

# Analysis of Algorithms



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LECTURE 7

COMPLEXITY CLASSES

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# Recap

- Theta Notation (Average Case Analysis)
- Little o
- Little Omega
- Comparison



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# Today's Lecture

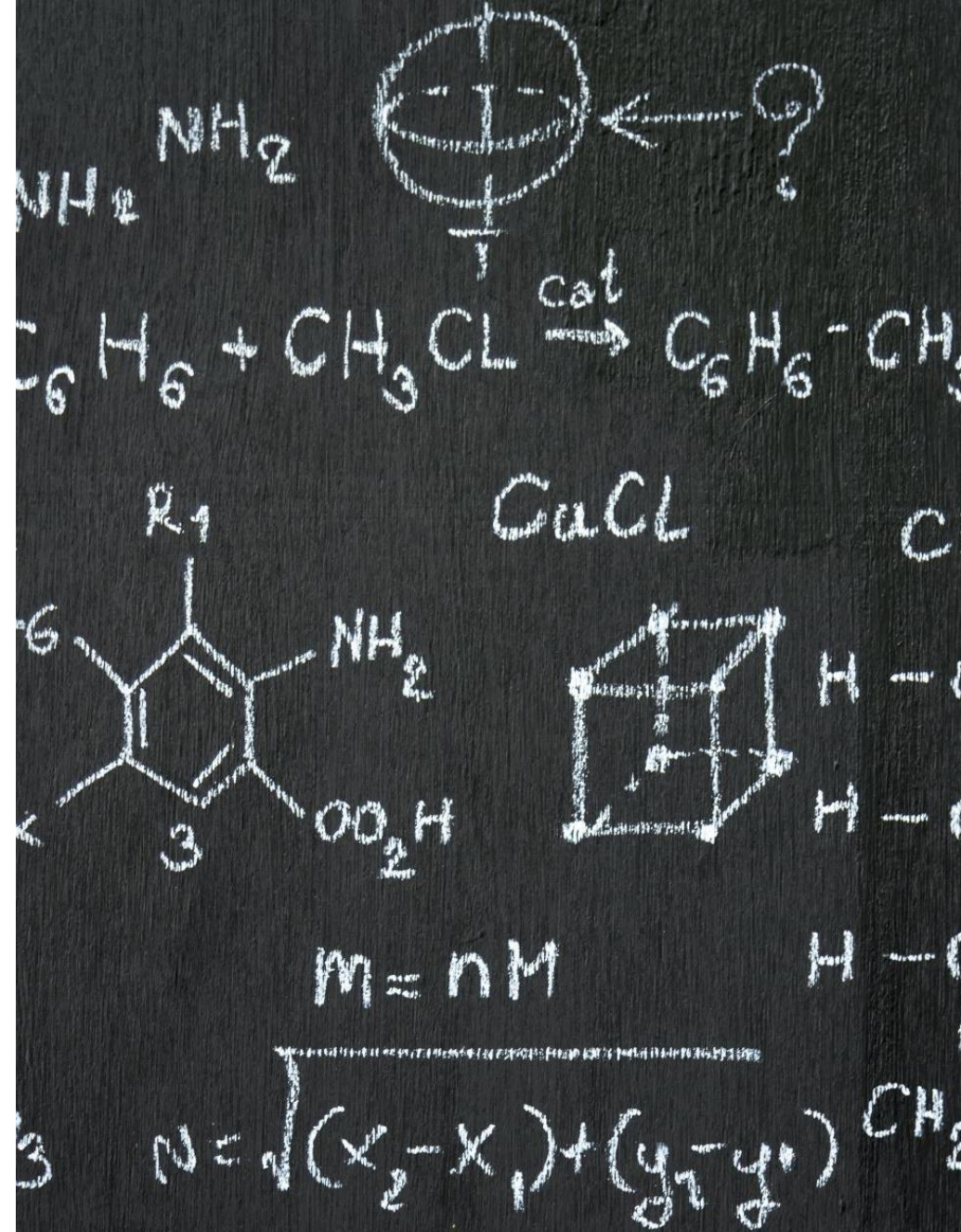
- Introduction to Complexity Classes
- Constant Time Complexity
- Linear Time Complexity
- Quadratic Time Complexity
- Log Time Complexity
- Log linear Time Complexity
- Exponential Time Complexity
- Comparison





# Objective

- Compare the complexity classes Constant ( $O(1)$ ), Linear ( $O(n)$ ), Quadratic ( $O(n^2)$ ), Log-linear ( $O(n \log n)$ ), and Exponential ( $O(2^n)$ ) with respect to time complexity, and understand their implications in algorithm design.





