# Analyzing Algorithms Space and Time Complexity

Growth of Functions: Asymptotic Notations

Slides and figures have been collected from various publicly available Internet sources for preparing the lecture slides of IT2001 course. I acknowledge and thank all the original authors for their contribution to prepare the content.

#### Algorithm Specification (Pseudocode Conventions)

 In this course we present most of our algorithms using a pseudocode that resembles C

```
1 Algorithm sum (A, n)
2 // finds the sum of n
numbers
3 // stored in an array A
5
    s:=0.0;
    for i:=1 to n do
6
         s:=s+A[i];
8
     return s;
```

There really is no precise definition of the pseudo-code language

Pseudo-code is a mixture of natural language and high-level programming constructs that describe the main ideas behind a generic implementation of a data structure or algorithm

#### Analyzing Algorithms

- Criteria for judging algorithms that have a more direct relationship to performance
  - Storage requirement
  - Computing time
- Analyzing an algorithm means predicting the resources that the algo requires
  - Most often it is computational time that we want to measure
- Generally, by analyzing several candidate algorithms for a problem, a most efficient one can be easily identified
- Before we can analyze an algorithm, we must have a model of the implementation technology that will be used, including a model for the resources of that technology and their costs

#### Two main characteristics for programs

- □ Time complexity: Execution time (CPU usage)
- Space complexity: The amount of memory required (RAM usage)
- Which measure is more important?
  - Answer often depends on the limitations of the technology available at time of analysis

#### The Random Access Machine (RAM) Model

- We are assuming a generic one-processor, RAM model of computation as our implementation technology, and our algos will be implemented as a computer program
- In the RAM model, instructions are executed one after another, with no concurrent operations
- The RAM model contains instructions commonly found in real computer
  - Arithmetic (add, subtract, multiply, divide, remainder, floor ceiling etc.)
  - Data movement (load, store, copy)
  - Control (conditional and unconditional branch, subroutine call and return )
- Each such instruction takes a constant amount of time

#### The RAM Model

- We also assume a limit on the size of each word of data
- Real computers contain other instructions also
  - $\Box$  For e.g., exponentiation (x $^{y}$ ): not a constant time instruction
  - $\Box$  It takes several instructions to compute  $x^y$ , if x,y are real nos
- In the RAM model, we do not attempt to model the memory hierarchy

#### Space/Time Complexity

- Space complexity: The amount of memory, an algo needs to run to completion
  - When memory was expensive, we focuse on making programs as space efficient as possible and developed schemes to make memory appear larger than it really was (virtual memory)
  - Space complexity is still important in the field of embedded computing (hand held computer based equipment like cell phones, palm devices, etc)
- Time complexity: The amount of computer time, an algo needs to run to completion
  - □ Is the algorithm "fast enough" for the applications
  - How much longer will the algorithm take if the amount of data is increased
  - Given a set of algorithms that accomplish the same thing, which is the right one to choose

## **Space Complexity**

#### Space complexity

- The space complexity of a program (for a given input) is the number of elementary objects that this program needs to store during its execution.
  - This number is computed with respect to the size n of the input data.
  - Core dumps = the most often encountered cause is "memory leaks" the amount of memory required larger than the memory available on a given system

#### **Space Complexity**

- Why is this of concern?
  - We could be running on a multi-user system where programs are allocated a specific amount of space.
  - We may not have sufficient memory on our computer.
  - There may be multiple solutions, each having different space requirements.
  - The space complexity may define an upper bound on the data that the program can handle.

## Space Complexity (cont'd)

- 1. Fixed part: The size required to store certain data/variables, that is independent of the size of the problem:
  - e.g. name of the data collection
  - same size for classifying 2GB or 1MB of texts
- 2. Variable part: Space needed by variables, whose size is dependent on the size of the problem:
  - e.g. actual text
  - load 2GB of text VS. load 1MB of text

- Program space = Instruction space + data space + stack space
- The instruction space is dependent on several factors.
  - the compiler that generates the machine code
  - the compiler options that were set at compilation time
  - the target computer

- Data space
  - Very much dependent on the computer architecture and compiler
  - □ The magnitude of the data that a program works with is another factor

```
char 1 float 4
short 2 double 8
int 2 long double 10
long 4 pointer 2
```

Unit: bytes

- Data space
  - Choosing a "smaller" data type has an effect on the overall space usage of the program.
  - Choosing the correct type is especially important when working with arrays.
  - How many bytes of memory are allocated with each of the following declarations?

```
double a[100];
int matrix[rows][cols];
```

- Environment Stack Space
  - Every time a function is called, the following data are saved on the stack.
    - 1. the return address
    - 2. the values of all local variables and values of formal parameters
    - 3. the binding of all reference and const reference parameters
  - What is the impact of recursive function calls on the environment stack space?

