

SEARCHING,
SORTING, AND
ASYMPTOTIC COMPLEXITY

Lecture 10
CS2110 – Fall 2015

Merge two adjacent sorted segments

```

/* Sort b[h..k]. Precondition: b[h..t] and b[t+1..k] are sorted. */
public static merge(int[] b, int h, int t, int k) {
}
    
```

Merge two adjacent sorted segments

```

/* Sort b[h..k]. Precondition: b[h..t] and b[t+1..k] are sorted. */
public static merge(int[] b, int h, int t, int k) {
    Copy b[h..t] into another array c;
    Copy values from c and b[t+1..k] in ascending order into b[h..]
}
    
```

c [4 7 7 8 9] We leave you to write this method. Just move values from c and b[t+1..k] into b in the right order, from smallest to largest.

Runs in time linear in size of b[h..k].

Mergesort

```

/** Sort b[h..k] */
public static void mergesort(int[] b, int h, int k) {
    if (size b[h..k] < 2)
        return;
    int t = (h+k)/2;
    mergesort(b, h, t);
    mergesort(b, t+1, k);
    merge(b, h, t, k);
}
    
```

Mergesort

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/** Sort b[h..k] */
public static void mergesort(
    int[] b, int h, int k) {
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    mergesort(b, h, t);
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    merge(b, h, t, k);
}
    
```

Let n = size of b[h..k]

- Merge: time proportional to n
- Depth of recursion: log n
- Can therefore shown (later) that time taken is proportional to n log n
- But space is also proportional to n!

QuickSort versus MergeSort

<pre> /** Sort b[h..k] */ public static void QS (int[] b, int h, int k) { if (k - h < 1) return; int j = partition(b, h, k); QS(b, h, j-1); QS(b, j+1, k); } </pre>	<pre> /** Sort b[h..k] */ public static void MS (int[] b, int h, int k) { if (k - h < 1) return; MS(b, h, (h+k)/2); MS(b, (h+k)/2 + 1, k); merge(b, h, (h+k)/2, k); } </pre>
--	---

One processes the array then recurses.
One recurses then processes the array.

Readings, Homework

- Textbook: Chapter 4
- Homework:
 - Recall our discussion of linked lists and A2.
 - What is the worst case complexity for appending an items on a linked list? For testing to see if the list contains X? What would be the best case complexity for these operations?
 - If we were going to talk about complexity (speed) for operating on a list, which makes more sense: worst-case, average-case, or best-case complexity? Why?

What Makes a Good Algorithm?

Suppose you have two possible algorithms or ADT implementations that do the same thing; which is *better*?

What do we mean by *better*?

- Faster?
- Less space?
- Easier to code?
- Easier to maintain?
- Required for homework?

How do we measure time and space of an algorithm?

Basic Step: One “constant time” operation

Basic step:

- Input/output of scalar value
- Access value of scalar variable, array element, or object field
- assign to variable, array element, or object field
- do one arithmetic or logical operation
- method call (not counting arg evaluation and execution of method body)

- If-statement: number of basic steps on branch that is executed
- Loop: (number of basic steps in loop body) * (number of iterations) –also bookkeeping
- Method: number of basic steps in method body (include steps needed to prepare stack-frame)

Counting basic steps in worst-case execution

Let $n = b.length$

Linear Search

```

/** return true iff v is in b */
static boolean find(int[] b, int v) {
    for (int i = 0; i < b.length; i++) {
        if (b[i] == v) return true;
    }
    return false;
}
    
```

basic step	# times executed
$i = 0;$	1
$i < b.length$	$n+1$
$i++$	n
$b[i] == v$	n
return true	0
return false	1
Total	$3n + 3$

We sometimes simplify counting by counting only important things. Here, it's the number of array element comparisons $b[i] == v$. That's the number of loop iterations: n .

Sample Problem: Searching

Second solution: Binary Search

inv:
 $b[0..h] \leq v < b[k..]$

```

/** b is sorted. Return h satisfying
    b[0..h] <= v < b[h+1..] */
static int bsearch(int[] b, int v) {
    int h = -1;
    int k = b.length;
    while (h+1 != k) {
        int e = (h+k)/2;
        if (b[e] <= v) h = e;
        else k = e;
    }
    return h;
}
    
