
Lecture 9

Analysis of Algorithms

Measuring Algorithm Efficiency

Lecture Outline

- What is an **Algorithm**?
- What is **Analysis of Algorithms**?
- How to analyze an algorithm
- **Big-O** notation
- Example Analyses

You are expected to know...

- Proof by induction
- Operations on logarithm function
- Arithmetic and geometric progressions
 - Their sums
 - See L9 – [useful_formulas.pdf](#) for some of these
- Linear, quadratic, cubic, polynomial functions
- ceiling, floor, absolute value

Algorithm and Analysis

■ Algorithm

- A step-by-step procedure for solving a problem

■ Analysis of Algorithm

- To evaluate rigorously the **resources** (**time** and **space**) needed by an algorithm and represent the result of the evaluation with a formula
- For **this** module, we focus more on **time** requirement in our analysis
- The time requirement of an algorithm is also called the **time complexity** of the algorithm

Measure Actual Running Time?

- We can measure the actual running time of a **program**
 - Use **wall clock time** or insert timing code into program
- However, actual running time is not meaningful when **comparing two algorithms**
 - Coded in different languages
 - Using different data sets
 - Running on different computers

Counting Operations

- Instead of measuring the actual timing, we count the number of **operations**
 - Operations: arithmetic, assignment, comparison, etc.
- Counting an algorithm's operations is a way to assess its efficiency
 - An algorithm's execution time is related to the number of operations it requires

Example: Counting Operations

- How many operations are required?

```
for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {  
    perform 100 operations;      // A  
    for (int j = 1; j <= n; j++) {  
        perform 2 operations;    // B  
    }  
}
```

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Total Ops} &= A + B = \sum_{i=1}^n 100 + \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^n 2 \right) \\ &= 100n + \sum_{i=1}^n 2n = 100n + 2n^2 = 2n^2 + 100n\end{aligned}$$

Example: Counting Operations

- Knowing the number of operations required by the algorithm, we can state that
 - Algorithm X takes $2n^2 + 100n$ operations to solve problem of size n
- If the time t needed for one operation is known, then we can state
 - Algorithm X takes $(2n^2 + 100n)t$ time units

Example: Counting Operations

- However, time t is directly dependent on the factors mentioned earlier
 - e.g. different languages, compilers and computers
- Instead of tying the analysis to actual time t , we can state
 - Algorithm X takes time that is **proportional to** $2n^2 + 100n$ for solving problem of size n

Approximation of Analysis Results

- Suppose the time complexity of
 - Algorithm *A* is $3n^2 + 2n + \log n + 1/(4n)$
 - Algorithm *B* is $0.39n^3 + n$
- Intuitively, we know Algorithm *A* will outperform *B*
 - When solving larger problem, i.e. larger n
- The **dominating term** $3n^2$ and $0.39n^3$ can tell us approximately how the algorithms perform
- The terms n^2 and n^3 are even simpler and preferred
- These terms can be obtained through **asymptotic analysis**

Asymptotic Analysis

- Asymptotic analysis is an analysis of algorithms that focuses on
 - Analyzing problems of large input size
 - Consider only the leading term of the formula
 - Ignore the coefficient of the leading term

Why Choose Leading Term?

- Lower order terms contribute lesser to the overall cost as the input grows larger
- Example
 - $f(n) = 2n^2 + 100n$
 - $f(1000) = 2(1000)^2 + 100(1000)$
 $= 2,000,000 + 100,000$
 - $f(100000) = 2(100000)^2 + 100(100000)$
 $= 20,000,000,000 + 10,000,000$
- Hence, lower order terms can be ignored

Examples: Leading Terms

- $a(n) = \frac{1}{2}n + 4$
 - Leading term: $\frac{1}{2}n$
- $b(n) = 240n + 0.001n^2$
 - Leading term: $0.001n^2$
- $c(n) = n \lg(n) + \lg(n) + n \lg(\lg(n))$
 - Leading term: $n \lg(n)$
 - Note that $\lg(n) = \log_2(n)$

Why Ignore Coefficient of Leading Term?

