CSE 3318

Week of 06/05/2023

Instructor: Donna French

Code Formatting

Formatting will count as 10% of the grade for any code you write in this class – Coding Assignments or OLQs.

Indention and alignment

Code blocks should be indented at least 3 spaces and not more than 5 spaces

If tabs are used, always use tabs and set tab size to be 3-5 spaces

If spaces are used, always use spaces and always use the same number of them

Curly braces { } should align vertically and be on their own line

Code Formatting

Code formatting has several benefits

- allows quick readability it is easier/faster to understand the gross structure of the code without in depth examination
- allows for less reliance on the editor to match up braces and code blocks
- creates readable code that is easier for someone other than the student to read – for example, when the student is asking the instructor or TAs for assistance
- allows for easier grading of code both the instructor and student benefit –
 code that is easier to grade is less likely to be marked as incorrect
- gives the students the experience of apply a given formatting standard which they will likely encounter as a professional programmer

```
<u>File Edit Search View Encoding Language Settings Tools Macro Run Plugins Window ?</u>
enew 1 🗵
 1 #include <stdio.h>int main(void){
 2 int X = 1; int Y = 1; int Z = 0; int a = 1;
 3 if (X \& \& Z) \{a / = 3; \}else
 4 if (X && Y) {a *= 4;}else
 5 {a -= 4;}printf("%d", a);return 0;}
```



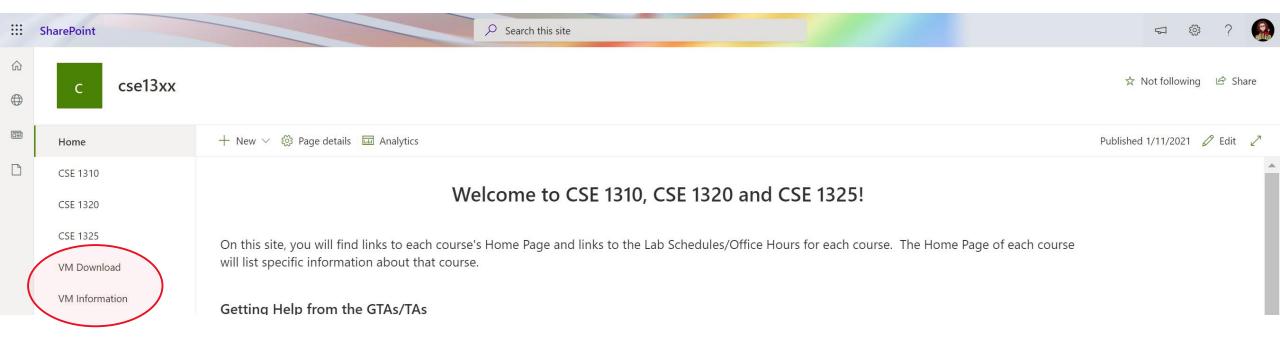
Tools Needed for this Class

- Text editor or IDE that recognizes the C language (syntax highlighting)
- File Transfer program (FileZilla)
- Terminal emulator (PuTTY or SSH)
- Oracle VM or Visual Studio Code with an Ubuntu Terminal

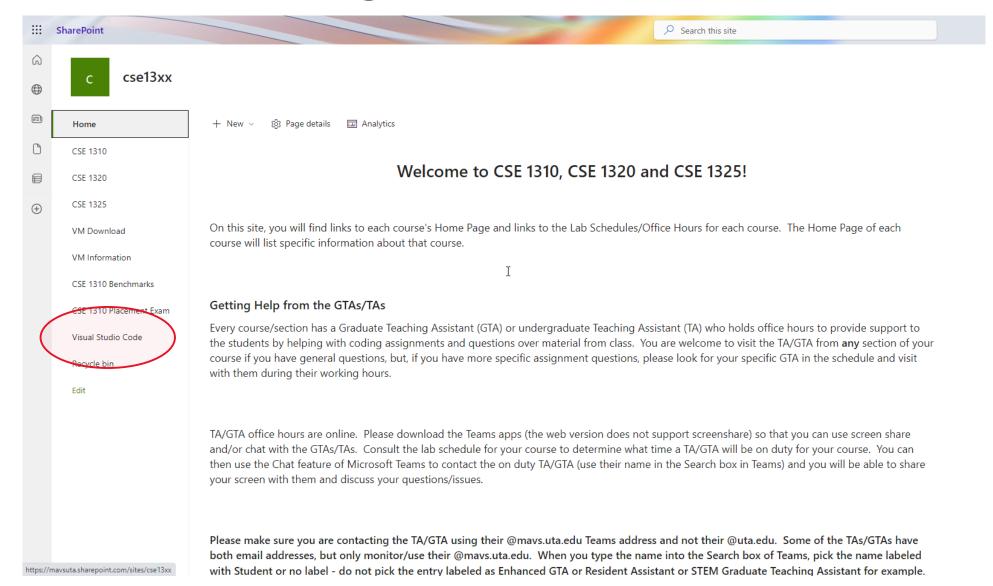
We will be using **BOTH** Omega and PCs to compile our C programs.

Installing the VM





Installing Visual Studio Code



Informal definition

An algorithm is any well-defined computational procedure that takes some value, or set of values, as **input** and produces some value, or set of values, as **output**.

An algorithm is a sequence of computational steps that transform the **input** to the **output**.

An algorithm is also a tool for solving a well-specified computational problem.

The statement of the problem specifies in general terms the desired input/output relationship.

The algorithm describes a specific computational procedure for achieving that input/output relationship.

Informal definition of problem:

Sort a sequence of numbers into nondecreasing order.