```

Number of iterations (always the same): $\sim \log b.length$
Therefore, $\log b.length$ array comparisons

What do we want from a definition of “runtime complexity”?

1. Distinguish among cases for large n , not small n
2. Distinguish among important cases, like
 - n^2 basic operations
 - n basic operations
 - $\log n$ basic operations
 - 5 basic operations
3. Don't distinguish among trivially different cases.
 - 5 or 50 operations
 - $n, n+2$, or $4n$ operations

Definition of O(...)

Formal definition: $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there exist constants c and N such that for all $n \geq N$, $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$

Graphical view

N

Get out far enough
-for $n \geq N$ -
 $c \cdot g(n)$ is bigger
than $f(n)$

What do we want from a definition of "runtime complexity"?

Formal definition: $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there exist constants c and N such that for all $n \geq N$, $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$

Roughly, $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ means that $f(n)$ grows like $g(n)$ or slower, to within a constant factor

Prove that $(n^2 + n)$ is $O(n^2)$

Formal definition: $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there exist constants c and N such that for all $n \geq N$, $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$

Example: Prove that $(n^2 + n)$ is $O(n^2)$

Methodology:

Start with $f(n)$ and slowly transform into $c \cdot g(n)$:

- Use = and \leq and $<$ steps
- At appropriate point, can choose N to help calculation
- At appropriate point, can choose c to help calculation

Prove that $(n^2 + n)$ is $O(n^2)$

Formal definition: $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there exist constants c and N such that for all $n \geq N$, $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$

Example: Prove that $(n^2 + n)$ is $O(n^2)$

$f(n)$

= \langle definition of $f(n)\rangle$

$n^2 + n$

\leq \langle for $n \geq 1$, $n \leq n^2\rangle$

$n^2 + n^2$

= \langle arith \rangle

$2 \cdot n^2$

= \langle choose $g(n) = n^2\rangle$

$2 \cdot g(n)$

Choose
 $N = 1$ and $c = 2$

Prove that $100n + \log n$ is $O(n)$

Formal definition: $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$ if there exist constants c and N such that for all $n \geq N$, $f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n)$

$f(n)$

= \langle put in what $f(n)$ is \rangle

$100n + \log n$

\leq \langle We know $\log n \leq n$ for $n \geq 1\rangle$

$100n + n$

= \langle arith \rangle

$101n$

= \langle $g(n) = n\rangle$

$101g(n)$

Choose
 $N = 1$ and $c = 101$

O(...) Examples

Let $f(n) = 3n^2 + 6n - 7$

- $f(n)$ is $O(n^2)$
- $f(n)$ is $O(n^3)$
- $f(n)$ is $O(n^4)$
- ...

$p(n) = 4n \log n + 34n - 89$

- $p(n)$ is $O(n \log n)$
- $p(n)$ is $O(n^2)$

$h(n) = 20 \cdot 2^n + 40n$

$h(n)$ is $O(2^n)$

$a(n) = 34$

- $a(n)$ is $O(1)$

Only the *leading term* (the term that grows most rapidly) matters

If it's $O(n^2)$, it's also $O(n^3)$ etc! However, we always use the smallest one

Problem-size examples

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□ Suppose a computer can execute 1000 operations per second; how large a problem can we solve?

alg	1 second	1 minute	1 hour
$O(n)$	1000	60,000	3,600,000
$O(n \log n)$	140	4893	200,000
$O(n^2)$	31	244	1897
$3n^2$	18	144	1096
$O(n^3)$	10	39	153
$O(2^n)$	9	15	21

Commonly Seen Time Bounds

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$O(1)$	constant	excellent
$O(\log n)$	logarithmic	excellent
$O(n)$	linear	good
$O(n \log n)$	$n \log n$	pretty good
$O(n^2)$	quadratic	OK
$O(n^3)$	cubic	maybe OK
$O(2^n)$	exponential	too slow

Worst-Case/Expected-Case Bounds

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May be difficult to determine time bounds for all imaginable inputs of size n

Simplifying assumption #4:
Determine number of steps for either

- worst-case or
- expected-case or average case

- **Worst-case**
 - Determine how much time is needed for the *worst possible* input of size n
- **Expected-case**
 - Determine how much time is needed *on average* for all inputs of size n

Simplifying Assumptions

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Use the **size** of the input rather than the input itself – n

Count the number of “basic steps” rather than computing exact time

Ignore multiplicative constants and small inputs (order-of, big-O)

Determine number of steps for either

- worst-case
- expected-case

These assumptions allow us to analyze algorithms effectively

Worst-Case Analysis of Searching

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Linear Search
// return true iff v is in b

```
static bool find (int[] b, int v) {
  for (int x : b) {
    if (x == v) return true;
  }
  return false;
}
```

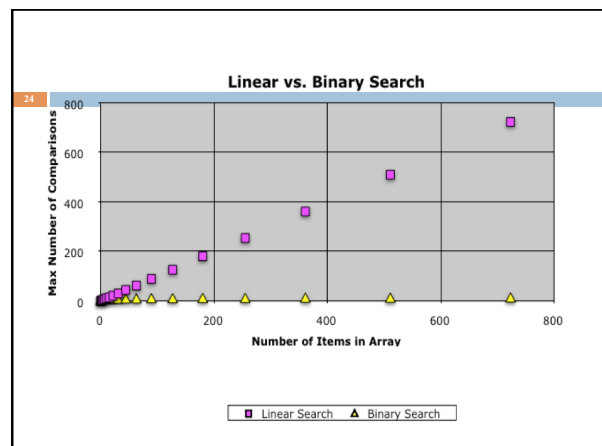
worst-case time: $O(\#b)$
Expected time $O(\#b)$

#b = size of b

Binary Search
// Return h that satisfies
// $b[0..h] \leq v < b[h+1..]$

