

CMSC 132: Object-Oriented Programming II



Algorithmic Complexity I

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Algorithm Efficiency

- Efficiency
 - Amount of resources used by algorithm
 - Time, space
- Measuring efficiency
 - Benchmarking
 - Asymptotic analysis

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Benchmarking

- Approach
 - Pick some desired inputs
 - Actually run implementation of algorithm
 - Measure time & space needed
- Industry benchmarks
 - SPEC – CPU performance
 - MySQL – Database applications
 - WinStone – Windows PC applications
 - MediaBench – Multimedia applications
 - Linpack – Numerical scientific applications

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Benchmarking

- Advantages
 - Precise information for given configuration
 - Implementation, hardware, inputs
- Disadvantages
 - Affected by configuration
 - Data sets (usually too small)
 - Hardware
 - Software
 - Affected by special cases (biased inputs)
 - Does not measure **intrinsic** efficiency

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Asymptotic Analysis

- Approach
 - Mathematically analyze efficiency
 - Calculate time as function of input size n
 - $T \approx O[f(n)]$
 - T is on the order of $f(n)$
 - “Big O” notation
- Advantages
 - Measures intrinsic efficiency
 - Dominates efficiency for large input sizes

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Search Example

- Number guessing game
 - Pick a number between $1 \dots n$
 - Guess a number
 - Answer “correct”, “too high”, “too low”
 - Repeat guesses until correct number guessed

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Linear Search Algorithm

- **Algorithm**
 1. Guess number = 1
 2. If incorrect, increment guess by 1
 3. Repeat until correct
- **Example**
 - Given number between 1...100
 - Pick 20
 - Guess sequence = 1, 2, 3, 4 ... 20
 - Required 20 guesses

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Linear Search Algorithm

- **Analysis of # of guesses needed for 1...n**
 - If number = 1, requires 1 guess
 - If number = n, requires n guesses
 - On average, needs $n/2$ guesses
 - Time = $O(n)$ = Linear time

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Binary Search Algorithm

- **Algorithm**
 - Set Δ to $n/4$
 - Guess number = $n/2$
 - If too large, guess number $- \Delta$
 - If too small, guess number $+ \Delta$
 - Reduce Δ by $1/2$
 - Repeat until correct

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Binary Search Algorithm

- **Example**
 - Given number between 1...100
 - Pick 20
 - Guesses =
 - 50, $\Delta = 25$, Answer = too large, subtract Δ
 - 25, $\Delta = 12$, Answer = too large, subtract Δ
 - 13, $\Delta = 6$, Answer = too small, add Δ
 - 19, $\Delta = 3$, Answer = too small, add Δ
 - 22, $\Delta = 1$, Answer = too large, subtract Δ
 - 21, $\Delta = 1$, Answer = too large, subtract Δ
 - 20
 - Required 7 guesses

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Binary Search Algorithm

- **Analysis of # of guesses needed for 1...n**
 - If number = $n/2$, requires 1 guess
 - If number = 1, requires $\log_2(n)$ guesses
 - If number = n, requires $\log_2(n)$ guesses
 - On average, needs $\log_2(n)$ guesses
 - Time = $O(\log_2(n))$ = Log time

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Search Comparison

- **For number between 1...100**
 - Simple algorithm = 50 steps
 - Binary search algorithm = $\log_2(n) = 7$ steps
- **For number between 1...100,000**
 - Simple algorithm = 50,000 steps
 - Binary search algorithm = $\log_2(n)$ (about 17 steps)
- Binary search is **much** more efficient!

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Asymptotic Complexity

■ Comparing two linear functions

Size	Running Time	
	$n/2$	$4n+3$
64	32	259
128	64	515
256	128	1027
512	256	2051

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Asymptotic Complexity

■ Comparing two functions

- $n/2$ and $4n+3$ behave similarly
 - Run time roughly doubles as input size doubles
 - Run time increases **linearly** with input size
- ### ■ For large values of n
- $\text{Time}(2n) / \text{Time}(n)$ approaches exactly 2
- ### ■ Both are $O(n)$ programs

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Asymptotic Complexity

■ Comparing two log functions

Size	Running Time	
	$\log_2(n)$	$5 * \log_2(n) + 3$
64	6	33
128	7	38
256	8	43
512	9	48

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Asymptotic Complexity

■ Comparing two functions

- $\log_2(n)$ and $5 * \log_2(n) + 3$ behave similarly
 - Run time roughly increases by constant as input size doubles
 - Run time increases **logarithmically** with input size
- ### ■ For large values of n
- $\text{Time}(2n) - \text{Time}(n)$ approaches constant
 - Base of logarithm does not matter
 - Simply a multiplicative factor
$$\log_a N = (\log_b N) / (\log_b a)$$
- ### ■ Both are $O(\log(n))$ programs

