

Module 1:

Asymptotic Time Complexity

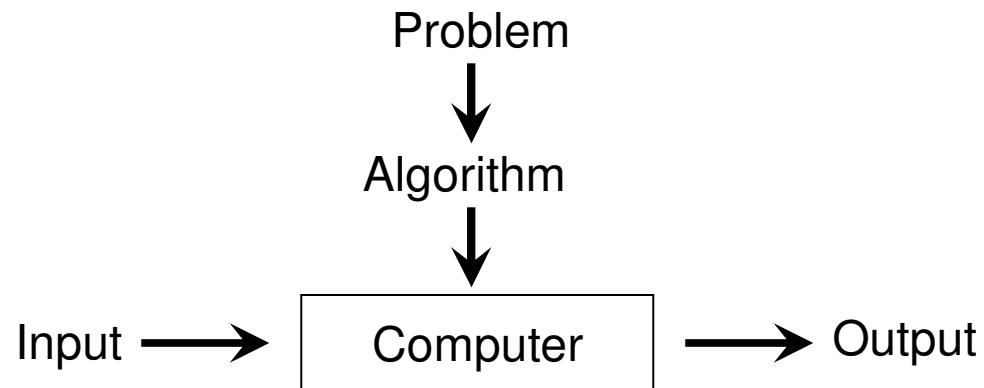
Intro to Abstract Data Types

C++ Review

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What is an Algorithm?

- An algorithm is a sequence of unambiguous instructions for solving a problem, i.e., for obtaining a required output for any legitimate input in a finite amount of time.



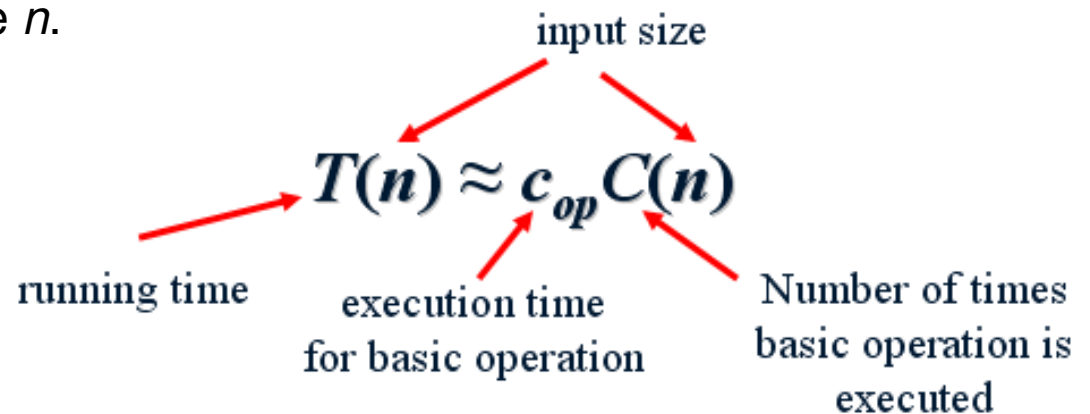
- Important Points about Algorithms
 - The non-ambiguity requirement for each step of an algorithm cannot be compromised
 - The range of inputs for which an algorithm works has to be specified carefully.
 - The same algorithm can be represented in several different ways
 - There may exist several algorithms for solving the same problem.
 - Can be based on very different ideas and can solve the problem with dramatically different speeds

The Analysis Framework

- **Time efficiency (time complexity):** indicates how fast an algorithm runs
 - The time complexity of an algorithm is typically represented as a function of the input size
 - E.g., sorting an array of 'n' integers, traversing a graph of 'V' vertices and 'E' edges
 - If the input is just one element, the time complexity is represented as function of the number of bits needed to represent the input.
 - E.g., $\log(n)$ to determine whether an integer 'n' is prime or not.
- **Space efficiency (space complexity):** refers to the amount of memory units required by the algorithm in addition to the space needed for its input and output
- Algorithms whose space complexity does not increase with input size (i.e., requires the same additional space irrespective of input size) are said to be ***in-place*** $[\log_2 n]$

Units for Measuring Running Time

- The running time of an algorithm is to be measured with a unit that is independent of the extraneous factors like the processor speed, quality of implementation, compiler and etc.
 - At the same time, it is not practical as well as not needed to count the number of times, each operation of an algorithm is performed.
- Basic Operation: The operation contributing the most to the total running time of an algorithm.
 - It is typically the most time consuming operation in the algorithm's innermost loop.
 - **Examples:** Key comparison operation; arithmetic operation (division being the most time-consuming, followed by multiplication)
 - We will count the number of times the algorithm's basic operation is executed on inputs of size n .



