# Exploring Big-Oh <br> Lecture 01.03 

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## [Big Oh formally]

$f(n)=\boldsymbol{O}(g(n))$ if there are positive constants $n_{0}$ and $c$ such that to the right of $n_{0}$ the value of $f(n)$ always lies on or below $c$. $g(n)$


For Big-O Notation analysis, we care more about the part that grows fastest as the input grows, because everything else is quickly eclipsed as $n$ gets very large

## [Why Big Oh - and not Big Theta]



- Theta represents a tight bound on the performance of the algorithm - it is the best characteristic of the running time.
- BUT: It is not easy to find a single bounding function $g(n)$ that bounds $f(n)$ both from above and from below for all possible inputs:

For example: bubble sort is not always $>=c_{2} n^{2}$, that is $f(n) \neq \Theta\left(n^{2}\right)$

- It is easier to give an upper bound, which might not always be tight, but is easier to find.


## [Big Oh -the rate of growth]

- We use Big O Notation to talk about how quickly the runtime grows
- Big O guarantees that for a given input size $n$ the algorithm never exceeds the value some function on $n$
- Big O bounds the speed of growth from above: so we can say things like the runtime grows "on the order of the size of the input" $(\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$ ) or "on the order of the square of the size of the input" $\left(O\left(\mathrm{n}^{2}\right)\right)$


## Big Oh - in practice

$f(n)=\boldsymbol{O}(g(n))$ if there are positive constants $n_{0}$ and $c$ such that to the right of $n_{0}$ the value of $f(n)$ always lies on or below $c \cdot g(n)$


Big-oh is an upper bound that does two things:

- Removes lower order (ie slower growing) terms.
- Removes constant factors.

Example: Let's show that $f(n)=1 / 2 n^{2}+3 n \leq \mathrm{cn}^{2}$
Divide both sides by $\mathrm{n}^{2}$
$1 / 2+3 / n \leq c$
Then, starting with $\mathrm{n}_{0}=6$ and any $\mathrm{c} \geq 1, \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n}) \leq \mathrm{cn}^{2}$
Let $\mathrm{c}=2$, then $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n})<2 \mathrm{n}^{2}$ for any $\mathrm{n}>6, f(\mathrm{n})=\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{n}^{2}\right)$

## Classifying algorithms with Big-Oh



Doubly-Exponential Functions: $2^{2^{n}}$
Exponential Functions: $2^{n}, 3^{n}, n \cdot 2^{n}$
Polynomial Functions: $n, n^{2}, n^{3}, n^{2} \cdot \log (n), \sqrt{ } n=n^{0.5}$
Logarithmic Functions: $\log (n)=\log _{2}(n), \log _{3}(n)$
Doubly-Logarithmic Functions: $\log \log n=\log _{2}\left(\log _{2}(n)\right)$

## Big Oh matters



| n bytes | $\log \mathrm{n}$ | n | $\mathrm{n}^{2}$ |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 10 B | 1 | 10 | 100 | $\sim 1^{*} 10^{3}$ |
| 100 B | 2 | 100 | 10000 | $\sim 1^{*} 10^{30}$ |
| 1 KB | 3 | 1,000 | 1000000 | $\sim 1^{*} 10^{300}$ |
| 10 KB | 4 | 10,000 | 100000000 | $\sim 1 * 10^{3000}$ |
| 100 KB | 5 | 100,000 | 10000000000 | $\sim 1^{*} 10^{30,000}$ |
| 1 MB | 6 | $1,000,000$ | $1.00 \mathrm{E}+12$ | $\sim 1 * 10^{300,000}$ |
| 10 MB | 7 | $10,000,000$ | $1.00 \mathrm{E}+14$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ |
| 100 MB | 8 | $100,000,000$ | $1.00 \mathrm{E}+16$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ |
| 1 GB | 9 | $1,000,000,000$ | $1.00 \mathrm{E}+18$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ |
| 10 GB | 10 | $10,000,000,000$ | $1.00 \mathrm{E}+20$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ |
| 100 GB | 11 | $100,000,000,000$ | $1.00 \mathrm{E}+22$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ |
| 1 TB | 12 | $1,000,000,000,000$ | $1.00 \mathrm{E}+24$ | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{a}$ |

CPU with a clock speed of 2 gigahertz ( GHz ) can carry out two thousand million ( $\mathbf{2}^{*} \mathbf{1 0}^{\mathbf{9}}$ ) cycles (operations) per second.