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Asymptotic Complexity

■ Comparing two quadratic functions

Size	Running Time	
	n^2	$2n^2 + 8$
2	4	16
4	16	40
8	64	132
16	256	520

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Asymptotic Complexity

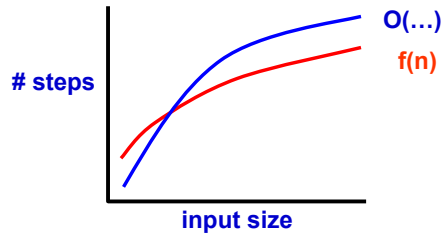
■ Comparing two functions

- n^2 and $2n^2 + 8$ behave similarly
 - Run time roughly increases by 4 as input size doubles
 - Run time increases **quadratically** with input size
- ### ■ For large values of n
- $\text{Time}(2n) / \text{Time}(n)$ approaches 4
- ### ■ Both are $O(n^2)$ programs

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Big-O Notation

- Represents
 - Upper bound on number of steps in algorithm
 - For sufficiently large input size
 - Intrinsic efficiency of algorithm for large inputs



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Formal Definition of Big-O

- Function $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if
 - For some positive constants M, N_0
 - $M \times g(n) \geq f(n)$, for all $n \geq N_0$
- Intuitively
 - For some coefficient M & all data sizes $\geq N_0$
 - $M \times g(n)$ is always greater than $f(n)$

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Big-O Examples

- $5n + 1000 \Rightarrow O(n)$
 - Select $M = 6, N_0 = 1000$
 - For $n \geq 1000$
 - $6n \geq 5n + 1000$ is always true
 - Example \Rightarrow for $n = 1000$
 - $6000 \geq 5000 + 1000$

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Big-O Examples

- $2n^2 + 10n + 1000 \Rightarrow O(n^2)$
 - Select $M = 4, N_0 = 100$
 - For $n \geq 100$
 - $4n^2 \geq 2n^2 + 10n + 1000$ is always true
 - Example \Rightarrow for $n = 100$
 - $40000 \geq 20000 + 1000 + 1000$

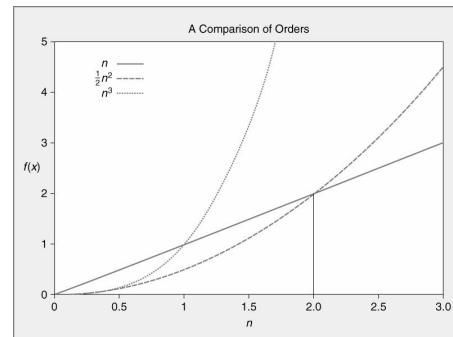
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Observations

- Big O categories
 - $O(\log(n))$
 - $O(n)$
 - $O(n^2)$
- For large values of n
 - Any $O(\log(n))$ algorithm is faster than $O(n)$
 - Any $O(n)$ algorithm is faster than $O(n^2)$
- Asymptotic complexity is fundamental measure of efficiency

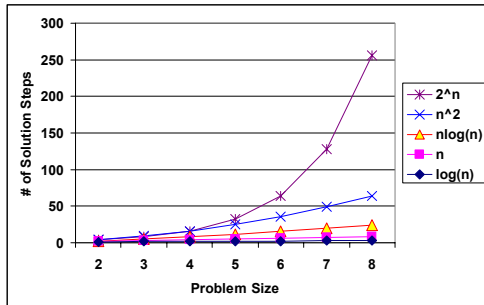
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Comparison of Complexity



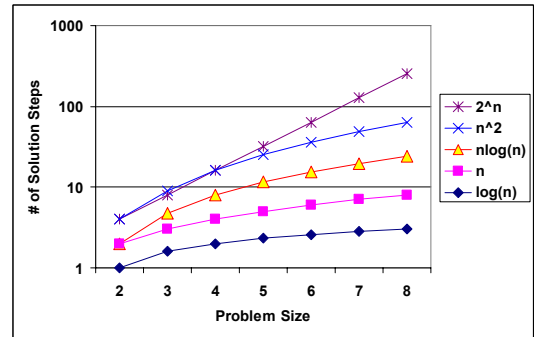
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Complexity Category Example