- Suppose two algorithms have $2n^2$ and $30n^2$ as the leading terms, respectively
- Although actual time will be different due to the different constants, the **growth rates** of the running time are the same
- Compare with another algorithm with leading term of n^3 , the difference in growth rate is a much more dominating factor
- Hence, we can drop the coefficient of leading term when studying algorithm complexity

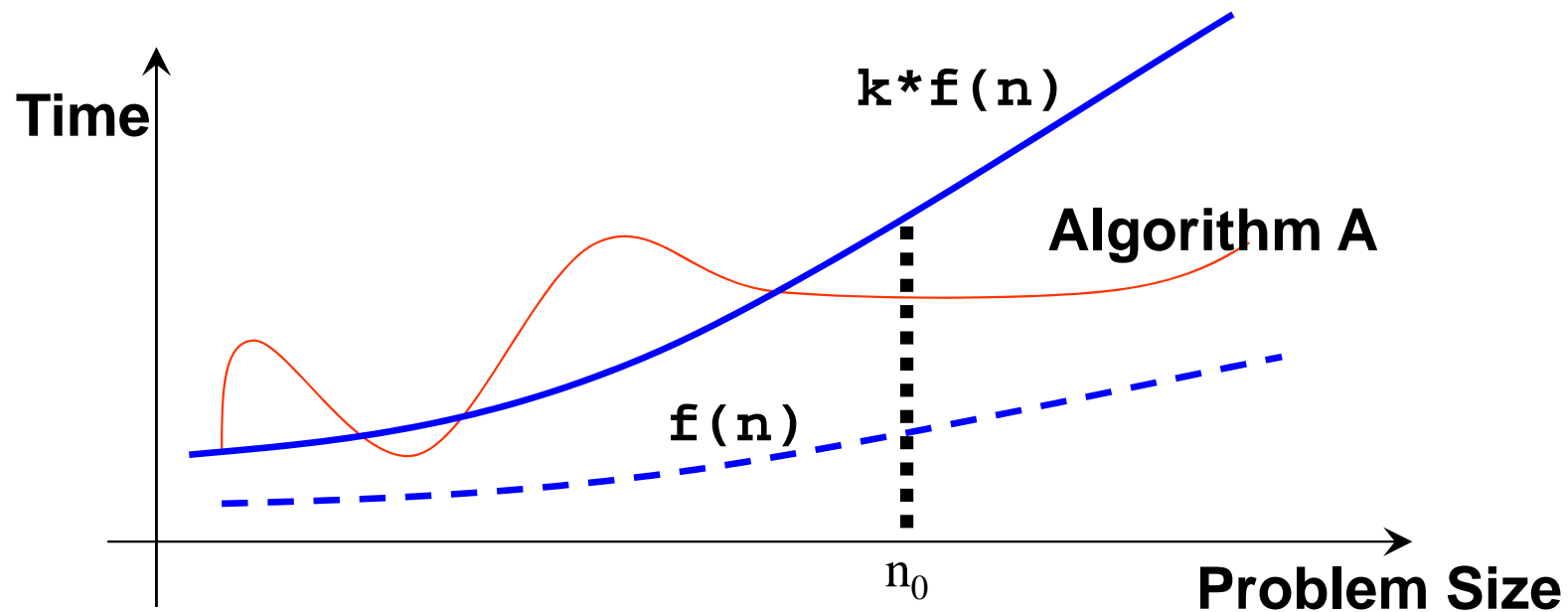
Upper Bound: The Big-O Notation

- If algorithm A requires time proportional to $f(n)$
 - Algorithm A **is of the order of** $f(n)$
 - Denoted as Algorithm A is **$O(f(n))$**
 - $f(n)$ is the **growth rate function** for Algorithm A

