# Analysis of Algorithms (Based on [Manber 1989]) 

Yih-Kuen Tsay

Dept. of Information Management
National Taiwan University

## Introduction

- The purpose of algorithm analysis is to predict the behavior (running time, space requirement, etc.) of an algorithm without implementing it on a specific computer. (Why?)
- As the exact behavior of an algorithm is hard to predict, the analysis is usually an approximation:
e Relative to the input size (usually denoted by $n$ ): input possibilities too enormous to elaborate
. Asymptotic: should care more about larger inputs
* Worst-Case: easier to do, often representative (Why not average-case?)
- Such an approximation is usually good enough for comparing different algorithms for the same problem.


## Complexity

- Theoretically, "complexity of an algorithm" is a more precise term for "approximate behavior of an algorithm".
Two most important measures of complexity:
e Time Complexity
an upper bound on the number of steps that the algorithm performs.
e Space Complexity an upper bound on the amount of temporary storage required for running the algorithm (excluding the input, the output, and the program itself).
- We will focus on time complexity.


## Comparing Running Times

How do we compare the following running times?

1. $100 n$
2. $2 n^{2}+50$
3. $100 n^{1.8}$

We will study an approach (the $O$ notation) that allows us to ignore constant factors and concentrate on the behavior as $n$ goes to infinity.

- For most algorithms, the constants in the expressions of their running times tend to be small.


## The $O$ Notation

- A function $g(n)$ is $O(f(n))$ for another function $f(n)$ if there exist constants $c$ and $N$ such that, for all $n \geq N$, $g(n) \leq c f(n)$.
The function $g(n)$ may be substantially less than $c f(n)$; the $O$ notation bounds it only from above.
The $O$ notation allows us to ignore constants conveniently.
- Examples:
$5 n^{2}+15=O\left(n^{2}\right)$. (cf. $5 n^{2}+15 \leq O\left(n^{2}\right)$ or $5 n^{2}+15 \in O\left(n^{2}\right)$ )
$5 n^{2}+15=O\left(n^{3}\right)$. (cf. $5 n^{2}+15 \leq O\left(n^{3}\right)$ or $5 n^{2}+15 \in O\left(n^{3}\right)$ )
In an expression, $T(n)=3 n^{2}+O(n)$.


## The $O$ Notation (cont.)

- No need to specify the base of a logarithm.
$\log _{2} n=\frac{\log _{10} n}{\log _{10} 2}=\frac{1}{\log _{10} 2} \log _{10} n$.
For example, we can just write $O(\log n)$.
- $O(1)$ denotes a constant.


## Properties of $O$

- We can add and multiply with $O$.


## Lemma 3.2

1. If $f(n)=O(s(n))$ and $g(n)=O(r(n))$, then $f(n)+g(n)=$ $O(s(n)+r(n))$.
2. If $f(n)=O(s(n))$ and $g(n)=O(r(n))$, then $f(n) \cdot g(n)=$ $O(s(n) \cdot r(n))$.

- However, we cannot subtract or divide with $O$.


## Polynomial vs. Exponential

A function $f(n)$ is monotonically growing if $n_{1} \geq n_{2}$ implies that $f\left(n_{1}\right) \geq f\left(n_{2}\right)$.

- An exponential function grows at least as fast as a polynomial function does.


## Theorem 3.1

For all constants $c>0$ and $a>1$, and for all monotonically growing functions $f(n),(f(n))^{c}=O\left(a^{f(n)}\right)$.

- Examples:

Take $n$ as $f(n), n^{c}=O\left(a^{n}\right)$.
Take $\log _{a} n$ as $f(n),\left(\log _{a} n\right)^{c}=O\left(a^{\log _{a} n}\right)=O(n)$.

## Speed of Growth

| $\log n$ | $n$ | $n \log n$ | $n^{2}$ | $n^{3}$ | $2^{n}$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 2 |
| 1 | 2 | 2 | 4 | 8 | 4 |
| 2 | 4 | 8 | 16 | 64 | 16 |
| 3 | 8 | 24 | 64 | 512 | 256 |
| 4 | 16 | 64 | 256 | 4,096 | 65,536 |
| 5 | 32 | 160 | 1,024 | 32,768 | $4,294,967,296$ |

Table 1.7 Function values
Source: E. Horowitz et al., 1998.