Formal definition of problem:

Input : A sequence of n numbers $\langle a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \rangle$.

Output : A permutation (reordering) $\langle a'1, a'2,...a'_n \rangle$ of the input

sequence such that $a'_1 \le a'_2 \le ... \le a'_n$.

Input : A sequence of *n* numbers $\langle a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \rangle$.

Output : A permutation (reordering) $\langle a'1, a'2, ...a'_n \rangle$ of the input sequence such that $a'_1 \le a'_2 \le ... \le a'_n$.

Given the input sequence of

(31, 41, 59, 26, 41, 58)

our sorting algorithm would return the output as

(26, 31, 41, 41, 58, 59)

This input sequence

(41, 31, 58, 26, 41, 59)

or this input sequence

(31, 41, 59, 26, 41, 58)

or this input sequence

(58, 59, 41, 41, 26, 31)

would all result in the same output

(26, 31, 41, 41, 58, 59)

Each of these are an *instance* of the sorting problem.

An instance of a problem consists of the input needed to compute a solution to the problem.

Sorting is a fundamental operation in computer science.

Which sorting algorithm is best for a given application depends on many factors...

- the number of items to be sorted
- the extent to which the items are already somewhat sorted
- possible restrictions on the item values
- the architecture of the computer
- type of storage device (memory, disk, tape...)

So what makes an algorithm "correct"?

An algorithm is called **correct** if, for every input instance, it halts with the correct output.

A correct algorithm solves the given computational problem.

An incorrect algorithm might not halt at all on some input instances or it might halt with an incorrect answer.

What kinds of problems are solved by algorithms?

Lots and lots and lots of them!!!

- Sorting
- Internet managing and manipulating large volumes of data
- Internet routing data
- Internet searching
- Cryptography and digital signatures
- Allocation of resources
- GPS routing

What kinds of problems are solved by algorithms?

Lots and lots and lots of them!!!

- Given a person's song history and a large song database, find a song they might like hearing next.
- Analyze thousands of casual pictures taken by hundreds of different cameras to track an individual
- Given a grocery list and the layout of a store, find the quickest way to collect all items.

Two characteristics common to many algorithmic problems

- 1. Have many candidate solutions
 - a. most of which do not solve the problem
 - b. finding a solution that does or is the best can be very challenging
- 2. Have practical applications
 - a. You want your GPS to not only find a route but find the best route which may not be the shortest because of other factors

We are going to use various data structures to store the data our algorithms will be manipulating.

A data structure is a way to store and organize data in order to facilitate access and modifications.

No single data structure works well for all purposes.

We will learn the strengths and limitations of several.

Other than speed, what other measures of efficiency might one use in a real-world setting?

Resources

Memory space

For example, using recursion may be the most efficient approach timewise but does the machine running the algorithm have the resources/memory space to execute the recursion? Remember all of those function execution environments?

Select a data structure that you have seen previously and discuss its strengths and limitations.

Arrays vs Linked Lists

Do you want a car that goes fast or a car that has an expandable number of seats?

Arrays require contiguous memory but allow for random access.

Linked lists do not require contiguous memory but are limited to sequential access.

An array's size is set when it is created – a linked list can grow.

Come up with a real-world problem in which only the best solution will do. Then come up with one in which a solution that is "approximately" the best is good enough.

Launching a probe to Mars

VS

Driving to Grandma's house for Sunday dinner

Why study algorithms?

Computers are fast but not infinitely fast.

Memory may not be expensive, but it is not free.

Computing time is a bounded resource and so is space in memory.

We need to use these resources efficiently.

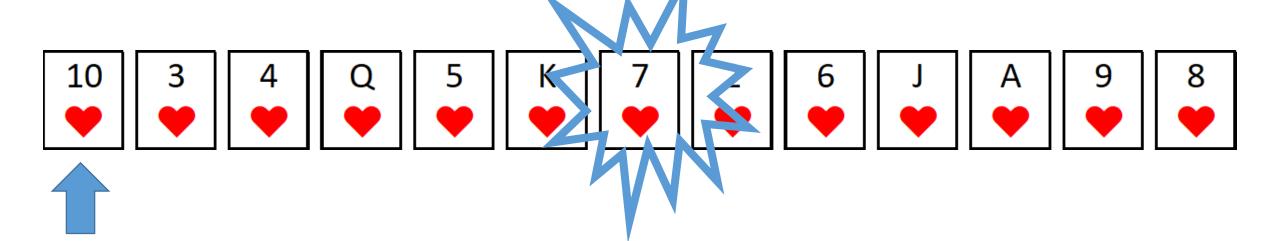
Efficiency

Different algorithms devised to solve the same problem often differ dramatically in their efficiency.

These differences can be much more significant than differences due to hardware and software.

A **linear search** or **sequential search** is a method for finding an element within a list. It sequentially checks each element of the list until a match is found or the whole list has been searched.

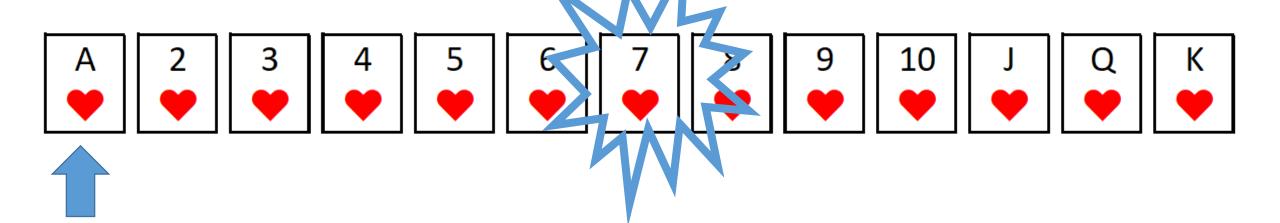
For example, if you have a set of cards and need to find the 7, you will need to look through each card until finding the 7.



