Estruturas de Informação

Algorithm Analysis

Fátima Rodrigues mfc@isep.ipp.pt

Departamento de Engenharia Informática (DEI/ISEP)

Estruturas de Informação

This subject is about the design of "good" data structures and algorithms

A *data structure* is a systematic way of organizing and accessing data

An *algorithm* is a step-by-step procedure for performing some task in a finite amount of time

What makes a good algorithm?

For different algorithms that solve the same problem, an algorithm is more efficient, if it need less resources to solve the same problem

Complexity refers to the rate at which the storage or time grows as a function of the input to the algorithm

- T(n) = time complexity: amount of time an algorithm will take based on input
- S(n) = space complexity: amount of memory space an algorithm will take based on input

Algorithm Analysis

We want a method for determining the relative speed of algorithms that:

- doesn't depend upon hardware used (e.g., PC, Mac, etc.)
- the clock speed of your processor
- what compiler you use
- even what language you write in

Algorithm Analysis

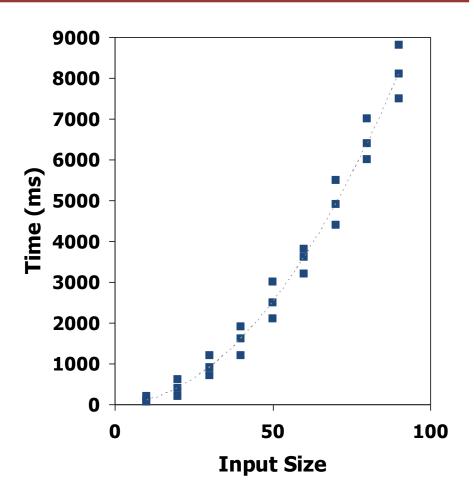
A machine-independent way to describe execution time

The purpose of Algorithm Analysis is:

to describe change in execution time relative to change in input size, in a way that is independent of issues such as machine times or compilers

Experimental Studies

- Write a program implementing the algorithm
- Run the program with inputs of varying size and composition
- Use a method like clock() to get an accurate measure of the actual running time
- Plot the results



Limitations of Experiments

- It is necessary to fully implement the algorithm, which may be time expensive
- In order to compare two algorithms, the same hardware and software environments must be used
- Experiments can be done only on a limited set of test inputs; hence, they leave out the running times of inputs not included in the experiment

Theoretical Analysis

- Uses a high-level description of the algorithm instead of an implementation
- Characterizes running time as a function of the input size, n
- Takes into account all possible inputs
- Allows us to evaluate the speed of an algorithm independent of the hardware/software environment

Algorithm Analysis

- Suppose that algorithm A processes n data elements in time T
- Algorithm analysis attempts to estimate how *T* is affected by changes in *n*.
- In other words, T is a function of n when we use A

A Simple Example

Suppose we have an algorithm that is O(n)
 E.g., summing elements of array

Suppose to sum 10,000 elements takes 32 ms

How long to sum 20,000 elements?

Non-Linear Times

Suppose we have an algorithm that is O(n²)
 E.g., summing elements of a matrix

• Suppose input size *n* doubles, what happens to execution time?

It goes up by 4 Why 4?

Need to figure out how to do this ...

The Calculation

The ratio of the big-Oh sizes should equal the ratio of the execution times

$$\frac{n_1^2}{n_2^2} = \frac{t_1}{t_2}$$

We increased n by a factor of two:

$$\frac{n^2}{\left(2n\right)^2} = \frac{t}{x}$$

then solve for x

Some typical functions

Basically there are two types of algorithms:

- those with running time limited by a polynomial function dependent on the input data size - Efficient algorithms
- and those who typically have an **exponential** evolution not efficient algorithms

Some functions that often appear in algorithm analysis

Polynomial:

- Constant ≈ 1
- Logarithmic ≈ log n
- Linear ≈ n
- N-Log-N ≈ $n \log n$
- Quadratic ≈ n^2
- Cubic ≈ n^3

Exponential:

- 2ⁿ

– 3ⁿ

– n!