## Speed of Growth (cont.)

| running times | time 1 <br> 1000 steps/sec | time 2 <br> 2000 steps/sec | time 3 4000 steps/sec | time 4 <br> 8000 steps/sec |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\log _{2} n$ | 0.010 | 0.005 | 0.003 | 0.001 |
| $n$ | 1 | 0.5 | 0.25 | 0.125 |
| $n \log _{2} n$ | 10 | 5 | 2.5 | 1.25 |
| $n^{1.5}$ | 32 | 16 | 8 | 4 |
| $n^{2}$ | 1,000 | 500 | 250 | 125 |
| $n^{3}$ | 1,000,000 | 500,000 | 250,000 | 125,000 |
| $1.1{ }^{n}$ | $10^{39}$ | $10^{39}$ | $10^{38}$ | $10^{38}$ |

Table 3.1 Running times (int seconds) under different assumptions ( $\mathrm{n}=1000$ )

Source: Manber 1989.

## $O, o, \Omega$, and $\Theta$

- Let $T(n)$ be the number of steps required to solve a given problem for input size $n$.
- We say that $T(n)=\Omega(g(n))$ or the problem has a lower bound of $\Omega(g(n))$ if there exist constants $c$ and $N$ such that, for all $n \geq N, T(n) \geq c g(n)$.
- If a certain function $f(n)$ satisfies both $f(n)=O(g(n))$ and $f(n)=\Omega(g(n))$, then we say that $f(n)=\Theta(g(n))$.
We say that $f(n)=o(g(n))$ if $\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)}=0$.


## Polynomial vs. Exponential (cont.)

An exponential function grows faster than a polynomial function does.

## Theorem 3.3

For all constants $c>0$ and $a>1$, and for all monotonically growing functions $f(n)$, we have

$$
(f(n))^{c}=o\left(a^{f(n)}\right) .
$$

Consider a previous example again:
Take $\log _{a} n$ as $f(n)$. For all $c>0$ and $a>1$,

$$
\left(\log _{a} n\right)^{c}=o\left(a^{\log _{a} n}\right)=o(n) .
$$

## Sums

Techniques for summing expressions are essential for complexity analysis.

- For example, given that we know

$$
S_{0}(n)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} 1=n
$$

and

$$
S_{1}(n)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} i=1+2+3+\cdots+n=\frac{n(n+1)}{2}
$$

we want to compute the sum

$$
S_{2}(n)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^{2}=1^{2}+2^{2}+3^{2}+\cdots+n^{2}
$$

## Sums (cont.)

From

$$
(i+1)^{3}=i^{3}+3 i^{2}+3 i+1,
$$

we have

$$
(i+1)^{3}-i^{3}=3 i^{2}+3 i+1 .
$$

$$
2^{3}-1^{3}=3 \times 1^{2}+3 \times 1+1
$$

$$
3^{3}-2^{3}=3 \times 2^{2}+3 \times 2+1
$$

$$
4^{3}-3^{3}=3 \times 3^{2}+3 \times 3+1
$$

$$
(n+1)^{3}-n^{3}=3 \times n^{2}+3 \times n+1
$$

$$
(n+1)^{3}-1=3 \times S_{2}(n)+3 \times S_{1}(n)+S_{0}(n)
$$

$$
\left(S_{3}(n+1)-S_{3}(1)\right)-S_{3}(n)=3 \times S_{2}(n)+3 \times S_{1}(n)+S_{0}(n)
$$

## Sums (cont.)

- So, we have

$$
(n+1)^{3}-1=3 \times S_{2}(n)+3 \times S_{1}(n)+S_{0}(n) .
$$

- Given $S_{0}(n)$ and $S_{1}(n)$, the sum $S_{2}(n)$ can be computed by straightforward algebra.
- Recall that the left-hand side $(n+1)^{3}-1$ equals $\left(S_{3}(n+1)-S_{3}(1)\right)-S_{3}(n)$, a result from "shifting and canceling" terms of two sums.
This generalizes to $S_{k}(n)$, for $k>2$.
- Similar shifting and canceling techniques apply to other kinds of sums.