The Big-O Notation

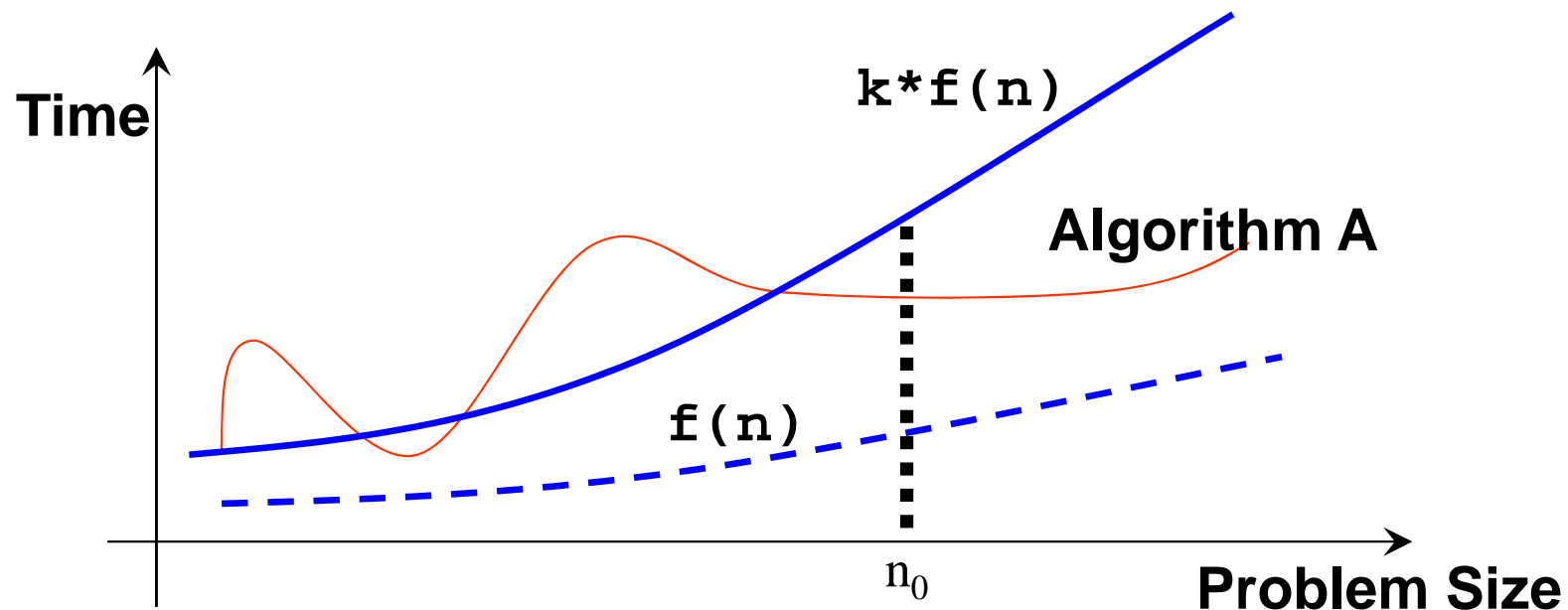
- Formal definition

- Algorithm A is of $O(f(n))$ if there exist a constant k , and a positive integer n_0 such that Algorithm A requires no more than $k * f(n)$ time units to solve a problem of size $n \geq n_0$



The Big-O Notation

- When problem size is larger than n_0 , Algorithm A is **bounded from above** by $k * f(n)$
- Observations
 - n_0 and k are not unique
 - There are many possible $f(n)$



Example: Finding n_0 and k

- Given complexity of Algorithm A is $2n^2 + 100n$
- **Claim:** Algorithm A is of $O(n^2)$
- **Solution**
 - $2n^2 + 100n < 2n^2 + n^2 = 3n^2$ whenever $n > 100$
 - Set the constants to be $k = 3$ and $n_0 = 100$
 - By definition, we say Algorithm A is $O(n^2)$
- **Questions**
 - Can we say A is $O(2n^2)$ or $O(3n^2)$?
 - Can we say A is $O(n^3)$?

Growth Terms

- In asymptotic analysis, a formula can be simplified to a **single term** with **coefficient 1** (how?)
- Such a term is called a **growth term** (**rate of growth, order of growth, order of magnitude**)
- The most common growth terms can be ordered as follows (note that many others are not shown)

$O(1) < O(\log n) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n^2) < O(n^3) < O(2^n) < \dots$

“fastest”

“slowest”

- “log” = \log_2
- In big-O, log functions of different bases are all the same (why?)

