

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**
 - Approach
 - Pick some desired inputs
 - Actually run implementation of algorithm
 - Measure time & space needed
 - **Asymptotic analysis**

Benchmarking

- Advantages

- Precise information for given configuration
 - Implementation, hardware, inputs

- Disadvantages

- Affected by configuration
 - Data sets (often too small)
 - Dataset that was the right size 3 years ago is likely too small now
 - Hardware
 - Software
- Affected by special cases (biased inputs)
- Does not measure **intrinsic** efficiency

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**
 - Programming language, compiler, processor irrelevant

Search Example

- Number guessing game
 - Pick a number between $1 \dots n$
 - Guess a number
 - Repeat guesses until correct number guessed

Linear Search Algorithm

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

Linear Search Algorithm

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

Binary Search Algorithm

- Algorithm
 - Set low and high to be lowest and highest possible value
 - $\text{Guess middle} = (\text{low} + \text{high}) / 2$
 - If too large, set $\text{high} = \text{middle} - 1$
 - If too small, set $\text{low} = \text{middle} + 1$
 - Repeat until guess correct

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!

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

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 $O(\mathbf{n})$ programs
- See slide 27 for comparison of two linear functions

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

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

Asymptotic Complexity

- Comparing two quadratic functions

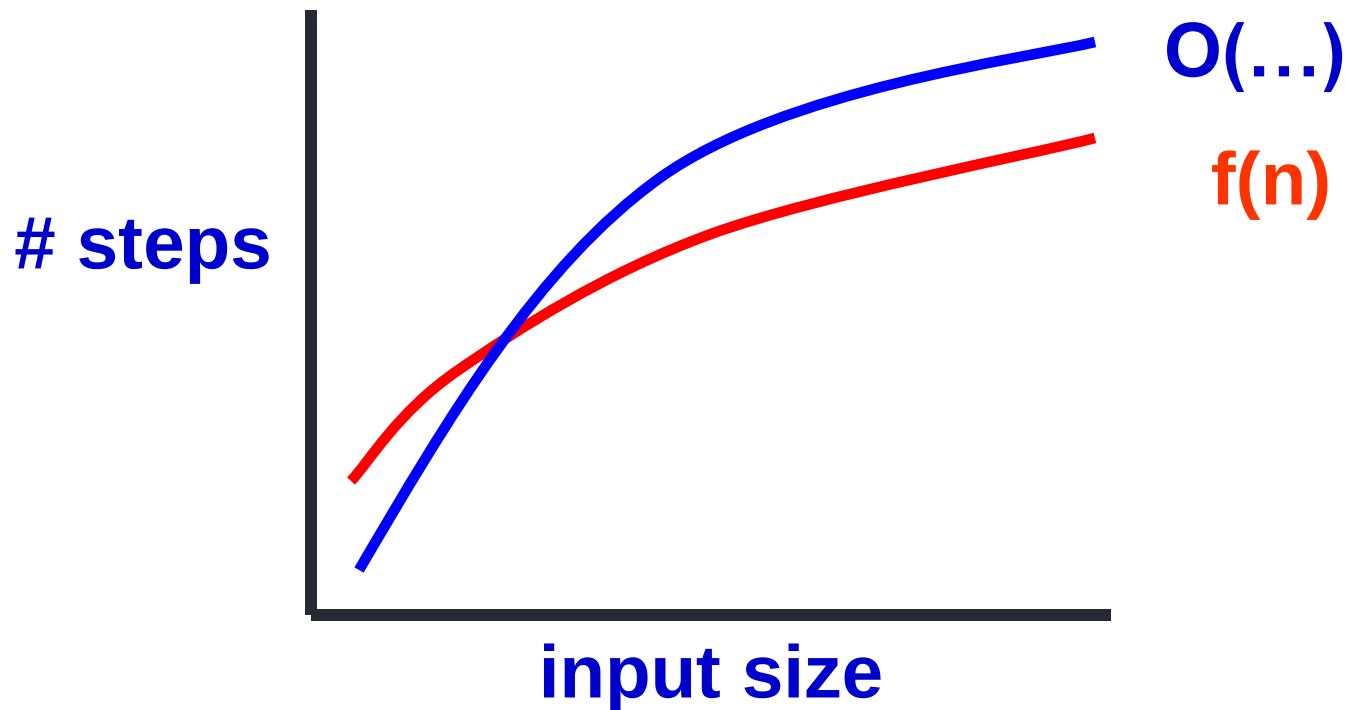
Size	Running Time	
	n^2	$2n^2 + 8$
2	4	16
4	16	40
8	64	132
16	256	520

