

Time complexity measures how the performance of an algorithm changes with input size (n). Big-O notation expresses the worst-case complexity. For example, **$O(1)$** means constant time; **$O(n)$** means linear time; **$O(n^2)$** represents quadratic time; **$O(\log n)$** is logarithmic; and **$O(n \log n)$** represents efficient divide-and-conquer algorithms like merge sort.

Searching algorithms determine how to locate a specific value in a dataset. The simplest is **linear search ($O(n)$)**, which checks each element sequentially. It works on unsorted data but is slow for large inputs. **Binary search ($O(\log n)$)** works on sorted arrays by repeatedly dividing the search space in half, dramatically improving efficiency.

Sorting algorithms arrange elements in ascending or descending order:

- **Bubble Sort:** Repeatedly swaps adjacent elements—simple but slow ($O(n^2)$).
- **Selection Sort:** Selects the smallest element in each iteration—also $O(n^2)$.
- **Insertion Sort:** Efficient for small or nearly sorted arrays ($O(n^2)$ worst case).
- **Merge Sort:** A divide-and-conquer algorithm that splits, sorts, and merges; stable and fast with $O(n \log n)$ time.
- **Quick Sort:** Uses a pivot to partition the array; average $O(n \log n)$ but worst $O(n^2)$. One of the fastest practical algorithms.
- **Heap Sort:** Builds a heap and extracts the maximum/minimum repeatedly; guarantees $O(n \log n)$.

Understanding time complexity helps you choose the right algorithm for large-scale problems. Sorting and searching form the foundation of most real-world applications, from databases to competitive programming.