

Asymptotic Analysis of Algorithms



EECS3101 E:
Design and Analysis of Algorithms
Fall 2025

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What You're Assumed to Know



- You will be required to **implement** Java classes and methods, and to **test** their correctness using JUnit.

Review them if necessary:

https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/teaching/lectures/index.html#EECS2030_F21

- Implementing classes and methods in Java [Weeks 1 – 2]
- Testing methods in Java [Week 4]
- Also, make sure you know how to trace programs using a **debugger**:
https://www.eecs.yorku.ca/~jackie/teaching/tutorials/index.html#java_from_scratch_w21
 - Debugging actions (Step Over/Into/Return) [Parts C – E, Week 2]

Learning Outcomes



This module is designed to help you learn about:

- Notions of **Algorithms** and **Data Structures**
- Measurement of the “goodness” of an algorithm
- Measurement of the **efficiency** of an algorithm
- Experimental measurement vs. **Theoretical** measurement
- Understand the purpose of **asymptotic** analysis.
- Understand what it means to say two algorithms are:
 - equally efficient, **asymptotically**
 - one is more efficient than the other, **asymptotically**
- Given an algorithm, determine its **asymptotic upper bound**.

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 $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$
 - Output**: A permutation (reordering) $\langle a'_1, a'_2, \dots, a'_n \rangle$ of the input sequence such that $a'_1 \leq a'_2 \leq \dots \leq a'_n$
 - An **instance** of the problem: $\langle 3, 1, 2, 5, 4 \rangle$
- 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**
- An **algorithm** manipulates some chosen **data structure(s)**.

Measuring “Goodness” of an Algorithm



1. **Correctness**:

- Does the **algorithm** produce the **expected** output?
- Use **unit & regression testing** (e.g., 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?

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Measuring Efficiency of an Algorithm



- Time** is more of a concern than is **storage**.
- Solutions (run on computers) should be **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

Q. How does one determine the **running time** of an algorithm?

- Measure time via **experiments**
- Characterize time as a **mathematical function** of the input size

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Measure Running Time via Experiments



- Once the algorithm is implemented (e.g., in Java):
 - Execute program on **test inputs** of various **sizes** & **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 **test inputs** should be “**complete**”.
e.g., To experiment with the **RT** of a sorting algorithm:
 - Unreasonable**: **only** consider small-sized and/or almost-sorted arrays
 - Reasonable**: **also** consider large-sized, randomly-organized arrays

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Experimental Analysis: Challenges



- An algorithm must be **fully implemented** (e.g., in Java) 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 more “**superior**” than others?
- Comparison of multiple algorithms is only **meaningful** when experiments are conducted under the **same** working environment of:
 - Hardware**: CPU, running processes
 - Software**: OS, JVM version, Version of Compiler
- Experiments can be done only on a **limited set of test inputs**.
 - What if **worst-case** inputs were **not** included in the experiments?
 - What if “**important**” inputs were **not** included in the experiments?

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Moving Beyond Experimental Analysis



- A better approach to analyzing the **efficiency** (e.g., **running time**) of algorithms should be one that:
 - Can be applied using a **high-level description** of the algorithm (**without** fully implementing it).
[e.g., Pseudo Code, Java Code (with “tolerances”)]
 - Allows us to calculate the **relative efficiency** (rather than **absolute** elapsed time) of algorithms in a way that is **independent of** the hardware and software environment.
 - Considers **all** possible inputs (esp. the **worst-case scenario**).
- 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 most running time)

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Counting Primitive Operations



- A **primitive operation (POs)** corresponds to a low-level instruction with a **constant execution time**.
 - (Variable) 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`]
 - Accessing an attribute of an object [e.g., `acc.balance`]
 - Returning from a method [e.g., `return result;`]

Q: Is a **method call** a primitive operation?

A: **Not** in general. It may be a call to:

- a “**cheap**” method (e.g., printing `Hello World`), or
 - an “**expensive**” method (e.g., sorting an array of integers)
- **RT** of an **algorithm** is **approximated** as the number of **POs** involved (**despite** the execution environment).

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From Absolute RT to Relative RT



- Each **primitive operation (PO)** takes approximately the **same**, **constant** amount of time to execute. [say **t**]
The **absolute** value of **t** depends on the **execution environment**.

Q. How do you relate the **number of POs** required by an algorithm and its **actual RT** on a specific working environment?

A. **Number of POs** should be **proportional** to the actual **RT**.

$$RT = t \cdot \text{number of POs}$$

- e.g., `findMax (int[] a, int n)` has **$7n - 2$** POs
 $RT = (7n - 2) \cdot t$
 - e.g., Say two algorithms with **RT** **$(7n - 2) \cdot t$** and **RT** **$(10n + 3) \cdot t$** .
It suffices to compare their **relative** running time:
 $7n - 2$ vs. $10n + 3$.
- ∴ To determine the **time efficiency** of an algorithm, we only focus on their **number of POs**.