# Categorization into Classes

- **What is Time Complexity?**  
Time complexity measures how the runtime of an algorithm grows as the input size ( $n$ ) increases.
  - It helps us predict whether an algorithm will scale well for large datasets.
- **Why Study Complexity Classes?**
  - Different algorithms solving the same problem can have vastly different performance.
  - Complexity informs decisions about which algorithm to use in practice (e.g., sorting 10 vs. 1 million elements).
  - Helps avoid impractical solutions for large-scale problems.
- **Big-O Notation:** Describes the **upper bound** of an algorithm's growth rate.
  - Ignores constants and lower-order terms (e.g.,  $O(3n^2 + 2n + 1)$  simplifies to  $O(n^2)$ ).
  - Focuses on behavior as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

# Categorization into Classes: Constant $O(1)$

- An algorithm has constant time complexity if its runtime does not depend on the input size.

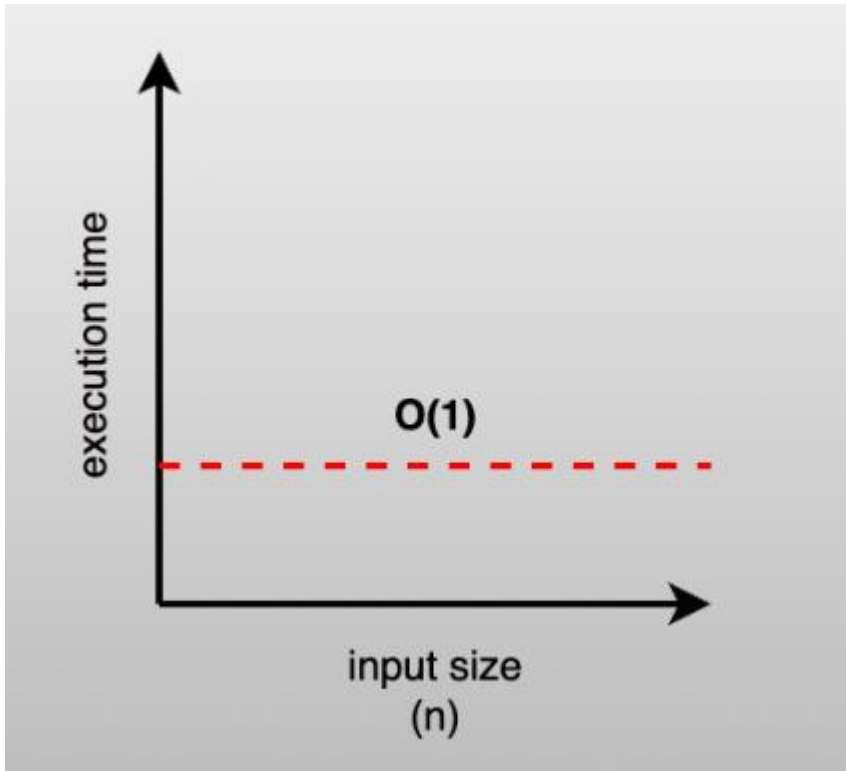
Intuition:

- No matter how big the input is, the algorithm takes the same amount of time.
- Think of it as a single, quick operation.

Examples:

1. Accessing an element in an array by index (e.g., `array[5]`).
2. Checking if a number is even (e.g., `num % 2 == 0`).
3. Hash table lookup (average case, assuming no collisions).

# Categorization into Classes: Constant $O(1)$



Real-World Application:

- Hash tables in databases for instant key-value lookups.
- Direct memory access in low-level programming.
- if an algorithm is to return the first element of an array.

```
const firstElement = (array) => {  
  return array[0];  
};  
  
let score = [12, 55, 67, 94, 22];  
console.log(firstElement(score)); // 12
```

- The function above will require only one execution step, meaning the function is in constant time with time complexity  $O(1)$ .

# Linear Time Complexity: $O(n)$

An algorithm has linear time complexity if its runtime grows proportionally to the input size.

Intuition:

- If you double the input size, the runtime roughly doubles.
- Typically involves a single loop over the input.

Examples:

1. Finding the **maximum element** in an unsorted array (scan each element once).
2. Printing(**Iterate**) all elements in a linked list.
3. **Linear search** for an element in an unsorted list.

Real-World Application:

- Processing a list of user records (e.g., sending an email to each user).
- Scanning a document for a specific word.



