2. **Algorithm Analysis**

- computational tractability
- asymptotic order of growth
- survey of common running times
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“As soon as an Analytic Engine exists, it will necessarily guide the future course of the science. Whenever any result is sought by its aid, the question will arise—By what course of calculation can these results be arrived at by the machine in the shortest time?” — Charles Babbage (1864)
Brute force. For many nontrivial problems, there is a natural brute-force search algorithm that checks every possible solution.

- Typically takes $2^n$ time or worse for inputs of size $n$.
- Unacceptable in practice.
Polynomial running time

Desirable scaling property. When the input size doubles, the algorithm should slow down by at most some constant factor $C$.

Def. An algorithm is poly-time if the above scaling property holds.

There exist constants $c > 0$ and $d > 0$ such that, for every input of size $n$, the running time of the algorithm is bounded above by $c \cdot n^d$ primitive computational steps. Choose $C = 2^d$.
Polynomial running time

We say that an algorithm is **efficient** if it has a polynomial running time.

**Justification.** It really works in practice!

- In practice, the poly-time algorithms that people develop have low constants and low exponents.
- Breaking through the exponential barrier of brute force typically exposes some crucial structure of the problem.

**Exceptions.** Some poly-time algorithms do have high constants and/or exponents, and/or are useless in practice.

**Q.** Which would you prefer \( 20n^{1.20} \) vs. \( n^1 + 0.02 \ln n \)?
Worst-case analysis

Worst case. Running time guarantee for any input of size $n$.
  - Generally captures efficiency in practice.
  - Draconian view, but hard to find effective alternative.

Exceptions. Some exponential-time algorithms are used widely in practice because the worst-case instances seem to be rare.
Types of analyses

Worst case. Running time guarantee for any input of size $n$.
Ex. Heapsort requires at most $2n \log_2 n$ compares to sort $n$ elements.

Probabilistic. Expected running time of a randomized algorithm.
Ex. The expected number of compares to quicksort $n$ elements is $\sim 2n \ln n$.

Amortized. Worst-case running time for any sequence of $n$ operations.
Ex. Starting from an empty stack, any sequence of $n$ push and pop operations takes $O(n)$ primitive computational steps using a resizing array.

Average-case. Expected running time for a random input of size $n$.
Ex. The expected number of character compares performed by 3-way radix quicksort on $n$ uniformly random strings is $\sim 2n \ln n$.

Also. Smoothed analysis, competitive analysis, ...
Why it matters

Table 2.1 The running times (rounded up) of different algorithms on inputs of increasing size, for a processor performing a million high-level instructions per second. In cases where the running time exceeds $10^{25}$ years, we simply record the algorithm as taking a very long time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>n</th>
<th>$n \log_2 n$</th>
<th>$n^2$</th>
<th>$n^3$</th>
<th>$1.5^n$</th>
<th>$2^n$</th>
<th>n!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$n = 10$</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>4 sec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 30$</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>18 min</td>
<td>$10^{25}$ years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 50$</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>11 min</td>
<td>36 years</td>
<td>very long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 100$</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>1 sec</td>
<td>12,892 years</td>
<td>$10^{17}$ years</td>
<td>very long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 1,000$</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>1 sec</td>
<td>18 min</td>
<td>very long</td>
<td>very long</td>
<td>very long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 10,000$</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>2 min</td>
<td>12 days</td>
<td>very long</td>
<td>very long</td>
<td>very long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 100,000$</td>
<td>&lt; 1 sec</td>
<td>2 sec</td>
<td>3 hours</td>
<td>32 years</td>
<td>very long</td>
<td>very long</td>
<td>very long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$n = 1,000,000$</td>
<td>1 sec</td>
<td>20 sec</td>
<td>12 days</td>
<td>31,710 years</td>
<td>very long</td>
<td>very long</td>
<td>very long</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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### Big O notation

**Upper bounds.** $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ such that $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

**Ex.** $f(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 1$.

- $f(n)$ is $O(n^2)$. \[ \text{choose } c = 50, \ n_0 = 1 \]
- $f(n)$ is also $O(n^3)$.
- $f(n)$ is neither $O(n)$ nor $O(n \log n)$.

