# Lecture 2: Asymptotic Notation

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## **Problem of the Day**

The knapsack problem is as follows: given a set of integers  $S = \{s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_n\}$ , and a given target number T, find a subset of S which adds up exactly to T. For example, within  $S = \{1, 2, 5, 9, 10\}$  there is a subset which adds up to T = 22 but not T = 23.

Find counterexamples to each of the following algorithms for the knapsack problem. That is, give an S and T such that the subset is selected using the algorithm does not leave the knapsack completely full, even though such a solution exists.

## **Solution**

- Put the elements of S in the knapsack in left to right order if they fit, i.e. the first-fit algorithm?
- Put the elements of S in the knapsack from smallest to largest, i.e. the best-fit algorithm?
- Put the elements of S in the knapsack from largest to smallest?

# **The RAM Model of Computation**

Algorithms are an important and durable part of computer science because they can be studied in a machine/language independent way.

This is because we use the RAM model of computation for all our analysis.

- Each "simple" operation (+, -, =, if, call) takes 1 step.
- Loops and subroutine calls are *not* simple operations. They depend upon the size of the data and the contents of a subroutine. "Sort" is not a single step operation.

• Each memory access takes exactly 1 step.

We measure the run time of an algorithm by counting the number of steps.

This model is useful and accurate in the same sense as the flat-earth model (which *is* useful)!

#### **Worst-Case Complexity**

The *worst case complexity* of an algorithm is the function defined by the maximum number of steps taken on any instance of size n.



Problem Size

## **Best-Case and Average-Case Complexity**

The *best case complexity* of an algorithm is the function defined by the minimum number of steps taken on any instance of size n.

The *average-case complexity* of the algorithm is the function defined by an average number of steps taken on any instance of size n.

Each of these complexities defines a numerical function: time vs. size!

## **Our Position on Complexity Analysis**

What would the reasoning be on buying a lottery ticket on the basis of best, worst, and average-case complexity? Generally speaking, we will use the worst-case complexity as our preferred measure of algorithm efficiency. Worst-case analysis is generally easy to do, and "usually" reflects the average case. Assume I am asking for worstcase analysis unless otherwise specified! Randomized algorithms are of growing importance, and require an average-case type analysis to show off their merits.

#### **Exact Analysis is Hard!**

Best, worst, and average case are difficult to deal with because the *precise* function details are very complicated:



It easier to talk about *upper and lower bounds* of the function. Asymptotic notation  $(O, \Theta, \Omega)$  are as well as we can practically deal with complexity functions.

## **Names of Bounding Functions**

- g(n) = O(f(n)) means  $C \times f(n)$  is an upper bound on g(n).
- $g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$  means  $C \times f(n)$  is a *lower bound* on g(n).
- $g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$  means  $C_1 \times f(n)$  is an upper bound on g(n) and  $C_2 \times f(n)$  is a lower bound on g(n).
- $C, C_1$ , and  $C_2$  are all constants independent of n.

#### $O, \Omega, \text{and } \Theta$



The definitions imply a constant  $n_0$  beyond which they are satisfied. We do not care about small values of n.

## **Formal Definitions**

- 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  $c \cdot g(n)$ .
- $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$  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 above  $c \cdot g(n)$ .
- f(n) = Θ(g(n)) if there exist positive constants n<sub>0</sub>, c<sub>1</sub>, and c<sub>2</sub> such that to the right of n<sub>0</sub>, the value of f(n) always lies between c<sub>1</sub> ⋅ g(n) and c<sub>2</sub> ⋅ g(n) inclusive.

#### **Big Oh Examples**

$$3n^{2} - 100n + 6 = O(n^{2}) because \ 3n^{2} > 3n^{2} - 100n + 6$$
  

$$3n^{2} - 100n + 6 = O(n^{3}) because \ .01n^{3} > 3n^{2} - 100n + 6$$
  

$$3n^{2} - 100n + 6 \neq O(n) because \ c \cdot n < 3n^{2} \ when \ n > c$$

Think of the equality as meaning in the set of functions.

#### **Big Omega Examples**

 $3n^{2} - 100n + 6 = \Omega(n^{2}) because 2.99n^{2} < 3n^{2} - 100n + 6$   $3n^{2} - 100n + 6 \neq \Omega(n^{3}) because 3n^{2} - 100n + 6 < n^{3}$  $3n^{2} - 100n + 6 = \Omega(n) because 10^{10^{10}}n < 3n^{2} - 100n + 6$ 

## **Big Theta Examples**

$$3n^{2} - 100n + 6 = \Theta(n^{2}) \text{ because } O \text{ and } \Omega$$
  

$$3n^{2} - 100n + 6 \neq \Theta(n^{3}) \text{ because } O \text{ only}$$
  

$$3n^{2} - 100n + 6 \neq \Theta(n) \text{ because } \Omega \text{ only}$$

## **Big Oh Addition/Subtraction**

Suppose  $f(n) = O(n^2)$  and  $g(n) = O(n^2)$ .

- What do we know about g'(n) = f(n) + g(n)? Adding the bounding constants shows  $g'(n) = O(n^2)$ .
- What do we know about g''(n) = f(n) |g(n)|? Since the bounding constants don't necessary cancel,  $g''(n) = O(n^2)$

We know nothing about the lower bounds on g' and g'' because we know nothing about lower bounds on f and g.