

2. Algorithm Analysis

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Why analyzing algorithms?

Precise **assessment** leads to better **understanding**.

- *correctness*
 - theoretical proof
 - practical implementation
- *efficiency*: iterative development
 - computable?
 - what design to choose?
 - any room for improvement? or terminate?

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We focus on the *efficiency* of algorithms now.

Content

- Computational Tractability
- Asymptotic Order of Growth
- Implement Gale–Shapley
- Common Running Times
- Recap: Priority Queue

Computational Tractability

What is “Computational Tractability”

Loosely speaking: delimitate whether a problem can be solved *in practice*.

- usually, relative to current computing power.
 - imagine a cart driven by a motor
- also, contextual tolerance is often a key consideration.
 - e.g., patience of your customer

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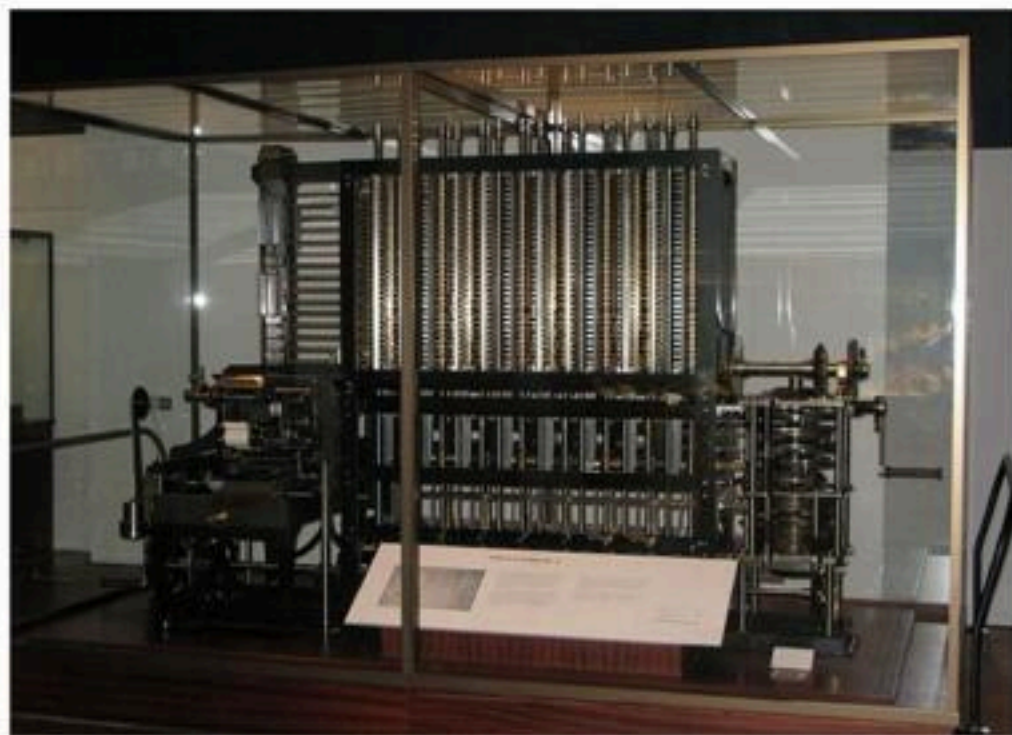
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So **efficiency** is about: resource requirements vs. computational power.

Analytic Engine

“By what course of calculation can these results be arrived at by the machine in the shortest time?” — Charles Babbage (1864)



Modern computing model

Consider a 64-bit system:

- Each **memory cell** stores a 64-bit integer.
- **Primitive operations**: arithmetic/logic operations, read/write memory, array indexing, following a pointer, conditional branch, etc.



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- **Time**: Number of primitive operations, given CPU speed.
- **Space**: Number of memory cells utilized.

How to define efficiency?

Intuition. When implemented, *runs fast and uses few memory* on real inputs.

- what platform? PC, cellphone
- what is a “real” inputs? `struct, int`

We need a measure of algorithm *itself*, rather than external indicators.