# Linear Time Complexity: $O(n)$

Linear Search:

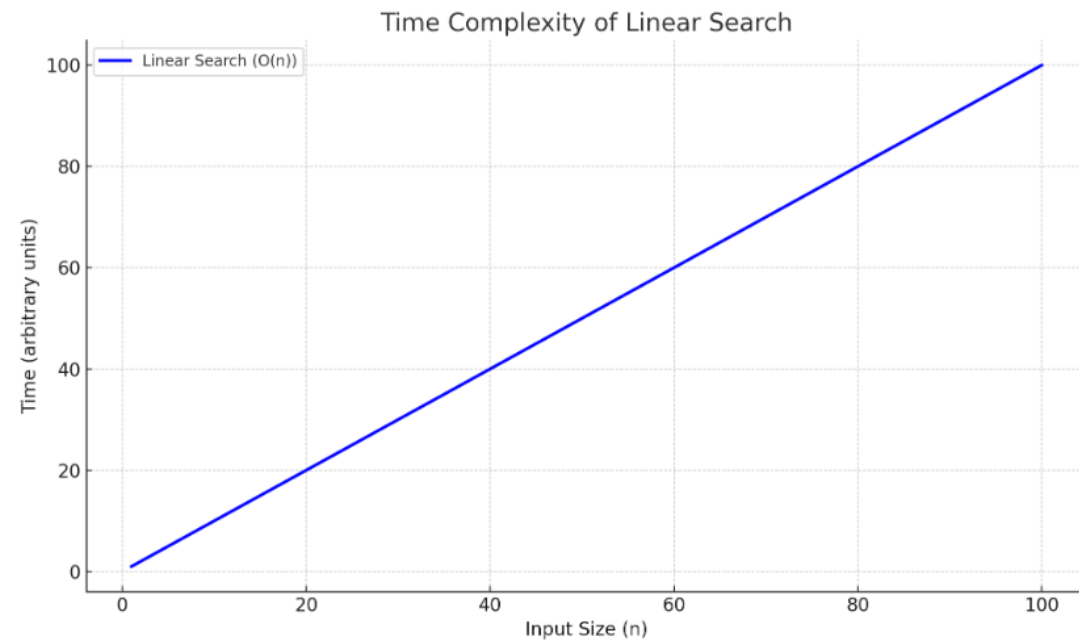
LinearSearch(A, n, x):

for i from 0 to n - 1 do

if A[i] == x then

return i // Target found at index i

return -1



# Quadratic Time Complexity: $O(n^2)$

An algorithm has quadratic time complexity if its runtime grows with the square of the input size.

**Intuition:**

- Often involves nested loops, where each element interacts with every other element.
- Doubling the input size quadruples the runtime.