## **Space Complexity Summary**

- Given what you now know about space complexity, what can you do differently to make your programs more space efficient?
  - Always choose the optimal (smallest necessary) data type
  - Study the compiler.
  - Learn about the effects of different compilation settings.
  - Choose non-recursive algorithms when appropriate.

## Space Complexity (cont'd)

- S(P) = C + S(instance characteristics)
  - □ C = constant
  - For any given problem, we need to determine which instance characteristics to use to measure the space requirement. This is very problem specific
- Example:

```
void float sum (float* a, int n)
{
    float sum= 0;
    for( int i = 0; i<n; i++) {
        sum+ = a[ i ];
    }
    return sum;</pre>
```

## Space complexity: example 1

```
// note: x is an unsorted array
int findMin( int x[ ]) {
        int k = 0; int n = x.length;
        for (int i = 1; i < n; i++) {
                if (x[i] < x[k]) {
                        k = i;
        return k;
   T(findMin, n) = n + 2 (one word for i and one for k)
  T(findMin, n) = O(n)
```

## Space complexity: example 2

```
// note: x is an unsorted array
void multVect( int x[ ], inta[ ][ ]) {
       int k = 0; int n = x.length;
       for (int i = 1; i < n; i++) {
               for (int j = 1; j < n; j++) {
                      a[i][j] = x[i] * x[j]
\blacksquareT(multVect, n) = n × n + 2
■T(multVect, n) = O(n²)
```

#### **Space Complexity**

- Algo rsum
  - Here also, the instances are characterized by n
  - Recursion stack space includes space for
    - Formal parameters
    - Local variables, and
    - Return address
  - Depth of recursion
    - (n+1)
    - Recursion stack space needed

```
\square >= 3(n+1)
```

Assume that the return address requires only one word of memory Each call to rsum requires atleast 3 words (space for the values of n, return address, and a pointer to A[])

```
Algo rsum (A, n)
{
   if (n<= 0) then return 0.0;
   else return rsum(A, n-1) + A[n];
}</pre>
```

- Time taken by a program P = compile time + run time (tp)
- tp(n) for any given n can be obtained experimentally
- Program: typed, compiled, & run on a particular machine
- The execution time is physically clocked
- Difficulties with this experimental approach
  - Experiments can be done only on a limited set of test inputs, and care must be taken to make sure these are representative
  - □ It is difficult to compare the efficiency of two algorithms unless experiments on their running time have been performed in the same h/w and s/w environments
  - It is necessary to implement and execute an algorithm in order to study its running time experimentally

- We desire an analytic framework that:
  - Takes into account all possible inputs
  - Allows us to evaluate the relative efficiency of any two algorithms in a way that is independent from the h/w and s/w environment
  - Can be performed by studying a high-level description of the algorithm without actually implementing it or running experiments on it
- In general, the time taken by an algorithm grows with the size of the input
- So, we are interested in determining the dependency of the running time on the size of the input
- Analytic framework aims at associating a function f(n) with each algorithm that characterizes the running time of the algorithm in terms of the input size n

- So we need to define the terms "running time" and "size of input"
- Input size:
  - Notion of input size depends on the problem being studied
  - Ex: sorting: the most natural measure is the number of items in the input, array size n for sorting
  - Ex: if the input to an algorithm is a graph, the input size can be described by the numbers of vertices and edges in the graph
- Running time of an algorithm on a particular input is the number of primitive operations or "steps" executed
  - It is convenient to define the notion of step so that it is as machine-independent as possible

- Consider the view (keeping with the RAM model):
  - A constant amount of time is required to execute each line of our pseudocode
  - One line may take a different amount of time than another line
    - We may assume that each execution of the i<sup>th</sup> line takes time c<sub>i</sub>, where c<sub>i</sub> is a constant