The card you are looking for might be the first card or it might be the last card or it could be anywhere in between.

You would have to compare each card one by one.

Does sorting the card deck help? Is the search time shorter?



Best case scenario – the card we are searching for is the first card.

Worst case scenario – the card we are searching for is the last card.

Sorting the inform

What happens wh

When you look up keep checking eve

The Oxford English Dictionary has a new "last word" – "zyzzyva", which is a genus of tropical weevil native to South America typically found in palm trees.

irst word on the first page and

Hope you are not looking for "zyzzya".

```
LinearSearch.c
 1 /* C program for Linear Search */
 2 #include <stdlib.h>
 3 #include <stdio.h>
   /* Function to print an array */
    void printArray(int A[], int size)
        int i;
        for (i=0; i < size; i++)</pre>
10
            printf("%d ", A[i]);
11
        printf("\n\n");
12
13
    int main(int argc, char *argv[])
15 ₽{
16
        int arr[] = \{12, 11, 5, 13, 7, 6\};
17
        int arr size = sizeof(arr)/sizeof(arr[0]);
18
        int i = 0;
19
        int FoundIt = 0;
        int SearchValue = atoi(argv[1]);
 20
```

C source file

Ln:29 Col:33 Pos:564

Windows (CR LF) UTF-8

```
/* C program for Linear Search */
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
/* Function to print an array */
void printArray(int A[], int size)
    int i;
    for (i=0; i < size; i++)
        printf("%d ", A[i]);
    printf("\n\n");
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
    int arr[] = \{12, 11, 5, 13, 7, 6\};
    int arr size = sizeof(arr)/sizeof(arr[0]);
    int i = 0;
    int SearchValue = atoi(argv[1]);
    printArray(arr, arr size);
    while (i < arr size && arr[i] != SearchValue)</pre>
        i++;
    if (arr[i++] == SearchValue)
        printf("Found %d in array after %d checks\n", SearchValue, i);
    else
        printf("%d not found in array\n", SearchValue);
    return 0;
```

```
/* C program for Linear Search */
#include <stdlib.h>
#include <stdio.h>
/* Function to print an array */
void printArray(int A[], int size)
   int i;
   for (i=0; i < size; i++)
      printf("%d ", A[i]);
   printf("\n\n");
```

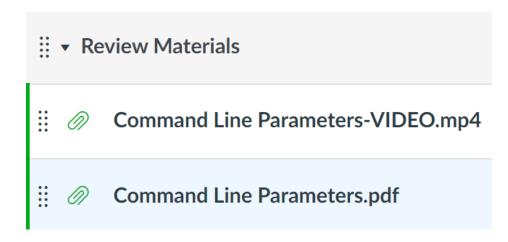
```
int main(int argc, char *argv[])
   int arr[] = \{12, 11, 5, 13, 7, 6\};
   int arr size = sizeof(arr)/sizeof(arr[0]);
   int i = 0;
   int SearchValue = atoi(arqv[1]);
   printArray(arr, arr size);
```

```
while (i < arr_size && arr[i] != SearchValue)
{
   i++;
}</pre>
```

Notes

This code used several features that you need to be familiar with

- 1. Used gcc to compile from the Linux command line
- 2. Used command line parameters to give input to the program.



Adding the logic to end the search when the value is found helps with the number of searches but only if the search item is found early in the search.

Linear Search is not very useful except for very small sets of data or when sorting would actually take more time.

For example, in class, after everyone turns in their written quiz, I have a stack of unsorted papers. You approach me after class and ask to see your paper to make sure you put on ID on it. To find your quiz, I have to perform a linear search.

It would not be beneficial to sort the stack alphabetically by last name and then find your paper.

But, when I store the papers in my filing cabinet, I do alphabetize them first.

Why?

One reason is because it is easier for me to enter them into the gradebook when they are alphabetized because the gradebook is alphabetized.

Also, once the papers are sorted (alphabetized), I can perform a better, much more efficient search if someone asks to see their paper...

Binary search is an efficient algorithm for finding an item from a sorted list of items.

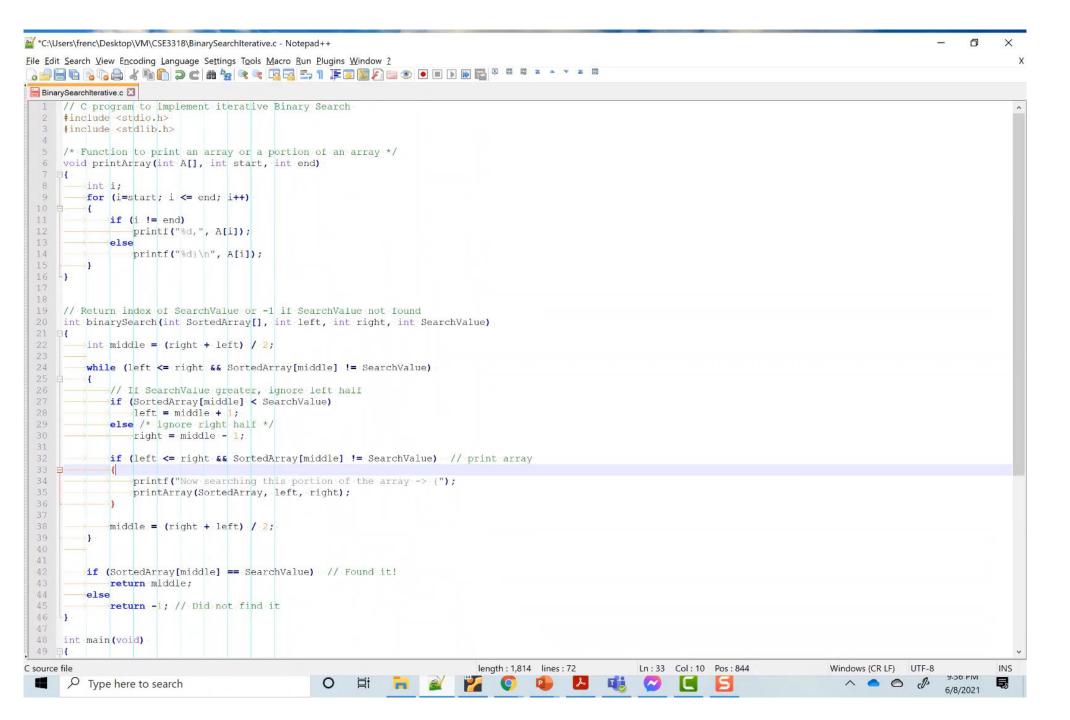
It works by repeatedly dividing in half the portion of the list that could contain the item, until you've narrowed down the possible locations to just one.