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Can we measure efficiency when input number is *fixed* (same PC)?

- equal: count number of operations/cells required *per unit input*.
 - counter-example: print N number pairs vs. N numbers.

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Better measure: How is the algorithm *scale* with problem size.

Scalability

How resource requirements *grow with increasing input size*.

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So we study and compare *growth of functions*.

- **sampling**: measure efficiency at a series of fixed input numbers.
- compare: “standard” behavior among all possible inputs
 - sorting does nothing (thus fast), when input already sorted

Worst-Case Analysis

Worst-Case Running Times: longest possible running time.

- well-accepted standard, but *not perfect*
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Now consider and compare $T(N)$ on worst-cases

- need a *baseline* implementation to mark the worst possibility.

Brute-Force Search

Brute-Force Search: the most natural last-resort solution.

- enumerate all possibilities
 - no use in practice, but usually gives *exact analytical bounds*.
 - Stable matching: test all $n!$ perfect matchings for stability.

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What is “qualitatively better”? Better scalability

- brute-force search usually grow *exponentially fast*
- intuitively, growth rate should be much slower

Polynomial running time

Desirable scaling property. When input size *doubles*, algorithm slow down by at most some multiplicative constant factor C .

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An algorithm is poly-time if the above scaling property holds.

There exist constants $c > 0$ and $d > 0$ such that, for every input of size N , the running time of the algorithm is *bounded above* by cN^d primitive computational steps.

- here $C = 2^d$
- lower-degree polynomials grow slower

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Exceptions: galactic constants and/or huge exponents

- which is better: $20n^{120}$ or $n^{1+0.02 \ln n}$?

Common polynomials

Assume: one million (10^6) high-level instructions per second.

	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	n^3	1.5^n	2^n	$n!$
$n = 10$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	4 sec
$n = 30$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	18 min	10^{25} years
$n = 50$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	11 min	36 years	very long
$n = 100$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	1 sec	12,892 years	10^{17} years	very long
$n = 1,000$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	1 sec	18 min	very long	very long	very long
$n = 10,000$	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	2 min	12 days	very long	very long	very long
$n = 100,000$	< 1 sec	2 sec	3 hours	32 years	very long	very long	very long
$n = 1,000,000$	1 sec	20 sec	12 days	31,710 years	very long	very long	very long

Notice the the huge difference between polynomial and exponential.

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Now we found the way to compare growth of functions.



- compare different *categories* of growth rate

Asymptotic Order of Growth

Asymptotic analysis

Mathematically, asymptotic is used for describing *limiting* behavior.

- rigorous description of scalability: growth rate
- only a coarser level of granularity is necessary
 - Ex. $1.62n^2 + 3.5n + 8$ steps

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Caution. In CS, deal with discrete quantities.

- no such thing as “infinitesimal” in calculus.

Asymptotic Upper Bounds (Big O)

$T(n)$ is $O(f(n))$ (read as “ $T(n)$ is order $f(n)$ ”)

- for sufficiently large n , function $T(n)$ is *bounded above* by a constant multiple of $f(n)$.
- $\exists c > 0, n_0 \geq 0 : \forall n \geq n_0, T(n) \leq cf(n)$.
 - c cannot depend on n .

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Ex. $T(n) = pn^2 + qn + r$:

- $T(n) = pn^2 + qn + r \leq pn^2 + qn^2 + rn^2 = (p + q + r)n^2$
 - $T(n) \leq cn^2 \in O(n^2)$, where $c = p + q + r$.

Big O notational abuses

One-way “equality”. $O(g(n))$ is a *set* of functions.

- $f(n) \in O(g(n))$.
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- $T(n) = pn^2 + q^n + r = O(n^3)$, since $n^2 \leq n^3$.
 - but we cannot say $T(n) = sn^3$.
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Domain and Range. T and f are real-valued functions.

- domain is typically natural numbers: $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- Sometimes extend to the reals: $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- Or restrict to a subset.

