

# Programmieren I (Python)

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# Efficiency

# Efficient Programs?

- Computers are fast and getting faster - so maybe efficient programs don't matter?
- Data sets can be very large (e.g., in 2014, Google served 30,000,000,000,000 pages, covering 100,000,000 GB - how long does it take to search through these with brute force?)
- Simple solutions may simply not scale with size in acceptable manner.
- separate **time and space efficiency** of a program.
  - tradeoff between them:
    - can sometimes pre-compute results that are stored.
    - then use “lookup” to retrieve.
- focus on time efficiency.

# Efficient Programs

Challenges in understanding efficiency of solutions to a computational problem:

- A program can be implemented in many different ways.
- You can solve a problem using only a handful of different algorithms.
- Separate **choices of implementation** from **choices of more abstract algorithm**.
- Measure with a timer
- Count the operations
- Abstract notation of order of growth

# Timing a program

- Use `time` module in python!

```
1 >>> from time import perf_counter
2 >>> def longrunning_function():
3 ...     for i in range(1, 11):
4 ...         time.sleep(i / i ** 2)
5 ...
6 >>> start = perf_counter() # python 3.7: perf_counter_ns
7 >>> longrunning_function()
8 >>> end = perf_counter()
9 >>> execution_time = (end - start)
```

# Timing a program

Timing a program is **inconsistent**.

- Our goal: evaluate different algorithms.
- But:
  - *Runtime* varies between implementations and computers.
- Runtime varies for different inputs but cannot really express a relationship between inputs and time.

# Counting operations

- Assume the following steps take constant time:
  - mathematical operations
  - comparisons
  - assignments
  - accessing objects in memory
- Then count the number of operations executed as function of size of input.

```
1 def c_to_f(c):  
2     return c*9/5 + 32 # 3 operations
```

# Counting operations

- Counting operations is better than timing, but still depends on detailed implementation of algorithm.
  - It is also not clear which operations to count.
- Count varies for different inputs and can come up with a relationship between inputs the the count.



# A better way?

- Focus on the idea of counting operations in an algorithm!
  - Without worrying about small variations in implementation.
- Focus on how algorithms perform when size of problem gets arbitrarily large.
- Relate time needed to complete a computation against the size of the input to the problem.
- Decide on what to measure, given the actual number of steps may depend on specific instance of input.

# Different inputs, different program runs

- Express efficiency in terms of size of input!
  - What is the input? A number? A list?

```
1 def search_elem(L, e):  
2     """Search for element e in list L."""  
3     for i in L:  
4         if i==e:  
5             return True  
6     return False
```

- If **e** is first element in **L**: best case.
- If **e** is not in **L**: worst case.
- If looking through about half of **L**: average case.
- How to measure this behavior in a general way? Focus on the worst case!

# Orders of growth

- Evaluate program's efficiency when input is very big.
  - What does it mean that input is very big?
- Express the growth of program's runtime as input of size grows.
- Put an upper bound on growth: as tight as possible.
- No need to be precise: **order of** instead of **exact**.
- That is, only consider the largest factor in runtime.
  - what part of the program takes the longest to run?
- Goal: Tight upper bound on growth of runtime, as a function of input size, in worst case.

# Big-Oh notation

- Big-Oh (that is:  $O(\cdot)$ ) notation measures an **upper bound on the asymptotic growth**.
  - often called *order of growth*.
- $O(\cdot)$  is used to describe the worst case
  - worst case occurs often and is the bottleneck when a program runs.
  - express rate of growth of a program relative to input size.
  - evaluate algorithm **not** machine or implementation.
- Focus on dominant terms:
  - $n^2 + n + 1: O(n^2)$ .
  - $100000n^2 - 1000000000000000n: O(n^2)$ .
  - $0.000000001n \log n + 1000000000n: O(n \log n)$ .
  - $n^{100} + 3^n: O(3^n)$ .