One of the most common ways to use binary search is to find an item in an array.



Search 23

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
2	5	8	12	16	23	38	56	72	91





```
#include <stdio.h>
   #include <string.h>
   int main(void)
 6
       char DayOfWeek[10];
9
       #ifdef Monday
           strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Monday");
       #elif Wednesday
           strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Wednesday");
       #else
           strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Friday");
14
       #endif
16
       printf("Today is %s\n\n", DayOfWeek);
19
       return 0;
```

3 different ways to compile this code

```
gcc CondComp.c -D Monday
```

gcc CondComp.c -D Wednesday

```
#include <stdio.h>
   #include <string.h>
   int main(void)
        char DayOfWeek[10];
        #ifdef Monday
10
            strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Monday");
        #elif Wednesday
            strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Wednesday");
13
        #else
14
            strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Friday");
        #endif
16
17
        printf("Today is %s\n\n", DayOfWeek);
18
19
        return 0;
```

```
qcc CondComp.c -E
int main(void)
  char DayOfWeek[10];
  strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Friday");
 printf("Today is %s\n\n", DayOfWeek);
  return 0;
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
   #include <string.h>
   int main(void)
 6 ₽{
        char DayOfWeek[10];
        #ifdef Monday
10
            strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Monday");
        #elif Wednesday
            strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Wednesday");
13
        #else
14
            strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Friday");
        #endif
16
17
       printf("Today is %s\n\n", DayOfWeek);
18
19
        return 0;
```

```
gcc CondComp.c -E -D Monday
int main(void)
  char DayOfWeek[10];
  strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Monday");
 printf("Today is %s\n\n", DayOfWeek);
 return 0;
```

```
#include <stdio.h>
   #include <string.h>
   int main(void)
 6 ₽{
        char DayOfWeek[10];
        #ifdef Monday
10
            strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Monday");
        #elif Wednesday
            strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Wednesday");
13
       #else
14
            strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Friday");
        #endif
16
17
       printf("Today is %s\n\n", DayOfWeek);
18
19
        return 0;
```

```
qcc CondComp.c -E -D Wednesday
int main(void)
  char DayOfWeek[10];
  strcpy(DayOfWeek, "Wednesday");
 printf("Today is %s\n\n", DayOfWeek);
 return 0;
```

```
51 int main (void)
52 ₽{
53
       //conditional compile
54
       #ifdef ARRAYSTZE11
55
           int SortedArray[] = \{2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 15, 40, 42, 47, 49, 50\};
56
       #else
57
           int SortedArray[] = \{2, 3, 4, 10, 11, 15, 40, 42, 47, 49\};
58
       #endif
59
60
       int NumberOfElements = sizeof(SortedArray) / sizeof(SortedArray[0]);
61
       int SearchValue = 0;
62
63
       printf("Enter search value ");
64
       scanf("%d", &SearchValue);
65
66
       printf("\nSearch array -> {");
67
       printArray(SortedArray, 0, NumberOfElements-1);
68
69
       int result = binarySearch(SortedArray, 0, NumberOfElements - 1, SearchValue);
70
71
       (result == -1) ? printf("Element is not present in SortedArray\n")
72
                       : printf("Element is present at index %d\n", result);
73
       return 0;
74
```

```
// Return index of SearchValue or -1 if SearchValue not found
20
    int binarySearch (int SortedArray[], int left, int right, int SearchValue)
21
   □ {
        int middle = (right + left) / 2;
22
23
24
        while (left <= right && SortedArray[middle] != SearchValue)
25
26
            // If SearchValue greater, ignore left half
27
            if (SortedArray[middle] < SearchValue)</pre>
28
                >left = middle + 1;
            else /* ignore right half */
29
                right = middle - 1;
30
31
32
            if (left <= right && SortedArray[middle] != SearchValue) // print array
33
34
                 printf("Now searching this portion of the array -> {");
35
                printArray(SortedArray, left, right);
36
37
38
            middle = (right + left) / 2;
39
40
41
42
        if (SortedArray[middle] == SearchValue) // Found it!
             return middle;
43
        else
44
45
            return -1; // Did not find it
46
```

```
Enter search value 4
```

```
Search array \rightarrow {2,3,4,10,11,15,40,42,47,49}
Now searching this portion of the array \rightarrow {2,3,4,10}
Now searching this portion of the array \rightarrow {4,10}
Element is present at index 2
Enter search value 15
Search array \rightarrow {2,3,4,10,11,15,40,42,47,49}
Now searching this portion of the array -> {15,40,42,47,49}
Now searching this portion of the array -> {15,40}
Element is present at index 5
Enter search value 49
Search array \rightarrow {2,3,4,10,11,15,40,42,47,49}
Now searching this portion of the array -> {15,40,42,47,49}
Now searching this portion of the array -> {47,49}
Now searching this portion of the array -> {49}
Element is present at index 9
```

```
Enter search value 5
```

```
Search array \rightarrow {2,3,4,10,11,15,40,42,47,49,50}
Now searching this portion of the array \rightarrow {2,3,4,10,11}
Now searching this portion of the array -> {10,11}
Element is not present in SortedArray
Enter search value 2
Search array \rightarrow {2,3,4,10,11,15,40,42,47,49,50}
Now searching this portion of the array \rightarrow {2,3,4,10,11}
Now searching this portion of the array \rightarrow {2,3}
Element is present at index 0
Enter search value 50
Search array \rightarrow {2,3,4,10,11,15,40,42,47,49,50}
Now searching this portion of the array -> {40,42,47,49,50}
Now searching this portion of the array -> {49,50}
Now searching this portion of the array -> {50}
Element is present at index 10
```

```
19 // Return index of SearchValue or -1 if SearchValue not found
20 int binarySearch(int SortedArray[], int left, int right, int SearchValue)
21 ₽{
22
        int middle = 0;
23
24
        if (left <= right)</pre>
25
            middle = (right + left) / 2;
26
27
            // Check if SearchValue is present at mid
28
29
            if (SortedArray[middle] == SearchValue)
30
                return middle;
31
32
            // If SearchValue greater, ignore left half
33
            if (SortedArray[middle] < SearchValue)</pre>
34
                return binarySearch (SortedArray, middle + 1, right, SearchValue);
35
36
            // If SearchValue is smaller, ignore right half
37
            else
38
                return binarySearch (SortedArray, left, middle - 1, SearchValue);
39
40
            if (left <= right) // print array</pre>
41
42
                printf("Now searching this portion of the array -> {");
43
                printArray(SortedArray, left, right);
44
45
46
47
        // Did not find it
48
        return -1;
49
```

