

# Lecture 4: Properties of and Rules for Asymptotic Big-Oh, Big-Omega, and Big-Theta Notation

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COMPSCI 220 Algorithms and Data Structures

## ① Time complexity

## ② Big-Oh rules

Scaling

Transitivity

Rule of sums

Rule of products

Limit rule

## ③ Examples

# Time Complexity of Algorithms

If running time  $T(n)$  is  $O(f(n))$  then the function  $f$  measures time complexity

- Polynomial algorithms:  $T(n)$  is  $O(n^k)$ ;  $k = \text{const.}$
- Exponential algorithm: otherwise

Intractable problem: if no polynomial algorithm is known for its solution

# Time Complexity Growth

$f(n)$	Approximate number of data items processed per:			
	1 minute	1 day	1 year	1 century
$n$	10	14,400	$5.3 \times 10^6$	$5.3 \times 10^8$
$n \log_{10} n$	10	4,000	$8.8 \times 10^5$	$6.7 \times 10^7$
$n^{1.5}$	10	$1.3 \times 10^3$	$6.5 \times 10^4$	$1.4 \times 10^6$
$n^2$	10	380	$7.3 \times 10^3$	$7.3 \times 10^4$
$n^3$	10	110	810	$3.7 \times 10^3$
$2^n$	10	20	29	35

## Beware Exponential Complexity!

- A linear,  $O(n)$ , algorithm processing 10 items per minute, can process  $1.4 \times 10^4$  items per day,  $5.3 \times 10^6$  items per year, and  $5.3 \times 10^8$  items per century.
- An exponential,  $O(2^n)$ , algorithm processing 10 items per minute, can process only 20 items per day and only 35 items per century...

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- An exponential,  $O(2^n)$ , algorithm processing **10** items per minute, can process only **20** items per day and only **35** items per century...

# Big-Oh vs. Actual Running Time

## Example 1:

Algorithms  $A$  and  $B$  with running times  $T_A(n) = 20n$  time units and  $T_B(n) = 0.1n \log_2 n$  time units, respectively.

- In the “Big-Oh” sense, the linear algorithm  $A$  is better than the linearithmic algorithm  $B$ ...
- **But:** on which data volume can  $A$  outperform  $B$ , i.e. for which value  $n$  the running time for  $A$  is less than for  $B$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} T_A(n) < T_B(n) & \text{ if } 20n < 0.1n \log_2 n, \\ \text{or } \log_2 n > 200, & \text{ that is, when } n > 2^{200} \approx 10^{60}! \end{aligned}$$

Thus, in all practical cases the algorithm  $B$  is better than  $A$ ...

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## Example 2:

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- In the “Big-Oh” sense, the linear algorithm  $A$  is better than the quadratic algorithm  $B$ ...
- **But:** on which data volume can  $A$  outperform  $B$ , i.e. for which value  $n$  the running time for  $A$  is less than for  $B$ ?

$$T_A(n) < T_B(n) \text{ if } 20n < 0.1n^2, \text{ or } n > 200$$

Thus the algorithm  $A$  is better than  $B$  in most of practical cases except for  $n < 200$  when  $B$  becomes faster...

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# Big-Oh: Scaling

## Scaling (Lemma 1.15; p.15)

For all constant factors  $c > 0$ , the function  $cf(n)$  is  $O(f(n))$ , or in shorthand notation  $cf$  is  $O(f)$ .

**The proof:**  $cf(n) < (c + \varepsilon)f(n)$  holds for all  $n > 0$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

- Constant factors are ignored.
- Only the powers and functions of  $n$  should be exploited

It is this ignoring of constant factors that motivates for such a notation! In particular,  $f$  is  $O(f)$ .

$$\text{Examples: } \begin{cases} 50n \in O(n) & 0.05n \in O(n) \\ 50,000,000n \in O(n) & 0.0000005n \in O(n) \end{cases}$$



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

Informally: if  $h$  grows at most as fast as  $g$ , which grows at most as fast as  $f$ , then  $h$  grows at most as fast as  $f$ .

$$\text{Examples: } \left\{ \begin{array}{lll} h \in O(g); & g \in O(n^2) & \rightarrow h \in O(n^2) \\ \log_{10} n \in O(n^{0.01}); & n^{0.01} \in O(n) & \rightarrow \log_{10} n \in O(n) \\ 2^n \in O(3^n); & n^{50} \in O(2^n) & \rightarrow n^{50} \in O(3^n) \end{array} \right.$$

**The proof:** If  $h(n) \leq c_1 g(n)$  for  $n > n_1$  and  $g(n) \leq c_2 f(n)$  for  $n > n_2$ , then  $h(n) \leq \underbrace{c_1 c_2}_c f(n)$  for  $n > \underbrace{\max\{n_1, n_2\}}_{n_0}$ .

