

COMPSCI 105 S1 2017 Principles of Computer Science

Algorithm Analysis/Complexity



Agenda:

- Introduction
- Counting Operations
- Big-O Definition
- Properties of Big-O
- Calculating Big-O
- Growth Rate Examples
- Big-O Performance of Python Lists
- Big-O Performance of Python Dictionaries

Reading:

- Problem Solving with Algorithms and Data Structures
 - Chapter 2

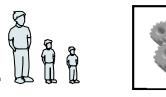


- How to **compare** programs with one another?
- When two programs solve the same problem but look different, is one program **better** than the other?
- What criteria are we using to compare them?
 - Readability?
 - Efficient?
- Why do we need algorithm analysis/complexity ?
 - Writing a working program is not good enough
 - The program may be inefficient!
 - If the program is run on a large data set, then the running time becomes an issue



Data Structures:

- A systematic way of **organizing** and **accessing** data.
- No single data structure works well for ALL purposes.





Algorithm

Input Al

Algorithm Output

• An algorithm is a step-by-step procedure for solving a problem in a finite amount of time.

Program

- is an algorithm that has been encoded into some programming language.
- Program = data structures + algorithms



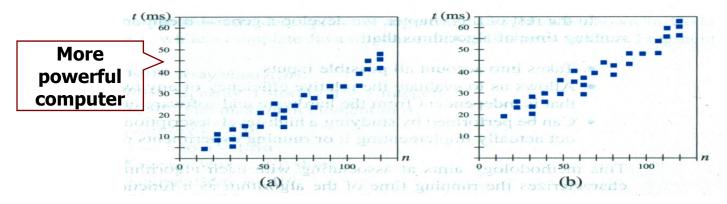
1 Introduction

Algorithm Analysis/Complexity

- When we analyze the performance of an algorithm, we are interested in how much of a given resource the algorithm uses to solve a problem.
- The most common resources are time (how many steps it takes to solve a problem) and space (how much memory it takes).
- We are going to be mainly interested in **how long** our programs take to **run**, as time is generally a more precious resource than space.



 For example, the following graphs show the execution time, in milliseconds, against sample size, n of a given problem in <u>different</u> <u>computers</u>



- The actual running time of a program depends not only on the efficiency of the algorithm, but on many other variables:
 - Processor speed & type
 - Operating system
 - ... etc.



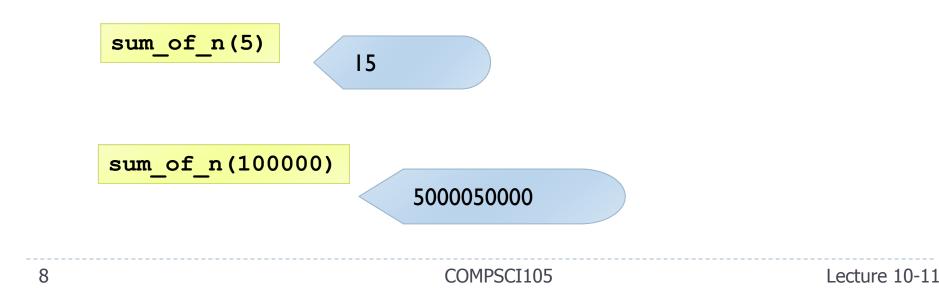
In order to compare algorithm speeds experimentally

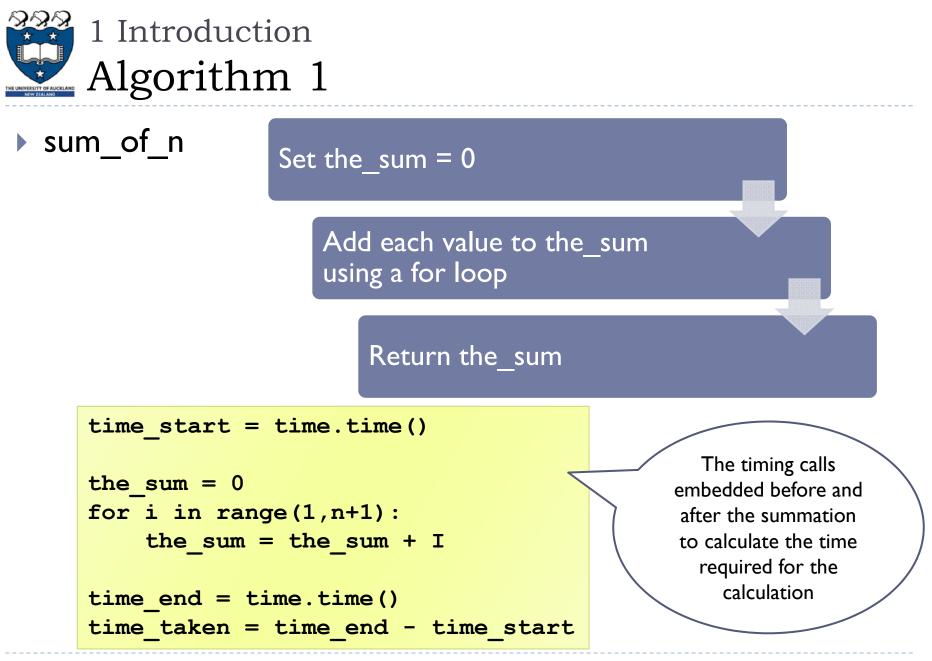
- All other variables must be kept constant, i.e.
 - independent of specific implementations,
 - independent of computers used, and,
 - independent of the **data** on which the program runs
- Involved a lot of work (better to have some theoretical means of predicting algorithm speed)



Task:

- Complete the sum_of_n() function which calculates the sum of the first n natural numbers.
 - Arguments: an integer
 - **Returns**: the sum of the first n natural numbers
- Cases:





COMPSCI105



sum_of_n_2

Set the_sum = 0

Use the equation (n(n + I))/2, to calculate the total

Return the_sum

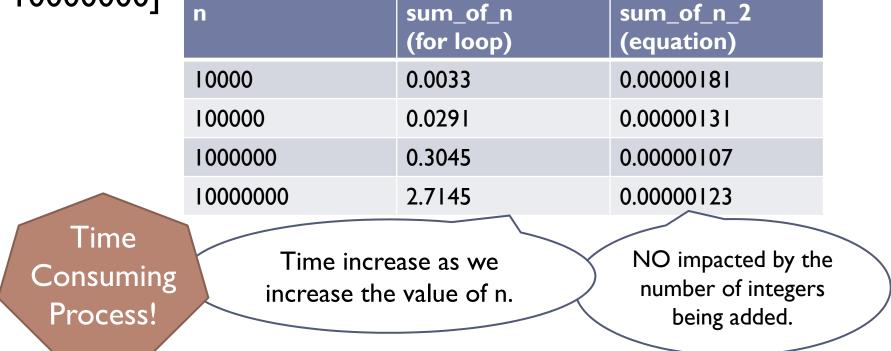
```
time_start = time.clock()
```

```
the_sum = 0
the_sum = (n * (n+1) ) / 2
time_end = time.clock()
```

```
time_taken = time_end - time_start)
```



Using 4 different values for n: [10000, 100000, 1000000, 1000000]



• We shall **count** the number of basic operations of an

algorithm, and **generalise** the count.



1 Introduction

Advantages of Learning Analysis

Predict the running-time during the design phase

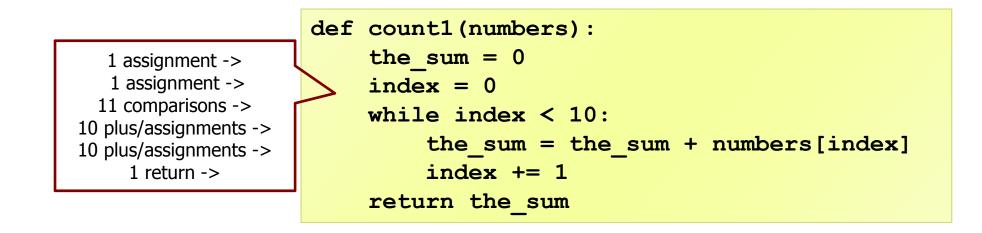
- The running time should be **independent** of the type of input
- The running time should be independent of the hardware and software environment
- Save your time and effort
 - The algorithm does not need to be coded and debugged
- Help you to write more efficient code



- We need to **estimate** the running time as a function of problem size n.
- A primitive Operation takes <u>a unit of time</u>. The actual length of time will depend on external factors such as the hardware and software environment
 - Each of these kinds of operation would take the same amount of time on a given hardware and software environment
 - Assigning a value to a variable
 - Calling a method.
 - Performing an arithmetic operation.
 - Comparing two numbers.
 - Indexing a list element.
 - Returning from a function



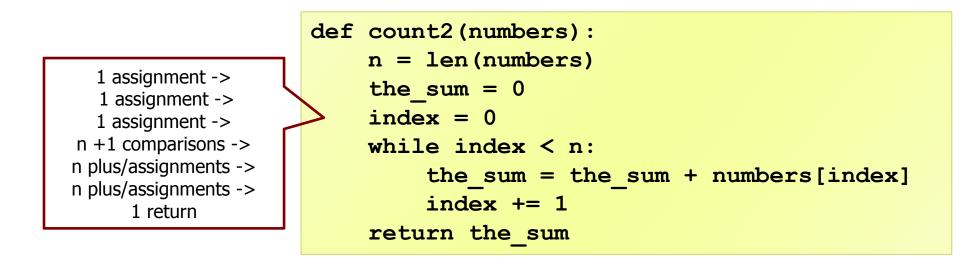
Example: Calculating a sum of first 10 elements in the list



Total = 34 operations



• Example: Calculating the sum of elements in the list.



Total = 3n + 5 operations

• We need to measure an algorithm's time requirement as a function of the problem size, e.g. in the example above the problem size is the number of elements in the list.



- Performance is usually measured by the rate at which the running time increases as the problem size gets bigger,
 - ie. we are interested in the relationship between the running time and the problem size.
 - It is very important that we identify what the problem size is.
 - For example, if we are analyzing an algorithm that processes a list, the problem size is the **size** of the list.
- In many cases, the problem size will be the value of a variable, where the running time of the program depends on how big that value is.



How many operations are required to do the following tasks?

- a) Adding an element to the end of a list
- b) Printing each element of a list containing n elements



?



Consider the following two algorithms:

- Algorithm A:
 - Outer Loop: n operations
 - Inner Loop: $\frac{n}{5}$ operations

• Total =
$$(n * \frac{n}{5}) = (\frac{n^2}{5})$$
 operations

for i in range(0, n):
 for j in range(0, n, 5):
 print (i,j)

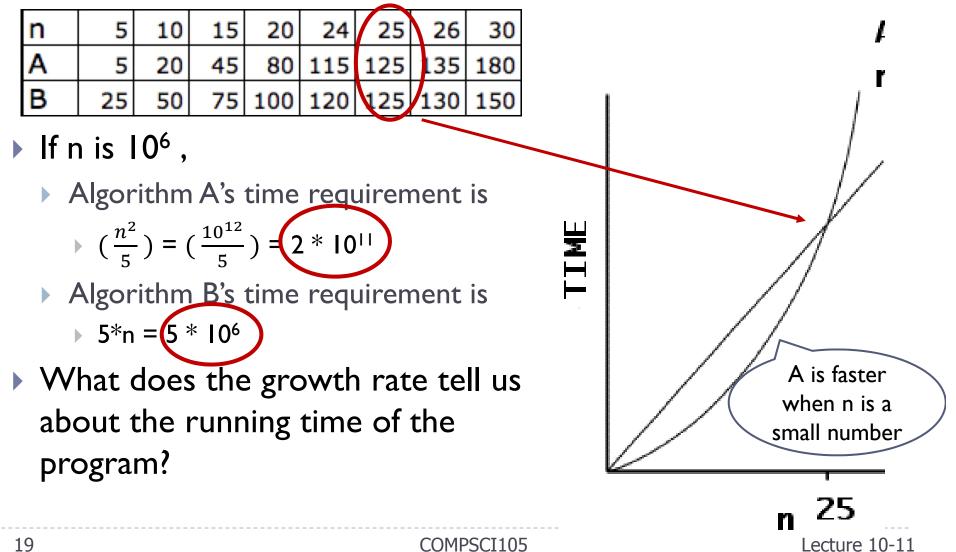
- Algorithm B:
 - Outer Loop: n operations
 - Inner Loop: 5 operations
 - Total = n * 5 = 5*n operations

```
for i in range(0, n):
    for j in range(0, 5):
        print (i,j)
```



2 Counting Operations

Growth Rate Function – A or B?

