

## Chapter 2

# Algorithm Complexity

# Design challenges

- Designing an algorithmic solution is (almost) good:
  - The algorithm should not take “ages”
  - It should not consume “too much” memory.
- In this chapter, we will discuss the following:
  - How to estimate the time required for a program.
  - How to reduce the running time of a program from days or years to fractions of a second.
  - The results of careless use of recursion.
  - Very efficient algorithms to raise a number to a power and to compute the greatest common divisor of two numbers.

# Efficient Algorithms

- A city has  $n$  view points
- Buses move from one view point to another
- A bus driver wishes to follow the shortest path (travel time wise).
- Every view point is connected to another by a road.
- However, some roads are less congested than others.
- Also, roads are one-way, i.e., the road from view point 1 to 2, is different from that from view point 2 to 1.

- How to find the shortest path between any two pairs?
- Naïve approach:
  - List all the paths between a given pair of view points
  - Compute the travel time for each.
  - Choose the shortest one.
- How many paths are there between any two view points (without revisits)?

$$n! \cong (n/e)^n$$

- It will be impossible to run the algorithm for  $n = 30$

# What is efficiency of an algorithm?

- Run time in the computer is machine-dependent
- Example: Multiply two positive integers a and b
- Subroutine 1: Multiply a and b
- Subroutine 2:

$v = a, \quad w = b$

While  $w > 1$

$\{ v = v + a;$

$w = w - 1 \}$

Output v

# Machine-Dependent Analysis

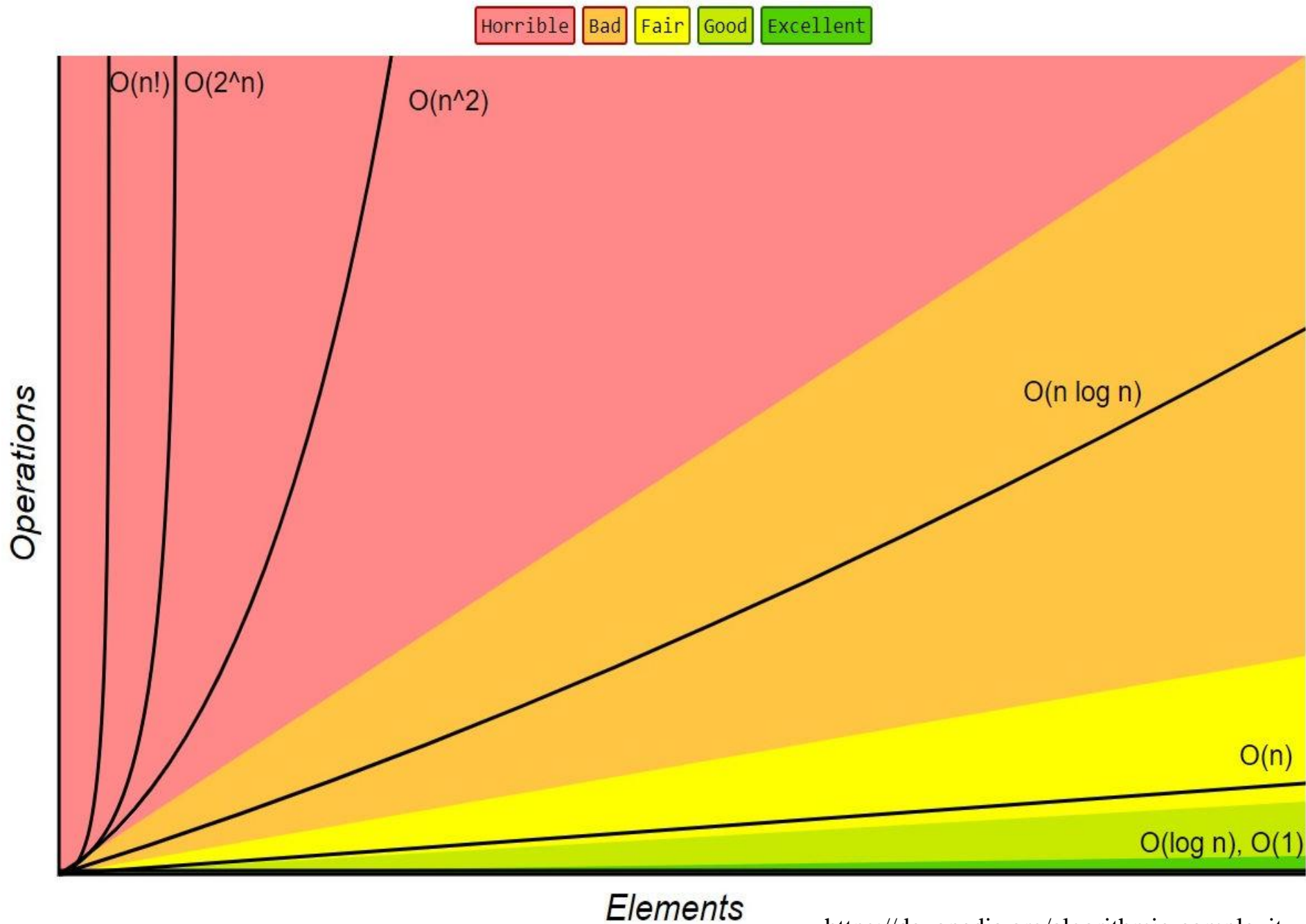
- First subroutine has 1 multiplication.
- Second subroutine has  $b$  additions and subtractions.
- For some architectures, 1 multiplication is more expensive than  $b$  additions and subtractions.
- Ideally:
  - programme all alternative algorithms
  - run them on the target machine
  - find which is more/most efficient!