- Algorithm which runs in $\mathrm{O}\left(2^{n}\right)$ time will process 1 KB of input in $\sim 10^{22}$ years (more than 7 millenia)
- Processing 1 GB of input will take $<\mathbf{0 . 0 0 1} \mathrm{ms}$ by $\mathrm{O}(\log \mathrm{n})$ algorithm, < 1 sec by $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$ algorithm, and $>32$ years by $\mathrm{O}\left(\mathrm{n}^{2}\right)$ algorithm


## Reasoning about time complexity

- When you intuitively understand an algorithm, the reasoning about the run-time of an algorithm can be done in your head
- But it is usually much easier to estimate complexity given a precise-enough pseudocode


## Big Oh: Multiplication by Constant

Multiplication by a constant does not change Big Oh:

The "old constant" $C$ from the Big Oh becomes $c \cdot C$

$$
\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{c} \cdot \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n})) \rightarrow \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n}))
$$

## Big Oh: Multiplication by Function

- But when both functions in a product depend on $n$, both are important
- This is why the running time of two nested loops is $O\left(n^{2}\right)$.

$$
\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n})) \cdot \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{~g}(\mathrm{n})) \rightarrow \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n}) \cdot \mathrm{g}(\mathrm{n}))
$$

## Loops

The running time of a loop is, at most, the running time of the statements inside the loop (including if tests) multiplied by the number of iterations.

```
m:= 0
for i from 1 to n:
#repeat n times
    m:= m + 2 #constant time c
```

Total time $=$ constant $\mathrm{c} \times \mathrm{n}=\mathrm{c} \mathrm{n}=\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$.

## Nested loops

Analyze from the inside out. Total running time is the product of the sizes of all the loops.
for $i$ from 1 to $n$ : for $j$ from 1 to $n$ : $k:=k+1$
\# outer loop - n times
\# inner loop - n times
\# constant time

Total time $=c \times n \times n=n^{2}=O\left(n^{2}\right)$.

## Consecutive statements

Add the time complexity of each statement.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x:=x+1 \\
& \text { for } i \text { from } 1 \text { to } n: \\
& \quad m:=m+2
\end{aligned}
$$

for $i$ from 1 to $n$ : for $j$ from 1 to $n$ : $\mathrm{k}:=\mathrm{k}+1$
\# constant time
\# executes $n$ times
\# constant time
\# outer loop - $n$ times
\# inner loop - n times
\# constant time

Total time $=c_{0}+c_{1} n+c_{2} n^{2}=O\left(n^{2}\right)$.

## If-then-else statements

Worst-case running time: the test, plus either the then part or the else part (whichever is the larger).
if len(t) = 0: return false
\# test: constant
\# then part: constant c0
else:

```
for n from 0 to len(t): # else part: (c1+c2)*n
        if t[n] = p[n]: # if: c1 + c2 (no else)
        return false
```

    return true
    Total time $=\mathrm{c}_{0}+\left(\mathrm{c}_{1}+\mathrm{c}_{2}\right) * \mathrm{n}=\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{n})$.