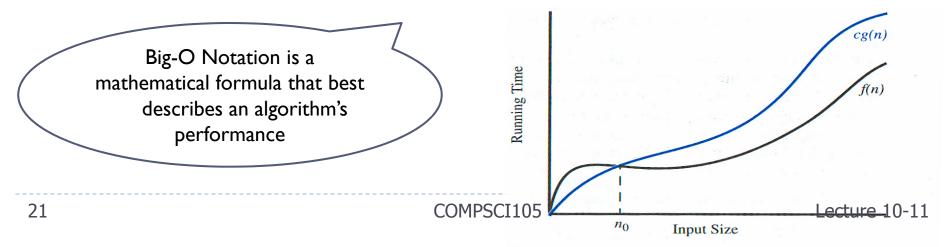




- For smaller values of n, the differences between algorithm A (n²/5) and algorithm B (5n) are not very big. But the differences are very evident for larger problem sizes such as for n > 1,000,000
 - ▶ 2 * 10¹¹ Vs 5 * 10⁶
- Bigger problem size, produces bigger differences
- Algorithm efficiency is a concern for large problem sizes



- Let f(n) and g(n) be functions that map nonnegative integers to real numbers. We say that f(n) is O(g(n)) if there is a real constant, c, where c > 0 and an integer constant n_0 , where $n_0 \ge 1$ such that $f(n) \le c * g(n)$ for every integer $n \ge n_0$.
 - f(n) describe the actual time of the program
 - g(n) is a much simpler function than f(n)
 - With assumptions and approximations, we can use g(n) to describe the complexity i.e. O(g(n))



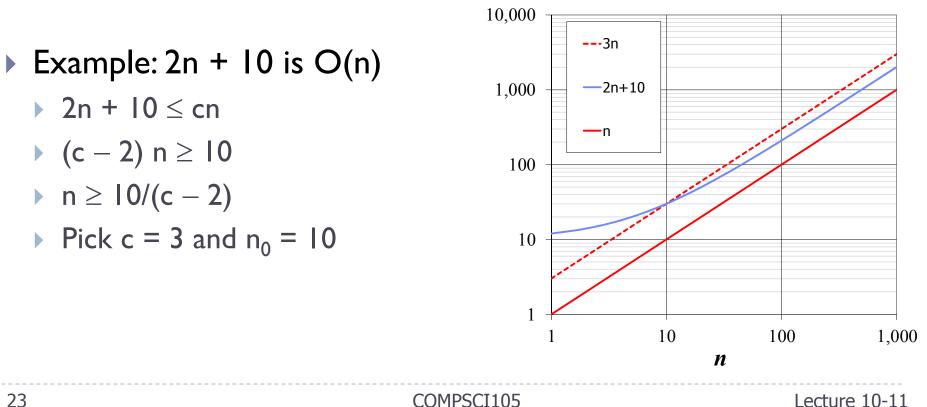


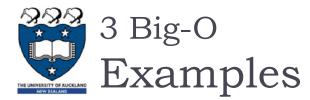
- We use Big-O notation (capital letter O) to specify the order of complexity of an algorithm
 - e.g., O(n²), O(n³), O(n).
 - If a problem of size n requires time that is directly
 proportional to n, the problem is O(n) that is, order n.
 - If the time requirement is directly proportional to n², the problem is O(n²), etc.



• Given functions f(n) and g(n), we say that f(n) is O(g(n))if there are positive constants, c and n_0 , such that

 $f(n) \leq c * g(n)$ for every integer $n \geq n_0$.





 $f(n) \le c * g(n)$ for every integer n >= n₀.

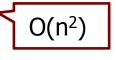
O(n)

- Suppose an algorithm requires
 - > 7n-2 operations to solve a problem of size n

7n-2 \leq 7 * n for all $n_0 \geq$ 1 i.e. c = 7, n_0 = 1

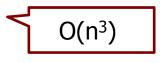
> $n^2 - 3 * n + 10$ operations to solve a problem of size n

 n^2 -3 * n + 10 < 3 * n^2 for all $n_0 \geq$ 2 i.e. c = 3, $n_0 =$ 2



> $3n^3 + 20n^2 + 5$ operations to solve a problem of size n

 $3n^3 + 20n^2 + 5 < 4 * n^3$ for all $n_0 \ge 21$ i.e. c = 4, $n_0 = 21$





4 Properties of Big-O

Properties of Big-O

- There are three properties of Big-O
 - Ignore low order terms in the function (smaller terms)

• $O(f(n)) + O(g(n)) = O(\max \text{ of } f(n) \text{ and } g(n))$

- Ignore any constants in the high-order term of the function
 - $C^* O(f(n)) = O(f(n))$
- Combine growth-rate functions
 - O(f(n)) * O(g(n)) = O(f(n)*g(n))
 - O(f(n)) + O(g(n)) = O(f(n)+g(n))



4 Properties of Big-O

Ignore low order terms

Consider the function:

 $f(n) = n^2 + 100n + log10n + 1000$

- For small values of n the last term, 1000, dominates.
- When n is around 10, the terms 100n + 1000 dominate.
- When n is around 100, the terms n^2 and 100n dominate.
- When n gets much larger than 100, the n² dominates all others.
- So it would be safe to say that this function is $O(n^2)$ for values of n > 100
- Consider another function:

 $f(n) = n^3 + n^2 + n + 5000$

Big-O is
$$O(n^3)$$

And consider another function:

 $f(n) = n + n^2 + 5000$

• Big-O is
$$O(n^2)$$



• Consider the function:

$$f(n) = 254 * n^2 + n$$

- Big-O is $O(n^2)$
- Consider another function:

f(n) = n / 30

And consider another function:

$$f(n) = 3n + 1000$$

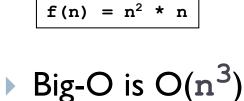


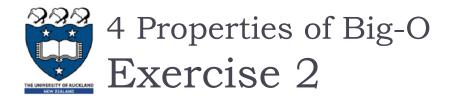
Consider the function:

 $f(n) = n * \log n$

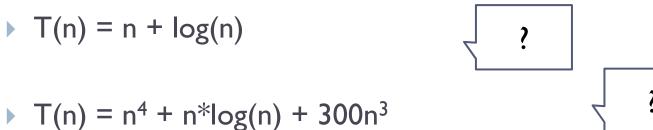
Big-O is O(n log n)

Consider another function:

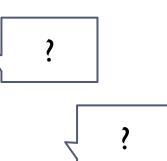




What is the Big-O performance of the following growth functions?



T(n) =
$$300n + 60 * n * log(n) + 342$$

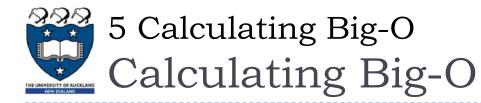




4 Properties of Big-O

Best, average & worst-case complexity

- In some cases, it may need to consider the best, worst and/or average performance of an algorithm
- For example, if we are required to sort a list of numbers an ascending order
 - Worst-case:
 - if it is in reverse order
 - Best-case:
 - if it is already in order
 - Average-case
 - Determine the average amount of time that an algorithm requires to solve problems of size n
 - More difficult to perform the analysis
 - Difficult to determine the relative probabilities of encountering various problems of a given size
 - Difficult to determine the distribution of various data values



Rules for finding out the time complexity of a piece of code

- Straight-line code
- Loops
- Nested Loops
- Consecutive statements
- If-then-else statements
- Logarithmic complexity



- Rule I: Straight-line code
 - Big-O = Constant time O(I)
 - Does not vary with the size of the input
 - Example:
 - Assigning a value to a variable
 - Performing an arithmetic operation.
 - Indexing a list element.

Rule 2: Loops

- The running time of the statements inside the loop (including tests) times the number of iterations
- Example:

32



x = a + bi = y[2]



5 Calculating Big-O

Rules (con't)

- Rule 3: Nested Loop
 - Analyze inside out. Total running time is the product of the sizes of all the loops.

 Outer loop:

Executed n times

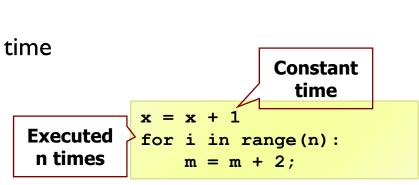
- Example:
 - constant * (inner loop: n)*(outer loop: n)

• Total time =
$$c * n * n = c*n^2 = O(n^2)$$

- Rule 4: Consecutive statements
 - Add the time complexities of each statement
 - Example:
 - Constant time + n times * constant time

$$c_0 + c_1 n$$

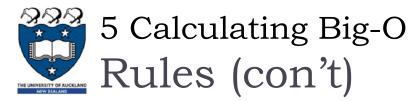
- Big-O = O(f(n) + g(n))
- $= O(\max(f(n) + g(n)))$
- = O(n)



for i in range(n):

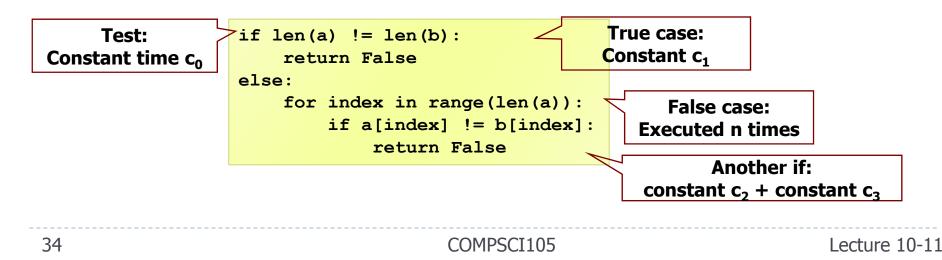
for j in range(n): k = i + i

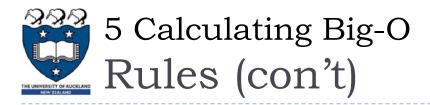
> Inner loop: Executed n times



Rule 5: if-else statement

- Worst-case running time: the test, plus either the if part or the else part (whichever is the larger).
- Example:
 - $c_0 + Max(c_1, (n * (c_2 + c_3)))$
 - Total time = $c_0 * n(c_2 + c_3) = O(n)$
- Assumption:
 - The condition can be evaluated in constant time. If it is not, we need to add the time to evaluate the expression.





Rule 6: Logarithmic

- An algorithm is O(log n) if it takes a constant time to cut the problem size by a fraction (usually by ¹/₂)
- Example:
 - Finding a word in a dictionary of n pages
 - $\hfill\square$ Look at the centre point in the dictionary
 - \Box Is word to left or right of centre?
 - $\hfill\square$ Repeat process with left or right part of dictionary until the word is found
- Example:

size = n
while size > 1:
 // O(1) stuff
 size = size / 2

- ▶ Size: n, n/2, n/4, n/8, n/16, ... 2, 1
- If n = 2^K, it would be approximately k steps. The loop will execute log k in the worst case (log₂n = k). Big-O = O(log n)
- Note: we don't need to indicate the base. The logarithms to different bases differ only by a constant factor.