R

Linear search on an array of *n* elements might have to make as many as *n* guesses.

What about a binary search?

If we have 4 elements in an array, the 1^{st} guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to half of the original size which would leave 2 elements to search.

The 2nd guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to 1 element.

The next guess is either right or wrong and no more searching is required.

4 elements required, at most, 3 guesses and 2 "divide in half" actions.

If we have 8 elements in an array, the 1st guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to half of the original size which would leave 4 elements to search.

The 2nd guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to 2 elements.

The 3rd guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to 1 element.

The next guess is either right or wrong and no more searching is required.

8 elements required, at most, 4 guesses and 3 "divide in half" actions.

If we have 16 elements in an array, the 1st guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to half of the original size which would leave 8 elements to search.

The 2nd guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to 4 elements.

The 3rd guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to 2 elements.

The 4th guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to 1 element.

The next guess is either right or wrong and no more searching is required.

16 elements required, at most, 5 guesses and 4 "divide in half" actions.

If we have 32 elements in an array, the 1st guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to half of the original size which would leave 16 elements to search.

The 2nd guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to 8 elements.

The 3rd guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to 4 elements.

The 4th guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to 2 elements.

The 5th guess, if incorrect, cuts the searchable array down to 1 element.

The next guess is either right or wrong and no more searching is required.

32 elements required, at most, 6 guesses and 5 "divide in half" actions

4 elements -> 3 guesses -> and 2 "divide in half" actions 8 elements -> 4 guesses -> and 3 "divide in half" actions 16 elements -> 5 guesses -> and 4 "divide in half" actions 32 elements -> 6 guesses -> and 5 "divide in half" actions

See the pattern?

Every time the size of the array doubled, we added one more guess.

Let m represent the number of times the array was halved and m+1 represent the number of guesses. Let n represent the number of elements in the array.

n	m	m+1
elements	halving actions	total guesses
4	2	3
8	3	4
16	4	5
32	5	6

We can describe the number of guesses, in the worst case, as "the number of times we can repeatedly halve, starting at *n*, until we get the value 1, plus one."

"the number of times we can repeatedly halve, starting at *n*, until we get the value 1, plus one."

n	m	m+1
elements	halving actions	total guesses
4	2	3
8	3	4
16	4	5
32	5	6

Does this sound familiar? Does this pattern look familiar?

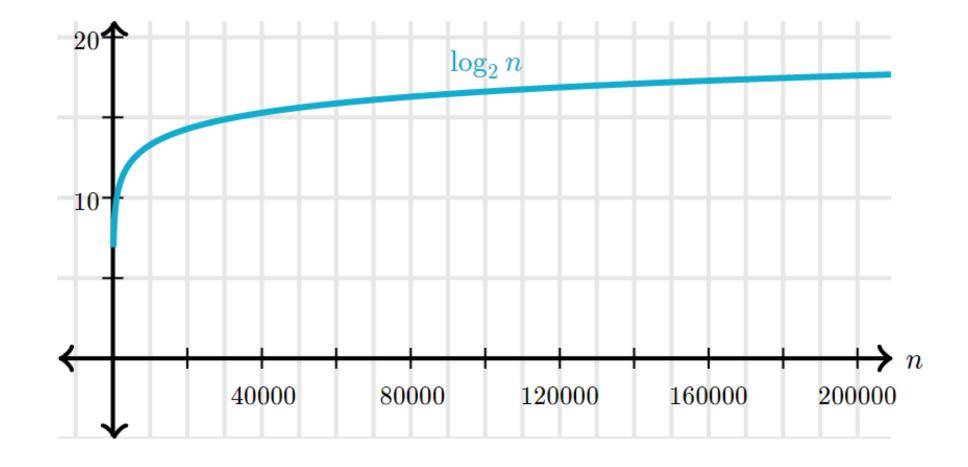
"the number of times we can repeatedly halve, starting at *n*, until we get the value 1, plus one."