# Law of addition

- Used with sequential statements.
- $O(f(n)) + O(g(n)) = O(f(n) + g(n))$ .

```
1 for i in range(n): # O(n)
2     l = i*i
3 for j in range(n*n): # O(n^2)
4     k = j*j
```

- is  $O(n^2)$  because of dominant term.

# Law of multiplication

- Used with **nested** statements (e.g. loops)
- $O(f(n) * g(n)) = O(f(n) * g(n))$ .

```
1 for i in range(n): # O(n)
2     for j in range(n): # O(n)
3         l = i*j
```

- is  $O(n^2)$ : The outer loop goes  $n$  times over the inner loop.

# Complexity classes

- $O(1)$ : Constant running time.
- $O(\log n)$ : Logarithmic running time.
- $O(n)$ : Linear running time.
- $O(n \log n)$ : Log-linear running time.
- $O(n^c)$ : Polynomial running time ( $c$  is a constant).
- $O(c^n)$ : Exponential running time ( $c$  is a constant).

# Linear Complexity

- **Simple** iterative algorithms are typically linear in complexity.

```
1 def linear_search(L, e):
2     """Search for element e in list L.
3     L is not sorted."""
4     found = False
5     for i in range(len(L)):
6         if e == L[i]:
7             found = True
8     return found
```

- Must look through all elements to decide if it's **not** there.
- Assume:
  - Constant time to access list element at index **i**.
  - Constant time to compare two elements.
- $O(n)$ , where  $n$  is the length of **L**.



# Linear Complexity

```
1 def fact_iter(n):  
2     """Compute factorial of n>= 0, iteratively."""  
3     prod = 1  
4     for i in range(1, n+1):  
5         prod *= i  
6     return prod
```

- Assumes constant time for multiplication of two (large?!?) integers!

# Linear Complexity

```
1 def fact_recur(n):  
2     """Recursive factorial of n, n >= 0"""  
3     if n <= 1:  
4         return 1  
5     else:  
6         return n * fact_recur(n-1)
```

- Iterative and recursive implementations are the **same** order of growth **in this task!**
  - Recursive version may run a bit slower due to overhead of function calls.

# Linear complexity

```
1 def virfib_iter(n):
2     if n == 0:
3         return 0
4     elif n == 1:
5         return 1
6     else:
7         fib_i = 0
8         fib_ii = 1
9         for i in range(n-1):
10             tmp = fib_i
11             fib_i = fib_ii
12             fib_ii = tmp + fib_i
13         return fib_ii
```

- Iterative Virahanka-Fibonacci is linear in  $n$ .

# Quadratic Complexity

```
1 def isSubset(L1, L2):
2     """Check if L2 is
3     proper subset of L1."""
4     for e1 in L1:
5         matched = True
6         for e2 in L2:
7             if e1 == e2:
8                 matched = True
9                 break
10        if not matched:
11            return False
12    return True
```

- Outer loop executed **`len(L1)`** many times.
- Each iteration will execute inner loop **up to `len(L2)`** times, with constant number of operations.
- $O(\text{len}(L1) \times \text{len}(L2))$ .