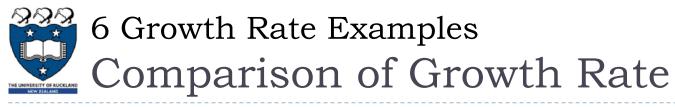


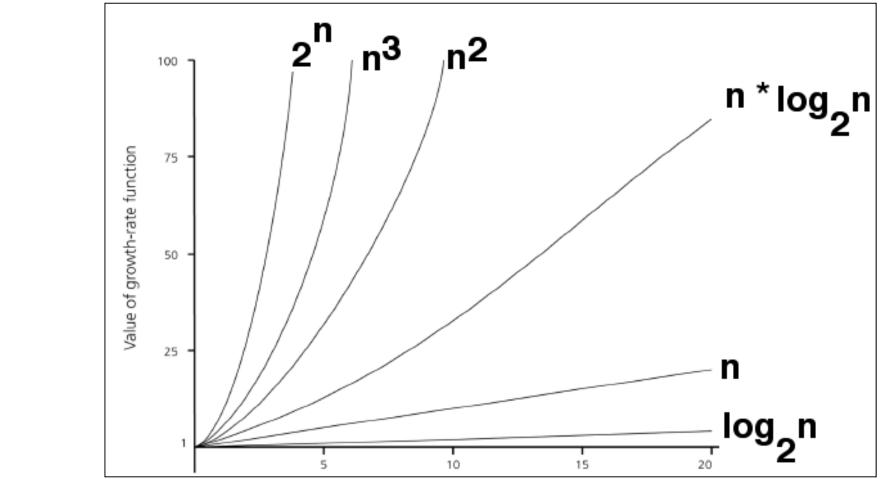
6 Growth Rate Examples

Hypothetical Running Time

 The running time on a hypothetical computer that computes 10⁶ operations per second for varies problem sizes

Notation		n					
		10	10 ²	10 ³	104	10 ⁵	106
O(1)	Constant	1 µsec	1 µsec	1 µsec	1 µsec	1 µsec	1 µsec
O(log(n))	Logarithmic	3 µsec	7 µsec	10 µsec	13 µsec	17 µsec	20 µsec
O(n)	Linear	10 µsec	100 µsec	1 msec	10 msec	100 msec	1 sec
O(nlog(n))	N log N	33 µsec	664 µsec	10 msec	13.3 msec	1.6 sec	20 sec
O(n ²)	Quadratic	100 µsec	10 msec	1 sec	1.7 min	16.7 min	11.6 days
O(n ³)	Cubic	1 msec	1 sec	16.7 min	11.6 days	31.7 years	31709 years
O(2 ⁿ)	Exponential	10 msec	3e17 years				





A comparison of growth-rate functions in graphical form

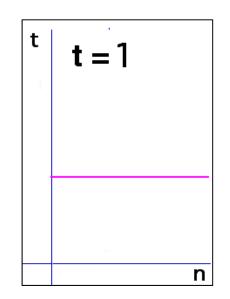
COMPSCI105



Time requirement is constant and, therefore, independent of the problem's size n.

COMPSCI105

```
def rate1(n):
    s = "SWEAR"
    for i in range(25):
        print("I must not ", s)
```

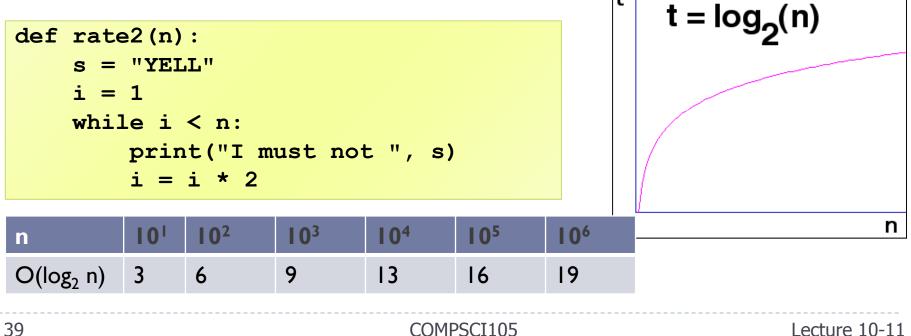


n	101	10 ²	I 0 ³	104	I 0 ⁵	106
O(I)	I	I	I	I	I	I



Logarithmic Growth Rate - O(log n)

- Increase slowly as the problem size increases
- If you square the problem size, you only double its time requirement
- The base of the log does not affect a log growth rate, so you can omit it.



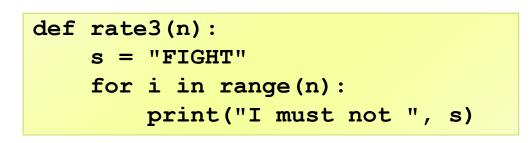


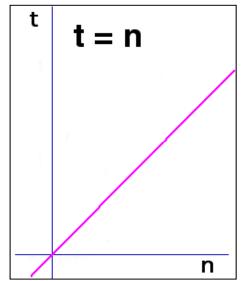
Linear Growth Rate - O(n)

> The time increases directly with the sizes of the problem.

COMPSCI105

If you square the problem size, you also square its time requirement





n	101	102	I 0 ³	104	105	106
O(n)	10	102	103	104	105	10 ⁶

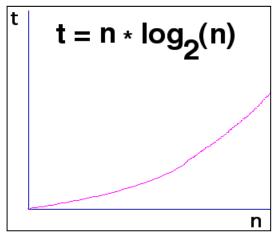
40



n* log n Growth Rate - O(n log(n))

- The time requirement increases more rapidly than a linear algorithm.
- Such algorithms usually divide a problem into smaller problem that are each solved separately.

```
def rate4(n):
    s = "HIT"
    for i in range(n):
        j = n
        while j > 1:
            print("I must not ", s)
            j = j // 2
```

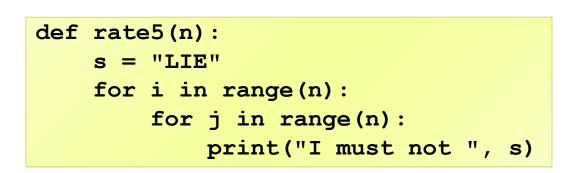


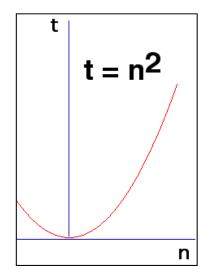
	n	101	I 0 ²	I 0 ³	104	I 0 ⁵	106	
	O(nlog(n))	30	664	9965	10 ⁵	10 ⁶	10 ⁷	
4	1			(COMPSCI105			Lecture 10-11



Quadratic Growth Rate - O(n²)

- The time requirement increases rapidly with the size of the problem.
- > Algorithms that use two nested loops are often quadratic.