n	m	m+1
elements	halving actions	total guesses
4	2	3
8	3	4
16	4	5
32	5	6

n	$\log_2 n$
1	0
2	1
4	2
8	3
16	4
32	5
64	6

This is describing the mathematical function base 2 logarithm of *n*

n	$\log_2 n$
1	0
2	1
4	2
8	3
16	4
32	5
64	6
128	7
256	8
512	9
1024	10
1,048,576	20
2,097,152	21

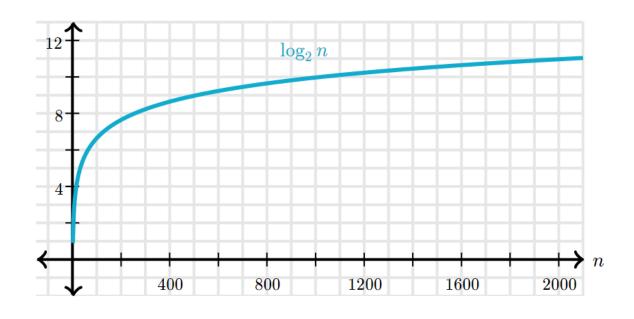


\mathcal{H}	$\log_2 n$
1	0
2	1
4	2
8	3
16	4
32	5
64	6
128	7
256	8
512	9
1024	10
1,048,576	20

2,097,152 21

 \boldsymbol{n}

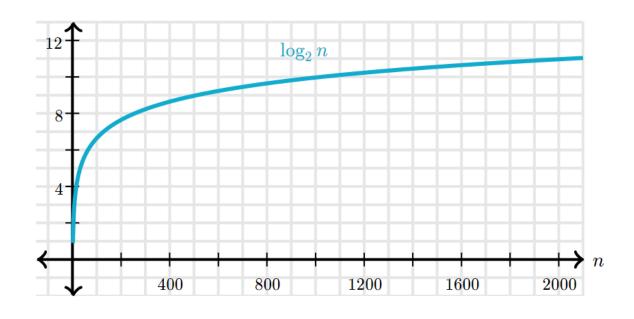
 $\log_{10} n$



The logarithm function grows very slowly.

Logarithms are the inverse of exponentials, which grow very rapidly.

n	$\log_2 n$
1	0
2	1
4	2
8	3
16	4
32	5
64	6
128	7
256	8
512	9
1024	10
1,048,576	20
2,097,152	21



Remember that $\log_2 n = x$ means $n = 2^x$

$$log_2 128 = 7 because 2^7 = 128$$

 $log_2 2097152 = 21 because 2^{21} = 2,097,152$

It is easy to calculate the runtime of a binary search algorithm where the number of elements being searched, n, is exactly a power of 2.

If *n* is 128, how many guesses will a binary search require (worst case)?

For a *n* of 128, a binary search will require at most

 $log_2 128$

A total of 8 guesses (7 + 1).

What if *n* isn't a power of 2?

We would look at the closest lower power of 2.

For an *n* of 1000 (remember that *n* is the number of elements in the array), what is the closest **lower** power of 2?

2 ⁰	2 ¹	2 ²	2 ³	2^4	2 ⁵	2 ⁶	2 ⁷	2 ⁸	2 ⁹	2 ¹⁰
1	2	4	8	16	32	64	128	256	512	1024

For an *n* of 1000 (remember that *n* is the number of elements in the array), what is the closest **lower** power of 2?

2 ⁰	2^1	2 ²	2 ³	24	2 ⁵	2 ⁶	2 ⁷	2 ⁸	2 ⁹	2 ¹⁰
1	2	4	8	16	32	64	128	256	512	1024

It might be tempting to go with 2^{10} since 1024 is SO much closer to 1000 than 512 (2^9).

Why is that not a good plan?

 2^9 (512) vs 2^{10} (1024) when n = 1000

Since log_2512 is 9 and log_21024 is 10, we can estimate that log_21000 is between 9 and 10.

The actual value of $log_2 1000$ is approximately 9.97.

Since we don't have 0.97th of a guess, we take just the 9 and add that one final guess to get a total number of guesses of 10 (worst case).

Did we need to get out the calculator to get the exact value of log₂n in this case?

What if we had just used 1024 because it closest to 1000?

log₂1024 is 10. Adding that one final guess would make the total number of guesses 11.

log₂512 is 9. Adding that one final guess would make the total number of guesses 10.

1000

1st guess -> 500

6th guess -> 15

 2^{nd} guess -> 250 7^{th} guess -> 7

3rd guess -> 125 8th guess -> 3

 4^{th} guess -> 62 9^{th} guess -> 1

5th guess -> 31 Final guess

TOTAL -> 10

Using 1024 for our estimate leads to a number of guesses of 11

Using 512 for our estimate leads to a number of guess of 10.

10 is correct.

This is why we would use the closest lower power of 2.

The Tycho-2 Catalog is an astronomical catalog of more than 2.5 million of the brightest stars.

2,539,913 of the brightest stars in the Milky Way to be more precise.

Each star is numbered using its Guide Star region number (0001-9537) and a five-digit star number within each region, separated by a decimal point.