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Products. If f_1 is $O(g_1)$ and f_2 is $O(g_2)$, then $f_1 f_2$ is $O(g_1 g_2)$.

Pf.

- $\exists c_1 > 0$ and $n_1 \geq 0$ such that $0 \leq f_1(n) \leq c_1 g_1(n)$ for all $n \geq n_1$.
- $\exists c_2 > 0$ and $n_2 \geq 0$ such that $0 \leq f_2(n) \leq c_2 g_2(n)$ for all $n \geq n_2$.
- Then, $0 \leq f_1(n) f_2(n) \leq c_1 c_2 g_1(n) g_2(n)$ for all $n \geq \max\{n_1, n_2\}$.

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Transitivity. If f is $O(g)$ and g is $O(h)$, then f is $O(h)$.

Ex. $f(n) = 5n^3 + 3n^2 + n + 1234$ is $O(n^3)$.

Asymptotic Lower Bounds (Big Ω)

$T(n)$ is $\Omega(f(n))$ (“ $T(n) = \Omega(f(n))$ ”)

- for sufficiently large n , function $T(n)$ is *at least* a constant multiple of $f(n)$.
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Ex. $T(n) = 32n^2 + 17n + 1$

- $T(n)$ is both $\Omega(n^2)$ and $\Omega(n)$.
- $T(n)$ is not $\Omega(n^3)$.

Asymptotically Tight Bounds (Big Θ)

$T(n)$ is $\Theta(f(n))$ (“ $T(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ ”)

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- $\exists c_1 > 0, c_2 > 0, n_0 \geq 0 : \forall n \geq n_0, 0 \leq c_1 f(n) \leq T(n) \leq c_2 f(n)$.
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Compute: closing *gap* between upper bound and lower bound

- design: a worst-case algorithm as upper bound
 - prove: no better possibilities
- justify asymptotically *tight* bound on worst-case running time

Asymptotic bounds and limits

Proposition. If for some constant $0 < c < \infty$ $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c$ then $f(n)$ is $\Theta(g(n))$

Pf.

- By definition of the limit, $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists n_0 : c - \epsilon \leq \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \leq c + \epsilon, \forall n \geq n_0$.
- Choose $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}c > 0$.
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Asymptotic bounds for common functions

Polynomials. Let $f(n) = a_0 + a_1n + \dots + a_dn^d$ with $a_d > 0$. Then $f(n) = \Theta(n^d)$.

Pf. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_0 + a_1n + \dots + a_dn^d}{n^d} = a_d > 0$

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Logarithms. $\log_a n = \Theta(\log_b n)$ for every $a > 1$ and every $b > 1$.

Pf. $\frac{\log_a n}{\log_b n} = \frac{1}{\log_b a}$.

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Exponentials and polynomials. $n^d = O(r^n)$ for every $r > 1$ and every $d > 0$.

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Factorials. $n! = 2^{\Theta(n \log n)}$.

Pf. Stirling's formula: $n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$.

Big O notation with multiple variables

Upper bounds. $f(m, n) = O(g(m, n))$ if there exist constants $c > 0$, $m_0 \geq 0$, and $n_0 \geq 0$ such that $0 \leq f(m, n) \leq cg(m, n)$ for all $n \geq n_0, m \geq m_0$.

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Ex. $f(m, n) = 32mn^2 + 17mn + 32n^3$.

- $f(m, n)$ is both $O(mn^2 + n^3)$ and $O(mn^3)$.
- $f(m, n)$ is neither $O(n^3)$ nor $O(mn^2)$.
 - $f(m, n)$ is $O(n^3)$ if a precondition to the problem implies $m \leq n$.