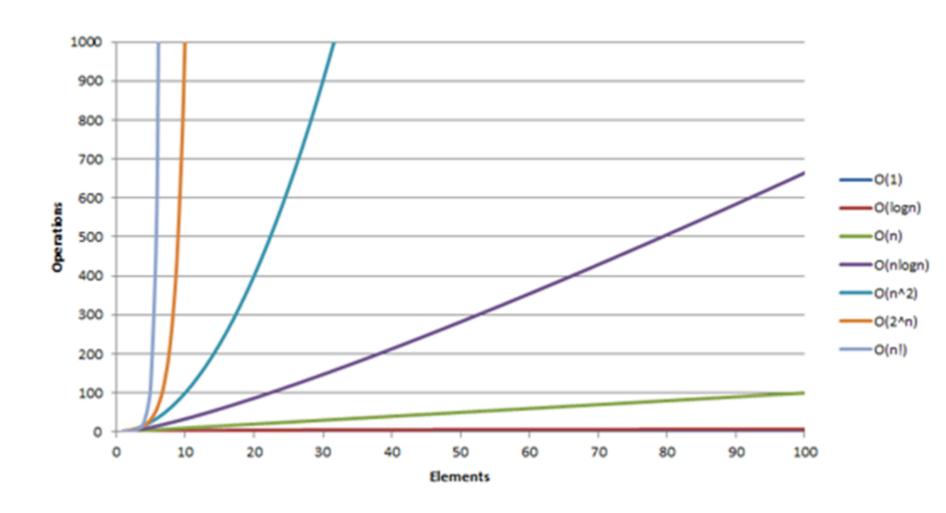
Most common Complexity Orders

Input data: $n = 10^5$ elements

Execution time of each step $k = 10^{-5}$ seconds = 10 μ s

Function	Name	Time
n!	Factorial	
2 ⁿ (or c ⁿ)	Exponential	50 000 hours
n ^d , d > 3	Polynomial	
n^3	Cubic	
n^2	Quadratic	28 hours
$n\sqrt{n}$		
$n \log n$		17 seconds
n	Linear	1 second
\sqrt{n}	Root-n	$3.2 \times 10^{-4} \text{sec}$
$\log n$	Logarithmic	170 μs
1	Constant	10 μs

Computation Complexities



Counting Primitive Operations

By inspecting the pseudocode, we can determine the maximum number of primitive operations executed by an algorithm, as a function of the input size

Example: Find the maximum value in a vector

		# Operations
1	Algorithm int arrayMax (int A[], int n)	
2	{ currentMax ← A[0];	1
3	for (i ← 1 ; i < n ; i++)	1+n+1+n
4	<pre>if (A[i] > currentMax)</pre>	n
5	currentMax ← A[i];	n
6	return currentMax ;	1
	}	4n+4

Three different Notations O, Ω e Θ

big-Oh

"T(n) is O(f(n))" iff for some constants c e n_0 , T(n) <= cf(n) for all n >= n_0

big-Omega

"T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ " iff for some constants c e n_0 , T(n) >= cf(n) for all n >= n_0

big-Theta

"T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$ " iff T(n) is O(f(n)) and T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$

Informally:

T(n) is O(f(n)) basically means that f(n) describes the **upper bound** for T(n)

T(n) is $\Omega(f(n))$ basically means that f(n) describes the **lower bound** for T(n)

T(n) is $\Theta(f(n))$ basically means that f(n) describes the **exact bound** for T(n)