Example: Algo sum

0001	unioo	rotal otopo
0	-	0
0	-	0
<b>c</b> <sub>3</sub>	1	$c_3$
C <sub>4</sub>	n+1	c <sub>4</sub> (n+1)
<b>c</b> <sub>5</sub>	n	c <sub>5</sub> n
<b>c</b> <sub>6</sub>	1	<b>c</b> <sub>6</sub>
0	-	0
	0 0 c <sub>3</sub> c <sub>4</sub> c <sub>5</sub>	$egin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$

cost

times

**Observation**: Run time grows linearly in n [if n is doubled, the run time also doubles (approx)] So Algo sum is a linear time algo

$$\frac{(c_4+c_5)n+(c_3+c_4+c_6)}{=an+b}$$

Total steps

Another Example: Algo add(A,B,C,m,n)

```
To add two m x n matrices 'a' and
  'b'
                                                        times
                                                                       Total steps
                                            cost
1 Algo add (A,B,C,m,n)
2 {
   for i:=1 to m do
                                                                        c_3 (m+1)
                                                         m+1
                                             C_3
      for j:=1 to n do
                                                                       c_4m(n+1)
                                                       m(n+1)
                                             C_{4}
        C[i,j] := A[i,j] + B[i,j];
5
                                                          mn
                                                                          c<sub>5</sub>mn
6
                                                                            0
```

#### **Observations:**

Input size given by two numbers

If m>n: better to interchange the two for statements

If this is done total steps becomes amn+bn+c

- Simplified analysis can be based on:
  - Number of arithmetic operations performed
  - Number of comparisons made
  - Number of times through a critical loop
  - Number of array elements accessed

- Suppose that exponentiation is carried out using multiplications.
   Two ways to evaluate the polynomial
- $P(x) = 4x^4 + 7x^3 2x^2 + 3x^1 + 6$
- Brute force method:
  - p(x) = 4\*x\*x\*x\*x + 7\*x\*x\*x 2\*x\*x + 3\*x + 6
- Horner's method:
  - p(x) = (((4\*x + 7) \* x 2) \* x + 3) \* x + 6

#### General form of polynomial is

$$p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + a_{n-2} x^{n-2} + ... + a_1 x^1 + a_0$$
  
where  $a_n$  is non-zero for all  $n >= 0$ 

#### Analysis for *Brute Force Method*:

n multiplications

n-1 multiplications

n-2 multiplications

. . .

2 multiplications

1 multiplication

Number of multiplications needed in the worst case is

$$T(n) = n + n-1 + n-2 + ... + 3 + 2 + 1$$
$$= n(n + 1)/2$$
$$= n^2/2 + n/2$$

Analysis for *Horner's Method*:

$$p(x) = ( .... ((( an * x + an-1) * x + an-1) * x + an-2) * x + ... + ... + a1) * x + a0$$

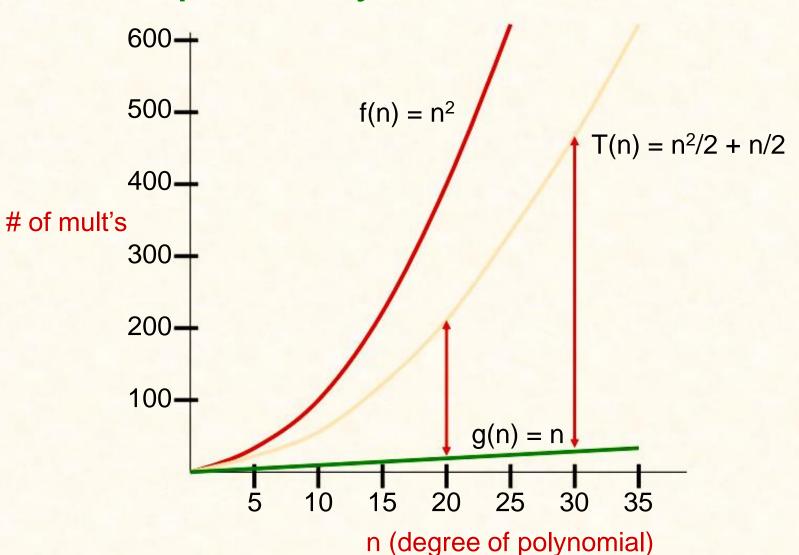
- 1 multiplication
- 1 multiplication
- 1 multiplication

- 1 multiplication
- 1 multiplication

n times

T(n) = n, so the number of multiplications is O(n)

n	n <sup>2</sup> /2 + n/2	n <sup>2</sup>
(Horner)	(brute force)	
5	15	25
10	55	100
20	210	400
100	5050	10000
1000	500500	1000000