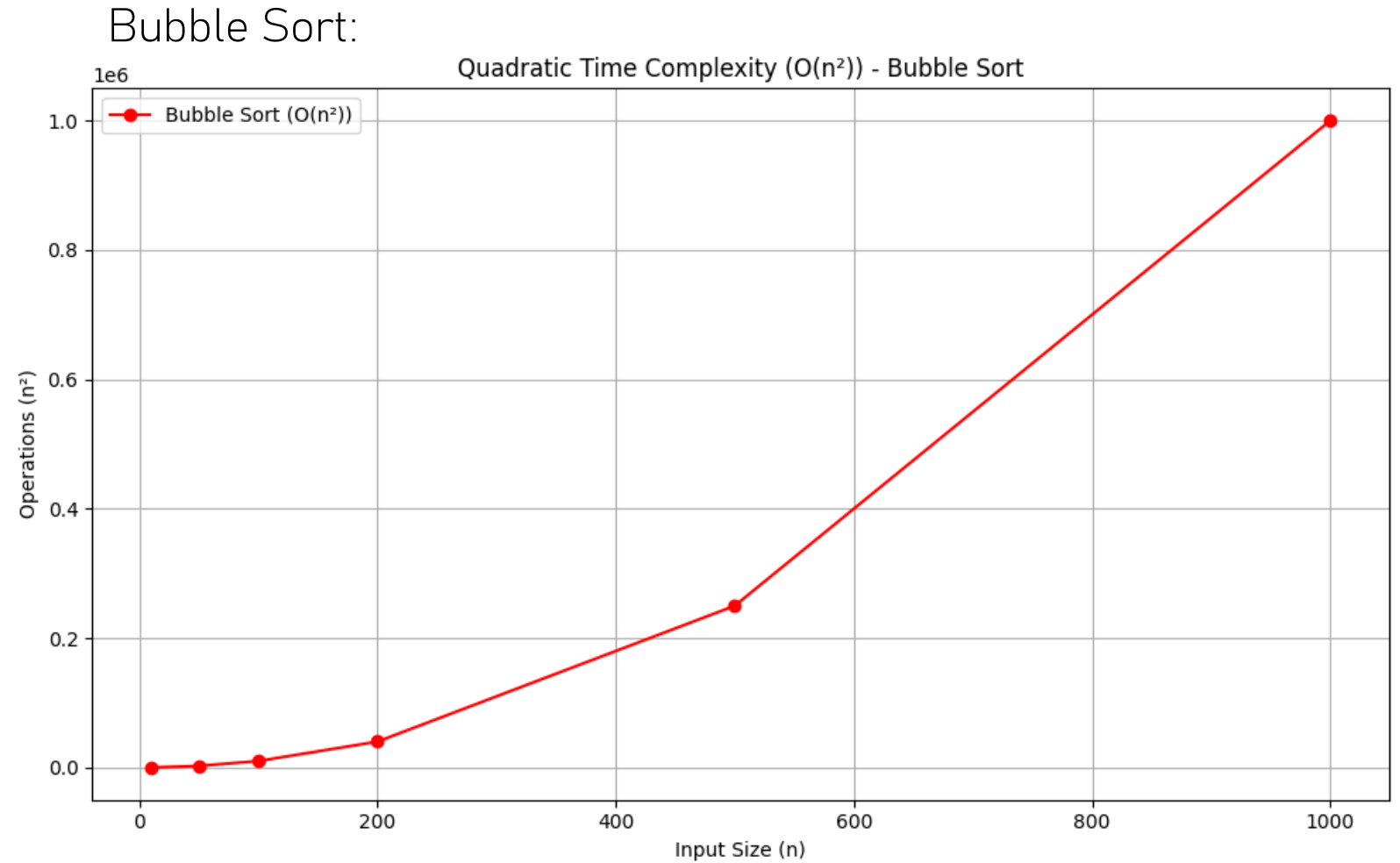
**Examples:**

1. Bubble sort or insertion sort (comparing/swapping elements repeatedly).
2. Checking for duplicates in an unsorted array by comparing each pair.
3. Matrix multiplication (naive algorithm).

**Real-World Application:**

- Generating all possible pairs in a recommendation system (e.g., friend suggestions).
- Basic image processing (e.g., comparing every pixel with every other).

Quadratic Time  
Complexity:  $O(n^2)$



## Logarithmic Time Complexity ( $O(\log n)$ )

An algorithm has **logarithmic time complexity**, denoted  $O(\log n)$  if its runtime grows logarithmically with the input size  $n$ .

This means that as the input size increases, the number of operations increases very slowly, proportional to the logarithm of  $n$ .

**Similar to linear time complexity, except that the runtime does not depend on the input size but rather on half the input size.**

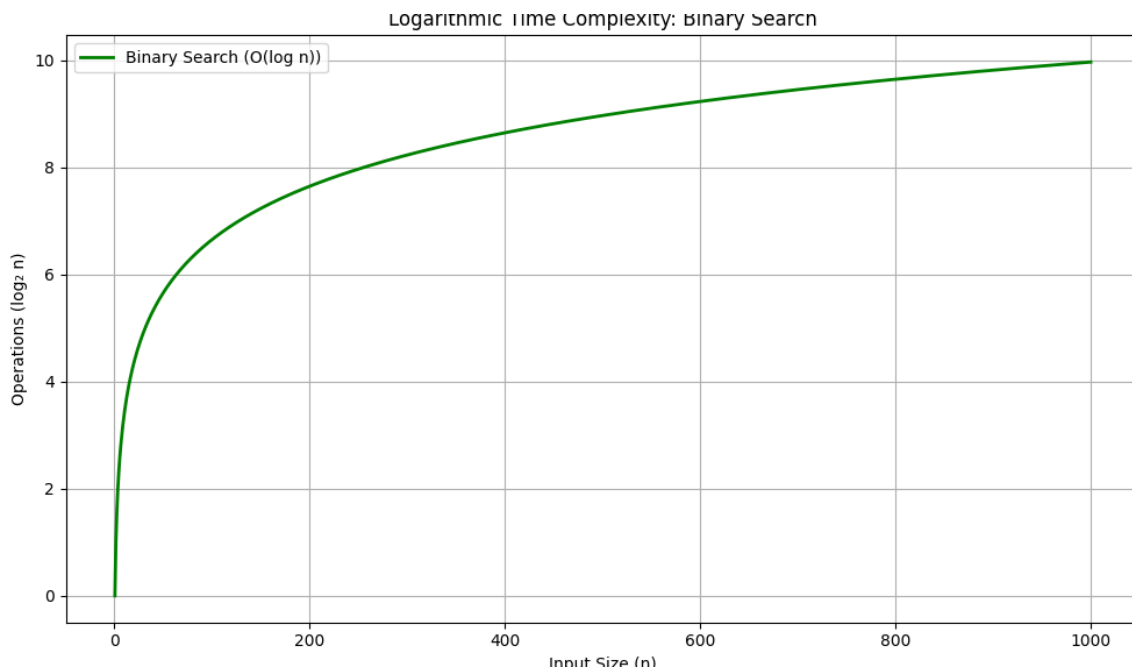
Intuition:

- Logarithmic algorithms are **highly efficient** because they typically **divide the problem size** in half (or by some constant factor) with each step.
- Think of it as: "The larger the input, the fewer additional steps need compared to linear growth."
- For example, in base-2 logarithm ( $\log_2 n$ ), the number of steps is the number of times you can divide  $n$  by 2 until you reach 1.