Big-Oh Notation

Given functions f(n) and g(n), we say that f(n) is O(g(n)) if there are positive constants c and n_0 such that

$$f(n) \le cg(n)$$
 for $n \ge n_0$

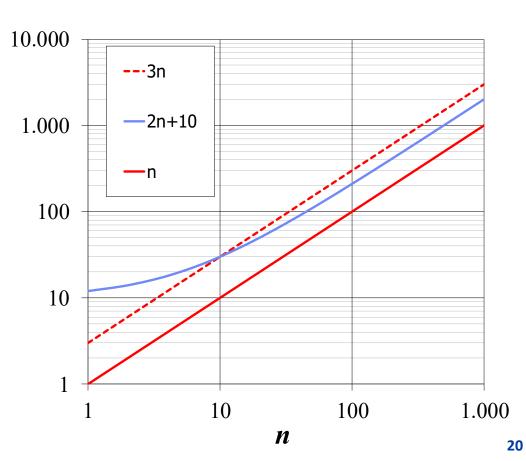
Example: 2n + 10 is O(n)

$$-2n + 10 \le cn$$

$$- (c-2) n \ge 10$$

$$- n \ge 10/(c-2)$$

- Pick
$$c = 3$$
 and $n_0 = 10$

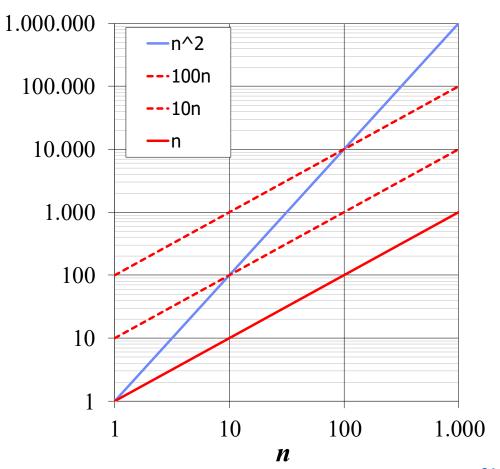


Big-Oh Example

Example: the function n^2 is not O(n)

- $n^2 \le cn$
- $n \leq c$

The above inequality cannot be satisfied since *c* must be a constant



Constant Factors

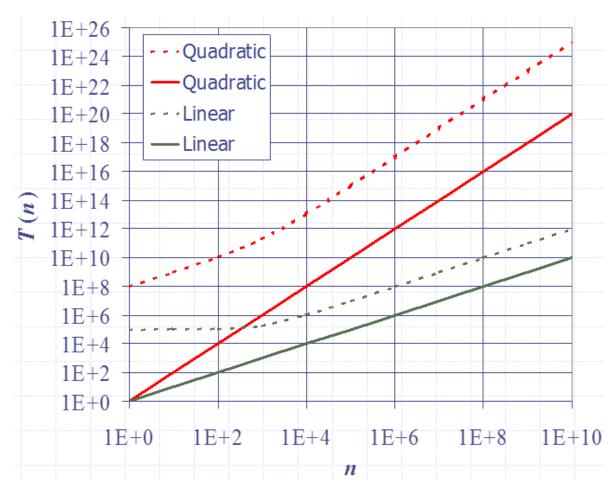
The growth rate is not affected by

- constant factors or
- lower-order terms

Examples

$$-10^2$$
n + 10^5

$$-10^5 n^2 + 10^8 n$$



Big-Oh Properties

Given the functions

$$F(n) = O(f(n)) \text{ and } G(n) = O(g(n))$$

then

$$F(n) + G(n) = O (max (f(n), g(n)))$$

If there are positive constants n_1 , n_2 , c_1 , c_2 such that :

$$n \ge n_1 \rightarrow F(n) \le c_1 f(n)$$

 $n \ge n_2 \rightarrow G(n) \le c_2 g(n)$

and
$$n_3 = max (n_1, n_2)$$
; $c_3 = max (c_1, c_2)$

then, for any $n \ge n_3$:

$$F(n) + G(n) \le c_1 f(n) + c_2 g(n)$$

 $F(n) + G(n) \le c_3 (f(n) + g(n))$
 $F(n) + G(n) \le c_3 \max (f(n), g(n))$

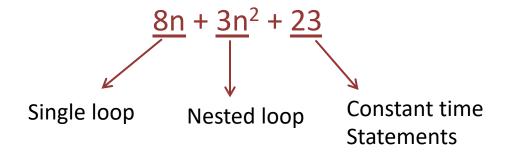
Big-Oh Properties

- 1. O(f) + O(g) = O(f + g) = O(max(f, g))Ex: $O(n^2) + O(log n) = O(n^2)$
- 2. $O(f) \times O(g) = O(f \times g)$ Ex: $O(n^2) \times O(\log n) = O(n^2 \log n)$
- 3. O(cf) = O(f) with c constant Ex: $O(3 n^2) = O(n^2)$
- 4. F = O(f)Ex: $3n^2 + \log n = O(3n^2 + \log n) = O(n^2)$
- 5. $O(n^g) < O(n^{g+k})$

Big-Oh and Growth Rate

- The big-Oh notation gives an upper bound on the growth rate of a function
- The statement "f(n) is O(g(n))" means that the growth rate of f(n) is no more than the growth rate of g(n)
- We can use the big-Oh notation to rank functions according to their growth rate

Example: analysis of a given method shows its execution time as



Don't write $O(8n + 3n^2 + 23)$, or even $O(n + n^2 + 23)$, but just $O(n^2)$

Determining Big Oh

- In practice, it is difficult (if not impossible) to predict accurately the runtime of an algorithm or program
- A method's running time is the sum of time needed to execute sequence of statements, loops, etc. within method
- It is only need to identify one or more key operations (frequent operations or time consuming operations) and determine the number of times that they run
- For algorithmic analysis, the largest component dominates (and constant multipliers are ignored)

Primitive Operations

- Basic computations performed by an algorithm
- Identifiable in pseudocode
- Largely independent from the programming language
- Exact definition not important
- Assumed to take a constant amount of time O(1)

Examples:

- Evaluating an expression
- Assigning a value to a variable
- Indexing into an array
- Calling a method
- Returning from a method

Since constant factors and lower-order terms are eventually dropped anyhow, we can disregard them when counting primitive operations

Determining Big Oh: simple loops

For simple loops, determine how many times the loop executes as a function of input size:

- Iterations dependent on a variable n
- Complexity of operations within loop

```
Algorithm arrayMax (A, n)
{    currentMax ← A[0];
    for (i ← 1; i < n; i++)
        if (A[i] > currentMax)
            currentMax ← A[i];
    return currentMax;
}
```

Determining Big Oh: not so simple loops

Not always simple iteration and termination criteria

Iterations dependent on a function of n

Example: Count the number of 1s in a binary representation of a number n

```
Algorithm numberofOnes (n)
{    count ← 0;
    while (n > 0)
        count ← count + n mod 2;
        n ← n / 2;
    return count;
}
```

In algorithmic analysis, the log of n is the number of times you can split n in half

Determining Big Oh: nested loops

Nested loops (dependent or independent) multiply

The outer loop have a multiplicative effect on the operations in the internal cycle

Determining Big Oh: nested Loops

```
for (i \leftarrow 0; i < n; i++)
     A[i] \leftarrow 0;
 for (i \leftarrow 0; i < n; i++)
    for (j \leftarrow 0; j < n; j++)
                                                   \longrightarrow O(?)
        k++
for (h \leftarrow n; h > 0; h \leftarrow h/2){
    for (i \leftarrow 0; i < n; i++)
                                                          O(?)
       k++ ;
```