Examples to Illustrate Basic Operations

- Sequential key search
 - Inputs: Array $A[0\dots n-1]$, Search Key K
 - Begin
 - for ($i = 0$ to $n-1$) do
 - if ($A[i] == K$) then
 - return “Key K found at index i ”
 - end for
 - return “Key K not found!!”
- End

Best Case: 1 comparison
Worst Case: ‘n’ comparisons

- Finding the Maximum Integer in an Array
 - Input: Array $A[0\dots n-1]$
 - Begin
 - Max = $A[0]$
 - for ($i = 1$ to $n-1$) do
 - if ($Max < A[i]$) then
 - Max = $A[i]$
 - end for
 - return Max
- End

Best Case: $n-1$ comparisons
Worst Case: $n-1$ comparisons

Note: Average Case number of Basic operations is the expected number of basic operations considered as a random variable under some assumption about the probability distribution of all possible inputs

Why Time Complexity is important?

Motivating Example

- An integer 'n' is prime if it is divisible (i.e., the remainder is 0) only by 1 and itself.

- Algorithm A (naïve)

```
Input n
Begin
  for i = 2 to n-1
    if (n mod i == 0)
      return "n is not prime"
    end if
  end for
  "return n is prime"
End
```

Best-case: 1 division

Worst-case: $(n-1) - 2 + 1$

= n-2 divisions

For larger n: $\approx n$

- Algorithm B (optimal)

```
Input n
Begin
  for i = 2 to  $\sqrt{n}$ 
    if (n mod i == 0)
      return "n is not prime"
    end if
  end for
  "return n is prime"
End
```

Best-case: 1 division

Worst-case: $\sqrt{n} - 2 + 1$

= $\sqrt{n} - 1$ divisions

For larger n: \sqrt{n}

Comparison of 'n' and ' \sqrt{n} '

| Input size (n) | Algorithm A (n) | Algorithm B(\sqrt{n}) |
|----------------|-----------------|---------------------------|
| 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 10 | 10 | 3.16 |
| 100 | 100 | 10 |
| 1000 | 1000 | 31.62 |
| 10000 | 10000 | 100 |
| 100000 | 100000 | 316.23 |
| 1000000 | 1000000 | 1000 |
| 10000000 | 10000000 | 3162.28 |

Orders of Growth

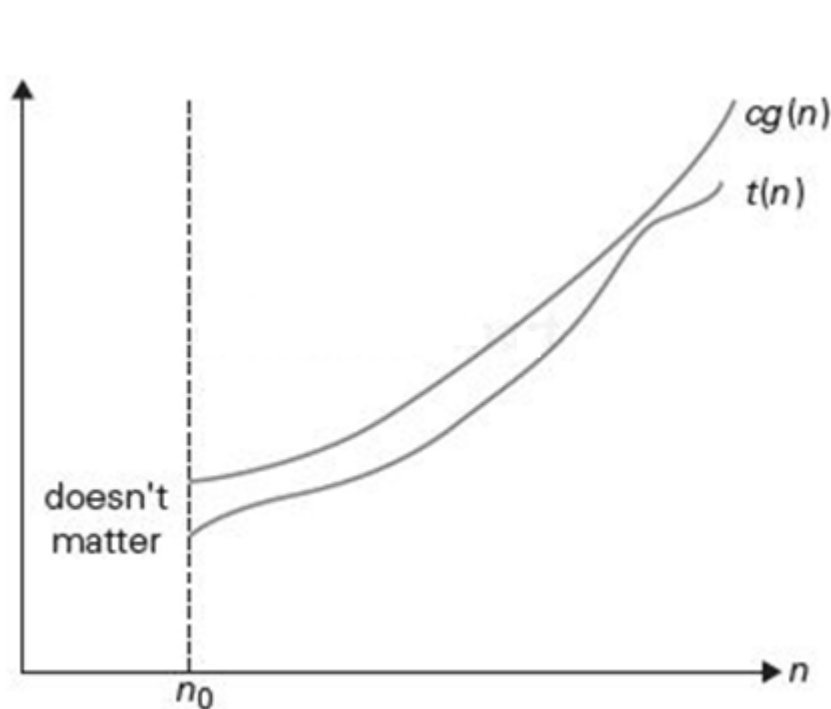
- We are more interested in the order of growth on the number of times the basic operation is executed on the input size of an algorithm.
- Because, for smaller inputs, it is difficult to distinguish efficient algorithms vs. inefficient ones.
- For example, if the number of basic operations of two algorithms to solve a particular problem are n and n^2 respectively, then
 - if $n = 3$, then we may say there is not much difference between requiring 3 basic operations and 9 basic operations and the two algorithms have about the same running time.
 - On the other hand, if $n = 10000$, then it does makes a difference whether the number of times the basic operation is executed is n or n^2 .