```
static bool bsearch(int[] b, int v {
  int h = -1; int t = b.length;
  while (h != t - 1) {
    int e = (h + t) / 2;
    if (b[e] <= v) h = e;
    else t = e;
  }
}
```

Always $\sim(\log \#b + 1)$ iterations.
Worst-case and expected times: $O(\log \#b)$



Analysis of Matrix Multiplication

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Multiply n-by-n matrices A and B:

Convention, matrix problems measured in terms of n, the number of rows, columns

- Input size is really $2n^2$, not n
- Worst-case time: $O(n^3)$
- Expected-case time: $O(n^3)$

```

for (i = 0; i < n; i++)
  for (j = 0; j < n; j++) {
    c[i][j] = 0;
    for (k = 0; k < n; k++)
      c[i][j] += a[i][k]*b[k][j];
  }
    
```

Remarks

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Once you get the hang of this, you can quickly zero in on what is relevant for determining asymptotic complexity

- Example: you can usually ignore everything that is not in the innermost loop. Why?

One difficulty:

- Determining runtime for recursive programs
Depends on the depth of recursion

Why bother with runtime analysis?

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Computers so fast that we can do whatever we want using simple algorithms and data structures, right?

Not really – data-structure/algorithm improvements can be a very big win

Scenario:

- A runs in n^2 msec
- A' runs in $n^2/10$ msec
- B runs in $10 n \log n$ msec

Problem of size $n=10^3$

- A: 10^3 sec \approx 17 minutes
- A': 10^2 sec \approx 1.7 minutes
- B: 10^2 sec \approx 1.7 minutes

Problem of size $n=10^6$

- A: 10^9 sec \approx 30 years
- A': 10^8 sec \approx 3 years
- B: $2 \cdot 10^5$ sec \approx 2 days

1 day = 86,400 sec \approx 10^5 sec
1,000 days \approx 3 years

Algorithms for the Human Genome

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Human genome = 3.5 billion nucleotides
 \sim 1 Gb

@1 base-pair instruction/ μ sec

- $n^2 \rightarrow$ 388445 years
- $n \log n \rightarrow$ 30.824 hours
- $n \rightarrow$ 1 hour

Limitations of Runtime Analysis

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Big-O can hide a very large constant

- Example: selection
- Example: small problems

The specific problem you want to solve may not be the worst case

- Example: Simplex method for linear programming

Your program may not run often enough to make analysis worthwhile

- Example: one-shot vs. every day
- You may be analyzing and improving the wrong part of the program
- Very common situation
- Should use profiling tools

What you need to know / be able to do

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- Know the definition of $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$
- Be able to prove that some function $f(n)$ is $O(g(n))$. The simplest way is as done on two slides above.
- Know worst-case and average (expected) case $O(\dots)$ of basic searching/sorting algorithms: linear/binary search, partition alg of quicksort, insertion sort, selection sort, quicksort, merge sort.
- Be able to look at an algorithm and figure out its worst case $O(\dots)$ based on counting basic steps or things like array-element swaps

Lower Bound for Comparison Sorting

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Goal: Determine minimum time required to sort n items

Note: we want *worst-case*, not *best-case* time

- Best-case doesn't tell us much. E.g. Insertion Sort takes $O(n)$ time on already-sorted input
- Want to know *worst-case time for best possible algorithm*

- How can we prove anything about the *best possible algorithm*?
- Want to find characteristics that are common to *all sorting algorithms*
- Limit attention to *comparison-based algorithms* and try to count number of comparisons

Comparison Trees

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- Comparison-based algorithms make decisions based on comparison of data elements
- Gives a *comparison tree*
- If algorithm fails to terminate for some input, comparison tree is infinite
- Height of comparison tree represents *worst-case number of comparisons* for that algorithm
- Can show: Any correct comparison-based algorithm must make at least $n \log n$ comparisons in the worst case

Lower Bound for Comparison Sorting

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- Say we have a correct comparison-based algorithm
- Suppose we want to sort the elements in an array $b[]$
- Assume the elements of $b[]$ are distinct
- Any permutation of the elements is initially possible
- When done, $b[]$ is sorted
- But the algorithm could not have taken the same path in the comparison tree on different input permutations

Lower Bound for Comparison Sorting

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How many input permutations are possible? $n! \sim 2^{n \log n}$

For a comparison-based sorting algorithm to be correct, it must have at least that many leaves in its comparison tree

To have at least $n! \sim 2^{n \log n}$ leaves, it must have height at least $n \log n$ (since it is only binary branching, the number of nodes at most doubles at every depth)

Therefore its longest path must be of length at least $n \log n$, and that is its worst-case running time

Mergesort

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```

/** Sort b[h..k] */
public static mergesort(
    int[] b, int h, int k) {
    if (size b[h..k] < 2)
        return;
    int t = (h+k)/2;
    mergesort(b, h, t);
    mergesort(b, t+1, k);
    merge(b, h, t, k);
}
    
```

Runtime recurrence

- $T(n)$: time to sort array of size n
- $T(1) = 1$
- $T(n) = 2T(n/2) + O(n)$

Can show by induction that $T(n)$ is $O(n \log n)$

Alternatively, can see that $T(n)$ is $O(n \log n)$ by looking at tree of recursive calls