Determining Big Oh: Calling Functions

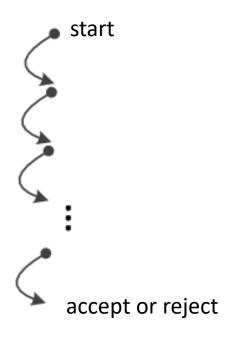
When one function calls another, big-Oh of calling function also considers big-Oh of called function and how many times embedded function(s) are called

```
private static void removeElem (ArrayList<Integer> v, int elem)
        int i = v.size()-1; 0(?)
        while (i >= 0){
           if (elem == v.get(i).intValue() ) 0(?)
           v.remove(i); 0(?)
i = i - 1:
removeElem: O(?)
```

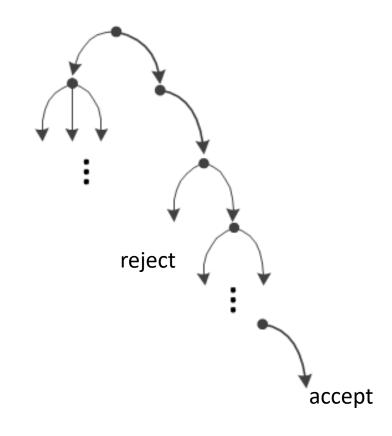
Non-deterministic Algorithms

Deterministic vs. non-deterministic algorithms

Deterministic



Non-deterministic



Deterministic vs. non-deterministic algorithms

- An algorithm is deterministic if at each step there is only one choice for the next step given the values of the variables at that step
 - mean of the elements of a vector
 - maximum element of a vector
 - multiplication of two matrices
- An algorithm is non-deterministic if there is a step that involves parallel processing
 - search a value in a vector
 - ordering the values of a vector

Non-deterministic algorithms

To correctly analyse the complexity of a non deterministic algorithm it is necessary to consider:

— Worst case analysis:

We calculate **upper bound on running time** of an algorithm. We must know the case that causes maximum number of operations to be executed

– Average case analysis:

We take all possible inputs and calculate computing time for all of the inputs. Sum all the calculated values and divide the sum by total number of inputs

– Best case analysis:

We calculate **lower bound on running time** of an algorithm. We must know the case that causes minimum number of operations to be executed

Sequential search (non-deterministic algorithm)

Example: Search for a target x in an unordered array A of n elements

```
Algorithm int sequentialSearch (T v[], int n, T x) {
    i ← 0;
    while (i < n) {
        if (v[i] == x)
            return i;
        i ← i + 1;
    }
    return -1;
}</pre>
```

Sequential search (non-deterministic algorithm)

Sequential search on an unsorted array of length n, what is:

- Best case?
- Worst case?
- Average case?

Sequential search (non-deterministic algorithm)

Best case: occurs when the element to be searched is present at the first location

$$T(n) = O(1)$$

Average case: We must know (or predict) the distribution of cases. Assuming all cases are uniformly distributed (including the case of x not being present in array)

$$T(n) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} O(i)}{n+1} = O\left(\frac{(n+1)\times(n+2)}{2\times(n+1)}\right) \Rightarrow T(n) = O(n)$$

Worst case: occurs when the element to be searched is not present in the array

$$T(n) = O(n)$$

What to analyse?

- The average case analysis is often difficult to determine in most of the practical cases and it is rarely done
- In the average case analysis, we must know (or predict) the mathematical distribution of all possible inputs
- Most of the times, the average case analysis is equal to the worst case analysis
- We focus on the best and on the worst case analysis
 - Easier to analyse
 - Guarantees a lower and an upper bound on the running time of an algorithm which is a good information

Space complexity - Sequential search

```
Algorithm int sequentialSearch (T v[], int n, T x) {
   i ← 0;
   ...
   return -1;
}
```

Total space:

return address	2 bytes
v address	2 bytes
n address	2 bytes
x address	2 bytes
local variable i	2 bytes
	10 bytes

$$S(n) = O(1)$$

Bubble Sort

23	78	45	8	32	56	Original Vector
23	78	8	45	32	56	
23	8	78	45	32	56	
	0	70	43	32	30	
8	23	78	45	32	56	
•••						
8	23	32	78	45	56	
<u>_</u>						
8	23	32	45	78	56	
8	23	32	45	56	78	

Bubble Sort

```
Algorithm void bubbleSort (T v[], int n) {
    for (i ← 0; i < n-1; i++)
        for (j ← n-1; j > i; j--)
        if (v[j-1] > v[j])
        swap(v[j], v[j-1])
}
```

Deterministic algorithm: O(?)

