Analysis of Algorithms(Based on [Manber 1989])

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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:
 - ** 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:
 - Time Complexity an upper bound on the number of steps that the algorithm performs.
 - 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.** 100n
 - **2.** $2n^2 + 50$
 - 3. $100n^{1.8}$
- 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 $n \ge N$, $g(n) \le cf(n)$.
- The function g(n) may be substantially less than cf(n); the O notation bounds it *only from above*.
- The O notation allows us to ignore constants conveniently.
- Examples:

*
$$5n^2 + 15 = O(n^2)$$
.
(cf. $5n^2 + 15 \le O(n^2)$ or $5n^2 + 15 \in O(n^2)$)

*
$$5n^2 + 15 = O(n^3)$$
.
(cf. $5n^2 + 15 \le O(n^3)$ or $5n^2 + 15 \in O(n^3)$)

 \clubsuit In an expression, $T(n) = 3n^2 + O(n)$.

The O Notation (cont.)

No need to specify the base of a logarithm.

- # For example, we can just write $O(\log n)$.
- \bigcirc 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 $n_1 \ge n_2$ implies that $f(n_1) \ge f(n_2)$.
- 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), $(f(n))^c = O(a^{f(n)})$.

- Examples:
 - * Take n as f(n), $n^c = O(a^n)$.
 - * Take $\log_a n$ as f(n), $(\log_a n)^c = O(a^{\log_a n}) = O(n)$.



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 1000 steps/sec	time 2 2000 steps/sec	time 3 4000 steps/sec	time 4 8000 steps/sec
running times	Tooo steps/see	2000 31003/300	4000 steps/see	0000 steps/see
$\log_2 n$	0.010	0.005	0.003	0.001
n	1	0.5	0.25 2.5	0.125 1.25
$n \log_2 n$	10	5		
$n^{1.5}$	32	16	8	4
n^2	1,000	500	250	125
n^3	1,000,000	500,000	250,000	125,000
1.1	10 39	10 39	10 38	10^{38}

Table 3.1 Running times (int seconds) under different assumptions (n = 1000)

Source: Manber 1989.



O, o, Ω , and Θ

- 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 $n \ge N$, $T(n) \ge cg(n)$.
- 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 $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$.



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

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

• Consider a previous example again: Take $\log_a n$ as f(n). For all c > 0 and a > 1,

$$(\log_a n)^c = o(a^{\log_a n}) = o(n).$$



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

$$S_1(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n i = 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2},$$

we want to compute the sum



$$S_2(n) = \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2.$$

Sums (cont.)

From

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

we have

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

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

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

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

$$\frac{(n+1)^3 - n^3}{(n+1)^3 - 1} = \frac{3 \times n^2 + 3 \times n + 1}{3 \times S_2(n) + 3 \times S_1(n) + S_0(n)}$$
$$\frac{(S_3(n+1) - S_3(1)) - S_3(n)}{(S_3(n+1) - S_3(1)) - S_3(n)} = \frac{3 \times S_2(n) + 3 \times S_1(n) + S_0(n)}{3 \times S_2(n) + 3 \times S_1(n) + S_0(n)}$$



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 $(S_3(n+1) S_3(1)) S_3(n)$, 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:

$$\begin{cases} F(1) = 1 \\ F(2) = 1 \\ F(n) = F(n-2) + F(n-1) \end{cases}$$

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: $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} T(2) = 1 \\ T(2n) \leq 2T(n) + 2n 1 \end{array} \right.$
- Guess: $T(n) = O(n \log n)$.
- Proof:
 - 1. Base case: $T(2) \le 2 \log 2$.
 - 2. Inductive step: $T(2n) \le 2T(n) + 2n 1$ $\le 2(n \log n) + 2n - 1$
 - $= 2n\log n + 2n\log 2 1$
 - $\leq 2n(\log n + \log 2)$
 - $=2n\log 2n$



Divide and Conquer Relations

igoplus The running time <math>T(n) of a divide-and-conquer algorithm satisfies

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + cn^k$$

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



Divide and Conquer Relations (cont.)

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

$$T(n) = aT(\frac{n}{b}) + cn^{k}$$

$$= a(aT(\frac{n}{b^{2}}) + c(\frac{n}{b})^{k}) + cn^{k}$$

$$= a(a(aT(\frac{n}{b^{3}}) + c(\frac{n}{b^{2}})^{k}) + c(\frac{n}{b})^{k}) + cn^{k}$$

$$\cdots$$

$$= a(a(\cdots(aT(\frac{n}{b^{m}}) + c(\frac{n}{b^{m-1}})^{k}) + \cdots) + c(\frac{n}{b})^{k}) + cn^{k}$$

Assuming T(1) = c,

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



Divide and Conquer Relations (cont.)

Theorem 3.4

The solution of the recurrence relation $T(n) = aT(n/b) + cn^k$, where a and b are integer constants, $a \ge 1$, $b \ge 2$, and c and k are positive constants, is

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



Useful Facts

Harmonic series

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

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

Sum of logarithms

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \lfloor \log_2 i \rfloor = (n+1) \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor - 2^{\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 1} + 2$$
$$= \Theta(n \log n).$$



Useful Facts (cont.)

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(i) \le \int_{1}^{n+1} f(x) dx.$$

Stirling's approximation

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