## Logarithmic Time Complexity ( $O(\log n)$ )

If an algorithm takes  $k$  steps to process an input of size  $n$ , and  $n \approx 2^k$ , then  $k \approx \log_2 n$ .

- **Binary Search:** Problem: Find an element in a sorted array.
- Approach: Repeatedly divide the search interval in half.
- Example: For  $n=1024$ , binary search takes at most  $\log_2 1024=10$  steps.



```
def binary_search(arr, target):  
    left, right = 0, len(arr) - 1  
    while left <= right:  
        mid = (left + right) // 2  
        if arr[mid] == target:  
            return mid  
        elif arr[mid] < target:  
            left = mid + 1  
        else:  
            right = mid - 1  
    return -1
```

Complexity:  $O(\log n)$ , since the array size is halved each iteration.



## Logarithmic Linear Time Complexity ( $O(n \log n)$ )

### Log-linear Time Complexity ( $O(n \log n)$ )

- **Definition:**

An algorithm has **log-linear time complexity**, denoted  $O(n \log n)$  if its runtime grows proportionally to the product of the input size  $n$  and the logarithm of  $n$ . This complexity is also sometimes called **linearithmic** time complexity.

- **Intuition:**

- Common in “divide-and-conquer” algorithms, where the problem is split into smaller chunks.
- Much faster than quadratic but slower than linear.
- The  $\log n$  factor often comes from halving the problem size repeatedly.

## Logarithmic Linear Time Complexity ( $O(n \log n)$ )

Log-linear Time Complexity ( $O(n \log n)$ )

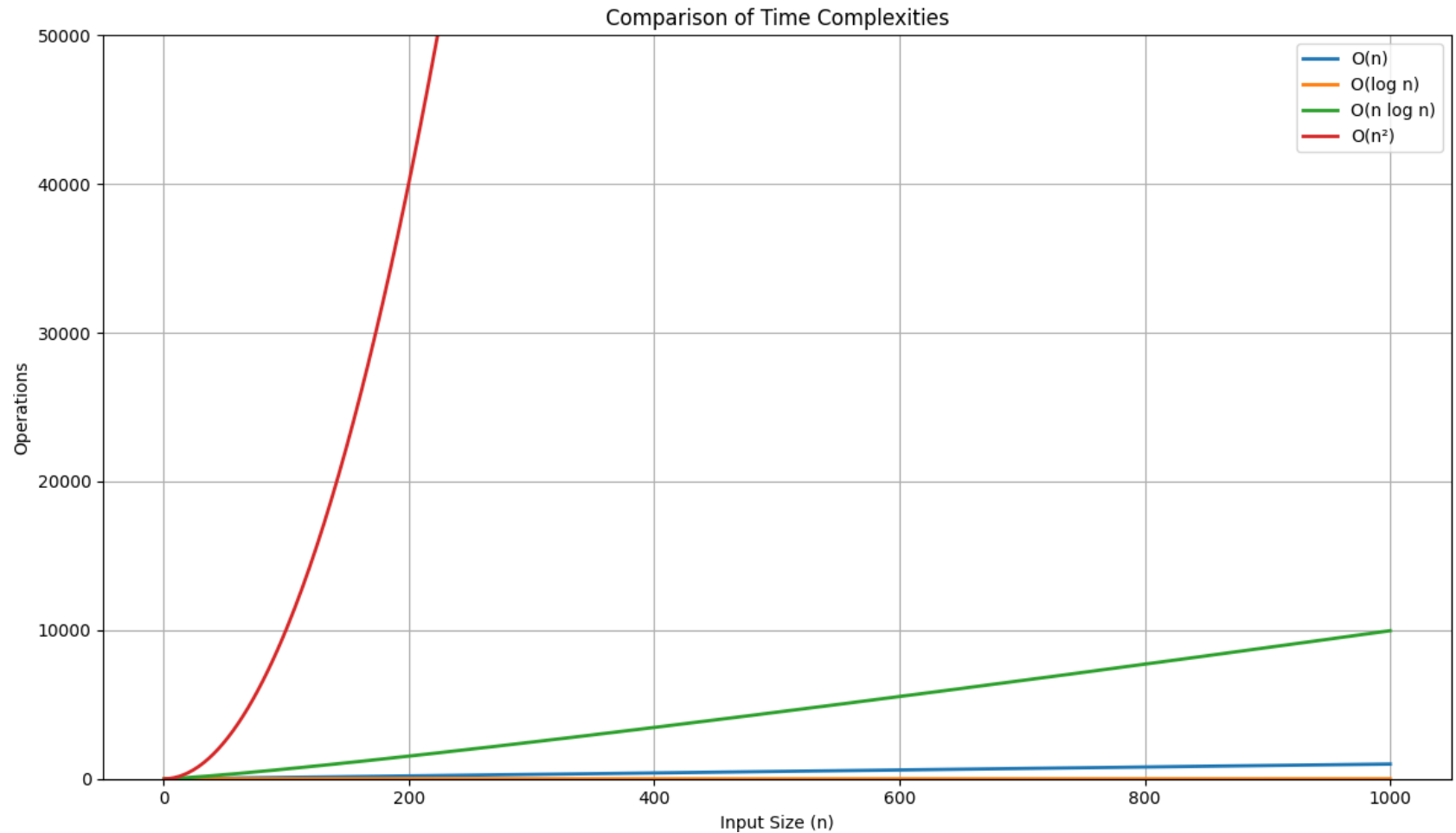
Examples:

1. Merge sort or quicksort (dividing the array and merging/sorting).
2. Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) for signal processing.
3. Heap operations (e.g., building a heap).

Real-World Application:

- Sorting large datasets (e.g., ranking search results).
- Efficient processing in computational geometry or machine learning.

# Logarithmic Linear Time Complexity ( $O(n \log n)$ )



Example: "For  $n = 1000$ ,  $\log n \approx 10$ , so  $O(n \log n)$  is ~10,000 operations, vs.  $O(n^2) = 1,000,000$ ."

# Exponential Time Complexity ( $O(2^n)$ )

- **Definition:** An algorithm has exponential time complexity if its runtime grows exponentially with the input size, typically expressed as  $O(2^n)$ ,  $O(3^n)$  or generally  $O(k^n)$   $k > 1$ .

- **Characteristics:**

- The number of operations doubles (or scales by a constant factor) for each additional element in the input.

- Extremely inefficient for large inputs; runtime becomes impractical even for moderate  $n$ .

- **Examples:**

- Recursive algorithms solving problems like the Tower of Hanoi or generating all subsets of a set.

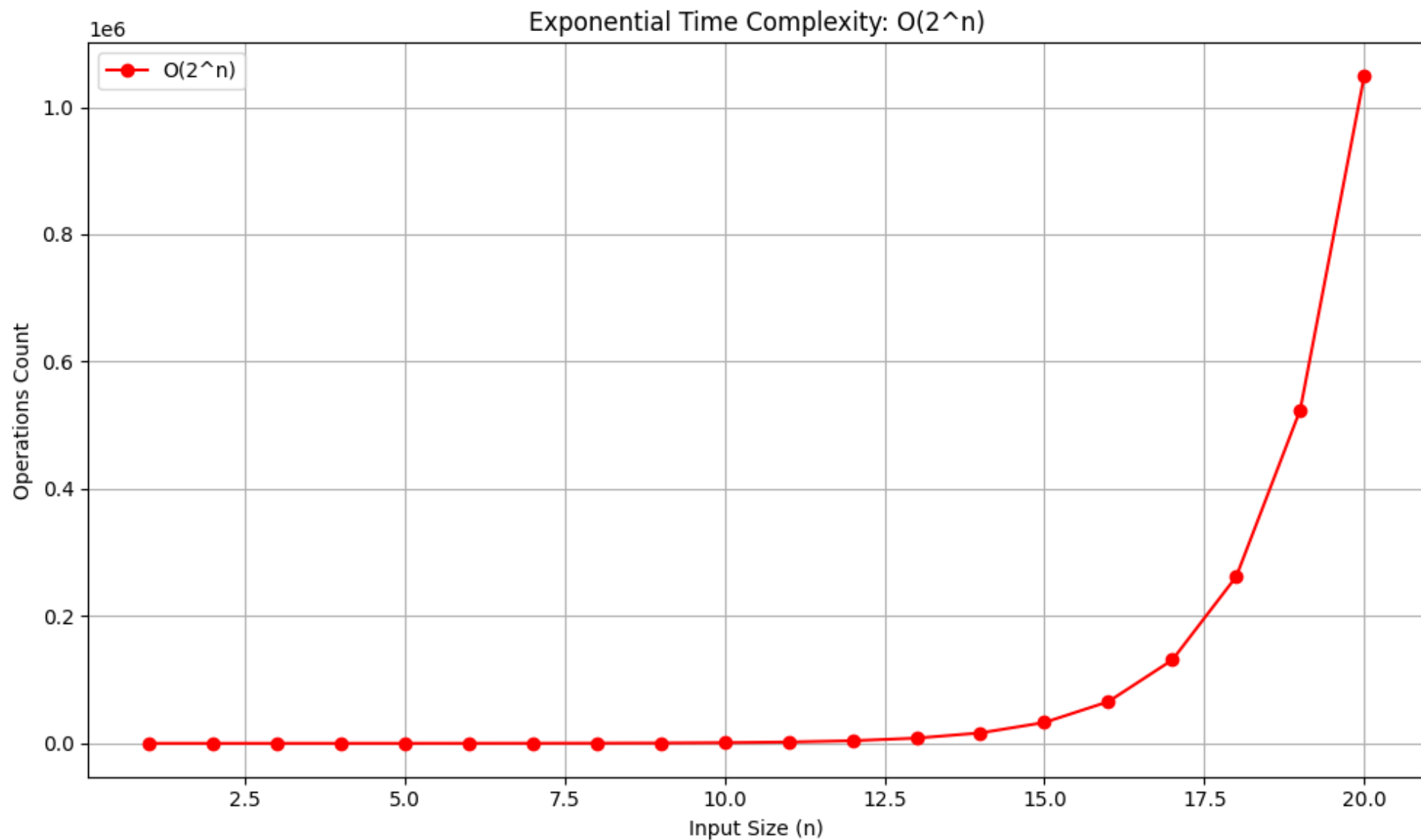
- Certain NP-complete problems (e.g., brute-force traveling salesman problem).