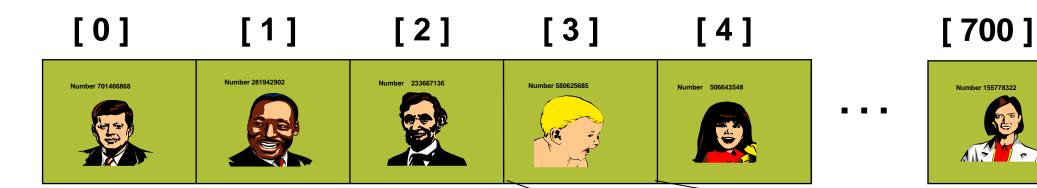
#### Cases to Consider

- Best Case
  - □ The least amount of work done for any input set
- Worst Case
  - □ The most amount of work done for any input set
- Average Case
  - The amount of work done averaged over all of the possible input sets

#### Problem: Search

- We are given a list of records.
- Each record has an associated key.
- Give efficient algorithm for searching for a record containing a particular key.
- Efficiency is quantified in terms of average time analysis (number of comparisons) to retrieve an item.

#### Search



Each record in list has an associated key. In this example, the keys are ID numbers.

Given a particular key, how can we efficiently retrieve the record from the list?



#### Serial Search

- Step through array of records, one at a time.
- Look for record with matching key.
- Search stops when
  - record with matching key is found
  - or when search has examined all records without success.

#### Pseudocode for Serial Search

```
// Search for a desired item in the n array elements
// starting at a[first].
// Returns the position of the desired record if found.
// Otherwise, return "not found"
...
for(i = 0; i < n; ++i)
    if(a[i] == desired item)
        return i+1;</pre>
```

# Serial Search Analysis

- What are the worst and average case running times for serial search?
- Number of operations depends on n, the number of entries in the list.

#### Worst Case Time for Serial Search

- For an array of n elements, the worst case time for serial search requires n array accesses: O(n).
- Consider cases where we must loop over all n records:
  - desired record appears in the last position of the array
  - desired record does not appear in the array at all

#### Average Case for Serial Search

#### Assumptions:

- 1. All keys are equally likely in a search
- 2. We always search for a key that is in the array

#### Example:

- We have an array of 10 records.
- If search for the first record, then it requires 1 array access; if the second, then 2 array accesses. etc.

#### The average of all these searches is:

$$(1+2+3+4+5+6+7+8+9+10)/10 = 5.5$$

# Average Case Time for Serial Search

Generalize for array size *n*.

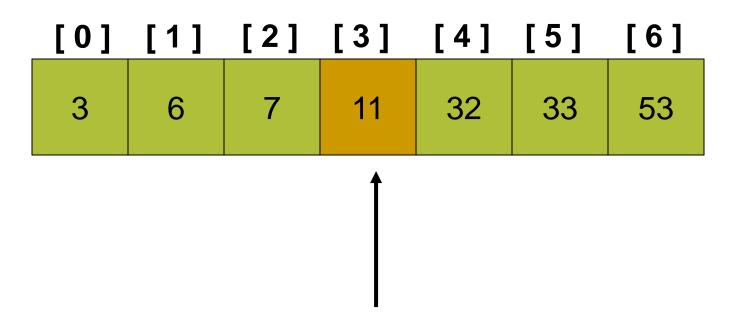
Expression for average-case running time:

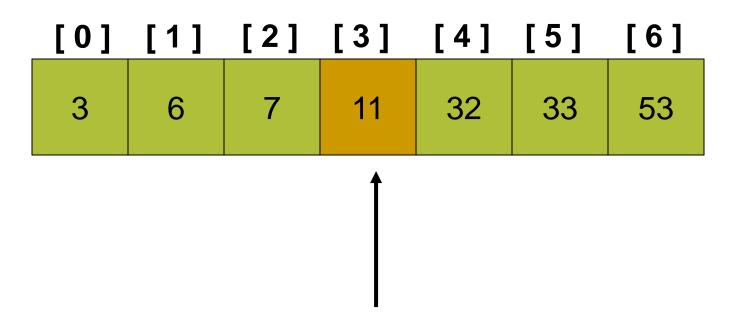
$$(1+2+...+n)/n = n(n+1)/2n = (n+1)/2$$

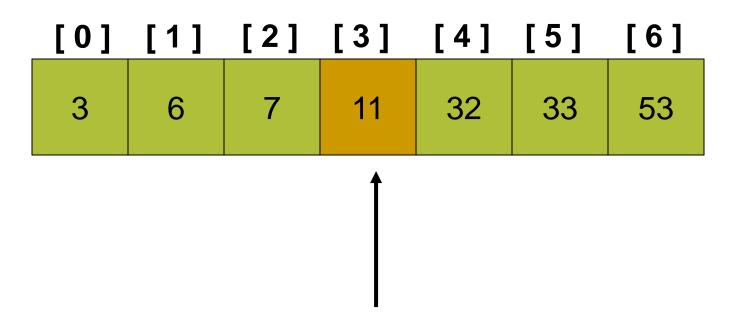
Therefore, average case time complexity for serial search is O(n).

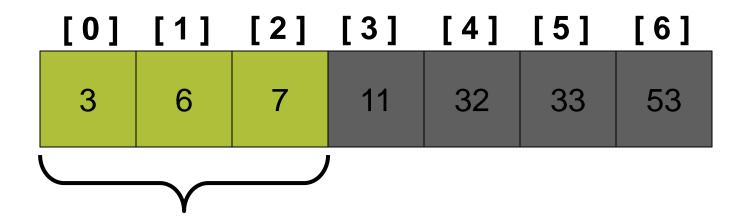
- Perhaps we can do better than O(n) in the average case?
- Assume that we are give an array of records that is sorted. For instance:
  - an array of records with integer keys sorted from smallest to largest (e.g., ID numbers), or
  - an array of records with string keys sorted in alphabetical order (e.g., names).

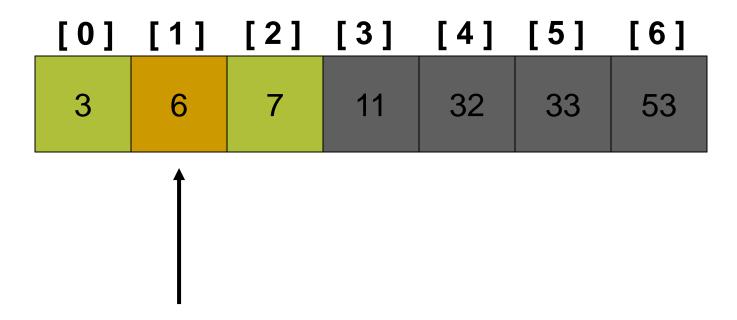
[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]	[6]
3	6	7	11	32	33	53

