# COMP9020 Week 3 Functions and Big-O notation

• Textbook (R & W) - Ch. 1, Sec. 1.7; Ch. 4., Sec. 4.3

# **Applications of Functions and Big-O notation**

- Functions, methods, procedures in programming
- Computer programs "are" functions
- Graphical transformations
- Algorithmic analysis



# **Summary of topics**

- Functions recap
- Inverse functions
- Matrices
- Introduction to big-O notation

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### **Functions**

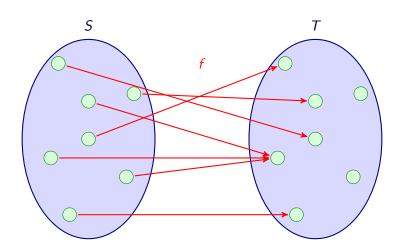
#### **Definition**

A **function**,  $f: S \to T$ , is a binary relation  $f \subseteq S \times T$  such that for all  $s \in S$  there is *exactly one*  $t \in T$  such that  $(s, t) \in f$ .

We write f(s) for the unique element related to s.

A partial function  $f: S \rightarrow T$  is a binary relation  $f \subseteq S \times T$  such that for all  $s \in S$  there is at most one  $t \in T$  such that  $(s, t) \in f$ . That is, it is a function  $f: S' \longrightarrow T$  for  $S' \subseteq S$ 

# **Graphical representation**





### **Functions**

 $f:S\longrightarrow T$  describes pairing of the sets: it means that f assigns to every element  $s\in S$  a unique element  $t\in T$ . To emphasise where a specific element is sent, we can write  $f:x\mapsto y$ , which means the same as f(x)=y

### Important!

The domain and co-domain are critical aspects of a function's definition.

$$f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{Z}$$
 given by  $f(x) \mapsto x^2$ 

and

$$g: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$$
 given by  $g(x) \mapsto x^2$ 

are different functions even though they have the same behaviour!



# **Composition of Functions**

Composition of functions is described as

$$g \circ f : x \mapsto g(f(x)), \text{ requiring } Im(f) \subseteq Dom(g)$$

Composition is associative

$$h \circ (g \circ f) = (h \circ g) \circ f$$
, can write  $h \circ g \circ f$ 



# **Composition of Functions**

If a function maps a set into itself, i.e. when Dom(f) = Codom(f) (and thus  $Im(f) \subseteq Dom(f)$ ), the function can be composed with itself — **iterated** 

$$f \circ f, f \circ f \circ f, \ldots$$
, also written  $f^2, f^3, \ldots$ 

**Identity** function on *S* 

$$\operatorname{Id}_{S}(x) = x, x \in S; \operatorname{Dom}(\operatorname{Id}_{S}) = \operatorname{Codom}(\operatorname{Id}_{S}) = \operatorname{Im}(\operatorname{Id}_{S}) = S$$

For 
$$g: S \longrightarrow T$$
  $g \circ Id_S = g$ ,  $Id_T \circ g = g$ 



# **Properties of Functions**

Function is called **surjective** or **onto** if every element of the codomain is mapped to by at least one x in the domain, i.e.

$$Im(f) = Codom(f)$$

# **Examples (of functions that are surjective)**

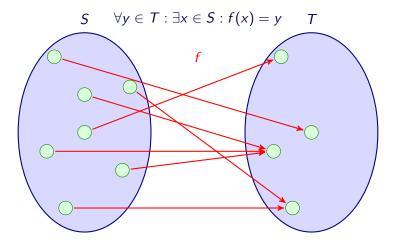
- $f: \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$  with  $f(x) \mapsto x$
- Floor, ceiling

### **Examples (of functions that are not surjective)**

- $f: \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$  with  $f(x) \mapsto x^2$
- $f: \{a, \ldots, e\}^* \longrightarrow \{a, \ldots, e\}^*$  with  $f(w) \mapsto awe$



# **Graphical representation: Surjective**



# **Injective Functions**

Function is called **injective** or 1-1 (**one-to-one**) if different x implies different f(x), i.e.

If 
$$f(x) = f(y)$$
 then  $x = y$ 

### **Examples (of functions that are injective)**

- $f: \mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$  with  $f(x) \mapsto x$
- set complement (for a fixed universe)

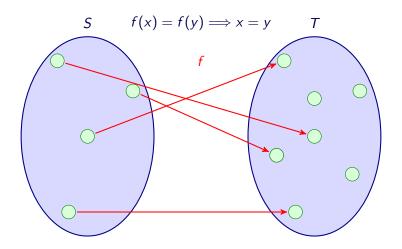
### **Examples (of functions that are not injective)**

- absolute value, floor, ceiling
- length of a word

Function is **bijective** if it is both surjective and injective.