Let's say that someone pays to have a star named for you. You are presented with a certificate like this.

How many guesses would it take (worst case) to find your star in the Tycho-2 Catalog which has 2,539,913 entries?



Your certificate listed the Tycho-2 catalog number.

STAR ASTRONOMICAL COORDINATES: Catalog Number: TYC 4149-1136-1

Constellation: Ursa Major

What is the worst case scenario for a linear search?

2,539,913

What is the worst case scenario for a binary search?

n is 2,539,913 which is not a power of 2.

What is the closest **lower** power of 2?

```
2^{17}
                 2^{13}
                                                                      2<sup>19</sup>
211
        2^{12}
                          214
                                   2^{15}
                                            7<sup>16</sup>
                                                             218
                                                                               220
                                                                                        221
                 8192
2048
        4096
                                                                                        2097152
                          16384
                                   32768
                                            65536
                                                    131072
                                                             262144
                                                                      524288
                                                                               1048576
```

Do we need to calculate 2²²?

Not really – we know that would go way beyond 2,539,913 and we want the closest lower power so 2^{21} is what we need.

So 2^{21} is the closest lower power of 2.

log₂2097152 is 21

Adding the 1 final guess gives us

22 total guesses is the worst case scenario.

22 is just a little bit better than searching 2,539,913 entries for our star!!

Asymptotic Notation

Previously, we analyzed linear search and binary search by determining the maximum number of guesses we need to make.

The next thing we what to determine is how long these algorithms take to run.

The running times of linear search and binary search include the time needed to make and check guesses, but there's more steps to factor into how LONG the search will run.

Time matters - not just guesses.

Asymptotic Notation

The running time of an algorithm depends on how long it takes a computer to run the lines of code of the algorithm.

This running time is dependent on several factors including

- speed of the computer
- programming language
- compiler that translates the program from the programming language into code that runs directly on the computer

Asymptotic Notation

Two of the factors that determine the running time of an algorithm are

how long the algorithm takes, in terms of the size of its input

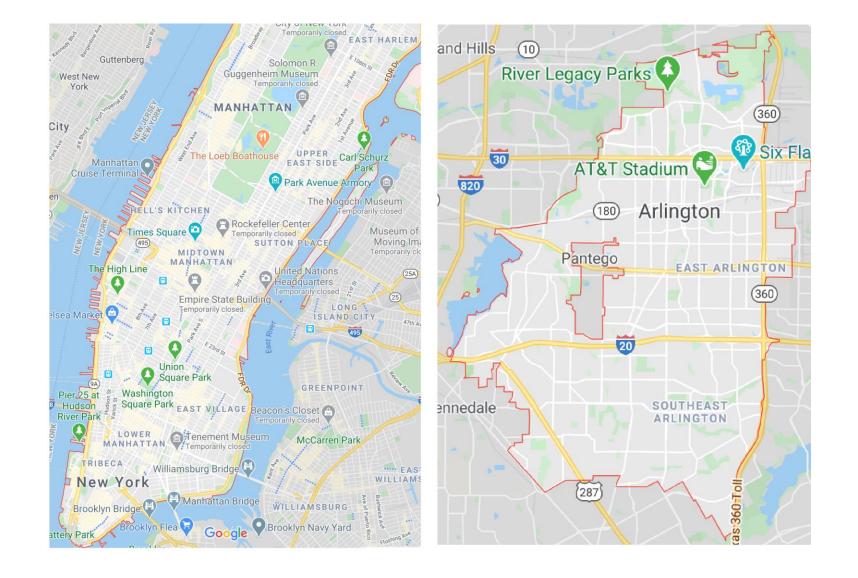
how fast a function grows with the input size

Let's take the first factor

how long the algorithm takes, in terms of the size of its input

We saw how the maximum number of guesses in linear search and binary search increased as the length of the array increased.

How about a GPS algorithm?



Manhattan, NY – 22.82 square miles – 12,000+ intersections

Arlington, TX – 99.69 square miles – not 12,000 intersections

The second factor that determines the running time of an algorithm is

how fast a function grows with the input size

This is called rate of growth of the running time.

We will discover that simplifying our functions allows us to better compare different run times and has no impact on the rate of growth.

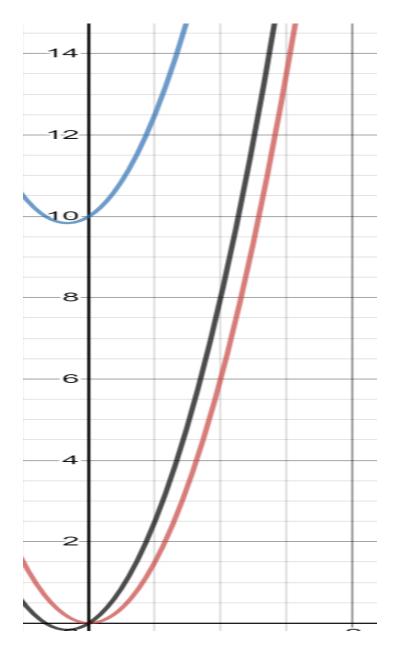
We will see how to make a function more manageable by discarding less important parts of a function.

Let's compare the following 3 equations

$$6x^{2}$$
 $6x^{2} + 2x$
 $6x^{2} + 2x + 10$

At smaller values, they are different..

But what happens as x grows?