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

Big-O Notation

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



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 $f(n)$

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 $n = 1000$
 - $6000 \geq 5000 + 1000$

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 $n = 100$
 - $40000 \geq 20000 + 1000 + 1000$

Observations

- 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

Asymptotic Complexity Categories

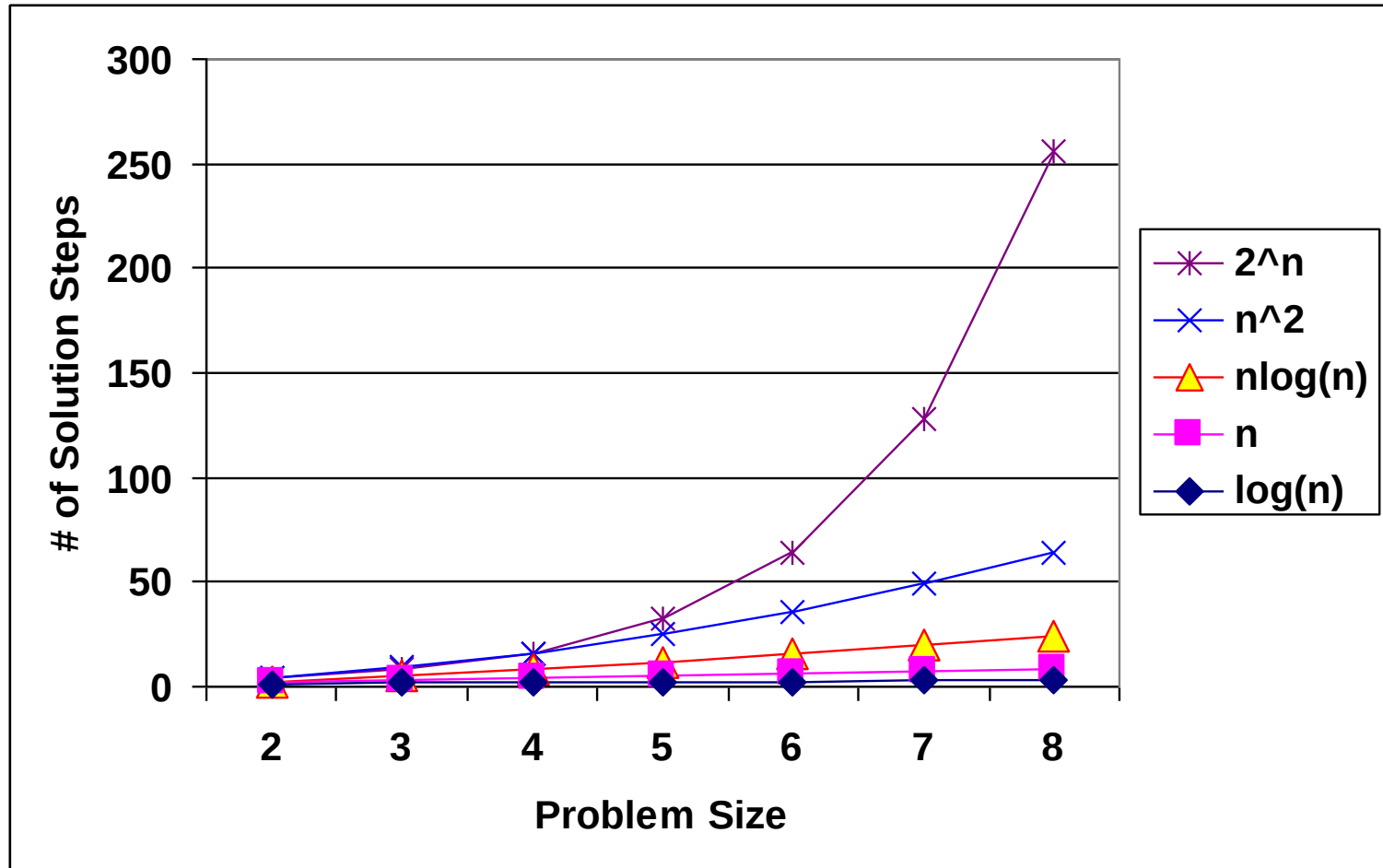
<u>Complexity</u>	<u>Name</u>	<u>Example</u>
• $O(1)$	Constant	Array access
• $O(\log(n))$	Logarithmic	Binary search
• $O(n)$	Linear	Largest element
• $O(n \log(n))$	N log N	Optimal sort
• $O(n^2)$	Quadratic	2D Matrix addition
• $O(n^3)$	Cubic	2D Matrix multiply
• $O(n^k)$	Polynomial	Linear programming
• $O(k^n)$	Exponential	Integer programming
• $O(n!)$	Factorial	Brute-force search TSP
• $O(n^n)$	N to the N	

