

# Introduction to Time and Space Complexity

The *time complexity* of an algorithm quantifies the amount of time required by the algorithm to perform a given task as a function of the *size* or *length* of the task. Similarly, the *space complexity* of an algorithm quantifies the amount of storage (memory) required by the algorithm as a function of the task size/length. We are typically mainly interested in the asymptotic behavior rather than exact quantities. To this end, the so-called “Big O” notation is commonly used.

## 1 Big O notation

A function  $f(x)$  is said to be “big o” of  $g(x)$ , written as  $f(x) = O(g(x))$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , if there exists positive constants  $c$  and  $x_0$  such that

$$|f(x)| \leq c g(x), \quad \forall x \geq x_0.$$

In other words, the function  $g$  can be used to construct an upper bound on the *worst-case* asymptotic behavior of  $f$ .

As an example, suppose  $f(x) = 4x^3 - 2x^2 + 5x$ . Asymptotically, the first term (i.e.,  $4x^3$ ) grows much faster than the last two terms, so  $f(x) = O(x^3)$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . Indeed, we have that

$$|f(x)| \leq |4x^3| + |2x^2| + |5x|$$

and hence

$$|f(x)| \leq 11x^3, \quad \forall x \geq 1.$$

Note that  $f(n) = O(x^4)$  and  $f(n) = O(2^n)$  are also true if  $f(x) = O(x^3)$ . In practice, we are often interested in the *least conservative* bound on the asymptotic growth rate of  $f$ . A lower bound on the asymptotic behavior of  $f$  leads the the so-called *big omega* notation:  $f(x)$  is said to be “big omega” of  $g(x)$ , written as  $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , if  $g(x) = O(f(x))$ , i.e.,

$$f(x) = \Omega(g(x)) \iff g(x) = O(f(x)).$$

(We note that are more general definition of exists.) If  $f(x) = O(g(x))$  and  $f(x) = \Omega(g(x))$ , then  $f(x)$  is said to be “big theta” of  $g(x)$ , written as  $f(x) = \Theta(g(x))$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . In other words,  $f(x)$  is bounded above and below asymptotically by a scalar multiple of  $g(x)$ .

Now suppose that  $f(n)$  represents the time required by some algorithm or program as a function of the input size  $n$ . The time complexity of the algorithm may then be classified according to the asymptotic behavoir of  $f$ . For example, the time complexity is said to be polynomial if  $f(n) = O(n^k)$  for some positive integer  $k$ , and it is exponential if  $f(n) = O(2^{\text{poly}(n)})$  where

$\text{poly}(n)$  denotes a polynomial in  $n$ . The following table lists a number of complexity classes along with their Big O characterization.

Complexity	Big O notation
Constant	$O(1)$
Logarithmic	$O(\log n)$
Poly-logarithmic	$O((\log n)^k)$
Linear	$O(n)$
Quasi-linear/log-linear	$O(n(\log n)^k)$
Polynomial	$O(n^k)$
Exponential	$O(2^{\text{poly}(n)})$
Factorial	$O(n!)$
Double exponential	$O(2^{2^{\text{poly}(n)}})$

The example in the following table illustrates the difference between polynomial and exponential time complexity. Clearly, exponential time complexity grows much faster than polynomial time complexity.

$f(n)$	$n = 10$	$n = 20$	$n = 30$	$n = 40$
$n$	0.00001 s	0.00002 s	0.00003 s	0.00004 s
$n^2$	0.0001 s	0.0004 s	0.0009 s	0.0016 s
$n^3$	0.001 s	0.008 s	0.027 s	0.064 s
$n^5$	0.1 s	3.2 s	24.3 s	1.7 min
$2^n$	0.001 s	1 s	17.9 min	12.7 days
$3^n$	0.059 s	58 min	6.5 years	3855 centuries

### Example 1

The travelling salesman problem is a combinatorial problem that seeks the shortest (or cheapest) route through  $n$  locations: the route must visit each location exactly once and return to the starting point (one of the  $n$  locations). There are  $n!$  possible routes, so an algorithm that finds the shortest route by comparing all of these will have *factorial* time complexity.