| n | $\log_2 n$ | n | $n \log_2 n$ | n^2 | n^3 | 2^n | $n!$ |
|--------|------------|--------|------------------|-----------|-----------|---------------------|----------------------|
| 10 | 3.3 | 10^1 | $3.3 \cdot 10^1$ | 10^2 | 10^3 | 10^3 | $3.6 \cdot 10^6$ |
| 10^2 | 6.6 | 10^2 | $6.6 \cdot 10^2$ | 10^4 | 10^6 | $1.3 \cdot 10^{30}$ | $9.3 \cdot 10^{157}$ |
| 10^3 | 10 | 10^3 | $1.0 \cdot 10^4$ | 10^6 | 10^9 | | |
| 10^4 | 13 | 10^4 | $1.3 \cdot 10^5$ | 10^8 | 10^{12} | | |
| 10^5 | 17 | 10^5 | $1.7 \cdot 10^6$ | 10^{10} | 10^{15} | | |
| 10^6 | 20 | 10^6 | $2.0 \cdot 10^7$ | 10^{12} | 10^{18} | | |

Exponential-growth functions

Source: Table 2.1
From Levitin, 3rd ed.

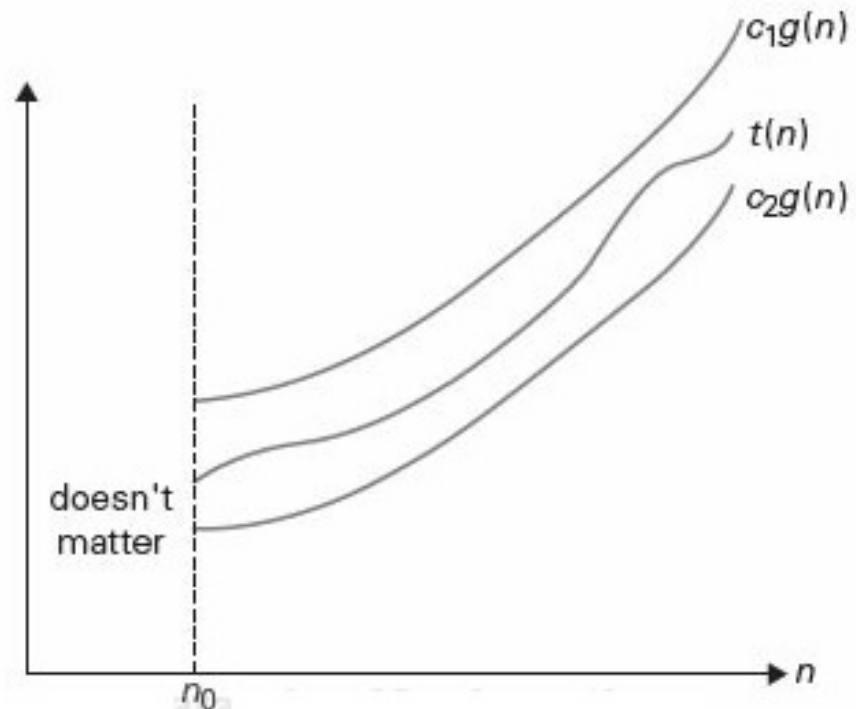
Asymptotic Notations: Formal Intro



$$t(n) = O(g(n))$$

$$t(n) \leq c \cdot g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

c is a positive constant (> 0)
and n_0 is a non-negative integer



$$t(n) = \Theta(g(n))$$

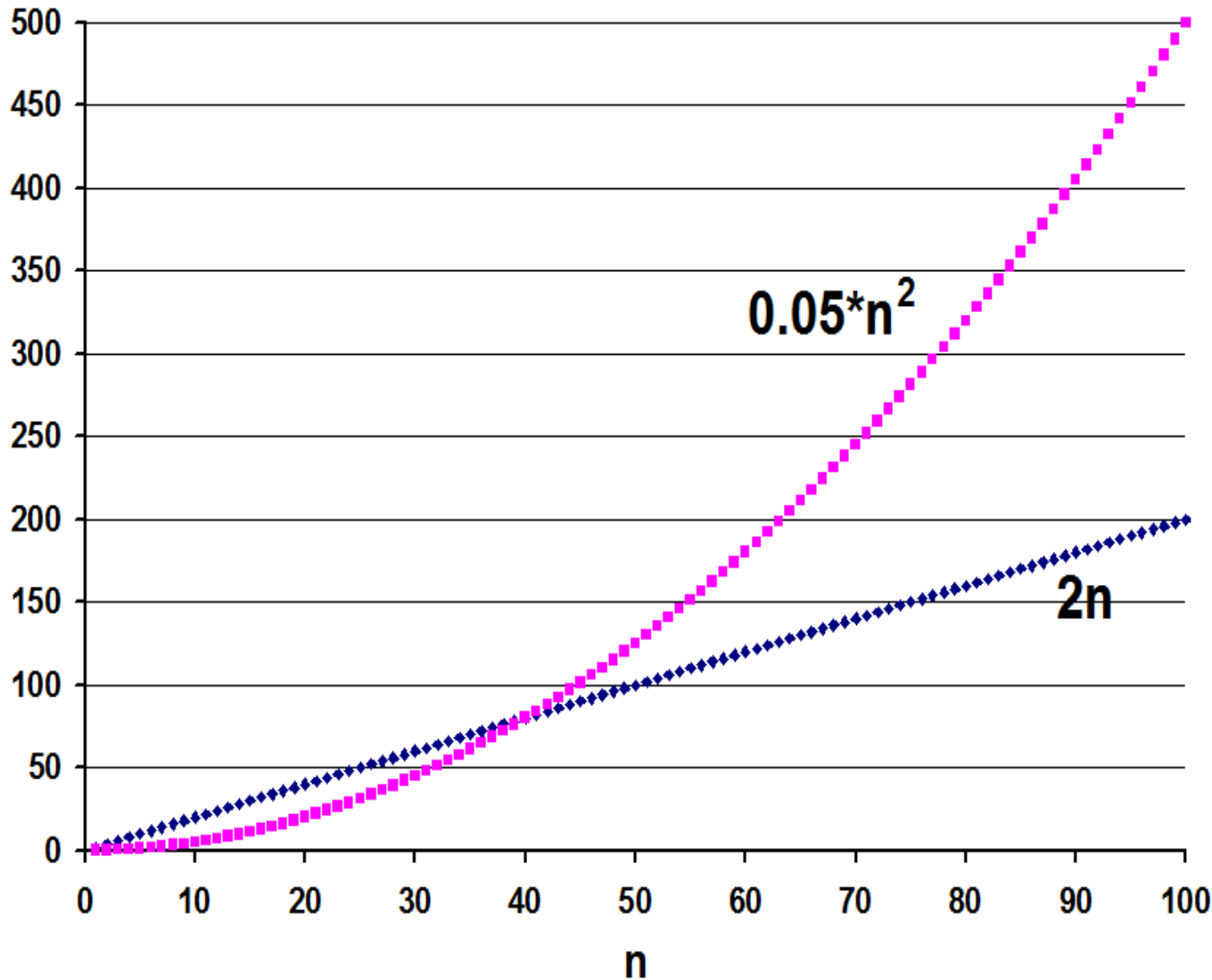
$$c_2 \cdot g(n) \leq t(n) \leq c_1 \cdot g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