# Exponential Complexity

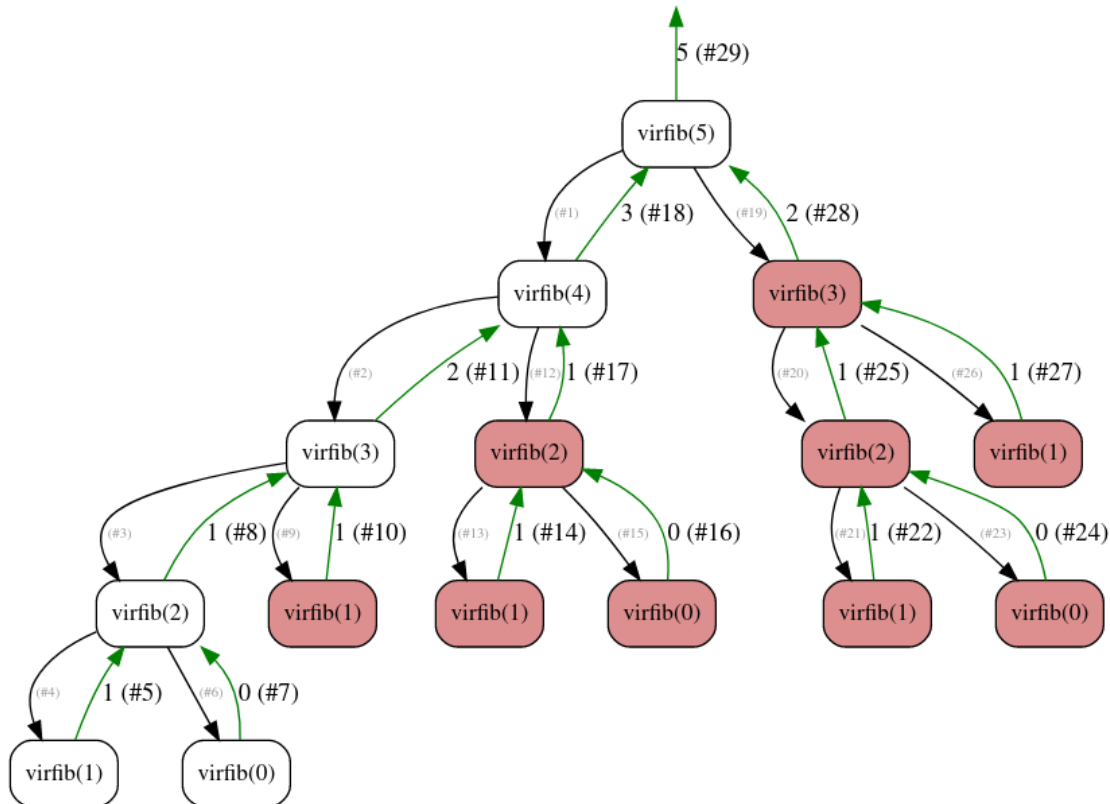
- **Towers of Hanoi**, consisting of  $n$  discs. The pegs are labeled A, B and C.
  - A is the starting peg and B is the goal peg.
- Denote the number of necessary moves for  $n$  discs with  $t_n$ . That is, for a tower consisting of  $n - 1$  discs, we would use  $t_{n-1}$  to denote the number of moves to solve this instance of the problem.
- Solve the problem by first moving  $n - 1$  discs from A to C, then move the biggest disc from A to B, then move  $n - 1$  discs from C to B.
- This gives a recurrence relation for  $t_n$ !
  - $t_n = t_{n-1} + 1 + t_{n-1} = 2t_{n-1} + 1$
  - Unfold recursively!
$$t_n = 2t_{n-1} + 1 = 2(2t_{n-2} + 1) + 1 = 2(2(2t_{n-3} + 1) + 1) + 1 = \dots$$
  - $t_n = 2^n - 1$ .
- An example of the **Master Theorem**.