**Typical usage.** Insertion sort makes $O(n^2)$ compares to sort $n$ elements.

### Alternate definition.** $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if $\limsup_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty$
Notational abuses

Equals sign. $O(g(n))$ is a set of functions, but computer scientists often write $f(n) = O(g(n))$ instead of $f(n) \in O(g(n))$.

Ex. Consider $g_1(n) = 5n^3$ and $g_2(n) = 3n^2$.
   • We have $g_1(n) = O(n^3) = g_2(n)$.
   • Thus, $g_1(n) = g_2(n)$. ✗

Domain. The domain of $g(n)$ is typically the natural numbers $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$.
   • Sometimes we restrict to a subset of the natural numbers.
     Other times we extend to the reals.

Non-negative functions. When using big O notation, we assume that the functions involved are (asymptotically) non-negative.

Bottom line. OK to abuse notation; not OK to misuse it.
Big Omega notation

Lower bounds. $f(n)$ is $\Omega(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$ and $n_0 \geq 0$ such that $f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n)$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

Ex. $f(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 1$.
   • $f(n)$ is both $\Omega(n^2)$ and $\Omega(n)$.
   • $f(n)$ is neither $\Omega(n^3)$ nor $\Omega(n^3 \log n)$.

Typical usage. Any compare-based sorting algorithm requires $\Omega(n \log n)$ compares in the worst case.

Meaningless statement. Any compare-based sorting algorithm requires at least $O(n \log n)$ compares in the worst case.
Big Theta notation

**Tight bounds.** \( f(n) \) is \( \Theta(g(n)) \) if there exist constants \( c_1 > 0, \ c_2 > 0, \) and \( n_0 \geq 0 \) such that \( c_1 \cdot g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 \cdot g(n) \) for all \( n \geq n_0 \).

**Ex.** \( f(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 1 \).
- \( f(n) \) is \( \Theta(n^2) \). \( \longrightarrow \) choose \( c_1 = 32, \ c_2 = 50, \ n_0 = 1 \)
- \( f(n) \) is neither \( \Theta(n) \) nor \( \Theta(n^3) \).

**Typical usage.** Mergesort makes \( \Theta(n \log n) \) compares to sort \( n \) elements.
Useful facts

Proposition. If \( \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c > 0 \), then \( f(n) \) is \( \Theta(g(n)) \).

Pf. By definition of the limit, there exists \( n_0 \) such that for all \( n \geq n_0 \)

\[
\frac{1}{2} c \leq \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \leq 2c
\]

- Thus, \( f(n) \leq 2c g(n) \) for all \( n \geq n_0 \), which implies \( f(n) \) is \( O(g(n)) \).
- Similarly, \( f(n) \geq \frac{1}{2} c g(n) \) for all \( n \geq n_0 \), which implies \( f(n) \) is \( \Omega(g(n)) \).

Proposition. If \( \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0 \), then \( f(n) \) is \( O(g(n)) \) but not \( \Theta(g(n)) \).
Asymptotic bounds for some common functions

**Polynomials.** Let \( f(n) = a_0 + a_1 n + \ldots + a_d n^d \) with \( a_d > 0 \). Then, \( f(n) \) is \( \Theta(n^d) \).

\[
\text{Pf. } \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_0 + a_1 n + \ldots + a_d n^d}{n^d} = a_d > 0
\]

**Logarithms.** \( \Theta(\log_a n) \) is \( \Theta(\log_b n) \) for any constants \( a, b > 0 \).

**Logarithms and polynomials.** For every \( d > 0 \), \( \log n \) is \( O(n^d) \).

**Exponentials and polynomials.** For every \( r > 1 \) and every \( d > 0 \), \( n^d \) is \( O(r^n) \).

\[
\text{Pf. } \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n^d}{r^n} = 0
\]
Big O notation with multiple variables

**Upper bounds.** $f(m, n)$ is $O(g(m, n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$, $m_0 \geq 0$, and $n_0 \geq 0$ such that $f(m, n) \leq c \cdot g(m, n)$ for all $n \geq n_0$ and $m \geq m_0$.

**Ex.** $f(m, n) = 32mn^2 + 17mn + 32n^3$.

- $f(m, n)$ is both $O(mn^2 + n^3)$ and $O(mn^3)$.
- $f(m, n)$ is neither $O(n^3)$ nor $O(mn^2)$.