- **Intuition:** If  $n=10$ ,  $2^{10}=1024$  operations; for  $n=20$ ,  $2^{20} \approx 1,000,000$  operations. The growth is explosive.

- **Use Case:** Often seen in brute-force or exhaustive search algorithms.

- Algorithms with **exponential complexity** are typically avoided unless the input size is guaranteed to be small or no better solution exists.

# Exponential Time Complexity ( $O(2^n)$ )





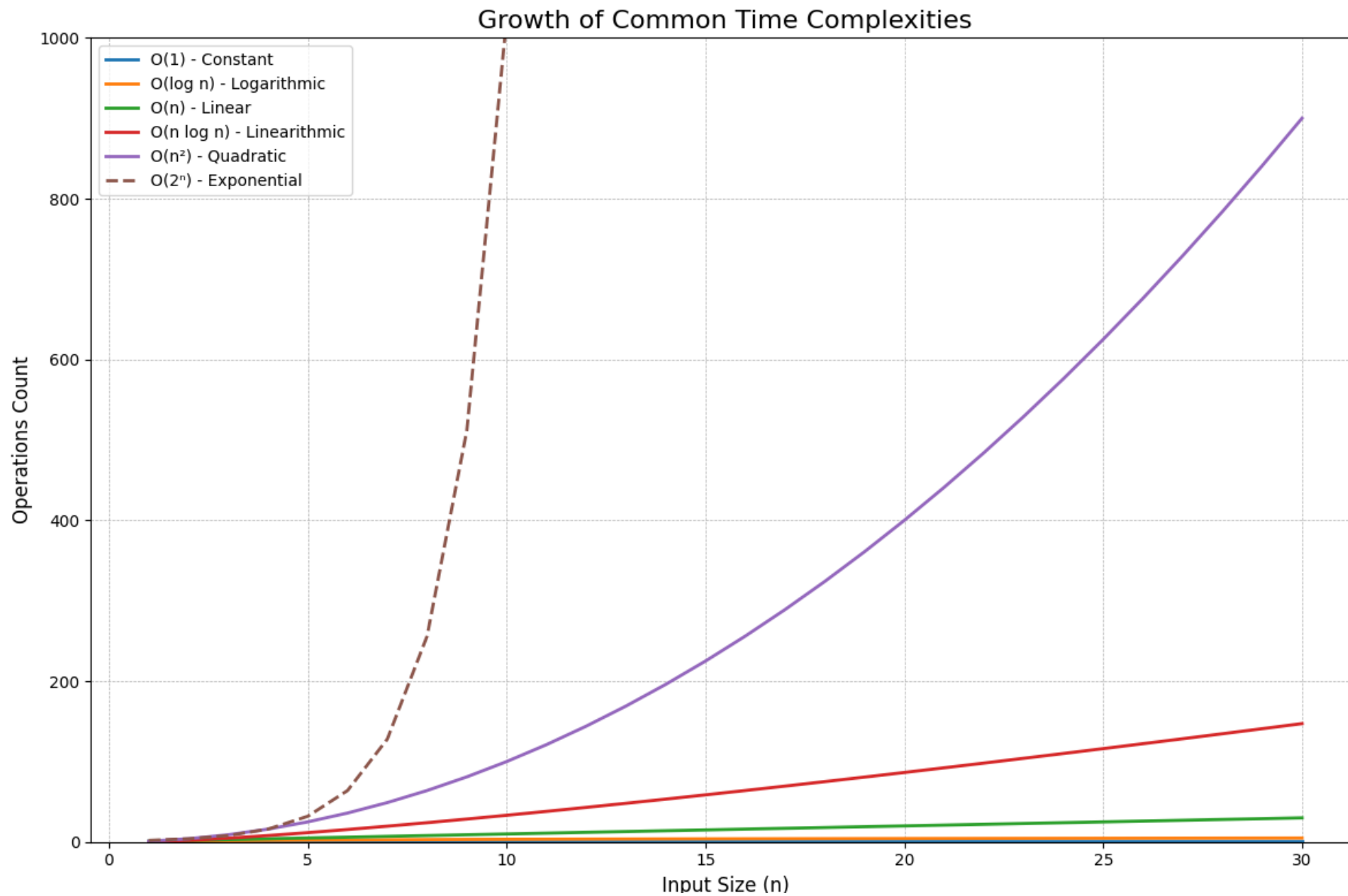
# Comparison

Complexity	Big-O Notation	Growth Behavior	Example Algorithm	Operations for n=10	Operations for n=100	Use Cases
Constant	$O(1)$	♦ Flat — does not grow with input	Array access, hash lookup	1	1	Caching, indexing
Logarithmic	$O(\log n)$	♦ Very slow growth	Binary search	~3.3	~6.6	Efficient searching
Linear	$O(n)$	♦ Directly proportional	Linear search, iteration	10	100	Scanning lists, simple loops
Linearithmic	$O(n \log n)$	♦ Between linear & quadratic	Merge sort, quicksort avg.	~33	~664	Fast sorting
Quadratic	$O(n^2)$	⚠ Grows fast with input size	Bubble sort, nested loops	100	10,000	Small data brute force
Exponential	$O(2^n)$	💣 Explodes with input	Recursive Fibonacci, brute force	1024	~1.27e30	Very small input only

# Comparison: Growth Visualization

Input Size (n)	$O(1)$	$O(\log n)$	$O(n)$	$O(n \log n)$	$O(n^2)$	$O(2^n)$
10	1	3.3	10	33	100	1024
20	1	4.3	20	86	400	1M
50	1	5.6	50	282	2500	1.1e15
100	1	6.6	100	664	10,000	~1e30

# Comparison: Growth Visualization



# Comparison: Input size tolerance

Complexity	Ideal Input Size Limit (for real-time response)
$O(1)$ , $O(\log n)$ , $O(n)$	1 million+ items
$O(n \log n)$	100,000 – 1 million
$O(n^2)$	Up to ~10,000
$O(2^n)$ , $O(n!)$	20–30 max

- Best performing:  $O(1)$ ,  $O(\log n)$
- Balanced:  $O(n)$ ,  $O(n \log n)$