Common Growth Rates

- **$O(1)$ — constant time**
 - Independent of n
- **$O(n)$ — linear time**
 - Grows as the same rate of n
 - E.g. double input size → double execution time
- **$O(n^2)$ — quadratic time**
 - Increases rapidly w.r.t. n
 - E.g. double input size → quadruple execution time
- **$O(n^3)$ — cubic time**
 - Increases even more rapidly w.r.t. n
 - E.g. double input size → 8 * execution time
- **$O(2^n)$ — exponential time**
 - Increases very very rapidly w.r.t. n

Example: Exponential-Time Algorithm

- Suppose we have a problem that, for an input consisting of n items, can be solved by going through 2^n cases
- We use a **supercomputer**, that analyses 200 million cases per second
 - Input with 15 items — 163 microseconds
 - Input with 30 items — 5.36 seconds
 - Input with 50 items — more than two months
 - Input with 80 items — 191 million years

Example: Quadratic-Time Algorithm

- Suppose solving the same problem with another algorithm will use $300n^2$ clock cycles on a Handheld PC, running at 33 MHz
 - Input with 15 items — 2 milliseconds
 - Input with 30 items — 8 milliseconds
 - Input with 50 items — 22 milliseconds
 - Input with 80 items — 58 milliseconds
- Therefore, to speed up program, don't simply rely on the raw power of a computer
 - Very important to use an efficient algorithm