### Example 2

The Fibonacci sequence is defined recursively as

$$f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2), \quad n \geq 2,$$

where  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(1) = 1$ . The sequence is monotonically increasing which implies that

$$f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2) \leq 2f(n-1), \quad n \geq 2,$$

since  $f(n-1) \geq f(n-2)$ . In other words,  $f(n)$  at most twice the value of  $f(n-1)$  (provided that  $n \geq 2$ ), and hence  $f(n) = O(2^n)$ . Monotonicity also implies that

$$f(n) = f(n-1) + f(n-2) \geq 2f(n-2), \quad n \geq 2,$$

which, in turn, implies that  $f(n) = \Omega(2^{n/2})$  since the Fibonacci sequence at least doubles every time we increase  $n$  by 2. Consequently, we can conclude that, asymptotically, the growth of  $f(n)$  is exponential.

## 2 Floating-point operations

The number of floating-point operations or *FLOPs* (floating-point addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division) is often used as a rough measure of the time complexity of matrix and vector operations. For example, the inner product of two length  $n$  vectors  $x$  and  $y$ , defined as

$$x^T y = \sum_{k=1}^n x_i y_i,$$

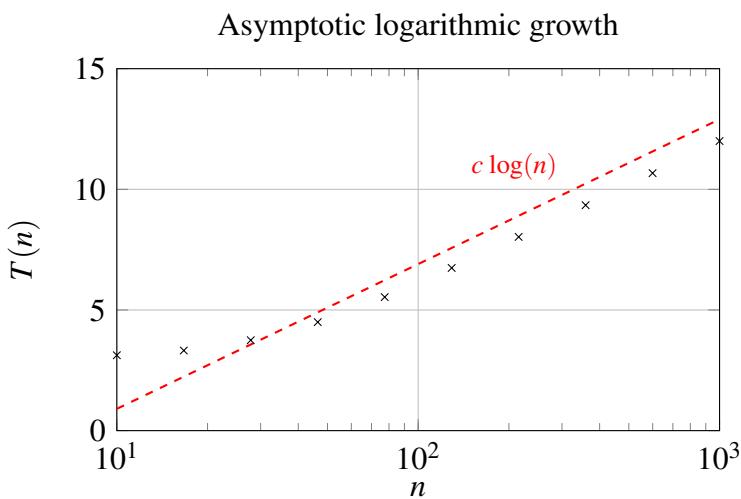
requires  $2n - 1$  FLOPs ( $n$  scalar multiplications and  $n - 1$  additions), and the matrix-vector product  $y = Ax$  where  $A$  is  $m \times n$  is equivalent to  $m$  such inner products (i.e.,  $y_i = a_i^T x$  where  $a_i^T$  denotes the  $i$ th row of  $A$ ), and hence it requires  $m(2n - 1)$  FLOPs. Thus, assuming that one FLOP requires a constant amount of time, the time complexity of an inner product is  $O(n)$  whereas the time complexity of matrix-vector multiplication is  $O(mn)$ . In the special case where  $A$  is a square matrix (i.e.,  $m = n$ ), the time complexity of the matrix-vector product is  $O(n^2)$ .

We note that “FLOP” refers to a single floating-point operation, the plural of which is “FLOPs”. The abbreviation “FLOPS” (with uppercase “S”) generally means *floating-point operations per second* and is used as a measure of performance.