# **Graphical representation: Injective**



### **Functions on finite sets**

#### **NB**

For a **finite** set S and  $f: S \longrightarrow S$  the properties

- surjective, and
- injective

are equivalent.



# Converse of a function

### Question

 $f^{\leftarrow}$  is a relation; when is it a function?



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# **Inverse Functions**

#### **Definition**

If  $f^{\leftarrow}$  is a function then it is called the **inverse function**; denoted  $f^{-1}$ .

#### NB

 $f^{-1}$  only exists if f is a bijection.

 $f^{\leftarrow}$  always exists.

 $f^{-1}$  is the procedure of "undoing" f.

# Properties of the inverse

#### **Fact**

If  $f: S \to T$  and  $f^{-1}$  exists then:

$$f^{-1} \circ f = Id_S$$
 and  $f \circ f^{-1} = Id_T$ .

Conversely, if  $f:S\to T$  and  $g:T\to S$  and

$$g \circ f = Id_S$$
 and  $f \circ g = Id_T$ 

then  $f^{-1}$  exists and is equal to g.



- 1.7.5 f and g are 'shift' functions  $\mathbb{N} \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$  defined by f(n) = n+1, and  $g(n) = \max(0, n-1)$
- (c) Is f injective? surjective?
- (d) Is g injective? surjective?
- (e) Do f and g commute, i.e.  $\forall n ((f \circ g)(n) = (g \circ f)(n))$ ?



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- $1.7.6 \Sigma = \{a, b, c\}$
- (c) Is length :  $\Sigma^* \longrightarrow \mathbb{N}$  surjective?
- (d) length  $(2) \stackrel{?}{=}$
- 1.7.12 Verify that  $f: \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  defined by
- f(x,y) = (x + y, x y) is invertible.

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### **Matrices**

An  $m \times n$  matrix is a rectangular array with m horizontal rows and n vertical columns.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

#### **NB**

Matrices are important objects in Computer Science, e.g. for

- optimisation
- graphics and computer vision
- cryptography
- information retrieval and web search
- machine learning

### **Matrices**

#### NB

A matrix represents a **linear transformation**: a function that maps vectors to vectors in a "nice" way.

Matrix multiplication corresponds to the composition of transformations.

# **Basic Matrix Operations**

The **transpose**  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}$  of an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  is the  $n \times m$ matrix whose entry in the ith row and ith column is aii.

### **Example**

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & -1 & 2 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{A^T} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3 & 4 \\ -1 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### NB

A matrix **M** is called symmetric if  $\mathbf{M}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{M}$ 

The **sum** of two  $m \times n$  matrices  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  and  $\mathbf{B} = [b_{ij}]$  is the  $m \times n$  matrix whose entry in the *i*th row and *j*th column is  $a_{ij} + b_{ij}$ .

### Example

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & -1 & 2 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 5 & 3 \\ 2 & 3 & -2 & 1 \\ 4 & -2 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & 5 & 7 \\ 5 & 5 & -3 & 3 \\ 8 & -2 & 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### **Fact**

$$A + B = B + A$$
 and  $(A + B) + C = A + (B + C)$ 

Given  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ , the **scalar product**  $c\mathbf{A}$  is the  $m \times n$  matrix whose entry in the ith row and jth column is  $c \cdot a_{ij}$ .

### **Example**

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 & 4 \\ 3 & 2 & -1 & 2 \\ 4 & 0 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$2\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -2 & 0 & 8 \\ 6 & 4 & -2 & 4 \\ 8 & 0 & 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

The **product** of an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [a_{ij}]$  and an  $n \times p$  matrix  $\mathbf{B} = [b_{jk}]$  is the  $m \times p$  matrix  $\mathbf{C} = [c_{ik}]$  defined by

$$c_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij}b_{jk}$$
 for  $1 \le i \le m$  and  $1 \le k \le p$ 

#### **Example**

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} & a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} \\ a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} & a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

#### NB

The rows of **A** must have the same number of entries as the columns of **B**.

The product of a  $1 \times n$  matrix and an  $n \times 1$  matrix is usually called the inner product of two n-dimensional vectors.