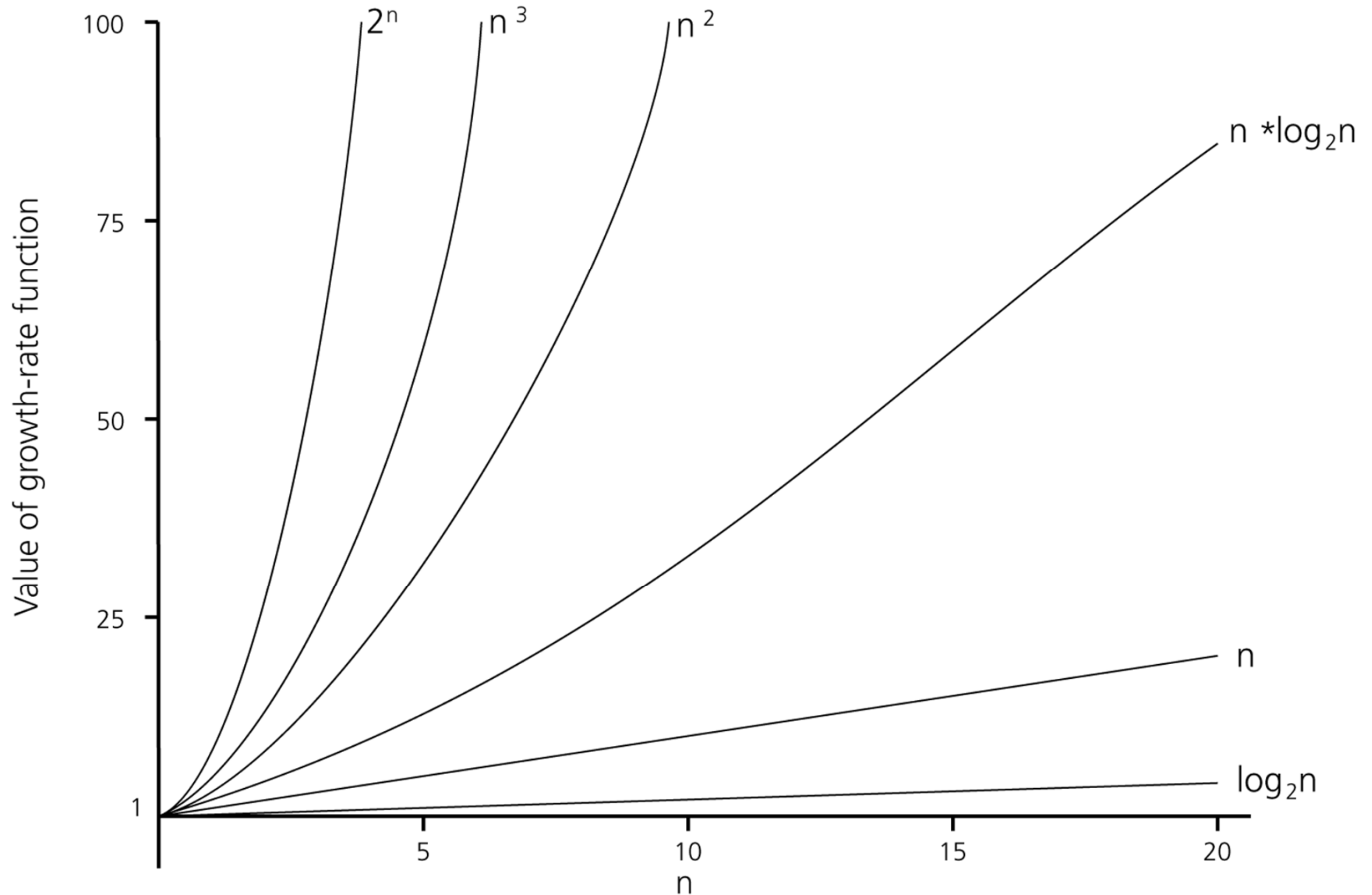
Comparing Growth Rates

(a)

Function	n					
	10	100	1,000	10,000	100,000	1,000,000
1	1	1	1	1	1	1
$\log_2 n$	3	6	9	13	16	19
n	10	10^2	10^3	10^4	10^5	10^6
$n * \log_2 n$	30	664	9,965	10^5	10^6	10^7
n^2	10^2	10^4	10^6	10^8	10^{10}	10^{12}
n^3	10^3	10^6	10^9	10^{12}	10^{15}	10^{18}
2^n	10^3	10^{30}	10^{301}	$10^{3,010}$	$10^{30,103}$	$10^{301,030}$

Comparing Growth Rates

(b)



How to Find Complexity?

- Some rules of thumb
 - Basically just count the number of statements executed
 - If there are only a small number of simple statements in a program — $O(1)$
 - If there is a 'for' loop dictated by a loop index that goes up to n — $O(n)$
 - If there is a nested 'for' loop with outer one controlled by n and the inner one controlled by m — $O(n*m)$
 - For a loop with a range of values n , and each iteration reduces the range by a fixed constant fraction (eg: $\frac{1}{2}$) — $O(\log n)$
 - For a recursive method, each call is usually $O(1)$. So
 - If n calls are made — $O(n)$
 - If $n \log n$ calls are made — $O(n \log n)$

Example: Finding Complexity (1/2)

- What is the complexity of the following code fragment?

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

- It is clear that `sum` is incremented only when

$$i = 1, 2, 4, 8, \dots, 2^k \text{ where } k = \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$$

There are $k + 1$ iterations.

So the complexity is $O(k)$ or $O(\log n)$

Example: Finding Complexity (2/2)

- What is the complexity of the following code fragment?
 - For simplicity, let's assume that n is some power of 3

```
int sum = 0;
for (int i = 1; i <= n; i = i*3)
    for (int j = 1; j <= i; j++)
        sum++;
```

- $f(n) = 1 + 3 + 9 + 27 + \dots + 3^{(\log_3 n)}$
 $= 1 + 3 + \dots + n/9 + n/3 + n$
 $= n + n/3 + n/9 + \dots + 3 + 1$
 $= n * (1 + 1/3 + 1/9 + \dots)$
 $\leq n * (3/2)$
 $= 3n/2$
 $= O(n)$

Analysis 1: Tower of Hanoi

- Number of moves made by the algorithm is $2^n - 1$
 - Prove it!
 - Hints: $f(1)=1$, $f(n)=f(n-1) + 1 + f(n-1)$, and prove by induction
- Assume each move takes c time, then
$$f(n) = c(2^n - 1) = O(2^n)$$
- The Tower of Hanoi algorithm is an **exponential time** algorithm