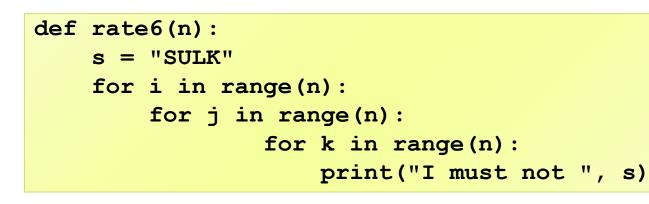


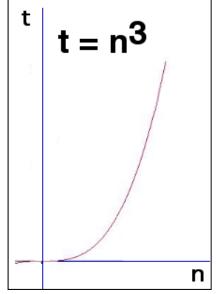
	n	101	102	I 0 ³	104	I 0 ⁵	106	
	O(n ²)	10 ²	10 ⁴	10 ⁶	10 ⁸	1010	1012	
4	2			(COMPSCI105			Lecture 10-11



Cubic Growth Rate - O(n³)

- The time requirement increases more rapidly with the size of the problem than the time requirement for a quadratic algorithm
- Algorithms that use three nested loops are often quadratic and are practical only for small problems.



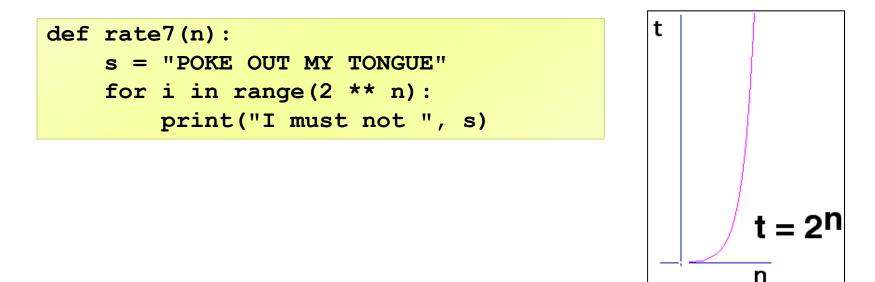


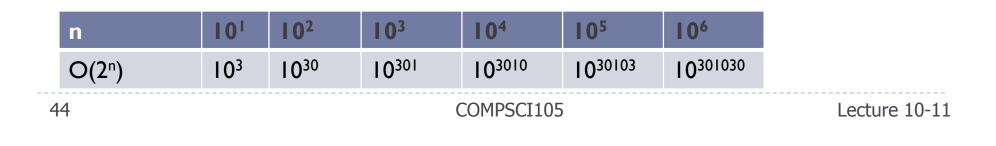
	n	101	I 0 ²	I 0 ³	104	105	106	
	O(n ³)	103	10 ⁶	10 ⁹	1012	1015	1018	
4	3			(COMPSCI105			Lecture 10-11



```
6 Growth Rate Examples
Exponential Growth Rate - O(2<sup>n</sup>)
```

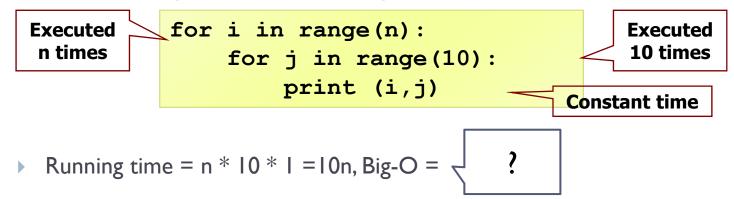
As the size of a problem increases, the time requirement usually increases too rapidly to be practical.



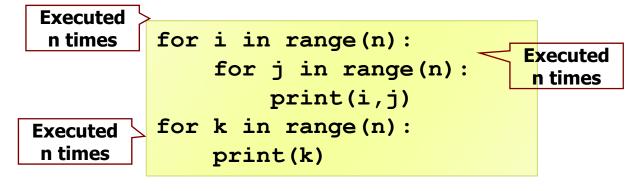




What is the Big-O of the following statements?



What is the Big-O of the following statements?



The first set of nested loops is O(n²) and the second loop is O(n). This is O(max(n²,n)) Big-O =
 45
 COMPSCI105
 Lecture 10-11



What is the Big-O of the following statements?

```
for i in range(n):
    for j in range(i+1, n):
        print(i,j)
```

- When i is 0, the inner loop executes (n-1) times. When i is 1, the inner loop executes n-2 times. When i is n-2, the inner loop execute once.
- > The number of times the inner loop statements execute:

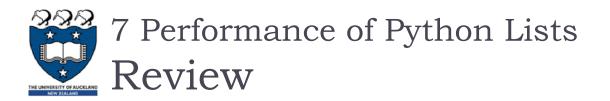
Running time = n*(n-1)/2,



7 Performance of Python Lists

Performance of Python Data Structures

- We have a general idea of
 - Big-O notation and
 - the differences between the different functions,
- Now, we will look at the Big-O performance for the operations on Python <u>lists</u> and <u>dictionaries.</u>
- It is important to <u>understand</u> the <u>efficiency</u> of these Python data structures
- In later chapters we will see some possible implementations of both lists and dictionaries and how the performance depends on the implementation.



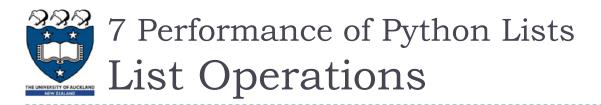
- > Python lists are ordered sequences of items.
- Specific values in the sequence can be referenced using subscripts.
- Python lists are:
 - **dynamic**. They can grow and shrink on demand.
 - heterogeneous, a single list can hold arbitrary data types.
 - **mutable** sequences of arbitrary objects.