From smallest to largest, for size n , constant $k > 1$

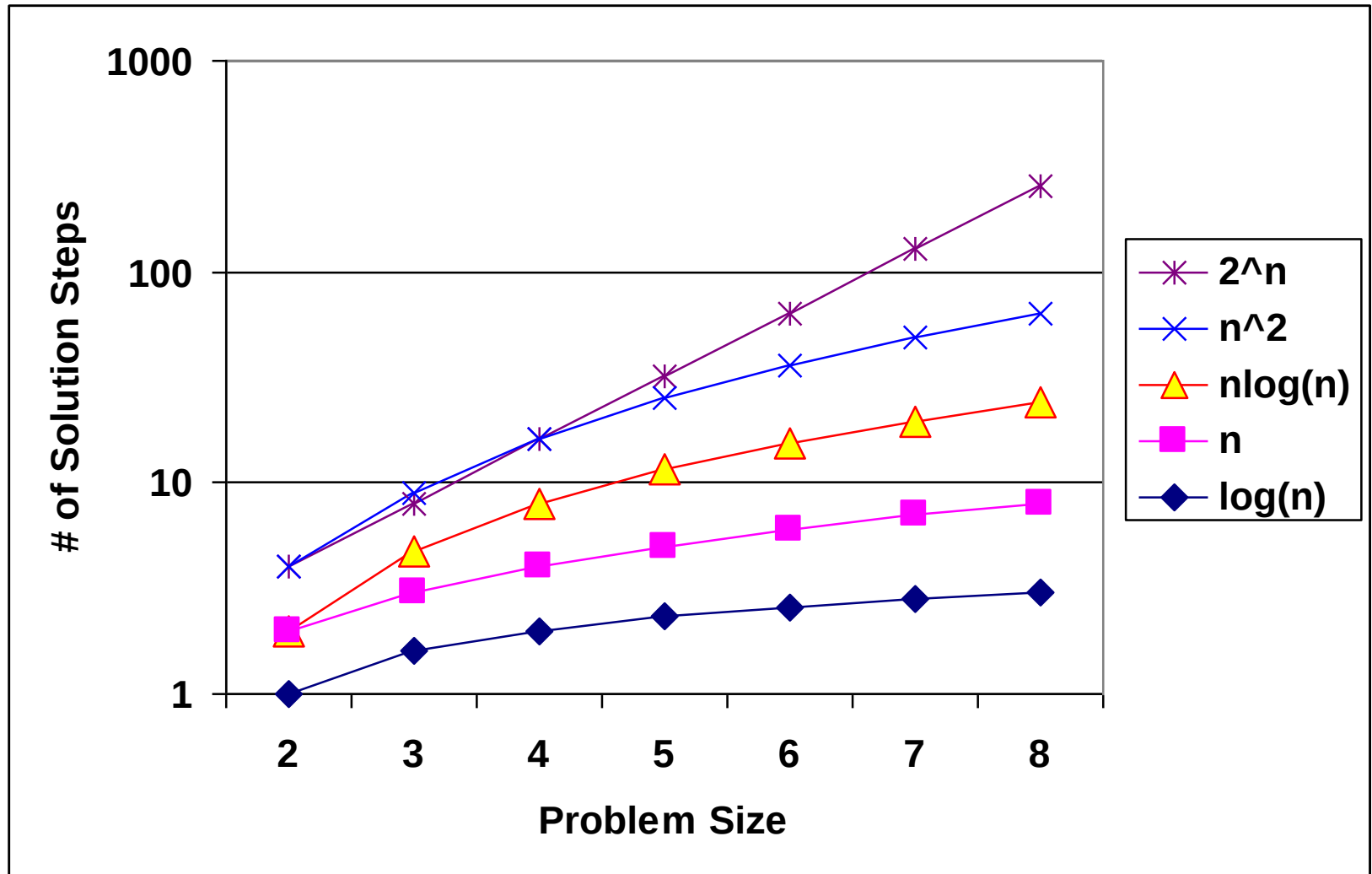
Example of Different Complexities

<http://www.cs.ubc.ca/~harrison/Java/sorting-demo.html>

Complexity Category Example



Complexity Category Example

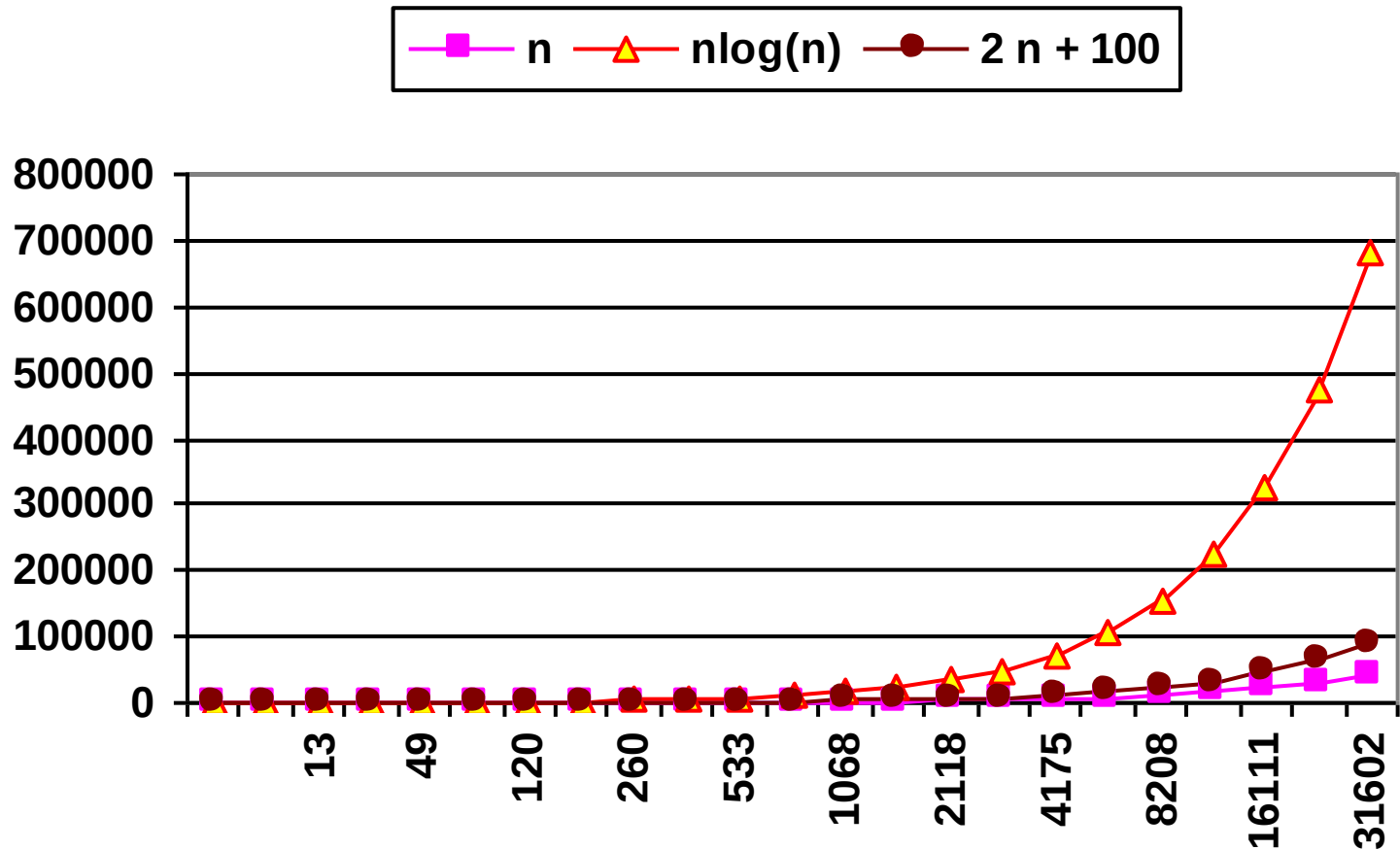


Calculating Asymptotic Complexity