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Example: Approx. # of Primitive Operations



- Given # of primitive operations counted **precisely** as $7n - 2$, we view it as

$$7 \cdot n^1 - 2 \cdot n^0$$

- We say
 - n is the **highest power**
 - 7 and 2 are the **multiplicative constants**
 - 2 is the **lower term**
- When **approximating a function** [e.g., $RT \approx f(n)$] (considering that **input size** may be very large):
 - **Only** the **highest power** matters.
 - **multiplicative constants** and **lower terms** can be dropped.

⇒ $7n - 2$ is approximately n

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

- **highest power?** [n^2]
- **multiplicative constants?** [7, 2, 3]
- **lower terms?** [$7n, 2n \cdot \log n$]

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Approximating Running Time as a Function of Input Size

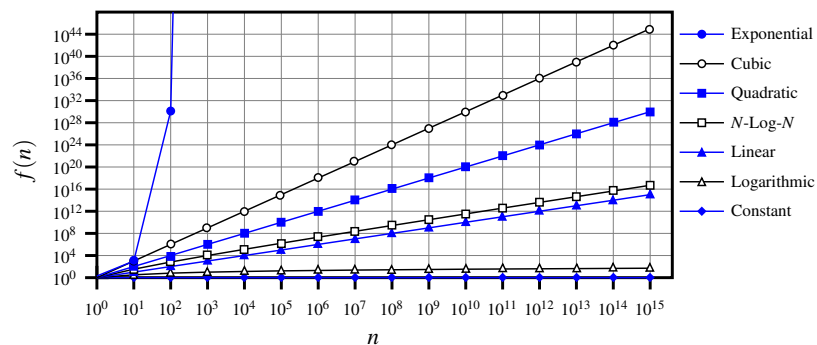


Given the **high-level description** of an algorithm, we associate it with a function f , such that $f(n)$ returns the **number of primitive operations** that are performed on an **input of size n** .

- $f(n) = 5$ [constant]
- $f(n) = \log_2 n$ [logarithmic]
- $f(n) = 4 \cdot n$ [linear]
- $f(n) = n^2$ [quadratic]
- $f(n) = n^3$ [cubic]
- $f(n) = 2^n$ [exponential]

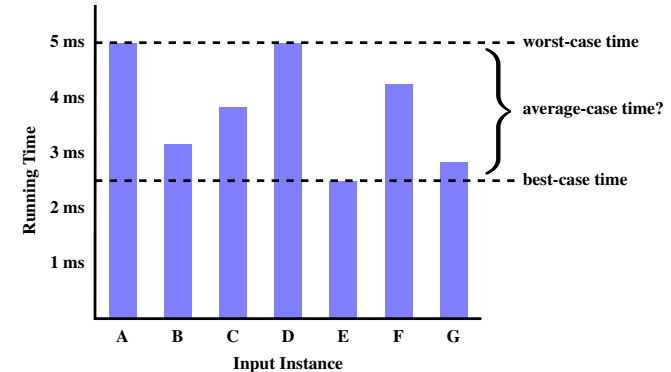
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Rates of Growth: Comparison



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Focusing on the Worst-Case Input



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

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What is Asymptotic Analysis?



Asymptotic analysis

- Is a method of describing **behaviour towards the limit**:
 - How the **running time** of the algorithm under analysis changes as the **input size** changes **without** bound
 - e.g., Contrast: $RT_1(n) = n$ vs. $RT_2(n) = n^2$
- 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 $RT_2(n) = 100n^2 + 3n - 100$ are considered **equally efficient**, **asymptotically**.
 - e.g., $RT_1(n) = n^3 + 7n + 18$ is considered **less efficient** than $RT_2(n) = 100n^2 + 100n + 2000$, **asymptotically**.

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Three Notions of Asymptotic Bounds

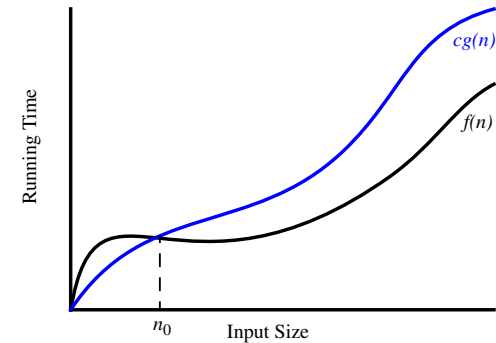


We may consider three kinds of **asymptotic bounds** for the **running time** of an algorithm:

- Asymptotic **upper** bound $[O]$
- Asymptotic lower bound $[\Omega]$
- Asymptotic tight bound $[\Theta]$

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Asymptotic Upper Bound: Visualization



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

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Asymptotic Upper Bound: Definition



- Let $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ be functions mapping pos. integers (input size) to pos. real numbers (running time).
 - $f(n)$ characterizes the running time of some algorithm.
 - **$O(g(n))$** :
 - denotes a collection of functions
 - 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** $n_0 \geq 1$
 such that:

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

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

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Asymptotic Upper Bound: Proposition



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 $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_d$ are integers, then **$f(n)$ is $O(n^d)$** .

