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Analysis of Algorithm Complexity

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University of Infomation Technology

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Faculty Of Computer Science

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ime efficiency

Why do we need to

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Why do we need to evaluate algorithms

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- An algorithm built must be accompanied by a quantitative evaluation.
- For comparison with other related algorithms.
- There are two approaches, corresponding to each evaluation criterion
 - Time efficiency, also called time complexity.
 - Space efficiency, also called space complexity.

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Time efficiency

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- The most intuitive way to quantify the efficiency of an algorithm.
- Under the same operating conditions, the algorithm that gives the earliest results will be the best.

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```
int Fib1(int n) {
   int a, b, c;
   if(n \ll 1)
       return n;
   a = 0; b = 1; c = 0;
   for(int k = 2; k <= n; ++k) {</pre>
       c = a + b;
       a = b:
       b = c;
   return c;
```

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```
int Fib2(int n){
   if(n <= 1)
      return n;
   return Fib2(n - 1)
      + Fib2(n - 2);
}</pre>
```

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N	Fib1	Fib2		
40	400 <i>n</i> s	$1048~\mu s$		
60	61 <i>n</i> s	1s		
80	81 <i>n</i> s	18 minutes		
100	101 <i>n</i> s	13 days		
120	121 <i>n</i> s	36 years		
160	161 <i>n</i> s	3.8 * 10 ⁷ years		
200	201 ns	4 * 10 ¹³ years		

Table 1: Comparison of execution time of two above algorithms for Fibonacci

Space efficiency

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- Based on system resource consumption.
- Based on the using data structure.
- Space efficiency is typically not of as much concern.

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deferences

First algorithm	Second algorithm
temp ← a;	$a \leftarrow a + b$;
<i>a</i> ← <i>b</i> ;	$b \leftarrow a - b$;
$b \leftarrow temp;$	$a \leftarrow a - b$;

Table 2: Two algorithms for converting the values of two variables.

Why do we need to evaluate algorithms?

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- Help us choose the most suitable algorithm.
- Simple but still general, can be applied to many different problems..
- Saving time and not be limited by hardwares, languages, compiler, input data, ...

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Overview

- The size of the list
- The polynomial's degree or the number of its coefficients
- Number b of bits in the n's binary representation.

$$b = \log_2 n + 1$$

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Reference:

- For measuring of an algorithm's efficiency, we would like to have a metric that does not depend on these extraneous factors.
- One possible approach is to count *the number of times* each of the algorithm's operations is executed.
- \Rightarrow Basic operation: the operation contributing the most to the total running time.
 - Typically arithmetic operations: +, -, *, /, ... The time order to perform these operations is /, *, (+, -).