# **Example**

Consider

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculate AB, BA



# **Example**

Consider

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -6 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculate AB, BA

$$\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} -10 & 5 \\ -20 & 10 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{BA} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

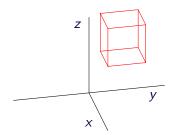
#### NB

In general,  $\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} \neq \mathbf{B} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ 

# **Example: Computer Graphics**

Rotating an object w.r.t. the x axis by degree  $\alpha$ :

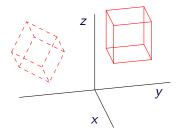
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ 0 & \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 5 & 7 & 7 & 5 & 7 & 5 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 9 & 7 & 7 & 9 & 7 & 7 & 9 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$



# **Example: Computer Graphics**

Rotating an object w.r.t. the x axis by degree  $\alpha$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ 0 & \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 5 & 7 & 7 & 5 & 7 & 5 & 7 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 9 & 7 & 7 & 9 & 7 & 7 & 9 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$



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## **Motivation**

Want to compare algorithms – particularly ones that can solve *arbitrarily large* instances.

We would like to be able to talk about the resources (running time, memory, energy consumption) required by a program/algorithm as a function f(n) of the size n of its input.

#### **Example**

How long does a given sorting algorithm take to run on a list of n elements?



Problem 1: the exact running time may depend on

- compiler optimisations
- processor speed
- cache size

Each of these may affect the resource usage by up to a *linear* factor, making it hard to state a general claim about running times.

Problem 2: Many algorithms that arise in practice have resource usage that can be expressed only as a rather complicated function. E.g.

$$f(n) = 20n^2 + 2n\log(n) + (n-100)\log(n)^2 + \frac{1}{2^n}\log(\log(n))$$

The main contribution to the value of the function for "large" input sizes *n* is the term of the *highest order*:

$$20n^{2}$$

We would like to be able to ignore the terms of lower order

$$2n\log(n) + (n-100)\log(n)^2 + \frac{1}{2^n}\log(\log(n))$$



## **Order of Growth**

## **Example**

Consider two algorithms, one with running time  $f_1(n) = \frac{1}{10}n^2$ , the other with running time  $f_2 = 10n \log n$  (measured in milliseconds).

Input size	$f_1(n)$	$f_2(n)$
100	0.01s	2s
1000	1s	30s
10000	1m40s	6m40s
100000	2h47m	1h23m
1000000	11d14h	16h40h
10000000	3y3m	8d2h

**Order of growth** provides a way to abstract away from these two problems, and focus on what is essential to the size of the function, by saying that "the (complicated) function f is of roughly the same size (for large input) as the (simple) function g"

#### NB

Asymptotic analysis is about how costs **scale** as the input increases.

# "Big-Oh" Asymptotic Upper Bounds

#### **Definition**

Let  $f,g:\mathbb{N}\to\mathbb{R}$ . We say that g is asymptotically less than f (or: f is an upper bound of g) if there exists  $n_0\in\mathbb{N}$  and a real constant c>0 such that for all  $n\geq n_0$ ,

$$g(n) \le c \cdot f(n)$$

Write O(f(n)) for the class of all functions g that are asymptotically less than f.

### **Example**

$$g(n) = 3n + 1 \rightarrow g(n) \le 4n$$
, for all  $n \ge 1$ 

Therefore, 
$$3n + 1 \in O(n)$$

### **Example**

$$\frac{1}{10}n^2 \in O(n^2) \qquad 10n \log n \in O(n \log n) \qquad O(n \log n) \subsetneq O(n^2)$$

$$\log_2 2$$

The traditional notation has been

$$g(n) = O(f(n))$$

instead of  $g(n) \in O(f(n))$ .

It allows one to use O(f(n)) or similar expressions as part of an equation; of course these 'equations' express only an approximate equality. Thus,

$$T(n) = 2 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + O(n)$$

means

"There exists a function  $f(n) \in O(n)$  such that  $T(n) = 2T(\frac{n}{2}) + f(n)$ ."

## **Alternative definition**

#### **Fact**

$$f(n) \in O(g(n))$$
 if and only if  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty$ .