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# Big-Oh: Rule of Sums

## Rule-of-sums (Lemma 1.17; p.15)

If  $g_1 \in O(f_1)$  and  $g_2 \in O(f_2)$ , then  $g_1 + g_2 \in O(\max\{f_1, f_2\})$ .

The sum grows as its fastest-growing term:

- If  $g \in O(f)$  and  $h \in O(f)$ , then  $g + h \in O(f)$ .
- If  $g \in O(f)$ , then  $g + f \in O(f)$ .

Examples:

$$\begin{cases} \text{If } h \in O(n) & \text{and } g \in O(n^2), & \text{then } g + h \in O(n^2) \\ \text{If } h \in O(n \log n) & \text{and } g \in O(n), & \text{then } g + h \in O(n \log n) \end{cases}$$

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$$\underbrace{2 \cdot \max\{c_1, c_2\}}_c \cdot \max\{f_1(n), f_2(n)\} \text{ for } n > \underbrace{\max\{n_1, n_2\}}_{n_0}.$$

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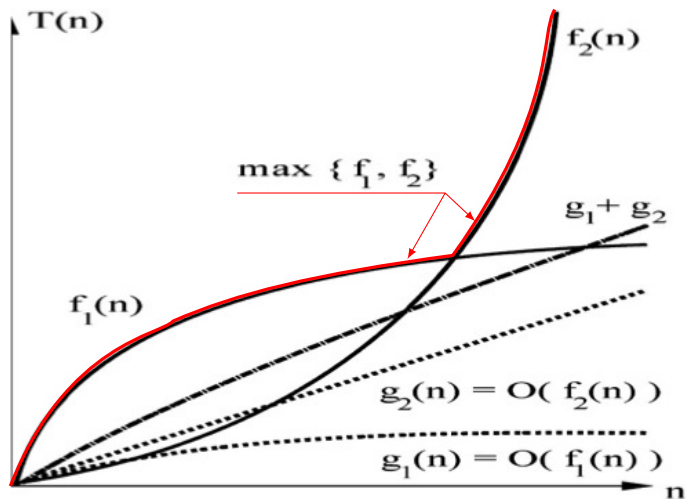
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## Big-Oh: Rule of Products

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If  $g_1 \in O(f_1)$  and  $g_2 \in O(f_2)$ , then  $g_1g_2 \in O(f_1f_2)$ .

The product of upper bounds of functions gives an upper bound for the product of the functions:

- If  $g \in O(f)$  and  $h \in O(f)$ , then  $gh \in O(f^2)$ .
- If  $g \in O(f)$ , then  $gh \in O(fh)$ .

Examples:

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# Big-Oh: The Limit Rule

Suppose the ratio's limit  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = L$  exists (may be infinite,  $\infty$ ).

$$\text{Then } \begin{cases} \text{if } L = 0 & \text{then } f \in O(g) \\ \text{if } 0 < L < \infty & \text{then } f \in \Theta(g) \\ \text{if } L = \infty & \text{then } f \in \Omega(g) \end{cases}$$

When  $f$  and  $g$  are positive and differentiable functions for  $x > 0$ , but  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = \infty$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = 0$ , the limit  $L$  can be computed using the standard **L'Hopital** rule of calculus:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

where  $z'(x)$  denotes the first derivative of the function  $z(x)$ .

## Examples 1.22 and 1.23 (Textbook, p.16)

**Example 1.22:** Exponential functions grow faster than powers:  
 $n^k$  is  $O(b^n)$  for all  $b > 1$ ,  $n > 1$ , and  $k \geq 0$ .

Proof: by induction or by the limit rule (the L'Hopital approach):

Successive ( $k$  times) differentiation of  $n^k$  and  $b^n$  by  $n$ :

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^k}{b^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k n^{k-1}}{b^n \ln b} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k(k-1)n^{k-2}}{b^n (\ln b)^2} = \dots = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{k!}{b^n (\ln b)^k} = 0.$$

**Example 1.23:** Logarithmic functions grow slower than powers:  
 $\log_b n$  is  $O(n^k)$  for all  $b > 1$ ,  $k > 0$ .

Proof: This is the inverse of the preceding feature.

As a result,  $\log n \in O(n)$  and  $n \log n \in O(n^2)$ .

$\log_b n$  is  $O(\log n)$  for all  $b > 1$  because  $\log_b n = \log_b a \times \log_a n$

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