</i> (1)	constant	cheapest
O(log(n))	logarithmic	
<i>O</i> (<i>n</i>)	linear	
$O(n \cdot log(n))$	"n-log-n"	
$O(n^2)$	quadratic	
$O(n^3)$	cubic	
$O(n^k), k \ge 1$	polynomial	
$O(a^n), a > 1$	exponential	most expensive

Rates of Growth: Comparison



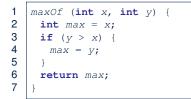


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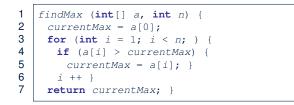
Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (1)



- # of primitive operations: 4
 - 2 assignments + 1 comparison + 1 return = 4
- Therefore, the running time is O(1).
- That is, this is a *constant-time* algorithm.



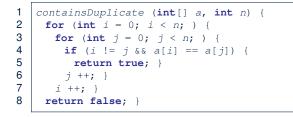
Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (2)



- From last lecture, we calculated that the # of primitive operations is 7n 2.
- Therefore, the running time is O(n).
- That is, this is a *linear-time* algorithm.



Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (3)

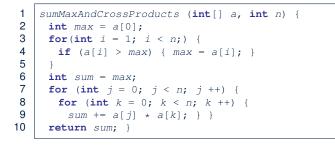


- Worst case is when we reach Line 8.
- # of primitive operations ≈ *c*₁ + *n* · *n* · *c*₂, where *c*₁ and *c*₂ are some constants.
- Therefore, the running time is $O(n^2)$.
- That is, this is a *quadratic* algorithm.

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Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (4)



- # of primitive operations $\approx (c_1 \cdot n + c_2) + (c_3 \cdot n \cdot n + c_4)$, where c_1, c_2, c_3 , and c_4 are some constants.
- Therefore, the running time is $O(n + n^2) = O(n^2)$.
- That is, this is a *quadratic* algorithm.

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- # of primitive operations $\approx n + (n-1) + \dots + 2 + 1 = \frac{n \cdot (n+1)}{2}$
- Therefore, the running time is $O(\frac{n^2+n}{2}) = O(n^2)$.
- That is, this is a *quadratic* algorithm.

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Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (2)

Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (3)

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