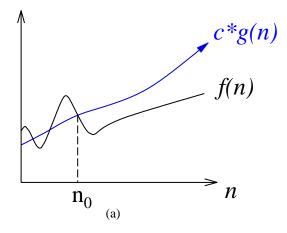
Exploring Big-Oh

Lecture 01.03

by Marina Barsky

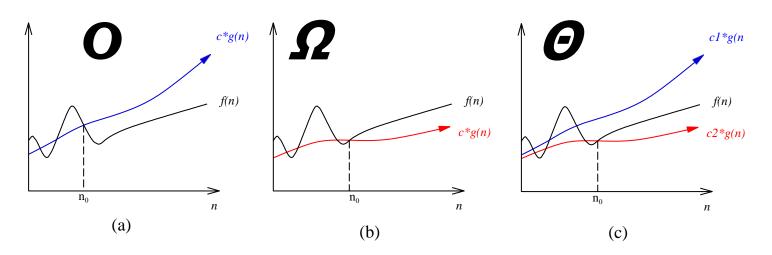
[Big Oh formally]

f(n) = 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 $c \cdot g(n)$



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 $f(n) \neq \Theta(n^2)$

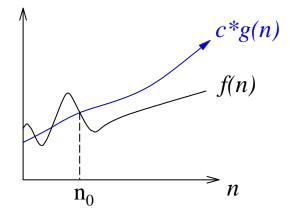
 It is easier to give an upper bound, which might not always be tight, but is easier to find.

[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" (O(n)) or "on the order of the square of the size of the input" (O(n²))

Big Oh – in practice

f(n) = 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 $c \cdot g(n)$

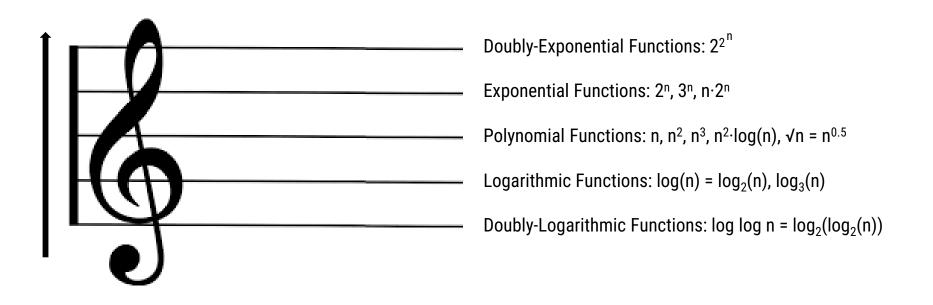


Big-oh is an upper bound that does two things:

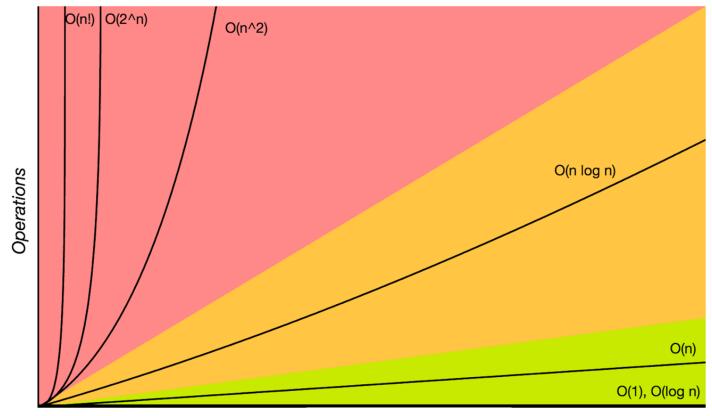
- Removes lower order (ie slower growing) terms.
- Removes constant factors.