• Using operators:

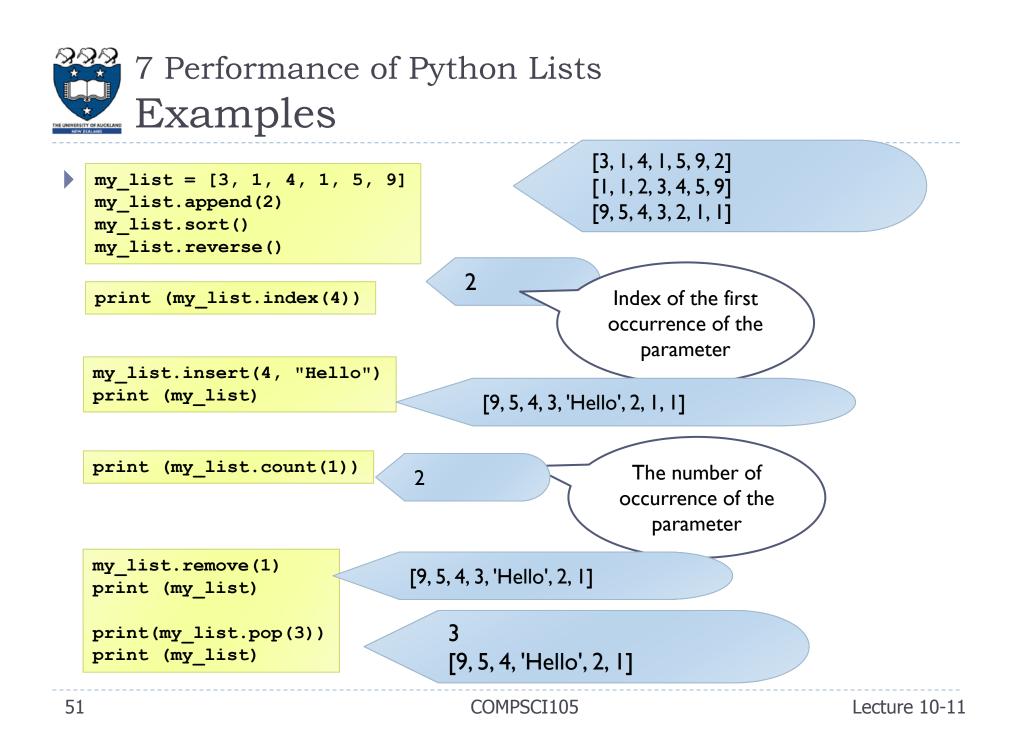
Operator	Meaning
<seq> + <seq></seq></seq>	Concatenation
<seq> * <int-expr></int-expr></seq>	Repetition
<seq>[]</seq>	Indexing
len(<seq>)</seq>	Length
<seq>[:]</seq>	Slicing
for <var> in <seq>:</seq></var>	Iteration
<expr> in <seq></seq></expr>	Membership (Boolean)

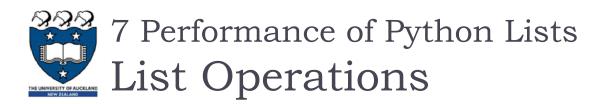
COMPSCI105



• Using Methods:

Method	Meaning
st>.append(x)	Add element x to end of list.
<list>.sort()</list>	Sort (order) the list. A comparison function may be passed as a parameter.
st>.reverse()	Reverse the list.
<list>.index(x)</list>	Returns index of first occurrence of x.
<list>.insert(i, x)</list>	Insert x into list at index i.
st>.count(x)	Returns the number of occurrences of x in list.
st>.remove(x)	Deletes the first occurrence of x in list.
<list>.pop(l)</list>	Deletes the ith element of the list and returns its value.





The del statement

- Remove an item from a list given its index instead of its value
- Used to remove slices from a list or clear the entire list

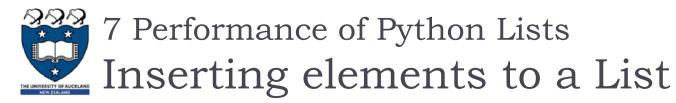
```
>>> a = [-1, 1, 66.25, 333, 333, 1234.5]
>>> del a[0]
>>> a
[1, 66.25, 333, 333, 1234.5]
>>> del a[2:4]
>>> a
[1, 66.25, 1234.5]
>>> del a[:]
>>> a
[]
```

7 Performance of Python Lists Big-O Efficiency of List Operators

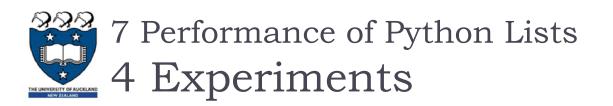
index[]	O(1)
index assignment	O(1)
append	O(1)
pop()	O(1)
pop(i)	O (<i>n</i>)
insert(i,item)	O (<i>n</i>)
del operator	O (<i>n</i>)
iteration	O (<i>n</i>)
contains (in)	O (<i>n</i>)
get slice [x:y]	O (<i>k</i>)
del slice	O (<i>n</i>)
set slice	O (<i>n</i> + <i>k</i>)
reverse	O (<i>n</i>)
concatenate	O (<i>k</i>)
sort	$O(n \log n)$
multiply	O(nk)



- Operations for **indexing** and **assigning** to an index position
 - $\bullet \text{ Big-O} = O(1)$
 - It takes the same amount of time no matter how large the list becomes.
 - i.e. independent of the size of the list



- > There are two ways to create a longer list.
 - Use the append method or the concatenation operator
- Big-O for the append method is <u>O(1)</u>.
- Big-O for the concatenation operator is <u>O(k)</u> where k is the size of the list that is being concatenated.



- Four different ways to generate a list of n numbers starting with 0.
 for i in range(n):
 - Example I:

```
for i in range(n):
    my_list = my_list + [i]
```

- Using a for loop and create the list by concatenation
- Example 2:

• Using a for loop and the append method

Using list comprehension

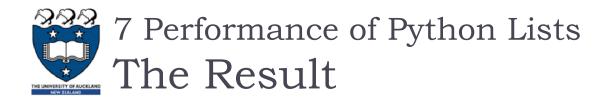
• Example 3:

for i in range(n):

my list.append(i)

- Example 4:
 - Using the range function wrapped by a call to the list constructor.