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Complexity Category Example



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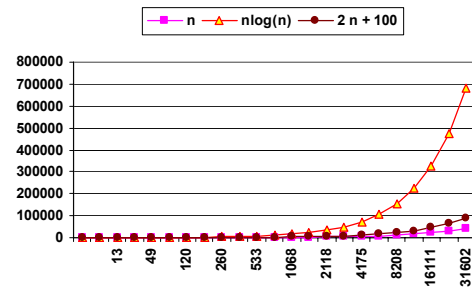
Calculating Asymptotic Complexity

- As n increases
 - Highest complexity term dominates
 - Can ignore lower complexity terms
- Examples
 - $2n + 100 \Rightarrow O(n)$
 - $n \log(n) + 10n \Rightarrow O(n \log(n))$
 - $\frac{1}{2}n^2 + 100n \Rightarrow O(n^2)$
 - $n^3 + 100n^2 \Rightarrow O(n^3)$
 - $\frac{1}{100}2^n + 100n^4 \Rightarrow O(2^n)$

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Complexity Examples

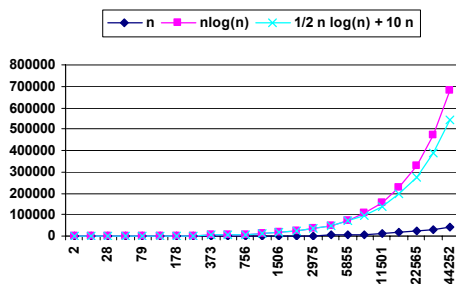
■ $2n + 100 \Rightarrow O(n)$



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Complexity Examples

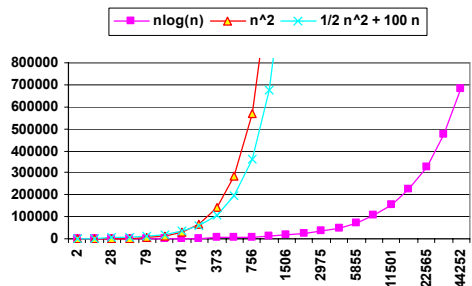
■ $\frac{1}{2}n \log(n) + 10n \Rightarrow O(n \log(n))$



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Complexity Examples

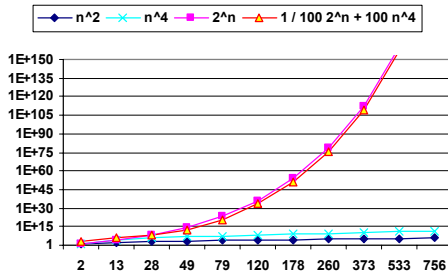
■ $\frac{1}{2}n^2 + 100n \Rightarrow O(n^2)$



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Complexity Examples

- $1/100 \cdot 2^n + 100 \cdot n^4 \Rightarrow O(2^n)$



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Types of Case Analysis

- Can analyze different types (cases) of algorithm behavior
- Types of analysis
 - Best case
 - Worst case
 - Average case
 - Amortized

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Types of Case Analysis

- Best case
 - Smallest number of steps required
 - Not very useful
 - Example \Rightarrow Find item in first place checked

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Types of Case Analysis

- Worst case
 - Largest number of steps required
 - Useful for upper bound on worst performance
 - Real-time applications (e.g., multimedia)
 - Quality of service guarantee
 - Example \Rightarrow Find item in last place checked

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Quicksort Example

- Quicksort
 - One of the fastest comparison sorts
 - Frequently used in practice
- Quicksort algorithm
 - Pick **pivot** value from list
 - Partition list into values smaller & bigger than pivot
 - Recursively sort both lists

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Quicksort Example

- Quicksort properties
 - Average case = $O(n \log(n))$
 - Worst case = $O(n^2)$
 - Pivot \approx smallest / largest value in list
 - Picking from front of nearly sorted list
- Can avoid worst-case behavior
 - Select random pivot value

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Types of Case Analysis

- **Average case**
 - Number of steps required for “typical” case
 - Most useful metric in practice
 - Different approaches
 - Average case
 - Expected case

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Approaches to Average Case

- **Average case**
 - Average over all possible inputs
 - Assumes all inputs have the same probability
 - Example
 - Case 1 = 10 steps, Case 2 = 20 steps
 - Average = 15 steps
- **Expected case**
 - Weighted average over all possible inputs
 - Based on probability of each input
 - Example
 - Case 1 (90%) = 10 steps, Case 2 (10%) = 20 steps
 - Average = 11 steps