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```
Insertion-Sort(A)
                                                  cost
                                                           times
   for j \leftarrow 2 to length[A]
        do key \leftarrow A[j]
                                                           n-1
                                                  C_2
             \triangleright Insert A[j] into the sorted
                sequence A[1..j-1].
                                                           n-1
             i \leftarrow j - 1
                                                           n-1
             while i > 0 and A[i] > key
                 do A[i+1] \leftarrow A[i]
                     i \leftarrow i - 1
             A[i+1] \leftarrow kev
```

Figure 1: Number of basic operations in Insertion Sort

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Problem	Decision param.	Basic op	
Find a number k			
in an array	Size of array <i>n</i>	Comparison	
of size <i>n</i>			
Matrix	Number of dimensions	Multiplication	
multiplication	or elements		
Is n	n'size = number of digits	Division	
a prime number?	(binary representation)	DIVISION	

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- Let cop be the execution time of an algorithm's basic operation.
- Let C(n) be the number of times this operation needs to be executed for this algorithm.
- \Rightarrow We can estimate the running time T(n) of a program implementing this algorithm:

$$T(n) \approx c_{op}C(n)$$

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Assuming that: $C(n) = \frac{1}{2}n(n-1)$

(?) How much longer will the algorithm run if we double its input size?

$$C(n) = \frac{1}{2}n(n-1) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 - \frac{1}{2}n \approx \frac{1}{2}n^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{T(2n)}{T(n)} \approx \frac{c_{op}C(2n)}{c_{op}C(n)} \approx \frac{\frac{1}{2}(2n)^2}{\frac{1}{2}n^2} = 4$$

Orders of Growth

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- A difference in running times on small inputs is not what really distinguishes efficient algorithms from inefficient ones.
- In fact, with n being a small value, most algorithms give the same time. Only when n→∞ that the difference becomes more precisely.

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n	log ₂ n	n	$nlog_2n$	n^2	n^3	2 <i>n</i>	n!
10	3.3	10^{1}	$3.3\cdot 10^1$	10^{2}	10^{3}	10^{3}	10 ⁶
10^{2}	6.6	10^{2}	$6.6\cdot 10^2$	10^{4}	10^{6}	$1.3 \cdot 10^{30}$	10^{157}
10^{3}	10	10^{3}	$1.0\cdot 10^4$	10^{6}	10 ⁹		
10^{4}	13	10^{4}	$1.3 \cdot 10^5$	10 ⁸	10^{12}		
10^{5}	17	10^{5}	$1.7 \cdot 10^6$	10^{10}	10^{15}		
10^{6}	20	10^{5}	$2.0 \cdot 10^{7}$	10^{12}	10^{18}		

Table 3: An example of orders of growth

Worst-case

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The worst case(The lowest efficiency)

$$C_{worst}(n) = n$$

- The algorithm runs **the longest** among all possible inputs of that size.
- Way to determine: analyze the algorithm to see what kind
 of inputs yield the largest value of the basic operation's
 count C_{worst}(n) among all possible inputs of size n.

Best-case

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The best case (The most efficient)

$$C_{best}(n) = 1$$

- The algorithm runs the fastest among all possible inputs of that size.
- Way to determine: analyze the algorithm to see what kind of inputs yield **the smallest** value of the basic operation's count $C_{best}(n)$ among all possible inputs of size n.

Average-case

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$Average\ case = average$

- Execute the algorithm many time with the same input size n (use some distribution function to create these inputs randomly).
- Get the total runtime and divide by number of executions.

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Big-Omega Big-Theta

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Some functions will be use in this section:

- t(n) will be an algorithm's running time . (usually indicated by its basic operation count C(n)).
- g(n) will be some simple function to compare the count with t(n)

Big-O

Big-O

- O(g(n)) is the set of all functions with a **lower or same** order of growth as g(n) (within a constant multiple and $n \to \infty$).
- Example:

$$n \in O(n^2) \tag{1}$$

$$n \in O(n^2)$$
 (1)
 $100n + 5 \in O(n^2)$ (2)

$$\frac{1}{2}n(n-1) \in O(n^2)$$
 (3)

Big-O

Mathematical definition:

$$t(n) \in \textit{O}(\textit{g}(n)) \iff t(n) \leqslant \textit{cg}(n) \quad (\exists \textit{c} > 0, \textit{n} \geqslant \textit{n}_0)$$

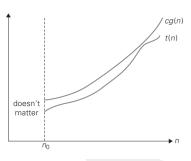


Figure 2: Big-O notation: $t(n) \in O(g(n))$

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Prove that:
$$100n + 5 \in O(n^2)$$

 $100n + 4 \le 100n + n \quad (\forall n \ge 5)$
 $= 101n \le 100n^2$

Complete the proof with $c = 101, n_0 = 5$.

The definition gives us a lot of freedom in choosing specific values for constants c and n_0 .

Example: $100n + 5 \le 100n + 5n$ $(\forall n \ge 1)$

Big-Omega (Ω)

Big-Omega

- $\Omega(g(n))$ stands for the set of all functions with a **higher or same** order of growth as g(n) (within a constant multiple and $n \to \infty$).
- Example:

$$n^3 \in \Omega(n^2) \tag{1}$$

$$n^{3} \in \Omega(n^{2}) \tag{1}$$

$$\frac{1}{2}n(n-1) \in \Omega(n^{2}) \tag{2}$$

but

$$100n + 5 \notin \Omega(n^2) \tag{3}$$

Big-Omega (Ω)

Big-Omega

Mathematical definition:

$$t(n) \in \Omega(g(n)) \iff t(n) \geqslant cg(n) \quad (\exists c > 0, n \geqslant n_0)$$

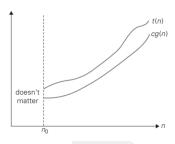


Figure 3: $Big-\Omega$ notation: $t(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$

Big-Omega (Ω)

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Here is an example of the formal proof:

$$n^{3} \in \Omega(g(n))$$
 $\iff t(n) \geqslant cg(n) \quad (\forall n \geqslant 0)$

We can select $c = 1, n_0 = 0$

Big-Theta (Θ)

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- $\Theta(g(n))$ is the set of all functions with a **same** order of growth as g(n) (within a constant multiple and $n \to \infty$).
- Thus, every quadratic function " $an^2 + bn + c$ ", $\forall a > 0$ is in $\Theta(n^2)$

Big-Theta (Θ)

Big-Theta

Mathematical definition:

$$t(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$$

$$\iff c_2g(n) \leqslant t(n) \leqslant c_1g(n) \quad (\exists c_1, c_2 > 0, n \geqslant n_0)$$

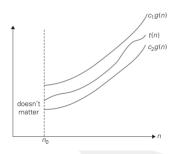


Figure 4: Big-Θ notation: $t(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$

Big-Theta (Θ)

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Prove that:
$$\frac{1}{2}n(n-1) \in \Theta(n^2)$$

• Prove the right inequality (the upper bound):

$$\frac{1}{2}n(n-1) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 - \frac{1}{2}n \le \frac{1}{2}n^2 \quad (\forall n \ge 0)$$
 (1)

Prove the left inequality (the lower bound):

$$\frac{1}{2}n(n-1) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 - \frac{1}{2}n \geqslant \frac{1}{2}n^2 - \frac{1}{2}n\frac{1}{2}n = \frac{1}{4}n^2 \quad (\forall n \geqslant 2)$$
(2)

• Hence, we can select: $c_2 = \frac{1}{4}, c_1 = \frac{1}{2}$ và $n_0 = 2$

Using Limits for Comparing Orders of Growth

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$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{t(n)}{g(n)}=\begin{cases}0\\c\\\infty\end{cases}$$

With:

- lim = 0: t(n) has a **smaller** order of growth than g(n).
- lim = c: t(n) has the **same** order of growth as g(n).
- $\lim = \infty$: t(n) has a **larger** order of growth than g(n).

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How to compute algorithm complexity?

Common time complexities

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Common time complexities Rules

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References

• Constant time: O(1)

• Logarithmic time: $O(\log_2 n)$

• Linear time: O(n)

• Polynomial time: O(P(n))

• Exponential time: $O(2^n)$

Common time complexities

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An algorithm is said to be

- O(1) does not depend on the size of the input.
- O(n) means that the running time increases at most linearly with the size of the input.
- O(P(n)) if its running time is upper bounded by a polynomial expression in the size of the input for the algorithm.
- $O(2^n)$ if running time is bounded by $O(2^{n^k})$ for some constant k.

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```
Constant time, O(1):
```

```
age = int(input())  # 0(1)
visitors = 0  # 0(1)
if age < 17:
    status = "Not allowed" # 0(1)
else:
    status = "Welcome!" # 0(1)
    visitors += 1  # 0(1)</pre>
```