Implement Gale–Shapley

Goal: $O(n^2)$ implementation

Compute: closing *gap* between upper bound and lower bound

- design: a worst-case algorithm as upper bound
 - prove: no better possibilities

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Recall: Algorithm terminates in at most n^2 iterations

- worst-case bound: $O(n^2)$
 - **Goal:** find a $O(n^2)$ implementation
 - each iteration takes constant time, ie., $O(1)$
- tightest? discuss later

Recap: Gale–Shapley

INPUT: M, W, R_m, R_w

1. $P = \emptyset$; mark $m \in M$ and $w \in W$ free;
2. WHILE some $m \in M$ is free
 1. w : highest on R_m that m has not yet proposed;
 2. IF w is free
 1. Add (m, w) to P ;
 3. ELSE IF w prefers m to current partner m'
 1. Replace (m', w) with (m, w) , set m' free;
 4. ELSE (Nothing happens.);
3. RETURN P ;

Constant time operations

Goal: the following operations take constant time:

1. identify a *free* m .
2. given m , identify highest-ranked w that m not yet proposed.
3. given w , decide if is *matched*,
 - if so, identify current partner m' .
4. identify which ranks higher for w : m or m' .

Representation 1: next free

List NF containing indices of M (queue or stack also works)

- initialize to n indices
 - initialization: $O(n)$ (is also $O(n^2)$)
- take next free element: $O(1)$
- if replaced, push back: $O(1)$

Representation 2: proposal

Reuse the preference list R_m , only check the head.

- head always has highest-ranked w : $O(1)$
- after taking out w , remove current head: $O(1)$

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If R_m is `constant`, maintain a pointer to next proposal.

- moving pointer to the next: $O(1)$

Representation 3: matching

Index $M, W: \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$.

Matching. Arrays P_m, P_w .

- if m matched to w : $P_m(m) = w, P_w(w) = m$.
 - add/remove matching pair: $O(1)$
- initialize P_m, P_w to 0: unmatched.
 - identify whether `matched`, and to whom: $O(1)$
 - initialization: $O(n)$ ($= O(n^2)$)

Representation 4: compare ranks

So far, operation 1-3 can be implemented in $O(1)$ time.

- now: identify which ranks higher for $w: m$ or m' .

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Naive implementation: walk R_w

- $O(n)$ time to find m and m' on the list
 - breaks our $O(1)$ time goal

Alternative: trade space for time.

Representation 4: compare ranks (cont.)

For each $w \in W$, maintain an array I_w contains the inverse of R_w .

pref[]	1 st	2 nd	3 rd	4 th	5 th	6 th	7 th	8 th
	8	3	7	1	4	5	6	2
	↑							
rank[]	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
	4 th	8 th	2 nd	5 th	6 th	7 th	3 rd	1 st

- for $i = 1$ to n : $I_w[R_w[i]] = i$
 - only need to compare $I_w[m]$ and $I_w[m']$: $O(1)$
- $\Theta(n^2)$ time initialization: iterate for each w .

Gale–Shapley implementation: summary

Theorem. Can implement Gale–Shapley to run in $O(n^2)$ time.

Pf.

- $\Theta(n^2)$ preprocessing time to create n inverse ranking arrays.
- There are $O(n^2)$ proposals; processing each proposal takes $O(1)$ time.

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Conclusion. $GS = \Theta(n^2)$

Common Running Times

Constant time

Constant time. Running time is $O(1)$.

- bounded by constant: not depend on input size n

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Constant time. Running time is $O(1)$.

- bounded by constant: not depend on input size n

Examples.

- Conditional branch.
- Arithmetic/logic operation.
- Declare/initialize a variable.
- Follow a link in a linked list.
- Access element i in an array.
- Compare/exchange two elements in an array.

Linear time

Linear time. Running time is $O(n)$.

- process input in a single pass,
 - spending constant time on each encountered item

Linear time

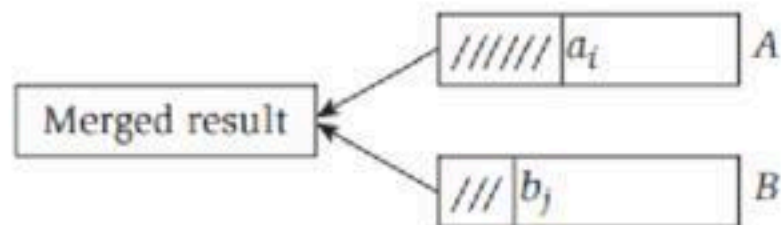
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Computing the Maximum.