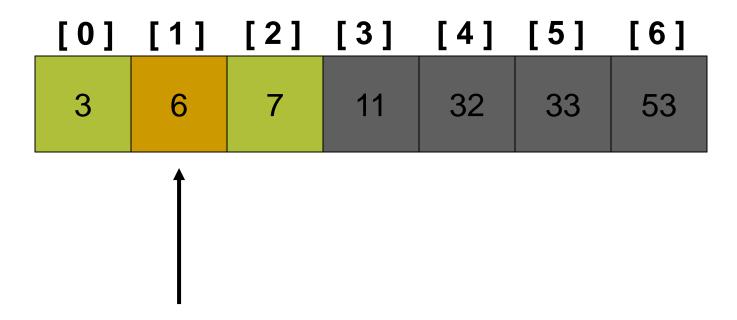


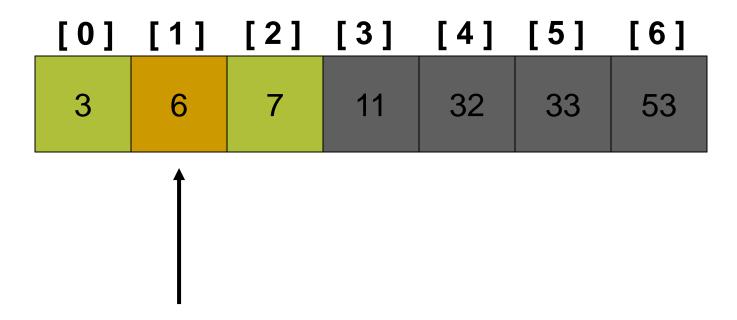


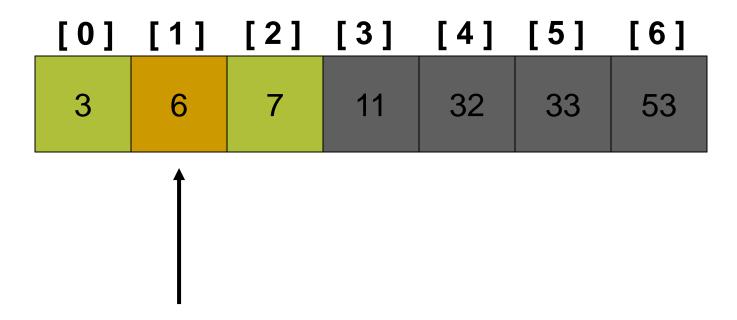


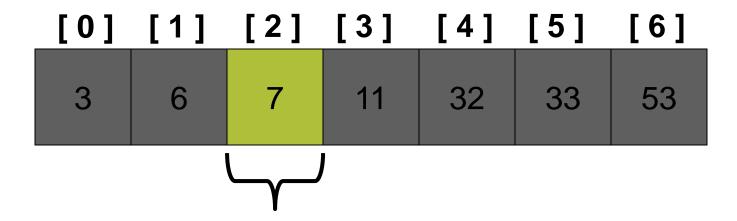


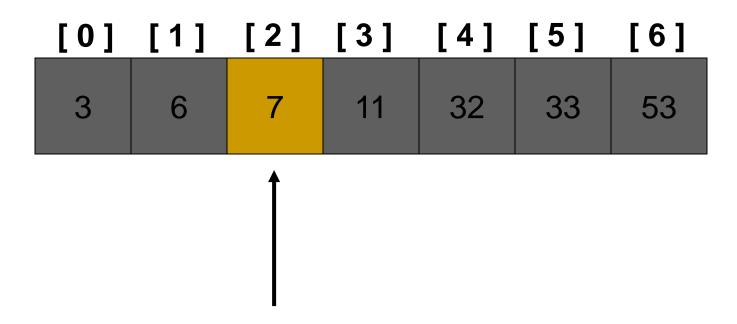












#### Recursive binary search (cont'd)

- What is the size factor?
  The number of elements in (array[first] ... array[last])
- What is the base case(s)?
  - (1) If *first > last*, return -1
  - (2) If target==array[mid], return mid
- What is the general case?

```
if target < array[mid] search the first half
if target > array[mid], search the second half
```

#### Binary Search (non-recursive)

```
int BinarySearch ( array[ ], target) {
 int first = 0; int last = array.length-1;
 while (first <= last) {
        mid = (first + last) / 2;
        if ( target == array[mid] ) return mid; // found it
        else if (target < array[mid]) // must be in 1st half
                last = mid - 1:
        else // must be in 2<sup>nd</sup> half
                first = mid + 1
   return -1; // only got here if not found above
```

#### Binary Search (recursive)

```
int BinarySearch ( array[ ], first, last, target) {
   if ( first <= last ) {      // base case 1</pre>
        mid = (first + last) / 2;
        if (target == array[mid]) // found it! // base case 2
           return mid;
        else if (target < array[mid]) // must be in 1st half
                return BinarySearch( array, first, mid-1, target);
        else // must be in 2<sup>nd</sup> half
                return BinarySearch(array, mid+1, last, target);
   return -1;
```

- No loop! Recursive calls takes its place
- Base cases checked first? (Why? Zero items? One item?)

#### Binary Search: Analysis

- Worst case complexity?
- What is the maximum depth of recursive calls in binary search as function of n?
- Each level in the recursion, we split the array into two halves (divide by two).
- Therefore maximum recursion depth is floor( $log_2n$ ) and worst case =  $O(log_2n)$ .
- Average case is also =  $O(\log_2 n)$ .

# Can we do better than O(log<sub>2</sub>n)?

- Average and worst case of serial search = O(n)
- Average and worst case of binary search =  $O(log_2n)$
- Can we do better than this?