Analysis 2: Sequential Search

- Check whether an item x is in an unsorted array $a[]$
 - If found, it returns position of x in array
 - If not found, it returns -1

```
public int seqSearch(int a[], int len, int x) {  
    for (int i = 0; i < len; i++) {  
        if (a[i] == x)  
            return i;  
    }  
    return -1;  
}
```

Analysis 2: Sequential Search

- Time spent in each iteration through the loop is at most some constant c_1
- Time spent outside the loop is at most some constant c_2
- Maximum number of iterations is n
- Hence, the asymptotic upper bound is $c_1n + c_2 = O(n)$
- Observation
 - In general, a loop of n iterations will lead to $O(n)$ growth rate
 - This is an example of **Worst Case Analysis**

Analysis 3: Binary Search

- Important characteristics
 - Requires array to be sorted
 - Maintain sub-array where x might be located
 - Repeatedly compare x with m , the middle of current sub-array
 - If $x = m$, found it!
 - If $x > m$, eliminate m and positions before m
 - If $x < m$, eliminate m and positions after m
- Iterative and recursive implementations

Binary Search (Recursive)

```
int binarySearch(int a[], int x, int low, int high) {
    if (low > high)    // Base Case 1: item not found
        return -1;

    int mid = (low+high) / 2;

    if (x > a[mid])
        return binarySearch(a, x, mid+1, high);
    else if (x < a[mid])
        return binarySearch(a, x, low, mid-1);
    else
        return mid;    // Base Case 2: item found
}
```


Binary Search (Iterative)

```
int binSearch(int a[], int len, int x) {
    int mid, low = 0;
    int high = len-1;

    while (low <= high) {
        mid = (low+high) / 2;
        if (x == a[mid])
            return mid;
        else if (x > a[mid])
            low = mid+1;
        else
            high = mid-1;
    }
    return -1; // item not found
}
```

Analysis 3: Binary Search (Iterative)

- Time spent outside the loop is at most c_1
- Time spent in each iteration of the loop is at most c_2
- For inputs of size n , if the program goes through at most $f(n)$ iterations, then the complexity is

$$c_1 + c_2 f(n) \quad \text{or} \quad O(f(n))$$

- i.e. the complexity is decided by the number of iterations (loops)

Analysis 3: Finding $f(n)$

- At any point during binary search, part of array is “alive” (might contain x)
- Each iteration of loop eliminates at least half of previously “alive” elements
- At the beginning, all n elements are “alive”, and after
 - One iteration, at most $n/2$ are left, or alive
 - Two iterations, at most $(n/2)/2 = n/4 = n/2^2$ are left
 - Three iterations, at most $(n/4)/2 = n/8 = n/2^3$ are left
 - ...
 - k iterations, at most $n/2^k$ are left
 - At the final iteration, at most 1 element is left

Analysis 3: Finding $f(n)$

- In the **worst case**, we have to search all the way up to the last iteration k with only one element left
- We have
$$n/2^k = 1 \Rightarrow 2^k = n \Rightarrow k = \log_2(n) = \lg(n)$$
- Hence, the binary search algorithm takes $O(f(n))$, or $O(\lg(n))$ time
- Observation
 - In general, when the domain of interest is reduced by a fraction for each iteration of a loop, then it will lead to $O(\log n)$ growth rate

Analysis of Different Cases

- For an algorithm, three different cases of analysis
 - **Worst-Case Analysis**
 - Look at the worst possible scenario
 - **Best-Case Analysis**
 - Look at the ideal case
 - Usually not useful
 - **Average-Case Analysis**
 - Probability distribution should be known
 - Hardest/impossible to analyze
- Example: Sequential Search
 - **Worst-Case:** target item at the tail of array
 - **Best-Case:** target item at the head of array
 - **Average-Case:** target item can be anywhere

Summary

- Algorithm Definition
- Algorithm Analysis
 - Counting operations
 - Asymptotic Analysis
 - Big-O notation (Upper-Bound)
- Three cases of analysis
 - Best-case
 - Worst-case
 - Average-case