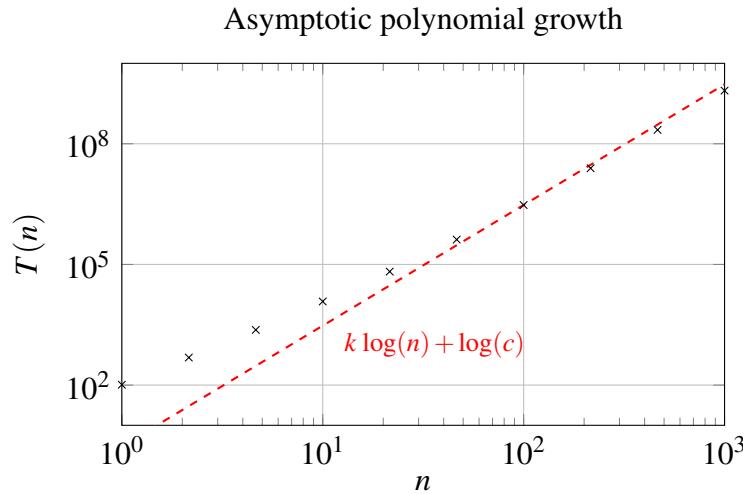
## 3 Complexity plots

Suppose we have measured the computation time of some algorithm for  $k$  different problem sizes  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$ . We will let  $T_i$  denote our measurement for problem size  $n_i$ . The question is now as follows: how can we assess the growth rate visually by plotting our measurements?

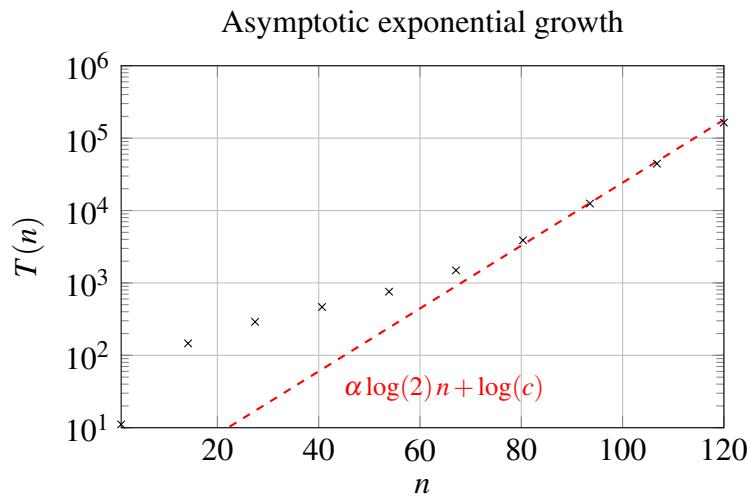
Suppose our hypothesis is that the computation time grows at most logarithmically as a function of  $n$ , i.e.,  $T(n) = O(\log(n))$ . In other words, we should be able to find a positive constant  $c$  such that  $T(n) \leq c \log(n)$  holds asymptotically. Thus, visualizing our measurements in a semilogarithmic plot with a logarithmic  $n$ -axis should expose an asymptotic growth that is at most linear in  $\log(n)$ . The following figure illustrates this.



Next, suppose our hypothesis is that the computation time is upper bounded by a polynomial in  $n$ , i.e.,  $T(n) = O(n^k)$  for some integer  $k \geq 1$ . We may then plot our measurements  $(n_i, T_i)$  using a logarithmic scale for both axes, which should expose an asymptotic growth that satisfies  $\log(T(n)) \leq k \log(n) + \log(c)$  for some positive constant  $c$ . This is illustrated in the next figure.



As a last example, suppose our hypothesis is that the computation time is upper bounded by an exponential function, i.e.,  $T(n) = O(2^{\alpha n})$  for some positive constant  $\alpha$ . Plot our measurements  $(n_i, T_i)$  using a logarithmic  $T$ -axis turns an exponential function into a line, i.e., the asymptotic upper bound becomes  $\log(T(n)) \leq \alpha \log(2)n + \log(c)$ . This is illustrated in the next figure.



The following table summarizes how the time complexity can be analyzed by means of plotting measurements for a number of different problem sizes.

Hypothesis	Plot	Upper bound	Slope
$O(\log(n))$	Log $n$ -axis	$T(n) \leq c \log(n)$	$c$
$O(n^k)$	Log-log plot	$\log(T(n)) \leq k \log(n) + \log(c)$	$k$
$O(2^{\alpha n})$	Log $T$ -axis	$\log(T(n)) \leq \alpha \log(2)n + \log(c)$	$\alpha \log(2)$