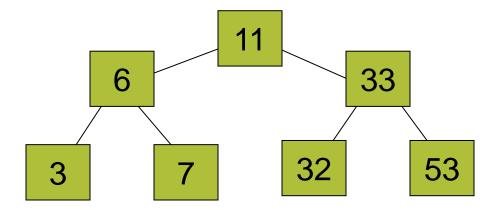
YES. Use a hash table! (Will be taught later)

#### Relation to Binary Search Tree

Array of previous example:

3	6	7	11	32	33	53
---	---	---	----	----	----	----

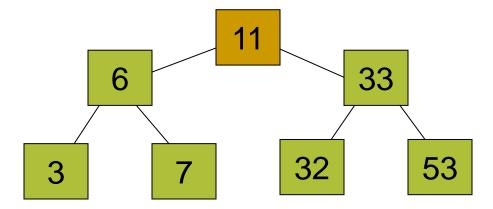
Corresponding complete binary search tree



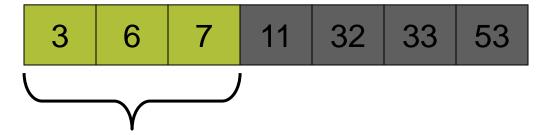
#### Find midpoint:

3	6	7	11	32	33	53
---	---	---	----	----	----	----

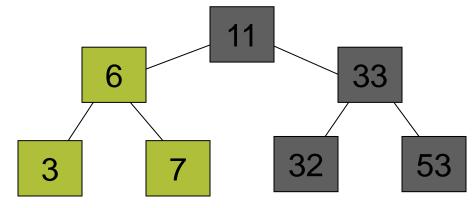
#### Start at root:



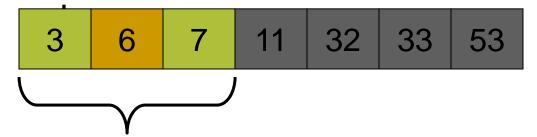
#### Search left subarray:



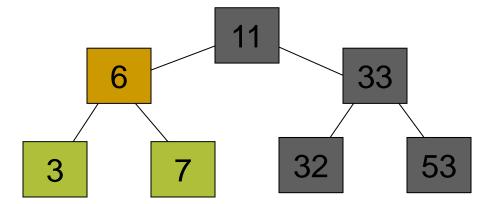
#### Search left subtree:



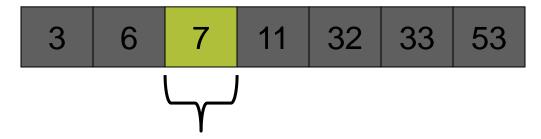
Find approximate midpoint of



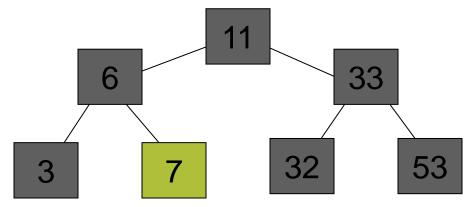
Visit root of subtree:



Search right subarray:



Search right subtree:



#### Time Complexity

- Remember our motive behind determining step counts:
  - to be able to compare the time complexities of two algorithms that compute the same function
  - to predict the growth in the runtime as the instance characteristics
- Determining the exact number of instructions is not a worthwhile exercise
- But when the difference between them of two algos is very large (say,3n+2 vs 100n+10); we may safely predict that the algo with complexity 3n+2 will run in less time than the algo with 100n+10 complexity
- But even in this case, it is not necessary to know that the exact step count is 100n+10. Something like, "it's about 80n or 85n or 90n," is adequate to arrive at the same conclusion

#### Time Complexity

- Example: algo A: complexity  $c_1n^2+c_2n$  and algo B: complexity  $c_3n$ 
  - Algo B will be faster than algo A for sufficiently large values of n
  - For small values of n, either algo could be faster (depending on  $c_1$ ,  $c_2$ ,  $c_3$ )
    - $c_1=1$ ,  $c_2=2$ ,  $c_3=100$ , then  $c_1n^2+c_2n \le c_3n$  for  $n \le 98$
    - $c_1=1$ ,  $c_2=2$ ,  $c_3=1000$ , then  $c_1n^2+c_2n \le c_3n$  for  $c_3=1000$
  - Break-even point