But what happens

$6(5)^2$ 150 $6(5)^2 + 2(5) = 160$ as x grows? $6(5)^2 + 2(5) + 10 = 170$

x = 500

x = 5

```
6x^2
6x^2 + 2x
6x^2 + 2x + 10
```

$$6(500)^2$$
 = 1,500,000
 $6(500)^2 + 2(500)$ = 1,501,000
 $6(500)^2 + 2(500) + 10$ = 1,501,010

$$x = 1,000,000$$

$$6(1,000,000)^2$$
 = $6,000,000,000,000$
 $6(1,000,000)^2 + 2(1,000,000)$ = $6,000,002,000,000$
 $6(1,000,000)^2 + 2(1,000,000) + 10$ = $6,000,002,000,010$

The larger x becomes, the less difference there is between the outcomes of the equations.

So if the running time of an algorithm is calculated as

$$6n^2 + 2n + 100$$

we can simplify the equation to just n^2 to describe the running time.

Dropping the coefficient 6 and the remaining terms (2n + 100) does not have a large enough impact on the overall running time as n approaches infinitely.

It doesn't really matter what coefficients we use - as long as the running time is $an^2 + bn + c$ for some numbers a > 0, b and c, there will always be a value of an^2 is greater than bn + c and this difference increases as n increases.

By dropping the less significant terms and the constant coefficients, we can focus on the important part of an algorithm's running time

its rate of growth

without getting lost in details that could complicate our understanding and mislead us when comparing the running time of algorithms

When we drop the constant coefficients and the less significant terms, we use asymptotic notation.

We'll see three forms of it

big-Θ notation (theta)

big-O notation

big- Ω notation (omega)

The definition of **asymptotic** is a line that approaches a curve but never touches.

A curve and a line that get closer but do not intersect are examples of a curve and a line that are **asymptotic** to each other.

Why is the coefficient usually not that important with algorithms?

Typically, we just want to compare the running times of algorithms that perform the same task.

Algorithms tend to have different dominant terms (meaning they are in different complexity classes), which will allow us to easily identify which algorithms have faster running times for large values of n.

Calculating the coefficients for the running time of algorithms is often time consuming, error prone and inexact.

Identifying the most significant term for the running time is more straight forward.

Algorithms in the same complexity class that perform the same task typically have similar coefficients with some small differences that indicate improvements between algorithms in the same complexity class.

The words "typically" and "usually" and "similar" and "tend to" were used pretty heavily when describing why it's OK to drop coefficients and other terms.

We will soon see that the value of *n* plays a role is using these not-so-concrete descriptors.

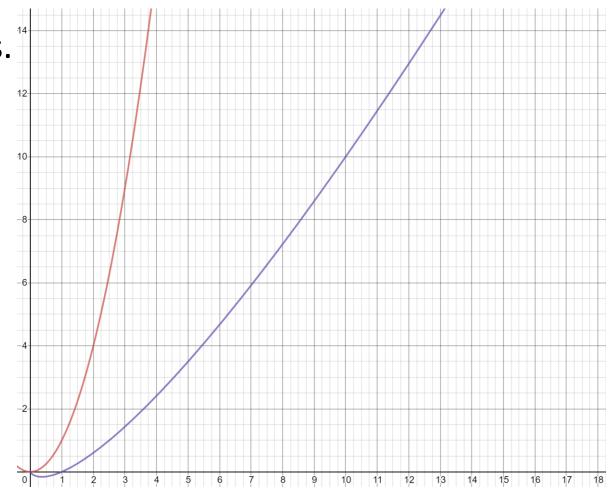
We will study sorting algorithms (like insertion sort) that have a n^2 run time.

We will study sorting algorithms (like merge sort) have $n\log_2 n$ run times.

We have compared n^2 to $n\log_2 n$ run times.

We can see that n^2 rises much quicker than $n\log_2 n$, which, in general terms, means that $n\log_2 n$ is the better algorithm in terms of running time.

So why would we ever use an algorithm with an n^2 run time?



For smaller values of *n*, those coefficients can matter.

If the n^2 algorithms have small coefficients and the $n\log_2 n$ algorithms have large coefficients, then the coefficients will come into play when the value of n is smaller. Only with larger values of n do we see n^2 algorithms running slower than the $n\log_2 n$ algorithms.

Asymptotic notation can be a really useful to talk about and compare algorithms.

It is definitely not without its limitations.

Let's look at a linear search function that returns when it finds the value

```
for (i = 0; i < array_size; i++)
{
    if (array[i] == SearchValue)
    {
        return i;
    }
}
return -1;</pre>
```

For each loop, several things happen

- check that i < array size
- compare array[i] with SearchValue
- possibly return i
- increment i

```
for (i = 0; i < array_size; i++)
{
   if (array[i] == SearchValue)
   {
      return i;
   }
}
return -1;</pre>
```

Each step takes a constant amount of time each time the loop executes

- check that i < array size
- compare array[i] with SearchValue
- possibly return i
- increment i

Let's call the sum of all those times c_1 .

So if the for loop iterates n times, then the time needed for all iterations can be expressed as c_1n

So what is the value of the c_1 in this c_1n formula?

The answer is

it depends

What is the

speed of the computer?

the programming language used?

the compiler or interpreter that translates the source program into runnable code?

other factors?

Are there steps in addition to the for loop steps?

- i is initialized to 0
- -1 will be returned when SearchValue is not found in the array

Let's sum up this time and call it c_2

```
for (i = 0; i < array_size; i++)
{
    if (array[i] == SearchValue)
    {
       return i;
    }
}
return -1;</pre>
```

So, the total time for linear search in the worst case is

$$c_1 n + c_2$$

We know the bigger n gets, the less significant c_1 and c_2 become.

So much so that we can drop them and just say the worst case is

n

where *n* is the size of the array to be searched.

The average running time of linear search grows as the array grows.

The notation used to describe this behavior is

 $\Theta(n)$

Big Theta of *n*