Merge two sorted lists. Combine two *sorted* linked lists $A = a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$ and $B = b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$ into a sorted whole.

- at most $2n$ iterations



Quiz: Target-Sum

Target-Sum. Given a *sorted* array of n distinct integers and an integer T , find two that sum to exactly T ?

Hint: move two indices from opposite side towards each other.

Logarithmic time (Sublinear)

Logarithmic time. Running time is $O(\log n)$.

- splits input into two equal-sized pieces,
 - solves each piece recursively,
 - then combines two solutions in *constant time*.
- divide-and-conquer

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Search in a sorted array. Given a sorted array A of n distinct integers and an integer x , find index of x in array.

Binary search.

- Invariant: If x is in the array, then x is in $A[lo..hi]$.
- After k iterations of `WHILE` loop, $(hi - lo + 1) \leq n/2^k \Rightarrow k \leq 1 + \log_2 n$.

Demo: Binary search

Linearithmic time

Linearithmic time. Running time is $O(n \log n)$.

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Sorting. Given an array of n elements, rearrange them in ascending order.

Merge sort

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
M	E	R	G	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
E	M	R	G	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
E	M	G	R	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
E	G	M	R	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
E	G	M	R	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
E	G	M	R	E	O	R	S	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
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E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	E	T	X	A	M	P	L	E
E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	T	X	M	P	L	E
E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	T	X	M	P	E	L
E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	T	X	E	L	M	P
E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	E	L	M	P	T	X
A	E	E	E	E	G	L	M	M	O	P	R	R	S	T	X

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- nested loops: search over all pairs of input items
 - spend constant time per pair.
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Closest pair of points. Given a list of n points in the plane $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$, find the pair that is closest to each other.

$O(n^2)$ **algorithm.** Enumerate all pairs of points (with $i < j$).

Remark. $\Omega(n^2)$ seems inevitable, but this is just an illusion.

Cubic time

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- nested loops: search over all subsets of size 3.
- almost the borderline of practical

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- nested loops: search over all subsets of size 3.
- almost the borderline of practical

3-SUM. Given an array of n distinct integers, find three that sum to 0.

$O(n^3)$ **algorithm.** Enumerate all triples (with $i < j < k$).

Remark. $\Omega(n^3)$ seems inevitable, but $O(n^2)$ is not hard.

Polynomial time

Polynomial time. Running time is $O(n^k)$ for some constant $k > 0$.

- nested loops: search over all subsets of size k .
- computationally too hard to be practical

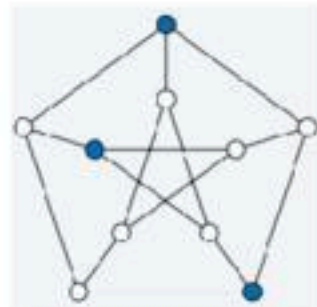
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Independent set of size k . Given a graph, find k nodes such that no two are joined by an edge.

$O(n^k)$ **algorithm.** Enumerate all subsets of k nodes.



- Check whether S is an independent set of size k takes $O(k^2)$ time.
- Number of k -element subsets = $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)\cdots(n-k+1)}{k(k-1)(k-2)\cdots 1} \leq \frac{n^k}{k!}$
- in total: $O(k^2 n^k / k!) = O(n^k)$

Exponential time

Exponential time. Running time is $O(2^{n^k})$ for some constant $k > 0$.

- combinatorial: enumerate all subsets

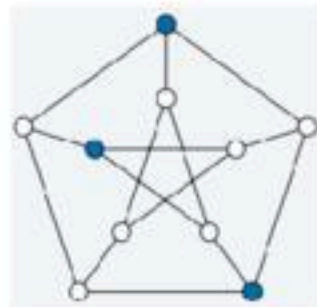
Exponential time

Exponential time. Running time is $O(2^{n^k})$ for some constant $k > 0$.