**Typical usage.** Breadth-first search takes $O(m + n)$ time to find a shortest path from $s$ to $t$ in a digraph with $n$ nodes and $m$ edges.
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Linear time: $O(n)$

**Linear time.** Running time is proportional to input size.

**Computing the maximum.** Compute maximum of $n$ numbers $a_1, \ldots, a_n$.

```plaintext
max ← a_1
for i = 2 to n {
    if (a_i > max)
        max ← a_i
}
```

**Claim.** Computing the maximum of $n$ numbers takes $O(n)$ time.
Linear time: $O(n)$

**Merge.** Combine two sorted lists $A = a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ with $B = b_1, b_2, \ldots, b_n$ into sorted whole.

```
i = 1, j = 1
while (both lists are nonempty) {
    if ($a_i \leq b_j$) append $a_i$ to output list and increment $i$
    else append $b_j$ to output list and increment $j$
}
append remainder of nonempty list to output list
```

**Claim.** Merging two lists, each of length $n$, takes $O(n)$ time.

**Pf.** After each compare, the length of output list increases by 1.
Linearithmic time: \( O(n \log n) \)

\( O(n \log n) \) time. Arises in divide-and-conquer algorithms.

**Sorting.** Mergesort and heapsort are sorting algorithms that perform \( O(n \log n) \) compares.

**Largest empty interval.** Given \( n \) time stamps \( x_1, \ldots, x_n \) on which copies of a file arrive at a server, what is largest interval when no copies of file arrive?

\( O(n \log n) \) solution. Sort the time stamps. Scan the sorted list in order, identifying the maximum gap between successive time-stamps.
Quadratic time: $O(n^2)$

**Ex.** Enumerate all pairs of elements.

**Closest pair of points.** Given a list of $n$ points in the plane $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$, find the pair that is closest to each other.

**$O(n^2)$ solution.** Try all pairs of points.

```plaintext
min ← (x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2
for i = 1 to n {
    for j = i+1 to n {
        d ← (x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2
        if (d < min)
            min ← d
    }
}
```

**Remark.** $\Omega(n^2)$ seems inevitable, but this is just an illusion. [see Chapter 5]
Cubic time: $O(n^3)$

**Ex.** Enumerate all triples of elements.

**Set disjointness.** Given $n$ sets $S_1, ..., S_n$ each of which is a subset of $1, 2, ..., n$, is there some pair of these which are disjoint?

**$O(n^3)$ solution.** For each pair of sets, determine if they are disjoint.

```plaintext
foreach set $S_i$ {
    foreach other set $S_j$ {
        foreach element $p$ of $S_i$ {
            determine whether $p$ also belongs to $S_j$
        }
        if (no element of $S_i$ belongs to $S_j)
            report that $S_i$ and $S_j$ are disjoint
    }
}
```
Polynomial time: $O(n^k)$

**Independent set of size $k$.** Given a graph, are there $k$ nodes such that no two are joined by an edge?

$O(n^k)$ solution. Enumerate all subsets of $k$ nodes.

```java
foreach subset $S$ of $k$ nodes {
    check whether $S$ is an independent set
    if ($S$ is an independent set)
        report $S$ is an independent set
}
```

- Check whether $S$ is an independent set takes $O(k^2)$ time.
- Number of $k$-element subsets $= \binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2) \times \cdots \times (n-k+1)}{k(k-1)(k-2) \times \cdots \times 1} \leq \frac{n^k}{k!}$
- $O(k^2 \frac{n^k}{k!}) = O(n^k)$. 

$k$ is a constant
Exponential time: $2^{O(n^k)}$

**Independent set.** Given a graph, what is maximum cardinality of an independent set?

$O(n^2 2^n)$ solution. Enumerate all subsets.

```plaintext
S* ← ∅

foreach subset S of nodes {
    check whether S is an independent set
    if (S is largest independent set seen so far)
        update S* ← S
}
```
Sublinear time: $o(n)$

**Search in a sorted array.** Given a sorted array $A$ of $n$ numbers, is a given number $x$ in the array?

**$O(\log n)$ solution.** Binary search.

```
lo ← 1, hi ← n
while (lo ≤ hi) {
    mid ← (lo + hi) / 2
    if (x < A[mid]) hi ← mid - 1
    else if (x > A[mid]) lo ← mid + 1
    else return yes
} else return no
```

**Definition.** $f(n)$ is $o(g(n))$ if $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$. 