Example: Let's show that $f(n) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + 3n \le cn^2$ Divide both sides by n^2 $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{n} \le c$ Then, starting with $n_0=6$ and any $c \ge 1$, $f(n) \le cn^2$ Let c=2, then $f(n) < 2n^2$ for any n>6, $f(n) = O(n^2)$

Classifying algorithms with Big-Oh



Big Oh matters



Input size n

n bytes	log n	n	n ²	2 ⁿ
10 B	1	10	100	~1*10 ³
100 B	2	100	10000	~1*10 ³⁰
1 KB	3	1,000	1000000	~1*10 ³⁰⁰
10 КВ	4	10,000	10000000	~1*10 ³⁰⁰⁰
100 КВ	5	100,000	1000000000	~1*10 ^{30,000}
1 MB	6	1,000,000	1.00E+12	~1*10 ^{300,000}
10 MB	7	10,000,000	1.00E+14	n/a
100 MB	8	100,000,000	1.00E+16	n/a
1 GB	9	1,000,000,000	1.00E+18	n/a
10 GB	10	10,000,000,000	1.00E+20	n/a
100 GB	11	100,000,000,000	1.00E+22	n/a
1 TB	12	1,000,000,000,000	1.00E+24	n/a

CPU with a clock speed of 2 gigahertz (GHz) can carry out two thousand million (**2*10**⁹) cycles (operations) **per second**.

- Algorithm which runs in O(2ⁿ) time will process 1 KB of input in ~10²² years (more than 7 millenia)
- Processing 1 GB of input will take <0.001 ms by O(log n) algorithm, < 1 sec by O(n) algorithm, and >32 years by O(n²) 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 $c \cdot C$

$O(c \cdot f(n)) \rightarrow O(f(n))$

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 $O(n^2)$.

 $O(f(n)) \cdot O(g(n)) \rightarrow O(f(n) \cdot g(n))$

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.

$m := \Theta$	
for i from 1 to n:	<pre>#repeat n times</pre>
m:= m + 2	<pre>#constant time c</pre>

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

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

n: # outer loop - n times 1 to n: # inner loop - n times k:= k+1 # constant time

Total time = $c \times n \times n = cn^2 = O(n^2)$.

Consecutive statements

Add the time complexity of each statement.

x:= x + 1
for i from 1 to n:
 m:= m+2

```
for i from 1 to n:
for j from 1 to n:
k:= k+1
```

- # constant time
- # executes n times
- # constant time
- # outer loop n times
- # inner loop n times
- # constant time

Total time = $c_0 + c_1 n + c_2 n^2 = O(n^2)$.

If-then-else statements

Worst-case running time: the test, plus either the then part or the else part (whichever is the larger).

```
Total time = c_0 + (c_1 + c_2) * n = O(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 $\frac{1}{2}$).

```
i:= 1
while i<=n:
    i:= i*2</pre>
```

 If we observe carefully, the value of *i* is doubling every time: Initially i = 1, in next step 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 $\frac{1}{2}$).

```
i:= 1
while i<=n:
    i:= i*2</pre>
```

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

log(2^k) = log n k log 2 = log n **k = log n**

Logarithmic complexity

The same logic holds for the decreasing sequence as well:

i:= n while i >= 1: i:= i/2

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	$\log(xy) = \log(x) + \log(y)$
Quotient	$\log(x/y) = \log(x) - \log(y)$
Log of power	$log(x^y)=ylog(x)$
Log of one	log(1)=0
Log reciprocal	$\log(1/x) = -\log(x)$
Changing base	$\log_{10}(x) = \log_2(x) / \log_2(10)$

Constant. Base of the logarithm does not matter in complexity analysis!

Commonly used summations

Arithmetic series

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

Geometric series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} x^{k} = 1 + x + x^{2} + \dots + x^{n} = \frac{x^{n+1}-1}{x-1} = O(x^{n+1}-1) = O(x^{n}), x \neq 1$$

x is a constant, for example 2. If x < 1, then the above sum = $1/(1-x) \le 2 = O(1)$.

Harmonic series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{k} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \dots + \frac{1}{n} = O(\log n)$$

Example: reasoning about complexity

Algorithm2(n) $i \leftarrow 1$ $s \leftarrow 1$ while $s \le n$: $i \leftarrow i + 1$ $s \leftarrow s + i$

- *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 + ... k = O(k²)
- So when $k^2 = n$ the loop stops
- Thus after k=√n steps the algorithm terminates → the complexity of the algorithm is O(√n)

Real-life performance

- How do we compare algorithms which belong to the same big-Oh 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 O