c_1 and c_2 are positive constants (> 0)
and n_0 is a non-negative integer

Thumb Rule for using Big-O and Big- Θ

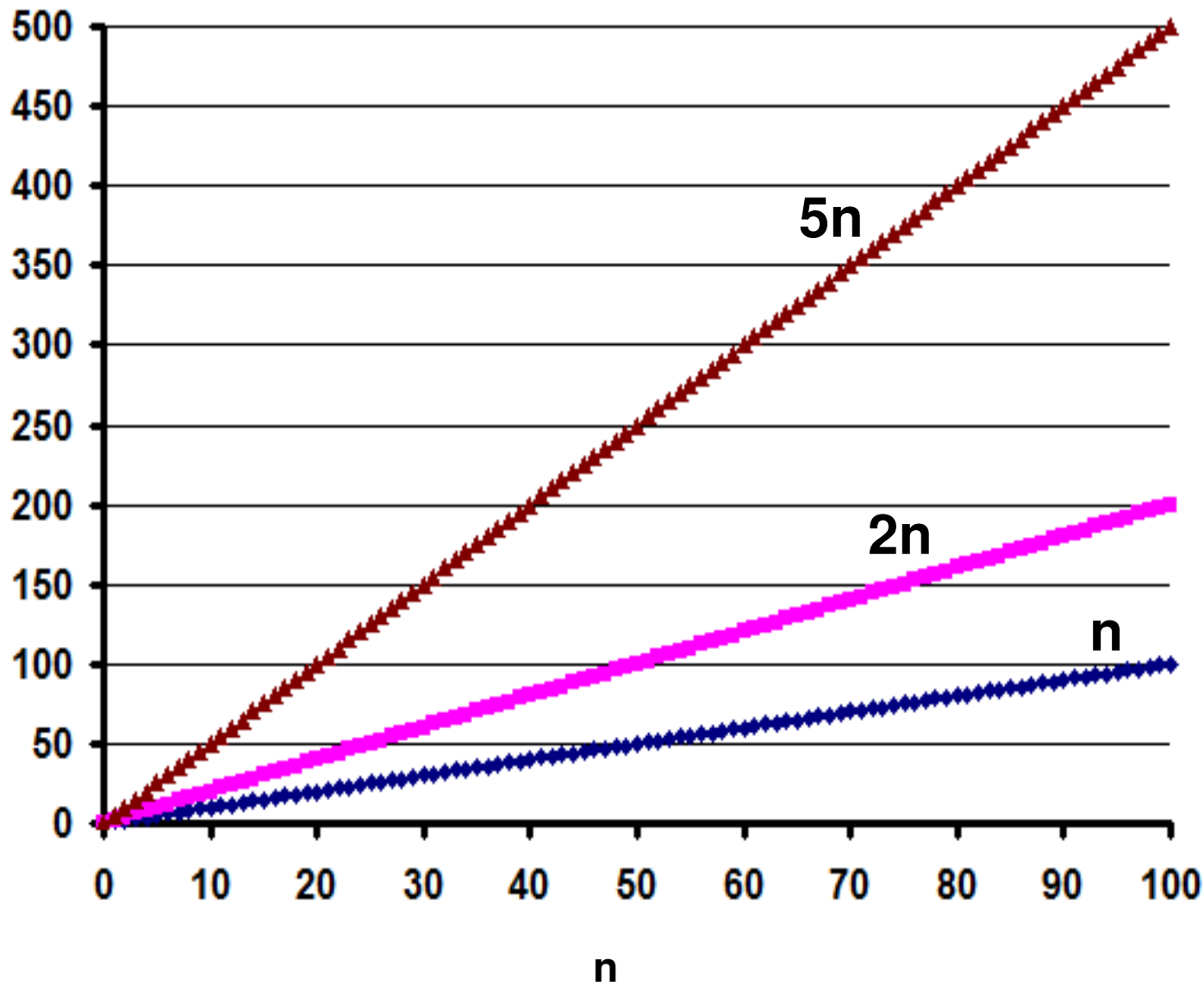
- We say a function $f(n) = O(g(n))$ if the rate of growth of $g(n)$ is either at the same rate or faster than that of $f(n)$.
 - If the functions are polynomials, the rate of growth is decided by the degree of the polynomials.
 - Example: $2n^2 + 3n + 5 = O(n^2)$;
 $2n^2 + 3n + 5 = O(n^3)$;
 - note that, we can also come up with innumerable number of such functions for what goes inside the Big-O notation as long as the function inside the Big-O notation grows at the same rate or faster than that of the function on the left hand side.
- We say a function $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if both the functions $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ grow at the same rate.
 - Example: $2n^2 + 3n + 5 = \Theta(n^2)$ and not $\Theta(n^3)$;
 - For a given $f(n)$, there can be only one function $g(n)$ that goes inside the Θ -notation.