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

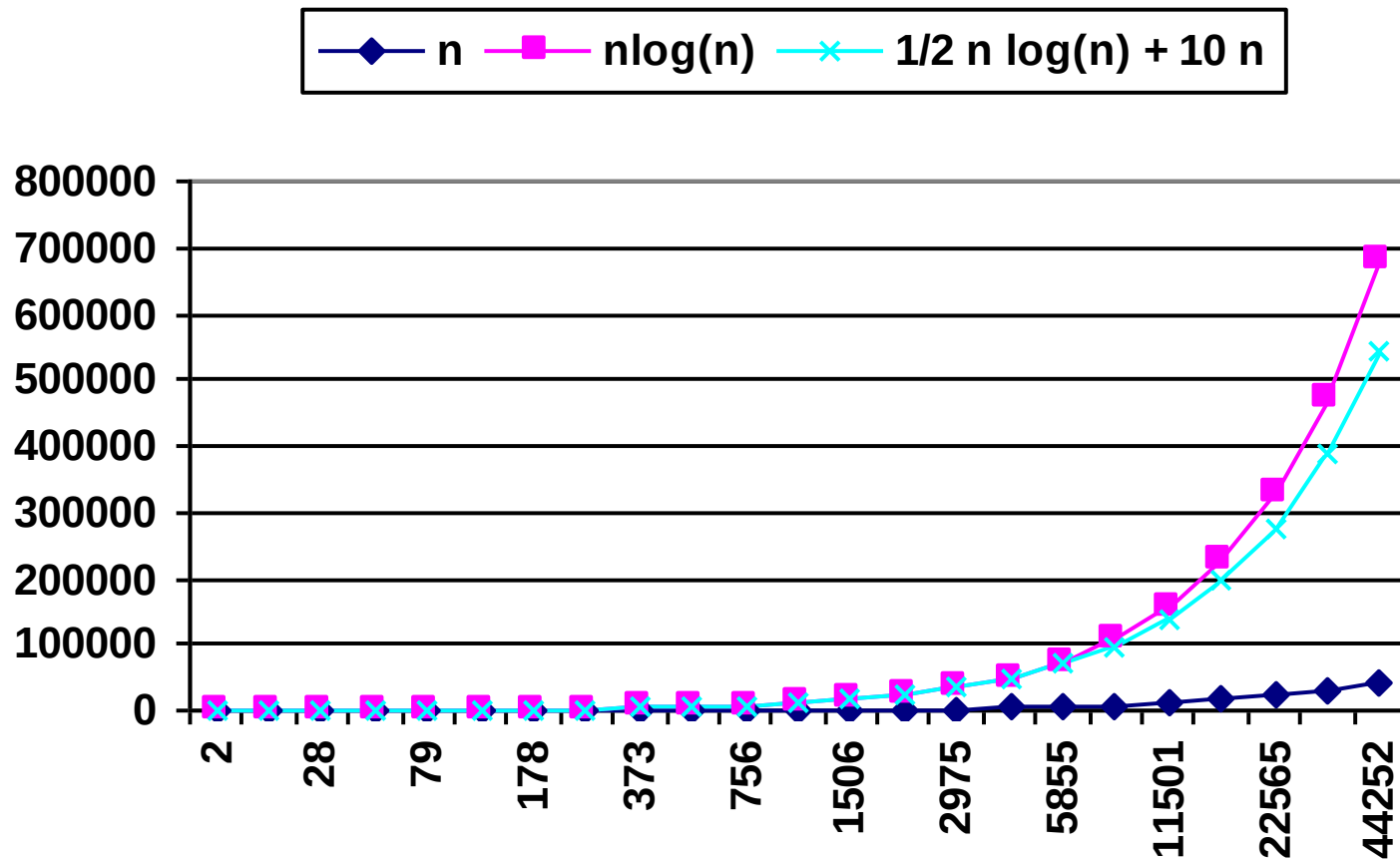
Complexity Examples

- $2n + 100 \Rightarrow O(n)$



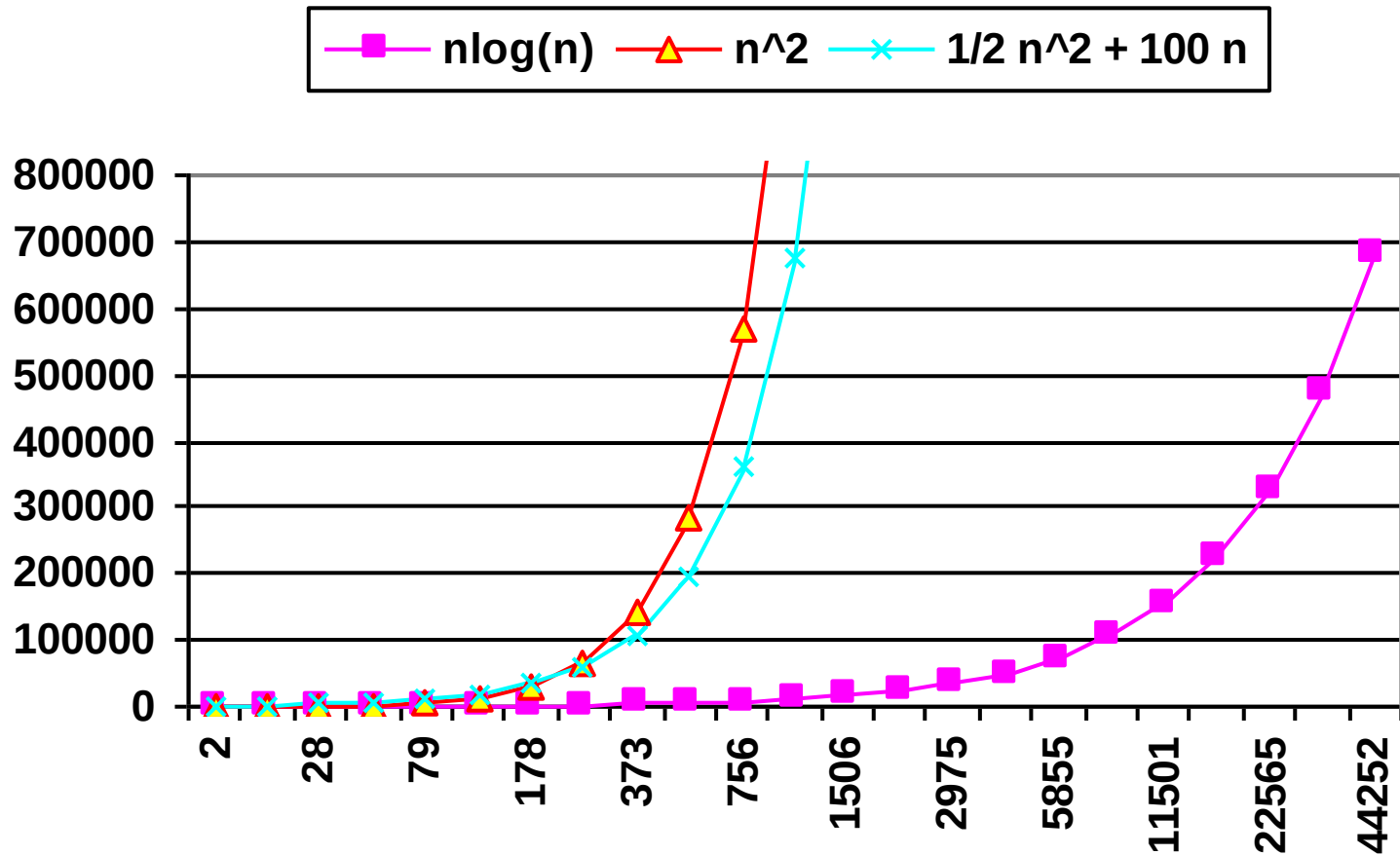
Complexity Examples

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



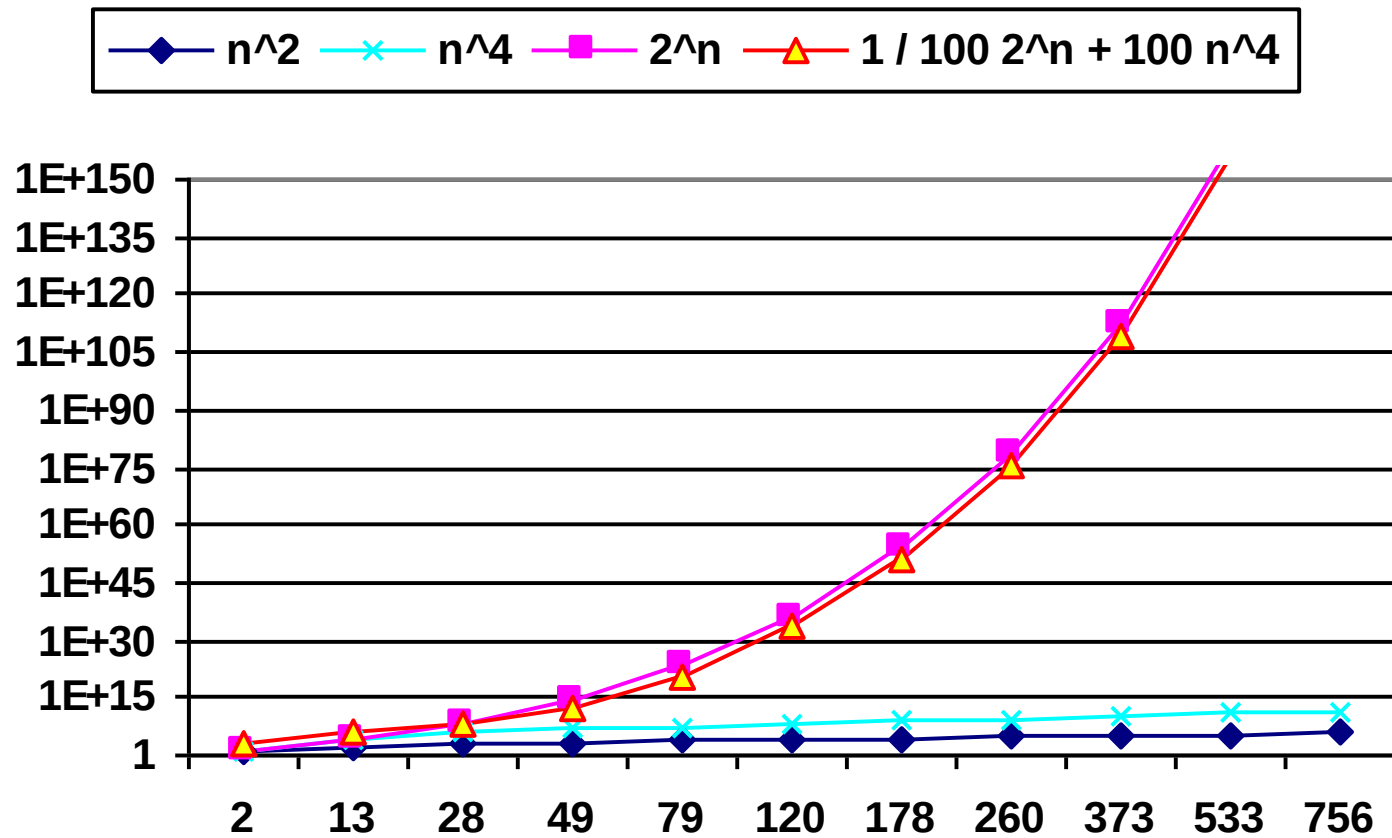
Complexity Examples

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



Complexity Examples

- $\frac{1}{100} 2^n + 100 n^4 \Rightarrow O(2^n)$



Types of Case Analysis

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

Types of Case Analysis (Best/Worst)

- Best case

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

- 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

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
- 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

Types of Case Analysis (Average)

- Average case analysis
 - Number of steps required for “typical” case
 - Most useful metric in practice
 - Different approaches: average case, expected 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

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
- By using amortized analysis we can show the best way to grow an array is by doubling its size (rather than increasing by adding one entry at a time)