

# Time Complexity

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## 1 Travelling Salesman

### 1.1 Brute force approach

- If a program to solve TSP enumerates all tours and selects the shortest
- If it takes just under half a second to solve problems with 10 cities
- *How long does it take to finish 100 cities*
- The total number of enumerations of nodes is  $\frac{(n-1)!}{2}$
- This means it has a factorial order - which further means the brute force approach would be useless
- For 100 cities:
  - If we had  $10^{87}$  cores - one for every particle in the universe
  - And could computer a tour in  $3 \times 10^{-34}$  seconds, the time it takes light to cross a proton
  - The brute force algorithm would still take  $10^{39}$  times the age of the universe

## 2 Lessons

- There are right and wrong ways to solve **easy** problems
- Complexity is only really a problem when dealing with large inputs
- We should approach an algorithm with complexity in mind - we should be able to compare them *without running them*

## 3 Time Complexity

### 3.1 Input Size

- Running times of algorithms depend on the size of their input
- Input size can be seen to be problem-dependent
  - Number of elements to sort
  - Number of bits in arithmetic
  - Number of nodes/edges in a graph problem

### 3.2 Running Time

- Running time depends on implementation, compiler, and the hardware we run on
- We only want to consider the algorithm itself so we need to abstract away compilers and hardware
- Therefore, take the running time of an algorithm to be the number of **primitive operations** execute
  - **Primitive Operations** - Addition, Subtraction, Comparison, Assignment, ...
  - All primitive operations take  $\approx$  the same amount of time
  - Therefore counting their total gives a good measure of the time taken by the algorithm
  - We can then assign a **cost** to each line of pseudocode by counting the primitive operations

MINIMUM(A)	cost	times
1    m = A[1]	$c_1$	1
2    i = 2	$c_2$	1
3    while (i<=A.length)	$c_3$	$n$
4        m = min(m,A[i])	$c_4$	$n - 1$
5        i++	$c_5$	$n - 1$

- $c_i$  counts the primitive operations in line  $i$
- For each array of size  $n$ , the algorithm takes  

$$T(n) = c_1 + c_2 + c_3 * n + (c_4 + c_5) * (n - 1)$$
primitive operations
- Thus,  $T(n) = a * n + b$  with  $a, b$  constants
  - $T(n)$  only depends on the array size, and not on the specific input

Figure 1: Example: Minimum element in array

### 3.3 Defining Time Complexity

For  $T : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$ :

$T(n)$  is the **maximum** number of primitive operations the algorithm uses on input size  $n$

## 4 Big-Theta Notation

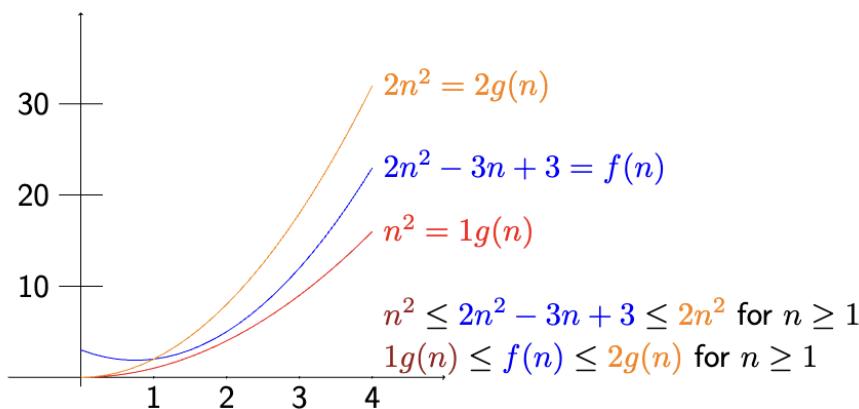
- Let  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$
- The  $\Theta$  notation captures the idea that the functions  $f$  and  $g$  have the *same rate of growth*
- $f(n)$  is  $\Theta(g(n))$  if there exists constants  $c > 0, d > 0$  and  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$cg(n) \leq f(n) \leq dg(n) \text{ for } n \geq N$$

- For large  $n$  values a  $\Theta(n^2)$  will always be more efficient than a  $\Theta(n^3)$  algorithm

### Big-Theta Notation: Examples

- $2n^2 - 3n + 3$  is  $\Theta(n^2)$ :



- Any quadratic function is  $\Theta(n^2)$

## 4.1 Estimating Run Time

- For an algorithm of  $\Theta(n^2)$ :
  - $T(n) \approx cn^2$  for  $n \gg 1$
  - If it takes  $x$  seconds on average on input size 100
  - It will take about  $\frac{x \times n^2}{100^2}$  seconds on average on an input of size  $n$

## 4.2 Disadvantages of Big-Theta

- Can't compare algorithms whose running times have the same rate of growth
- Can be misleading for small inputs - However we don't normally care about this until we typically run algorithms on small inputs

# 5 Bounds of Rate of Growth

- If statements can make finding the rate of growth of an algorithm really hard
- For example in the following:

```

1 // define stuff
2 for(int i=0; i<n; i++) {
3     // do something
4     if(/* condition */) {
5         for(int j=0; j<n; j++) {
6             // do other stuff
7         }
8     }
9 }
// clean up

```

- Rate of growth depends on the `if` statement
- Therefore we know the true order will be between  $\Theta(n)$  and  $\Theta(n^2)$
- To avoid having to worry so much we can look for upper and lower bounds for the rate of growth

## 5.1 Notations

- **Big-O** notation is used to give the *upper bound* for rate of growth
  - For  $O(n^2)$  algorithms, there is no case where it executes more than order  $n^2$  operations
    - \* This is true for either worst, average, or best case
- **Big-Omega** gives the *lower bound* for rate of growth
  - For  $\Omega(n^2)$  algorithms, there is no case where it executes less than order  $n^2$  operations

Let  $f, g : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$ .

- $f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$  if there exist constants  $d > 0$  and  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$f(n) \leq d \cdot g(n) \quad \text{for } n \geq N$$

- $f(n)$  is  $\Omega(g(n))$  if there exist constants  $c > 0$  and  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$f(n) \geq c \cdot g(n) \quad \text{for } n \geq N$$

- And so  $f(n)$  is  $\Theta(g(n))$  if (and only if)

$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \quad \text{and} \quad f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$$

i.e. the lower bound is identical to the upper bound!

Any  $O(n^2)$  algorithm is also an  $O(n^3)$  algorithm, according to the definition of Big-O notation.

Big-O notation provides an upper bound on the growth rate of an algorithm. If an algorithm is  $O(n^2)$ , this means that its growth rate is at most proportional to  $n^2$  for sufficiently large  $n$ .

Now,  $n^2$  grows slower than  $n^3$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Since  $O(n^3)$  describes functions that grow as fast as or slower than  $n^3$ , any  $O(n^2)$  function will also satisfy the criteria for being  $O(n^3)$ .

## 5.2 Use and Misuse of Notations

- Big-O notation is most commonly used
- Often, people will say they have an  $O(n^2)$  algorithm when they actually have a  $\Theta(n^2)$
- Any  $O(n^2)$  algorithm is also an  $O(n^3)$  algorithm
- An  $O(n^2)$  algorithm might not be faster than an  $O(n^3)$  algorithm even for large  $n$