Asymptotic Notations: Example



$2n \leq 0.05 n^2$
for $n \geq 40$
 $c = 0.05, n_0 = 40$
 $2n = O(n^2)$
More generally,
 $n = O(n^2)$.

Asymptotic Notations: Example



for $n \geq 1$
 $n \leq 2n \leq 5n$
 $2n = \Theta(n)$

Relationship and Difference between Big-O and Big- Θ

- If $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$, then $f(n) = O(g(n))$.
- If $f(n) = O(g(n))$, then $f(n)$ need not be $\Theta(g(n))$.
- Note: To come up with the Big-O/ Θ term, we exclude the lower order terms of the expression for the time complexity and consider only the most dominating term. Even for the most dominating term, we omit any constant coefficient and only include the variable part inside the asymptotic notation.
- Big- Θ provides a tight bound (useful for precise analysis); whereas, Big-O provides an upper bound (useful for worst-case analysis).
- Examples:
 - (1) $5n^2 + 7n + 2 = \Theta(n^2)$
 - Also, $5n^2 + 7n + 2 = O(n^2)$
 - (2) $5n^2 + 7n + 2 = O(n^3)$,
Also, $5n^2 + 7n + 2 = O(n^4)$, But, $5n^2 + 7n + 2 \neq \Theta(n^3)$ and $\neq \Theta(n^4)$
- The Big-O complexity of an algorithm can be technically more than one value, but the Big- Θ of an algorithm can be only one value and it provides a tight bound. For example, if an algorithm has a complexity of $O(n^3)$, its time complexity can technically be also considered as $O(n^4)$.

When to use Big-O and Big- Θ

- If the best-case and worst-case time complexity of an algorithm is guaranteed to be of a certain polynomial all the time, then we will use Big- Θ .
- If the time complexity of an algorithm could fluctuate from a best-case to worst-case of different rates, we will use Big-O notation as it is not possible to come up with a Big- Θ for such algorithms.

```
• Sequential key search  
• Inputs: Array A[0...n-1], Search Key K  
• Begin  
  for (i = 0 to n-1) do  
    if (A[i] == K) then  
      return "Key K found at index i"  
    end if  
  end for  
  return "Key K not found!!"  
End
```

**O(n) only
and not
 $\Theta(n)$**

```
• Finding the Maximum Integer in an Array  
• Input: Array A[0...n-1]  
• Begin  
  Max = A[0]  
  for (i = 1 to n-1) do  
    if (Max < A[i]) then  
      Max = A[i]  
    end if  
  end for  
  return Max  
End
```

**$\Theta(n)$
→ It is also
O(n)**

Another Example to Decide whether Big-O or Big- Θ

Skeleton of a pseudo code

```
Input size: n
Begin Algorithm
If (certain condition) then
    for (i = 1 to n) do
        print a statement in unit time
    end for
else
    for (i = 1 to n) do
        for (j = 1 to n) do
            print a statement in unit time
        end for
    end for
End Algorithm
```

Best Case

The condition in the if block is true

-- Loop run 'n' times

Worst Case

The condition in the if block is false

-- Loop run ' n^2 ' times

Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$

It is not possible to come up with a Θ -based time complexity for this algorithm.