- Worst performing:  $O(n^2)$ ,  $O(2^n)$  (avoid for large inputs)

# Analyzing Time Complexity Through Statement-Level Cost Estimation

- Associate a "cost" with each statement.
- Find the "total cost" by finding the total number of times each statement is executed.

## Algorithm 1

	Cost
arr[0] = 0;	$c_1$
arr[1] = 0;	$c_1$
arr[2] = 0;	$c_1$
...	...
arr[N-1] = 0;	$c_1$

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$$c_1 + c_1 + \dots + c_1 = c_1 \times N$$

## Algorithm 2

	Cost
for(i=0; i<N; i++)	$c_2$
arr[i] = 0;	$c_1$

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$$(N+1) \times c_2 + N \times c_1 = (c_2 + c_1) \times N + c_2$$



# Another Example

<i>Algorithm 3</i>	<i>Cost</i>
sum = 0;	$c_1$
for(i=0; i<N; i++)	$c_2$
for(j=0; j<N; j++)	$c_2$
sum += arr[i][j];	$c_3$
-----	
$c_1 + c_2 \times (N+1) + c_2 \times N \times (N+1) + c_3 \times N^2$	

# Rate of Growth

- Consider the example of buying *elephants* and *goldfish*:

**Cost:**  $\text{cost\_of\_elephants} + \text{cost\_of\_goldfish}$

**Cost**  $\sim \text{cost\_of\_elephants}$  (approximation)

- The low order terms in a function are relatively insignificant for large  $n$

$$n^4 + 100n^2 + 10n + 50 \sim n^4$$

i.e., we say that  $n^4 + 100n^2 + 10n + 50$  and  $n^4$  have the same **rate of growth**

# Class activity

- Analyze individual statement costs in an algorithm.
- Derive the total cost of execution.
- Identify the time complexity class (Big-O).
- Plot costs for different input sizes and recognize growth patterns

```
N = 5
matrix = [[0 for _ in range(N)] for _ in range(N)]

for i in range(N):
    for j in range(N):
        matrix[i][j] = i * j
```

# Summary

- Complexity Classes
- Comparison of Complexity classes
- Class activity