# Exponential complexity

```

1 def virfib(n):
2     """Recursive Virahanka-Fibonacci number for n >= 1."""
3     if n == 0:
4         return 0
5     elif n == 1:
6         return 1
7     else:
8         return virfib(n-1) + virfib(n-2)

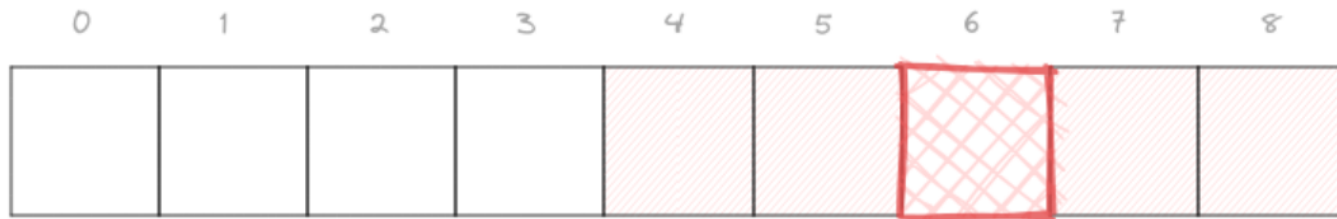
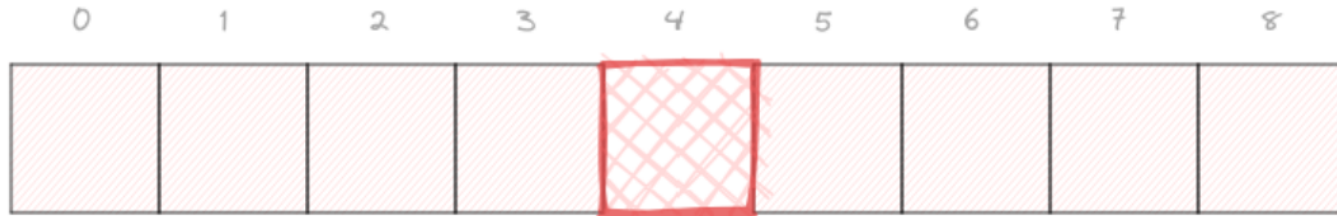
```



# Logarithmic Complexity

- How can it be possible to spend less than  $n$  units of work for a list with  $n$  elements?
- The list (or in general, the data) must have some structure, apriori.
- For example, searching an element in a **sorted** list.
- Because the list is sorted, one can determine in which half of the full list the element must be.
  - Simply compare to the **middle element** of the full list.
  - The same process can now be applied to the selected half part of the full list.
    - Recursion!

# Logarithmic Complexity





# Logarithmic Complexity

- The element that is searched for may be found during the splitting process (i.e. it is the element that (roughly) halves the list).
- In worst case, how many steps does it take until it is clear that the element is **not** in the list?
  - At every step, the size of the relevant list is halved.
  - How many steps  $i$  until only one element is left?
  - Solve  $1 = n/2^i$
  - $i = \log n$  (base of log is not important!)

# Logarithmic complexity – binary search ?

```
1 def binary_search(L, e):
2     """Find e in L, L is sorted!"""
3     if L == []:
4         return False
5     elif len(L) == 1:
6         return L[0] == e
7     else:
8         half = len(L) // 2
9         if L[half] >= e:
10            return binary_search(L[:half], e)
11        else:
12            return binary_search(L[half:], e)
```

- However this is not  $O(\log n)$ . It is  $O(n \log n)$ .
  - Each recursive call uses the **slice** operator: A full copy of the elements is generated.
  - The cost is due to how Python handles slices! This might be different in a different language!!

# Logarithmic complexity – binary search !

```
1 def binary_search(L, e):
2     def _bin_search_helper(L, e, low, high):
3         if high == low:
4             return L[low] == e
5         mid = (low + high)//2
6         if L[mid] == e:
7             return True
8         elif e < L[mid]:
9             if low == mid:
10                return False
11            else:
12                return _bin_search_helper(L, e, low, mid-1)
13        else:
14            return _bin_search_helper(L, e, mid+1, high)
15    if len(L) == 0:
16        return False
17    else:
18        return _bin_search_helper(L, e, 0, len(L) - 1)
```

# Searching a list

- Linear search takes  $O(n)$ .
- Binary search takes  $O(\log(n))$ .
  - But the list must be sorted upfront!
  - How expensive is sorting?
  - Is it reasonable to spend that work before searching?
- For one-time (or a few-time) search, sorting before binary search is not preferable!
  - $O(\text{SORT}) + O(\log n) < O(n)$ , i.e. sorting needs to be better than linear!
  - This is not possible! (Because we need to look at each element at least once).
- Better: sort **once**, search very often!
  - $O(\text{SORT}) + K \times O(\log n)$ : For very large  $K$ , cost for sorting is irrelevant **iff**?
- Best sorting algorithms (based on comparisons!) are  $O(n \log n)$ !