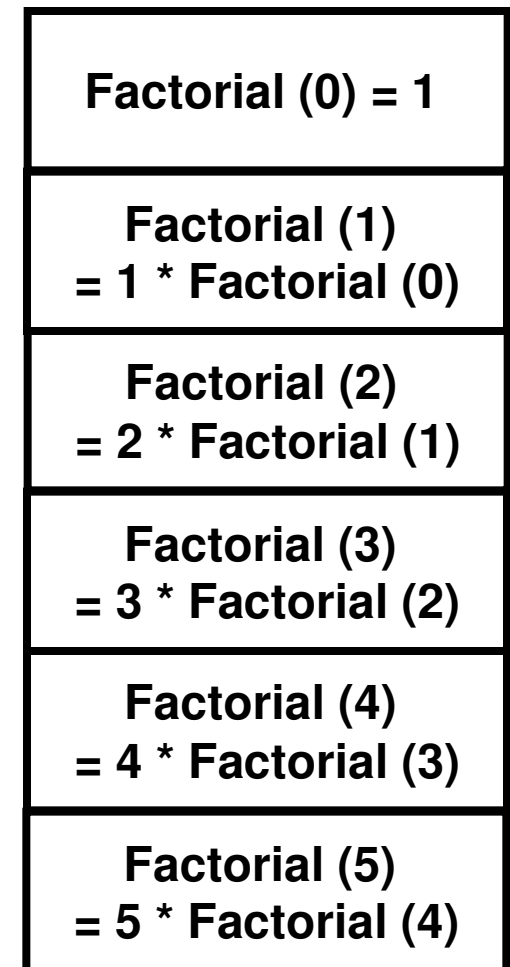
Recursion

- Recursion: A function calling itself.
- Recursions are represented using a recurrence relation (incl. a base or terminating condition)
- Example
- $\text{Factorial}(n) = n * \text{Factorial}(n-1)$ for $n > 0$
- $\text{Factorial}(n) = 1$ for $n = 0$

```
Factorial(n)
  if (n == 0)
    return 1;
  else
    return n * Factorial(n-1)
```

| |
|-------------------------------------------------|
| $\text{Factorial}(0) = 1$ |
| $\text{Factorial}(1) = 1 * \text{Factorial}(0)$ |
| $\text{Factorial}(2) = 2 * \text{Factorial}(1)$ |
| $\text{Factorial}(3) = 3 * \text{Factorial}(2)$ |
| $\text{Factorial}(4) = 4 * \text{Factorial}(3)$ |
| $\text{Factorial}(5) = 5 * \text{Factorial}(4)$ |

Memory Stack



array

```
#include <iostream>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <time.h>

using namespace std;

int* TurnNegative(int* Array, int ArraySize){
    int* negativeArray = new int[ArraySize];
    for (int i = 0; i < ArraySize; i++)
        negativeArray[i] = -1*Array[i];
    return negativeArray;
}

int addALL(int* Array, int ArraySize){
    int sum = 0;
    for (int i = 0; i < ArraySize; i++)
        sum += Array[i];
    return sum;
}

int main(){
    int arraySize;
    cout << "Enter the array size: ";
    cin >> arraySize;

    int maxValue;
    cout << "Enter the maximum value for an element: ";
    cin >> maxValue;

    int *array = new int[arraySize];

    srand(time(NULL)); // initialize the random number generator with the
current system time as the seed

    for (int i = 0; i < arraySize; i++){
        array[i] = 1 + rand() % maxValue;
    }
}
```

array

```
cout << "Sum of all elements is " << addALL(array, arraySize) << endl;
```

```
int *negArray = TurnNegative(array, arraySize);
```

```
cout << "Negative Values of the Elements " << endl;
```

```
for (int i = 0; i < arraySize; i++)  
    cout << negArray[i] << " ";
```

```
cout << endl;
```

```
delete[] array;  
delete[] negArray;
```

```
return 0;
```

```
}
```

oop

```
#include <iostream>
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <time.h>

using namespace std;

class Packet{

    private:
        int id;
        double data;

    public:

        Packet(){}

        Packet(int ID, double Data){
            setID(ID);
            setData(Data);
        }

        void setID(int ID){
            id = ID;
        }

        void setData(double Data){
            data = Data;
        }

        int getID(){
            return id;
        }

        double getData(){
            return data;
        }

};

int main(){

    Packet packet1;
    packet1.setID(1);
    packet1.setData(10);
    cout << "Packet " << packet1.getID() << " " << packet1.getData() << endl;
```

```

                                oop
Packet packet2(2, 20);
cout << "Packet " << packet2.getID() << " " << packet2.getData() << endl;

Packet* packetPtr = &packet2;
packetPtr->setData(25);
cout << "After change: Packet " << packetPtr->getID() << " " <<
packetPtr->getData() << endl;

Packet* pktPtr = new Packet();
pktPtr->setID(3);
pktPtr->setData(30);
cout << "Packet " << pktPtr->getID() << " " << pktPtr->getData() << endl;

pktPtr = new Packet(4, 40);
cout << "Packet " << pktPtr->getID() << " " << pktPtr->getData() << endl;

delete pktPtr; // delete the memory allocated for the Packet object
pointed (latest) to by this pointer.

cout << "....." << endl;

int numPackets;
cout << "Enter the number of packets to create as an array: ";
cin >> numPackets;

Packet* packetArray = new Packet[numPackets];
for (int id = 0; id < numPackets; id++){
    packetArray[id].setID(id);
    packetArray[id].setData(id*10);
}

cout << "....." << endl;

for (int id = 0; id < numPackets; id++){
    cout << packetArray[id].getID()+1 << " " <<
packetArray[id].getData() << endl;
}

return 0;

}