# **Examples**

$$5n^2 + 3n + 2 = O(n^2)$$

# **Examples**

$$5n^2 + 3n + 2 = O(n^2)$$

$$n^3 + 2^{100}n^2 + 2n + 2^{2^{100}} = O(n^3)$$



# **Examples**

$$5n^2 + 3n + 2 = O(n^2)$$

$$n^3 + 2^{100}n^2 + 2n + 2^{2^{100}} = O(n^3)$$

Generally, for constants  $a_k \dots a_0$ ,

$$a_k n^k + a_{k-1} n^{k-1} + \ldots + a_0 = O(n^k)$$



# "Big-Omega" Asymptotic Lower Bounds

#### **Definition**

Let  $f,g:\mathbb{N}\to\mathbb{R}$ . We say that g is asymptotically greater than f (or: f is an lower bound of g) if there exists  $n_0\in\mathbb{N}$  and a real constant c>0 such that for all  $n\geq n_0$ ,

$$g(n) \ge c \cdot f(n)$$

Write  $\Omega(f(n))$  for the class of all functions g that are asymptotically greater than f.

#### **Example**

$$g(n) = 3n + 1 \rightarrow g(n) \ge 3n$$
, for all  $n \ge 1$ 

Therefore, 
$$3n + 1 \in \Omega(n)$$

# "Big-Theta" Notation

#### **Definition**

Two functions f, g have the same order of growth if they scale up in the same way:

There exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  and real constants c > 0, d > 0 such that for all  $n \geq n_0$ ,

$$c \cdot f(n) \leq g(n) \leq d \cdot f(n)$$

Write  $\Theta(f(n))$  for the class of all functions g that have the same order of growth as f.

If  $g \in O(f)$  (or  $\Omega(f)$ ) we say that f is an *upper bound* (*lower bound*) on the order of growth of g; if  $g \in \Theta(f)$  we call it a **tight bound**.

Observe that, somewhat symmetrically

$$g \in \Theta(f) \iff f \in \Theta(g)$$

We obviously have

$$\Theta(f(n)) \subseteq O(f(n))$$
 and  $\Theta(f(n)) \subseteq \Omega(f(n))$ ,

in fact

$$\Theta(f(n)) = O(f(n)) \cap \Omega(f(n)).$$

At the same time the 'Big-Oh' is *not* a symmetric relation

$$g \in O(f) \not\Rightarrow f \in O(g),$$

but

$$g \in O(f) \Leftrightarrow f \in \Omega(g)$$

# **More Examples**

 All logarithms log<sub>b</sub> x have the same order, irrespective of the value of b

$$O(\log_2 n) = O(\log_3 n) = \ldots = O(\log_{10} n) = \ldots$$

• Exponentials  $r^n$ ,  $s^n$  to different bases r < s have different orders, e.g. there is no c > 0 such that  $3^n < c \cdot 2^n$  for all n

$$O(r^n) \subsetneq O(s^n) \subsetneq O(t^n) \dots$$
 for  $r < s < t \dots$ 

Similarly for polynomials

$$O(n^k) \subsetneq O(n^l) \subsetneq O(n^m) \dots$$
 for  $k < l < m \dots$ 



Here are some of the most common functions occurring in the analysis of the performance of programs (algorithm complexity):

```
1, \log \log n, \log n, \sqrt{n}, \sqrt{n}(\log n)^k, \sqrt{n}(\log n)^2, ...

n, n \log \log n, n \log n, n^{1.5}, n^2, n^3, ...

2^n, 2^n \log n, n2^n, 3^n, ...

n!, n^n, n^{2n}, ..., n^{n^2}, n^{2^n}, ...
```

Notation:  $O(1) \equiv$  const, although technically it could be any function that varies between two constants c and d.

## **Exercises**

#### **Exercises**

- 4.3.5 True or false?
- $(a) 2^{n+1} = O(2^n)$
- (b)  $(n+1)^2 = O(n^2)$
- (c)  $2^{2n} = O(2^n)$
- (d)  $(200n)^2 = O(n^2)$
- 4.3.6 True or false?
- $\overline{(b) \log}(n^{73}) = O(\log n)$
- (c)  $\log n^n = O(\log n)$
- (d)  $(\sqrt{n}+1)^4 = O(n^2)$

## **Exercises**

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## 4.3.5 True or false?

$$\overline{(\mathsf{a})\ 2^{n+1}} = O(2^n)$$

(b) 
$$(n+1)^2 = O(n^2)$$
 ?

(c) 
$$2^{2n} = O(2^n)$$
 ?

(d) 
$$(200n)^2 = O(n^2)$$
 ?

4.3.6 True or false?

$$\overline{(b) \log(n^{73})} = O(\log n)$$

(c) 
$$\log n^n = O(\log n)$$
 ?

(d) 
$$(\sqrt{n}+1)^4 = O(n^2)$$
 ?