# Sorting

# Bubble sort

- Compare consecutive list elements. If order is incorrect, fix it locally.
  - **Fixing** means swapping two consecutive elements.
  - Larger elements *bubble* upwards.
- Largest **unsorted** element is at the end of the list after one pass over the list!
  - At most  $n$  passes are necessary, where every pass costs at most  $O(n)$ .
  - $O(n * n)$ .
  - One can stop algorithm, if a pass happens without swapping elements.

# Bubble Sort

```
1 def bubble_sort(L):
2     swap = True
3     while swap:
4         swap = False
5         for j in range(0, len(L)-1):
6             if L[j] > L[j+1]:
7                 swap = True
8                 L[j], L[j+1] = L[j+1], L[j]
```

- Inner loop is doing comparisons (always  $n$  many!)
  - An element can bubble up!
- Outer loop does multiple passes
  - In this implementation, potentially way less than  $n$  many!

# Selection Sort

- How can one think more structured about sorting?
- Assume that the list to be sorted follows the following assumptions:
  - All elements from index 0 to some index  $i - 1$  are properly sorted (ascending) and
  - These elements are all smaller or equal to the unsorted elements from index  $i$  on.
- How does that help?
  - How can one determine the next element that should be added to the sorted part?
- Find the smallest element from index  $i$  on (the remaining list) and put it at index  $i$ .
- Start the algorithm with  $i = 0$ !



# Selection Sort

```
1 def selection_sort(L):  
2     prefix_idx = 0  
3     while prefix_idx != len(L):  
4         for i in range(prefix_idx, len(L)):  
5             if L[i] < L[prefix_idx]:  
6                 L[prefix_idx], L[i] = L[i], L[prefix_idx]  
7         prefix_idx += 1
```

- Outer Loop needs  $n$  steps.
- Inner Loop is  $O(n) - \text{prefix\_idx}$  steps.
- $O(n^2)$ .

# Insertion Sort

- Maybe too many assumptions need to hold? What if only the first  $i - 1$  elements of a list are sorted?
  - No longer needed that these are also smaller than the unsorted elements!
  - So we don't need to find the next smallest element! Maybe we can save a costly (linear) search?
- Simply take the next element (at index  $i$ ) and properly insert it at the right position!
  - **Sorting by *insertion* !**
- Any issues?
  - **Properly inserting** is costly! Need to find the right spot and move existing elements by one?!
- Thoughts?
  - Binary search and Linked Lists??

# Insertion Sort

```
1 def insertion_sort(L):
2     i = 0
3     while i < len(L):
4         j = i
5         while j > 0:
6             if b[j-1] > b[j]:
7                 b[j-1], b[j] = b[j], b[j-1]
8             j -= 1
9         i += 1
```

- Still  $O(n^2)$ .
- ???

# Merge Sort

- Binary Search worked well because it divided the problem in two equal halves.
- What would that be for sorting?
  - Two half lists, sorted. Then merge these sorted lists.
  - Amazing instance for **Divide and Conquer** algorithms.
    - The resulting sublists of one recursive call are ordered!

```
1 def merge_sort(L):
2     if len(L) < 2:
3         return L[:]
4     else:
5         middle = len(L) // 2
6         left = merge_sort(L[:middle])
7         right = merge_sort(L[middle:])
8         return merge(left, right)
```

- Note the copies! Every **recursive layer** costs about  $n$  steps!
  - But how deep is the recursion tree?
  - And how costly is **merge**?

# Merge Sort

```
1 def merge(left, right):
2     result = []
3     i, j = 0, 0
4     while i < len(left) and j < len(right):
5         if left[i] < right[j]:
6             result.append(left[i])
7             i += 1
8         else:
9             result.append(right[j])
10            j += 1
11    while i < len(left):
12        result.append(left[i])
13        i += 1
14    while j < len(right):
15        result.append(right[j])
16        j += 1
17    return result
```

- Overall complexity is  $O(n \log n)$ !