## Logarithmic complexity

An algorithm is $O(\log n)$ if it takes a constant time to cut the problem size by a fraction (usually by $1 / 2$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { i:= } \\
& \text { while } i<=n: \\
& \quad i:=i^{*} 2
\end{aligned}
$$

- If we observe carefully, the value of $i$ is doubling every time: Initially $\mathrm{i}=1$, in next step $\mathrm{i}=2$, and in subsequent steps $i=4,8$ and so on


## Logarithmic complexity

An algorithm is $O(\log n)$ if it takes a constant time to cut the problem size by a fraction (usually by $1 / 2$ ).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& i:=1 \\
& \text { while } i<=n: \\
& \quad i:=i^{*} 2
\end{aligned}
$$

- Let us assume that the loop is executing some $k$ times before i becomes > $n$
- At k -th step $2^{\mathrm{k}}=\mathrm{n}$, and at $(k+1)$-th step we come out of the loop
- Taking logarithm on both sides:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \log \left(2^{k}\right)=\log n \\
& k \log 2=\log n \\
& k=\log n
\end{aligned}
$$

## Logarithmic complexity

The same logic holds for the decreasing sequence as well:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{i}:=\mathrm{n} \\
& \text { while } \mathrm{i}>=1: \\
& \quad \mathrm{i}:=\mathrm{i} / 2
\end{aligned}
$$

Example: binary search (finding a word in a sorted list of size $n$ )

- Look at the center point in the sorted list
- Is the word towards the left or right of center?
- Repeat the process with the left or right part of the list until the word is found.


## Commonly used Logarithm Rules

| Rule or special case | Formula |
| :--- | :--- |
| Product | $\log (x y)=\log (x)+\log (\mathrm{y})$ |
| Quotient | $\log (\mathrm{x} / \mathrm{y})=\log (\mathrm{x})-\log (\mathrm{y})$ |
| Log of power | $\log \left(\mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{y}}\right)=\mathrm{ylog}(\mathrm{x})$ |
| Log of one | $\log (1)=\mathrm{o}$ |
| Log reciprocal | $\log (1 / \mathrm{x})=-\log (\mathrm{x})$ |
| Changing base | $\log _{10}(\mathrm{x})=\log _{2}(\mathrm{x}) / \log _{2}(10)$ |



Base of the logarithm does not matter in complexity analysis!

## Commonly used summations

## Arithmetic series

$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k=1+2+\ldots+n=\frac{n(n-1)}{2}=O\left(n^{2}\right)$

## Geometric series

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{k=0}^{n} x^{k}=1+x+x^{2}+\cdots+x^{n}=\frac{x^{n+1}-1}{x-1}=O\left(x^{n+1}-1\right)= \\
& O\left(x^{n}\right), x \neq 1
\end{aligned}
$$

$x$ is a constant, for example 2.
If $x<1$, then the above sum $=1 /(1-x) \leq 2=O(1)$.
Harmonic series
$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k}=1+\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{3} \ldots+\frac{1}{n}=O(\log n)$

## Example: reasoning about complexity

| Algorithm2(n) |
| :--- |
| $\mathrm{i} \leftarrow 1$ |
| $\mathrm{~s} \leftarrow 1$ |
| while $\mathrm{s}<=\mathrm{n}:$ |
| $\mathrm{i} \leftarrow \mathrm{i}+1$ |
| $\mathrm{~s} \leftarrow \mathrm{~s}+\mathrm{i}$ |

- $i$ is going through $1,2,3$...
- Our goal is to determine how many times $i$ should increase until $s$ hits $n$ : let's call this number $k$
- $s$ on the other hand contains a sum of $1+2+3+\ldots k=\mathrm{O}\left(k^{2}\right)$
- So when $k^{2}=n$ the loop stops
- Thus after $k=V n$ steps the algorithm terminates $\rightarrow$ the complexity of the algorithm is $\mathrm{O}(\mathrm{V} n)$


## Real-life performance

- How do we compare algorithms which belong to the same bigOh class?
- Some of them may contain a very large constant: but we already got rid of all constants in our analysis
- Some of the algorithms may use a faulty data structure: an example would be an ancient version of the Sieve of Eratosthenes, where we removed an element from the middle of the list: expensive operation
- The implementation quality and the programming language also matter:
good implementation can make an algorithm run for up to 1000 times faster for the same input
- For these reasons, we run comparative performance tests


## Class activity 4

Big 0