- We prove by choosing

$$\begin{aligned} c &= |a_0| + |a_1| + \dots + |a_d| \\ n_0 &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

- We know that for $n \geq 1$: $n^0 \leq n^1 \leq n^2 \leq \dots \leq n^d$
- Upper-bound effect: $n_0 = 1$? $[f(1) \leq (|a_0| + |a_1| + \dots + |a_d|) \cdot 1^d]$

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

- Upper-bound effect holds? $[f(n) \leq (|a_0| + |a_1| + \dots + |a_d|) \cdot n^d]$

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

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Asymptotic Upper Bound: Example



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 $n_0 \geq 1$, such that for every integer $n \geq n_0$:

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

Using the proven **proposition**, choose:

- $c = |5| + |-3| + |2| + |-4| + |1| = 15$
- $n_0 = 1$

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Using Asymptotic Upper Bound Accurately



- Use the big-O notation to characterize a function (of an algorithm's running time) **as closely as possible**.

For example, say $f(n) = 4n^3 + 3n^2 + 5$:

- Recall: $O(n^3) \subset O(n^4) \subset O(n^5) \subset \dots$
- It is the **most accurate** to say that $f(n)$ is $O(n^3)$.
- It is **true**, but not very useful, to say that $f(n)$ is $O(n^4)$ and that $f(n)$ is $O(n^5)$.
- It is **false** to say that $f(n)$ is $O(n^2)$, $O(n)$, or $O(1)$.

- Do **not** include **constant factors** and **lower-order terms** in the big-O notation.

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

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Asymptotic Upper Bound: Families



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

- e.g., Family of $O(n)$ contains all $f(n)$ that can be **upper bounded by** $g(n) = n^1$:

$n, 2n, 3n, \dots$ [functions with degree 1]
 $n^0, 2n^0, 3n^0, \dots$ [functions with degree 0]

- e.g., Family of $O(n^2)$ contains all $f(n)$ that can be **upper bounded by** $g(n) = n^2$:

$n^2, 2n^2, 3n^2, \dots$ [functions with degree 2]
 $n, 2n, 3n, \dots$ [functions with degree 1]
 $n^0, 2n^0, 3n^0, \dots$ [functions with degree 0]

- Consequently:

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

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Asymptotic Upper Bound: More Examples



- $5n^2 + 3n \cdot \log n + 2n + 5$ is $O(n^2)$ [$c = 15$, $n_0 = 1$]
- $20n^3 + 10n \cdot \log n + 5$ is $O(n^3)$ [$c = 35$, $n_0 = 1$]
- $3 \cdot \log n + 2$ is $O(\log n)$ [$c = 5$, $n_0 = 2$]
 - Why can't n_0 be 1?
 - Choosing $n_0 = 1$ means $\Rightarrow f(\boxed{1})$ **is** upper-bounded by $c \cdot \log \boxed{1}$:
 - We have $f(\boxed{1}) = 3 \cdot \log 1 + 2$, which is 2.
 - We have $c \cdot \log \boxed{1}$, which is 0.
- $\Rightarrow f(\boxed{1})$ **is not** upper-bounded by $c \cdot \log \boxed{1}$ [Contradiction!]
- 2^{n+2} is $O(2^n)$ [$c = 4$, $n_0 = 1$]
- $2n + 100 \cdot \log n$ is $O(n)$ [$c = 102$, $n_0 = 1$]

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Classes of Functions



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

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Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (2)



```

1  int sumMaxAndCrossProducts (int[] a, int n) {
2      int max = a[0];
3      for(int i = 1; i < n; i++) {
4          if (a[i] > max) { max = a[i]; }
5      }
6      int sum = max;
7      for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
8          for (int k = 0; k < n; k++) {
9              sum += a[j] * a[k]; } }
10     return sum; }
    
```

- # 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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Upper Bound of Algorithm: Example (1)



```

1  boolean containsDuplicate (int[] a, int n) {
2      for (int i = 0; i < n; ) {
3          for (int j = 0; j < n; ) {
4              if (i != j && a[i] == a[j]) {
5                  return true; }
6              j++; }
7          i++; }
8      return false; }
    
```