- combinatorial: enumerate all subsets

Independent set. Given a graph, find independent set of max cardinality.

$O(n^2 2^n)$ **algorithm.** Enumerate all subsets of n elements.



- total number of subsets: 2^n

Quiz: Exponential time

Which is an equivalent definition of exponential time?

- $O(2^n)$.
- $O(2^{cn})$ for some constant $c > 0$.
- Both.
- Neither.

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Neither: take the limit of division.

Recap: Priority Queue

Priority

Primary goal. seek algorithms that improve qualitatively on brute-force search.

- use polynomial-time solvability as concrete formulation
- more complex data structures lead to better performance

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Priority Queue. Each element has a priority value.

- properties
 - always take out the highest-priority element
 - $O(\log n)$ time per operation.
- should be familiar after taking *Data Structure & Operating System*.

Heap

Maintain elements in sorted order of keys.

- alternatives: sorted array, sorted doubly linked list

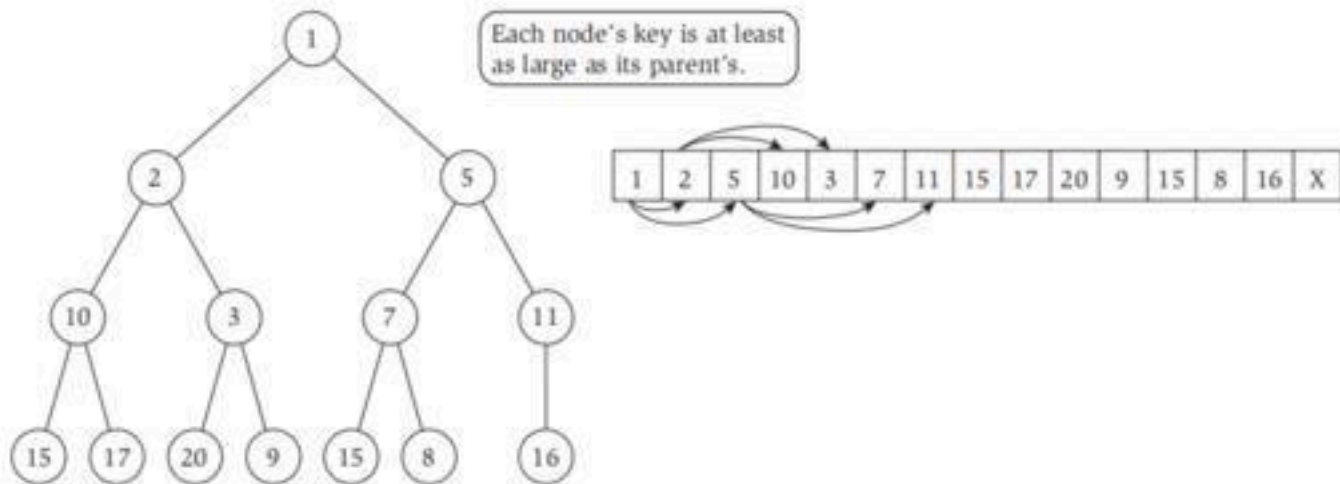
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Conceptually, think heap as *balanced binary tree*

Heap order: For every element v , at a node i , the element w at i 's parent satisfies $key(w) \leq key(v)$.



Heap Operations

Heapify-up: fixing the heap by pushing the damaged part upward.

- insert a new element in a heap of n elements in $O(\log n)$ time.

Heapify-down: proceeds down the tree recursively.

- delete a new element in a heap of n elements in $O(\log n)$ time.

Implementing Priority Queues

- StartHeap(N): $O(n)$
- Insert(H, v): $O(\log n)$
- FindMin(H): $O(1)$
- Delete(H, i): $O(\log n)$
- ExtractMin(H): $O(\log n)$