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- Logarithmic time, O(logn): as the ratio of the number of operations to the size of the input decreases and tends to zero when n increases.
- commonly found in operations on binary trees or when using binary search.

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```
Linear time, O(n):
```

```
total = 0  # 0(1)

for i in range(n)

total += i  # 0(n)

print(total)  # 0(1)
```

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```
Polynomial time, O(P(n)):

x = 0 # O(1)

for i in range(n):

for j in range(n):

for k in range(n):

x += 2 # O(n^3)
```

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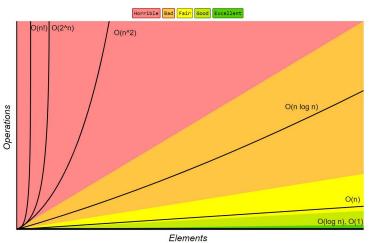
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Big-O Complexity Chart



Rules

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• Drop constance:

$$T(n) = O(c \cdot f(n)) = O(f(n))$$
 $c = const, c \ge 0$ (1)

• Get max:

$$O(f(n)) + O(g(n)) = O(\max(f(n), g(n)))$$
 (2)

• Multiplication T(n) = O(f(n))If we excute k(n) times with k(n) = O(g(n)), then the complexity will be $O(g(n) \cdot f(n))$.

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```
s = 0;
for (int i = 0; i <= n; ++i){
    p = 1;
    for (int j = 1; j <= i; ++j)
        p = p * x / j;
    s += p;
}</pre>
```

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```
s = 0;
for (int i = 0; i <= n; ++i){
    p = 1;
    for (int j = 1; j <= i; ++j)
        p = p * x / j;
    s += p;
}</pre>
```

- Number of excution times of p = p * x / j is n(n+1)/2.
- Time complexity of this 7 lines of code is:

$$O(1) + O(\frac{1}{2}(n^2 + n)) + O(1) + O(1) = O(n^2)$$

```
def function():
                        num1 = 50000
                        n = num1 / 1000
                        m = 2
                        for i in range(n):
                            for j in range(m):
                                print("This is 1st string")
                        num2 = 10000
Rules
                        x = num2 / 1000
                        for i in range(x):
                            for j in range(x):
                                print("This is 2nd string")
                                print("This is 3rd string")
                        return "Returned string"
          14
```

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- Line 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14: each line costs O(1) so number of times in total is **9**.
- Line 5, 6: *n* * *m*
- Line 10, 11: $x * x = x^2$
- Apply addition rule: $9 + n * m + x^2$
- Apply drop constance rule: $n * m + x^2$
- Apply get max rule: $max(n*m, x^2)$ is the time complexity of above function.

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- Algorithm complexity is used to evaluate algorithms from which to choose the most optimal algorithm.
- The higher the complexity of the algorithm, the more time it will take.
- Evaluating an algorithm before putting it into practice that will save time and money.
- There are 3 simple rules need to remember, those are drop constance, multiplication and get max.

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 Determining the complexity of algorithm (the basic part).