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Average Case Example

- **Example problem**
 - Average # of comparisons needed to find a number in the (sorted) array $A[] = \{1, 4, 8, 12, 15\}$ using
 1. Linear search
 - Start from beginning, compare elements one at a time
 2. Binary search
 - Start from middle of array at index k , compare element
 - If not element, repeat for top or bottom half of remaining array depending on whether element is smaller or greater than $A[k]$

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Average Case : Linear Search

- **Algorithm**
 1. Find # of comparisons needed for each case
 - 1 → 1 comparison (1)
 - 4 → 2 comparisons (1, 4)
 - 8 → 3 comparisons (1, 4, 8)
 - 12 → 4 comparisons (1, 4, 8, 12)
 - 15 → 5 comparisons (1, 4, 8, 12, 15)
 2. Calc average = total # of comparisons / # cases
 - Total # comparisons = $1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 = 15$
 - # cases = 5
 - Average = 3 comparisons / number

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Average Case : Binary Search

- **Algorithm**
 1. Find # of comparisons needed for each case
 - 1 → 3 comparisons (8, 4, 1)
 - 4 → 2 comparisons (8, 4)
 - 8 → 1 comparisons (8)
 - 12 → 2 comparisons (8, 12)
 - 15 → 3 comparisons (8, 12, 15)
 2. Calc average = total # of comparisons / # cases
 - Total # comparisons = $3 + 2 + 1 + 2 + 3 = 11$
 - # cases = 5
 - Average = 2.2 comparisons / number

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Average Case Example

- **Example problem 2**
 - Average # of comparisons needed to find a number in a sorted array $A[n]$ of size n using
 1. Linear search
 2. Binary search
 - For simplicity, we assume elements are stored in $A[1] \dots A[n]$

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Average Case : Linear Search

- **Algorithm**
 1. Find # of comparisons needed for each case
 - $A[1] \rightarrow 1$ comparison (A[1])
 - $A[2] \rightarrow 2$ comparisons (A[1], A[2])
 - ...
 - $A[n] \rightarrow n$ comparisons (A[1] ... A[n])
 2. Calc average = total # of comparisons / # cases
 - Total # comparisons = $1 + 2 + \dots + n = \frac{1}{2} n^2 + 1$
 - # cases = n
 - Average $\approx \frac{1}{2} n$ comparisons / number

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Average Case : Binary Search

- **Algorithm**
 1. Find # of comparisons needed for each case
 - $A[n/2] \rightarrow 1$ comp (A[n/2])
 - $A[n/4], A[3n/4] \rightarrow 2$ comps (A[n/2], A[n/4])
 - ...
 - $A[1], A[3] \dots A[n] \rightarrow \log_2(n)$ comparisons (A[n/2], A[n/4], A[n/8]...A[1])
 2. Calc average = total # of comparisons / # cases
 - Total # comparisons = $n/2 * \log_2(n) + n/4 * \log_2(n) - 1 + \dots + 1 = n \log_2(n)$
 - # cases = n
 - Average $\approx \log_2(n)$ comparisons / number

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Amortized Analysis

- **Approach**
 - Applies to worst-case sequences of operations
 - Finds average running time per operation
 - Example
 - Normal case = 10 steps
 - Every 10th case may require 20 steps
 - Amortized time = 11 steps
- **Assumptions**
 - Can predict possible sequence of operations
 - Know when worst-case operations are needed
 - Does not require knowledge of probability

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Amortization Example

- **Adding numbers to end of array of size k**
 - If array is full, allocate new array
 - Allocation cost is $O(\text{size of new array})$
 - Copy over contents of existing array
- **Two approaches**
 - Non-amortized
 - If array is full, allocate new array of size $k+1$
 - Amortized
 - If array is full, allocate new array of size $2k$
 - Compare their allocation cost

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Amortization Example

- **Non-amortized approach**
 - Allocation cost as table grows from 1..n

Size (k)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Cost	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

 - Total cost $\Rightarrow n(n+1)/2$
- **Case analysis**
 - Best case \Rightarrow allocation cost = k
 - Worse case \Rightarrow allocation cost = k
 - Amortized case \Rightarrow allocation cost = $(n+1)/2$

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Amortization Example

- **Amortized approach**
 - Allocation cost as table grows from 1..n

Size (k)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Cost	2	0	4	0	8	0	0	0

 - Total cost $\Rightarrow 2(n-1)$
- **Case analysis**
 - Best case \Rightarrow allocation cost = 0
 - Worse case \Rightarrow allocation cost = $2(k-1)$
 - Amortized case \Rightarrow allocation cost = 2
- **An individual step might take longer, but faster for any sequence of operations**

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