## Recurrence Relations

- A recurrence relation is a way to define a function by an expression involving the same function.
- The Fibonacci numbers can be defined as follows:

$$
\left\{\begin{array}{l}
F(1)=1 \\
F(2)=1 \\
F(n)=F(n-2)+F(n-1)
\end{array}\right.
$$

We would need $k-2$ steps to compute $F(k)$.

- It is more convenient to have an explicit (or closed-form) expression. To obtain the explicit expression is called solving the recurrence relation.


## Guessing and Proving an Upper Bound

Recurrence relation: $\left\{\begin{array}{l}T(2)=1 \\ T(2 n) \leq 2 T(n)+2 n-1\end{array}\right.$
Guess: $T(n)=O(n \log n)$.
Proof:

1. Base case: $T(2) \leq 2 \log 2$.
2. Inductive step: $T(2 n) \leq 2 T(n)+2 n-1$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \leq 2(n \log n)+2 n-1 \\
& =2 n \log n+2 n \log 2-1 \\
& \leq 2 n(\log n+\log 2) \\
& =2 n \log 2 n
\end{aligned}
$$

## Divide and Conquer Relations

The running time $T(n)$ of a divide-and-conquer algorithm satisfies

$$
T(n)=a T(n / b)+c n^{k}
$$

where $a$ is the number of subproblems, $n / b$ is the size of each subproblem, and $c n^{k}$ is the running time of the solutions-combining algorithm.

## Divide and Conquer Relations (cont.)

Assume, for simplicity, $n=b^{m}\left(\frac{n}{b^{m}}=1, \frac{n}{b^{m-1}}=b\right.$, etc.).

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(n) & =a T\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)+c n^{k} \\
& =a\left(a T\left(\frac{n}{b^{2}}\right)+c\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)^{k}\right)+c n^{k} \\
& =a\left(a\left(a T\left(\frac{n}{b^{3}}\right)+c\left(\frac{n}{b^{2}}\right)^{k}\right)+c\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)^{k}\right)+c n^{k} \\
& \cdots \\
& =a\left(a\left(\cdots\left(a T\left(\frac{n}{b^{m}}\right)+c\left(\frac{n}{b^{m-1}}\right)^{k}\right)+\cdots\right)+c\left(\frac{n}{b}\right)^{k}\right)+c n^{k}
\end{aligned}
$$

Assuming $T(1)=c$,

$$
T(n)=c \sum_{i=0}^{m} a^{m-i} b^{i k}=c a^{m} \sum_{i=0}^{m}\left(\frac{b^{k}}{a}\right)^{i}
$$

## Divide and Conquer Relations (cont.)

Theorem 3.4
The solution of the recurrence relation $T(n)=a T(n / b)+$ $c n^{k}$, where $a$ and $b$ are integer constants, $a \geq 1, b \geq 2$, and $c$ and $k$ are positive constants, is

$$
T(n)= \begin{cases}O\left(n^{\log _{b} a}\right) & \text { if } a>b^{k} \\ O\left(n^{k} \log n\right) & \text { if } a=b^{k} \\ O\left(n^{k}\right) & \text { if } a<b^{k}\end{cases}
$$

## Useful Facts

## - Harmonic series

$$
H_{n}=\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}=\ln n+\gamma+O(1 / n)
$$

where $\gamma=0.577 \ldots$ is Euler's constant.

- Sum of logarithms

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\lfloor\log _{2} i\right\rfloor & =(n+1)\left\lfloor\log _{2} n\right\rfloor-2^{\left\lfloor\log _{2} n\right\rfloor+1}+2 \\
& =\Theta(n \log n)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Useful Facts (cont.)

- Bounding a summation by an integral: If $f(x)$ is monotonically increasing, then

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(i) \leq \int_{1}^{n+1} f(x) d x
$$

Stirling's approximation

$$
n!=\sqrt{2 \pi n}\left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^{n}(1+O(1 / n)) .
$$