Bubble Sort Optimized

```
Algorithm void bubbleSort (T v[], int n) {
        swap ← true
        for (i \leftarrow 0; (i < n-1 \&\& swap); i++) {
             swap ← false
             for (j \leftarrow n-1; j > i; j--)
                 if (v[j-1] > v[j]) {
                    swap(v[i], v[j-1])
                    swap ← true
Best case: O(?)
Worst case: O(?)
```

Recursive Algorithms

Big Oh: Recursion

For recursion it is necessary to determine:

- –how many times the function will be executed?
- —which is the complexity of the body function
- Multiply these together

Factorial function

```
private static double factiter (double num){
 double res=1 ;
 for (int i = 1; i <= num; i++)
                                                   T(n) = O(?)
    res = res * i ;
                                                   S(n) =
 return res;
private static double factrecurs (double num){
  if (num == 1)
     return 1;
                                                    T(n) = O(?)
  else
                                                    S(n) =
     return num * factrecurs(num-1);
```

Fibonacci Iterative

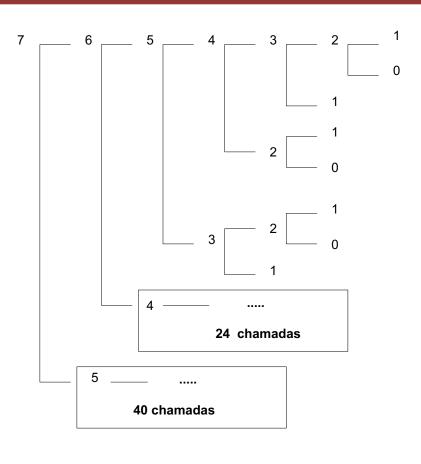
```
Algorithm int fibiter (int n)
    int fib = 0; // current
    int ant = 0;  // previous
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++) {
      if (i == 1) {
         fib = 1;
         ant = 0;
      } else {
         fib += ant;
         ant = fib - ant;
                                   T(n) = O(?)
    return fib;
```

Fibonacci recursive

```
Algorithm int fibrecurs (int n) {
  if (n ≤ 1)
    return n;
  else
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}
```

n	k	Function		
2	3	<= 2 ⁿ⁻¹ +1		
3	5	<= 2 ⁿ⁻¹ +1		
4	9	<= 2 ⁿ⁻¹ +1		
5	15	<= 2 ⁿ⁻¹ +1		
6	24	<= 2 ⁿ⁻¹ +1		
••••	•••	<= O(2 ⁿ)		

$$T(n) = O(2^n)$$
 Exponential



Complexity Analysis

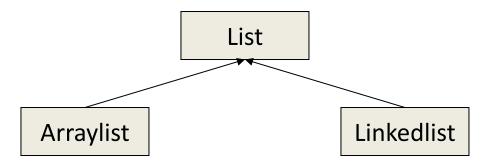
JAVA Collections Framework

List<E> Interface

In addition to the core services inherited from the root collection interface, the list interface offers

- Positional access
- Search
- Customized Iteration
- Range-view

List Implementations



ArrayList and LinkedList

ArrayList:

- Constant time positional access
- One tuning parameter, the initial capacity

LinkedList:

- Stores each element in a node
- Each node stores a link to the next and previous nodes
- Insertion and removal are inexpensive
 - just update the links in the surrounding nodes
- Linear traversal is inexpensive
- Random access is expensive
 - Start from beginning or end and traverse each node while counting