#### Time Complexity

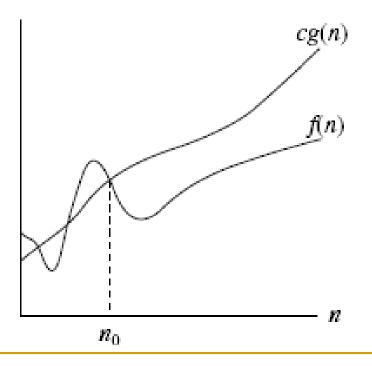
- One more simplifying abstraction: Order of growth
  - We will consider only the leading term in the formula, since lower order terms are relatively insignificant for large n
  - We also ignore the leading term's constant coefficient, since constant factors are less significant than the rate of growth in determining computational efficiency for large inputs
  - □ Thus we will say that time complexity of algo sum (T(n)=2n+3) is O(n) (picking the most significant term: n)
  - We usually consider one algo to be more efficient than other if its worst case running time has a lower order of growth
  - □ For large enough inputs, a  $O(n^2)$  algo runs more quickly in the worst case than a  $O(n^3)$  algo

#### Growth of Functions: Asymptotic Notations

- A terminology has been introduced to enable us to make meaningful (but inexact) statements about the time complexities of an algorithms
- Usually, an algo that is asymptotically more efficient will be the best choice for all but very small inputs
- Several types of asymptotic notations

# O-Notation (Big "oh" Notation)- Formal Definition

- asymptotic upper bound
- The function f(n) = O(g(n)): read as "f of n is big oh of g of n"
- The function f(n)= O(g(n)) iff there exist positive constants c and n<sub>0</sub> such that f(n) ≤ cg(n) for all n, n ≥ n<sub>0</sub>



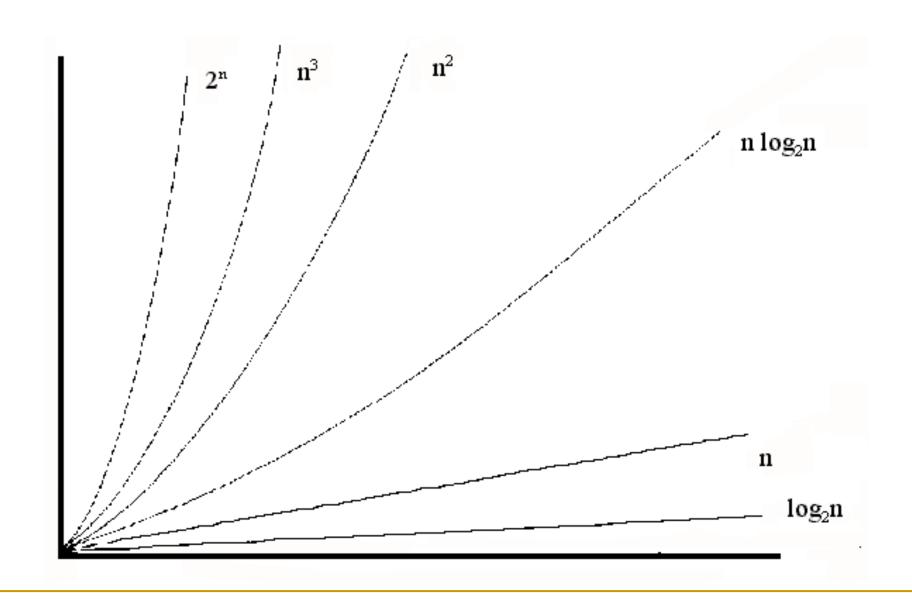
#### *O*-Notation

- Example: consider the function: 3n+2 = O(n)
  - □ 3n+2 ≤ 4n for all n ≥ 2
- $10n^2+2n+4 = O(n^2)$  as  $10n^2+2n+4 \le 11n^2$  for all  $n \ge 5$
- $6*2^n+n^2 = O(2^n)$  as  $6*2^n+n^2 \le 7*2^n$  for all  $n \ge 4$
- $2n+4 \neq O(1)$
- $10n^2 + 2n + 4 \neq O(n)$
- The statement f(n) = O(g(n)) states only that g(n) is an upper bound on the value of f(n) for all  $n, n \ge n_0$ . It does not say anything about how good this bound is.

#### Function values

log <sub>2</sub> n	n	nlog <sub>2</sub> n	n <sup>2</sup>	n <sup>3</sup>	<b>2</b> <sup>n</sup>
0	1	0	1	1	2
1	2	2	4	8	4
2	4	8	16	64	16
3	8	24	64	512	256
4	16	64	256	4,096	65,536
5	32	160	1,024	32,768	4,294,967,296

#### Common Growth Rates



#### References:

- Slides and figures have been collected from various Internet sources for preparing the lecture slides of IT2001 course.
- I acknowledge and thank all the authors for the same.
- It is difficult to acknowledge all the sources though.