- Worst case is when we reach Line 8.
- # of primitive operations $\approx c_1 + n \cdot n \cdot c_2$, 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 (3)



```

1  int triangularSum (int[] a, int n) {
2      int sum = 0;
3      for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
4          for (int j = i; j < n; j++) {
5              sum += a[j]; } }
6      return sum; }
    
```

- # of primitive operations $\approx n + (n - 1) + \dots + 2 + 1 = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$
- 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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Array Implementations: Stack and Queue

- When implementing **stack** and **queue** via **arrays**, we imposed a maximum capacity:

```
public class ArrayStack<E> implements Stack<E> {
    private final int MAX_CAPACITY = 1000;
    private E[] data;
    ...
    public void push(E e) {
        if (size() == MAX_CAPACITY) { /* Precondition Violated */ }
        else { ... }
    }
    ...
}
```

```
public class ArrayQueue<E> implements Queue<E> {
    private final int MAX_CAPACITY = 1000;
    private E[] data;
    ...
    public void enqueue(E e) {
        if (size() == MAX_CAPACITY) { /* Precondition Violated */ }
        else { ... }
    }
    ...
}
```

- This made the **push** and **enqueue** operations both cost $O(1)$.

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Dynamic Array: Doubling

Implement **stack** using a **dynamic array** resizing itself by **doubling**:

```
1 public class ArrayStack<E> implements Stack<E> {
2     private int I;
3     private int capacity;
4     private E[] data;
5     public ArrayStack() {
6         I = 1000; /* arbitrary initial size */
7         capacity = I;
8         data = (E[]) new Object[capacity];
9         t = -1;
10    }
11    public void push(E e) {
12        if (size() == capacity) {
13            /* resizing by doubling */
14            E[] temp = (E[]) new Object[capacity * 2];
15            for(int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {
16                temp[i] = data[i];
17            }
18            data = temp;
19            capacity = capacity * 2
20        }
21        t++;
22        data[t] = e;
23    }
24 }
```

- This alternative strategy **resizes** the array, whenever needed, by **doubling** its current size.
- L15 – L17** make **push** cost $O(n)$, in the **worst case**.
- However, given that **resizing** only happens rarely, how about the **average** running time?
- We will refer **L12 – L20** as the **resizing** part and **L21 – L22** as the **update** part.

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Dynamic Array: Constant Increments

Implement **stack** using a **dynamic array** resizing itself by a **constant** increment:

```
1 public class ArrayStack<E> implements Stack<E> {
2     private int I;
3     private int C;
4     private int capacity;
5     private E[] data;
6     public ArrayStack() {
7         I = 1000; /* arbitrary initial size */
8         C = 500; /* arbitrary fixed increment */
9         capacity = I;
10        data = (E[]) new Object[capacity];
11        t = -1;
12    }
13    public void push(E e) {
14        if (size() == capacity) {
15            /* resizing by a fixed constant */
16            E[] temp = (E[]) new Object[capacity + C];
17            for(int i = 0; i < capacity; i++) {
18                temp[i] = data[i];
19            }
20            data = temp;
21            capacity = capacity + C
22        }
23        t++;
24        data[t] = e;
25    }
26 }
```

- This alternative strategy **resizes** the array, whenever needed, by a **constant** amount.
- L17 – L19** make **push** cost $O(n)$, in the **worst case**.
- However, given that **resizing** only happens rarely, how about the **average** running time?
- We will refer **L14 – L22** as the **resizing** part and **L23 – L24** as the **update** part.

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Avg. RT: Const. Increment vs. Doubling

- Without loss of generality, assume: There are n **push** operations, and the **last push** triggers the **last resizing** routine.

	Constant Increments	Doubling
RT of exec. update part for n pushes	$O(n)$	
RT of executing 1st resizing	I	
RT of executing 2nd resizing	$I + C$	$2 \cdot I$
RT of executing 3rd resizing	$I + 2 \cdot C$	$4 \cdot I$
RT of executing 4th resizing	$I + 3 \cdot C$	$8 \cdot I$
RT of executing k^{th} resizing	$I + (k - 1) \cdot C$	$2^{k-1} \cdot I$
RT of executing last resizing	n	
# of resizing needed (solve k for $RT = n$)	$O(n)$	$O(\log_2 n)$
Total RT for n pushes	$O(n^2)$	$O(n)$
Amortized/Average RT over n pushes	$O(n)$	$O(1)$

- Over n push operations, the **amortized / average** running time of the **doubling** strategy is more efficient.

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Dynamic Array: Doubling

Avg. RT: Const. Increment vs. Doubling

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