List<E> Implementations

	Complexity		
Method	ArrayList <e></e>	LinkedList <e></e>	
size()	O(1)	O(1)	
isEmpty()	O(1)	O(1)	
get(i)	O(1)	O(n)	
set(i, e)	O(1)	O(n)	
add(e)	O(1)	O(1)	
add(i,e)	O(n)	O(n)	
addFirst(e)		O(1)	
addLast(e)		O(1)	
remove(i)	O(n)	O(n)	
remove(e)	O(n)	O(1)	

ArrayList vs. LinkedList

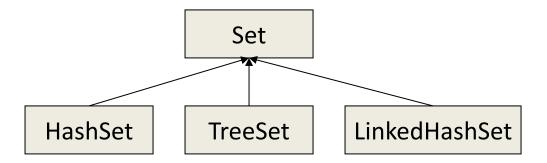
A list can grow or shrink dynamically. An array is fixed once it is created

- ArrayList most efficient if:
 - need to support random access through an index
 - without inserting or removing elements from any place other than the end
- LinkedList most efficient if:
 - application requires insertion or deletion of elements from any place in the list

Set<E> Interface

- The Set interface extends Collection and contains no methods other than those inherited from Collection
- It adds the functionality of restricting duplicate elements

Set Implementations



	HashSet	TreeSet	Linked HashSet
Storage Type	Hash Table	Red-Black Tree	Hash Table with a Linked List
Order of Iteration	No guarantee of order of iteration	Order based	Orders elements based on insertion

Set<E> Implementations

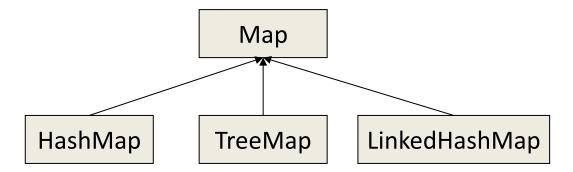
	Complexity			
Method	HashSet <e></e>	TreeSet <e></e>	LinkedHashSet <e></e>	
size()	O(1)	O(1)	O(1)	
isEmpty()	O(1)	O(1)	O(1)	
clear()	O(n)	O(n)	O(n)	
add(e)	O(1)	O(logn)	O(1)	
remove(e)	O(1)	O(logn)	O(1)	
contains(e)	O(n)	O(logn)	O(n)	
addAll()	O(n)	O(nlogn)	O(n)	
retainAll()	O(n)	O(nlogn)	O(n)	
removeAll()	O(n)	O(nlogn)	O(n)	
containsAll()	O(n ²)	O(nlogn)	O(n ²)	

Map<K,V> Interface

Replaces java.util.Dictionary interface

- Keeps association between key and value objects
- Every key in a map has a unique value
- A value may be associated with several keys

Map Implementations



Map<K,V> Implementations

	Complexity			
Method	HashMap	TreeMap	LinkedHashMap	
size()	O(1)	O(1)	O(1)	
isEmpty()	O(1)	O(1)	O(1)	
clear()	O(n)	O(n)	O(n)	
put(K,O)	O(1)	O(logn)	O(1)	
get(K)	O(1)	O(logn)	O(1)	
remove(k)	O(1)	O(logn)	O(n)	
containsKey (K)	O(n)	O(logn)	O(n)	
containsValue (O)	O(n)	O(logn)	O(n)	
putAll(M)	O(n)	O(nlogn)	O(n)	
keySet()	O(n)	O(n)	O(n)	
values()	O(n)	O(n)	O(n)	

How To Select a Container

Determine how you access elements

access by key (any)

(any) Map

access by integer index

ArrayList

Determine whether iteration order matters

elements must be sorted

TreeMap

elements must stay in order as inserted

LinkedHashMap

Determine which operations need to be fast

adding and removing elements must be fast

LinkedList

Finding elements must be fast (any)

HashMap