```

Data processed by an Algorithm

- The design and development as well as the time and storage complexities of an algorithm for a problem depend on how we store and process the data on which the algorithm is run.
- For example: if the words in a dictionary are not sorted, it would take a humongously long time to come up with an algorithm to search for a word in the dictionary.
- Sometimes, the data need not be linear (like a dictionary) and need to be hierarchical (like a road map or file system).
- Layman example
 - Abstract view of a car (any user should expect these features for any car): Should be able to start the car, turn steering, press brake to stop and press gas to accelerate, change gear, etc.
 - Implementation (responsibility of the manufacturer and not the user): How each of the above is implemented? Varies with the targeted gas efficiency, usage purpose, etc.

Abstract Data Type (ADT) vs. Data Structures

- Data processed by an algorithm could be represented at two levels:
 - Abstract level (also called logical or user level): merely state the possible values for the data and what operations/functions the algorithm will call to store and access the data
 - Implementation level (also called system level): deals with how the implementation should be done to perform the functions defined for the data at the abstract level.
- The abstract (logical) representation of data is commonly referred to as Abstract Data Type (ADT)
- The term “data structure” is considered to represent the implementation model of an ADT.

Common ADTs and the Data Structures for their Implementation

- List, Stack, Queue
 - Arrays, Linked List
- Priority Queue
 - Heap
- Dictionary
 - Hash Table, Binary Search Tree
- Graph
 - Adjacency List, Adjacency Matrix

List ADT

- Data type
 - Store a given number of elements of any data type
- Functions/Operations
 - Create an initial empty list
 - Test whether or not a list is empty
 - Read element based on its position in the list.
 - Insert, delete or modify an entity at a specific position in the list

| | | | | |
|----|----|----|----|--|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
| 10 | 23 | 13 | 17 | |

Stack ADT

- Data type
 - Store a given number of elements of any data type
- Unique characteristic: Last In First Out (LIFO)
- Functions/Operations

- Insert

- Push an element to the top of the stack

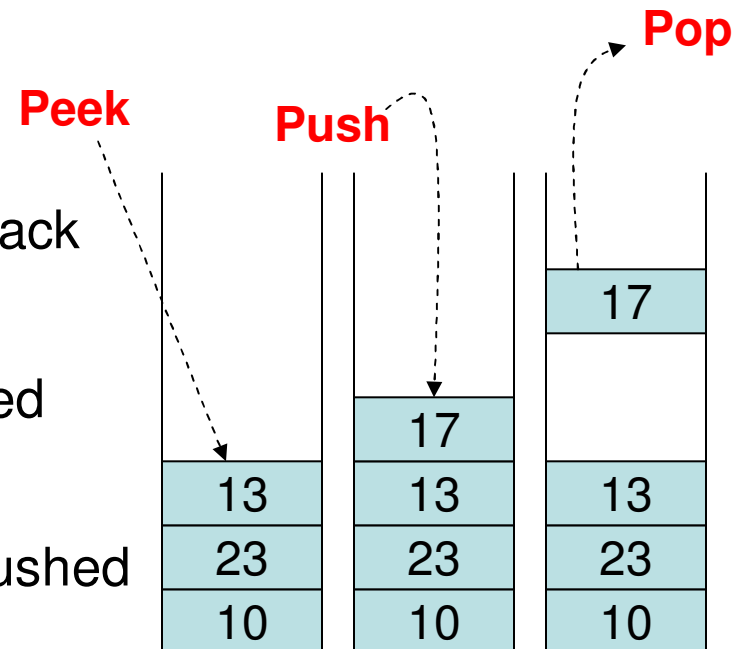
- Delete

- Pop the last element that was pushed

- Read

- Peek at the last element that was pushed

- Check if empty



Queue ADT

- Data type
 - Store a given number of elements of any data type
- Unique characteristic: First In First Out (FIFO)
- Functions/Operations
 - Insert
 - Enqueue: Append an element to the end of queue
 - Delete
 - Dequeue: Remove the element at the head of the queue
 - Read
 - Peek: Look at the element at the head of the queue
 - Check if empty