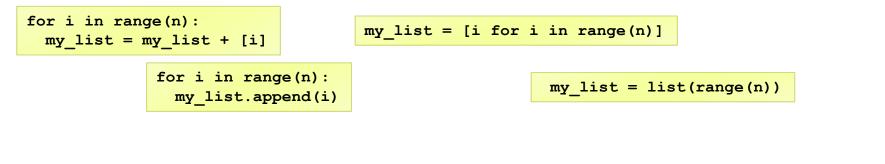
my_list = list(range(n))



From the results of our experiment:

Append: Big-O is O(1) Concatenation: Big-O is O(k)

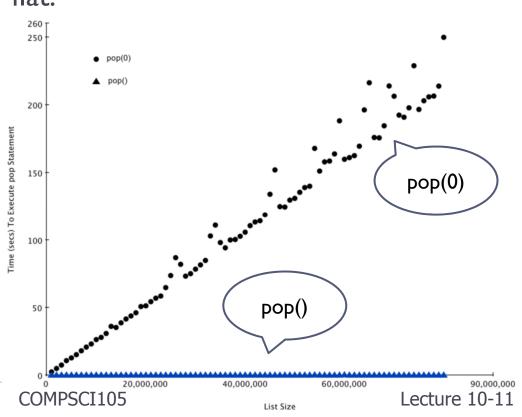
- I) Using for loop
 - The append operation is much faster than concatenation
- > 2) Two additional methods for creating a list
 - Using the list constructor with a call to range is much faster than a list comprehension
- It is interesting to note that the list comprehension is twice as fast as a for loop with an append operation.





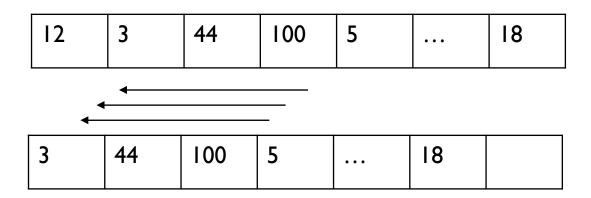
From the results of our experiment:

- As the list gets longer and longer the time it takes to pop(0) also increases
- the time for pop stays very flat.
- pop(0): Big-O is O(n)
- pop(): Big-O is O(1)
- Why?





- > pop():
 - Removes element from the end of the list
- pop(0)
 - Removes from the beginning of the list.
 - Big-O is O(n) as we will need to shift all elements from space to the beginning of the list





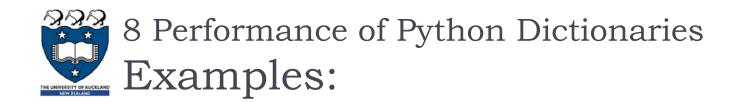
• Which of the following list operations is not O(1)?

- I. list.pop(0)
- 2. list.pop()
- 3. list.append()
- 4. list[10]





- Dictionaries store a mapping between a set of keys and a set of values
 - Keys can be any immutable type.
 - Values can be any type
 - A single dictionary can store values of different types
- You can define, modify, view, lookup or delete the key-value pairs in the dictionary
- Dictionaries are unordered
- Note:
 - Dictionaries differ from lists in that you can access items in a dictionary by a key rather than a position.



```
capitals = {'Iowa':'DesMoines','Wisconsin':'Madison'}
print(capitals['Iowa'])
capitals['Utah']='SaltLakeCity'
print(capitals)
capitals['California']='Sacramento'
print(len(capitals))
for k in capitals:
    print(capitals[k]," is the capital of ", k)
```

DesMoines {'Wisconsin': 'Madison', 'Iowa': 'DesMoines', 'Utah': 'SaltLakeCity'} 4 Sacramento is the capital of California Madison is the capital of California DesMoines is the capital of Wisconsin DesMoines is the capital of Iowa SaltLakeCity is the capital of Utah

Lecture 10-11



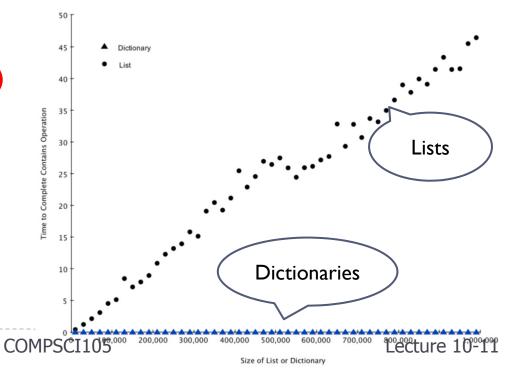
Table 2.3

Operation	Big-O Efficiency
Сору	<i>O</i> (<i>n</i>)
get item	<i>O</i> (I)
set item	0(1)
delete item	<i>O</i> (I)
contains (in)	0(1)
iteration	0(n)



From the results

- The time it takes for the **contains** operator on the list **grows** linearly with the size of the list.
- The time for the contains operator on a dictionary is constant even as the dictionary size grows
- Lists, big-O is O(n)
- Dictionaries, big-O is O(I)





- Complete the Big-O performance of the following dictionary operations
 - I. 'x' in my_dict
 - del my_dict['x']
 - my_dict['*x*'] == 10
 - 4. my_dict['x'] = my_dict['x'] + I



3.



- Complexity Analysis measure an algorithm's time requirement as a function of the problem size by using a growth-rate function.
 - It is an implementation-independent way of measuring an algorithm
- Complexity analysis focuses on large problems
- Worst-case analysis considers the maximum amount of work an algorithm will require on a problem of a given size
 - Average-case analysis considers the expected amount of work that it will require.
 - Generally we want to know the worst-case running time.
 - It provides the upper bound on time requirements
 - We may need average or the best case
 - Normally we assume worst-case analysis, unless told otherwise.