# Machine-Independent Analysis

- We will assume that every basic operation takes constant time
- Example of Basic Operations:
  - Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication, Memory Access
- Non-basic Operations:
  - Sorting, Searching
- Efficiency of an algorithm is thus measured in terms of the number of basic operations it performs
  - We do not distinguish between the basic operations.

- Subroutine 1 uses 1 basic operation
- Subroutine 2 uses  $2b$  basic operations
  - ➔ Subroutine 1 is more efficient.
- This measure is good for all large input sizes
- **In fact**, we will not worry about the exact values number of operations, but will look at ``broad classes' of values.
  - Let there be  $n$  inputs.
  - If an algorithm needs  $n$  basic operations and another needs  $2n$  basic operations, we will consider them to be in the same efficiency category.
  - However, we distinguish between  $\exp(n)$ ,  $n$ ,  $\log(n)$
- We worry about the speed of our algorithms for large input sizes.





# Weak ordering

Consider the following definitions:

- We will consider two functions to be equivalent,  $f \sim g$ , if 
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c$$

where  $0 < c < \infty$

- We will state that  $f < g$  if 
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$$

For functions we are interested in, these define a weak ordering

# Weak ordering

Let  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$  describe the run-time of two algorithms. In general, there are functions s.t.:

- If  $f(n) \sim g(n)$ , then it is always possible to improve the performance of one function over the other by purchasing a faster computer
- If  $f(n) < g(n)$ , then you can never purchase a computer fast enough so that the second function always runs in less time than the first
- Note that for small values of  $n$ , it may be reasonable to use an algorithm that is asymptotically more expensive, but we will consider these on a one-to-one basis

# Function Orders

## Definition 2.1

$f(n) = O(g(n))$  if there are positive *constants*  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $0 \leq f(n) \leq c * g(n)$  when  $n \geq n_0$

i.e. A function  $f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$  if rate of growth of  $f(n)$  is not faster than that of  $g(n)$ .

i.e. if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n)/g(n)$  exists and is finite, then  $f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$

Intuitively, (not exactly)  $f(n)$  is  $O(g(n))$  means  $f(n) \leq g(n)$  for all  $n$  beyond some value  $n_0$ ; i.e.  $g(n)$  is an *upper bound* for  $f(n)$ .

# Remark

Before we begin, let us make some assumptions:

- Our functions will describe the time or memory required to solve a problem of size  $n$
- Restrictions are put on the functions:
  - They are defined for  $n \geq 0$
  - They are strictly positive for all  $n$ 
    - In fact,  $f(n) > c$  for some value  $c > 0$
    - That is, any problem requires at least one instruction and byte
  - They are increasing (monotonic increase)

# Examples of Functions

$\text{sqrt}(n)$  ,  $n$ ,  $2n$ ,  $\ln n$ ,  $\exp(n)$ ,  $n + \text{sqrt}(n)$  ,  $n + n^2$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{sqrt}(n) / n = 0,$$

$\text{sqrt}(n)$  is  $O(n)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n / \text{sqrt}(n) = \text{infinity},$$

$n$  is not  $O(\text{sqrt}(n))$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n / 2n = 1/2,$$

$n$  is  $O(2n)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2n / n = 2,$$

$2n$  is  $O(n)$

## Other examples:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \ln(n) / n = 0$$

$\ln(n)$  is  $O(n)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n / \ln(n) = \text{infinity}$$

$n$  is not  $O(\ln(n))$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \exp(n) / n = \text{infinity}$$

$\exp(n)$  is not  $O(n)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n / \exp(n) = 0$$

$n$  is  $O(\exp(n))$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n + \sqrt{n}) / n = 1$$

$n + \sqrt{n}$  is  $O(n)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n / (\sqrt{n} + n) = 1$$

$n$  is  $O(n + \sqrt{n})$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n + n^2) / n = \text{infinity}$$

$n + n^2$  is not  $O(n)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n / (n + n^2) = 0$$

$n$  is  $O(n + n^2)$

# Implication of Big Oh notation

- Suppose we know that our algorithm uses at most  $O(f(n))$  basic steps for any  $n$  inputs, and  $n$  is sufficiently large
  - then we know that our algorithm will terminate after executing at most  $f(n)$  basic steps.
  - We also know that a basic step takes a constant time in a machine.
- ➔ Our algorithm will terminate in  $f(n)$  units of time, for all large  $n$ .



# Other Complexity Notation

Now a lower bound notation,  $\Omega(n)$

## Definition 2.2

$f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$  if there are positive *constants*  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that  $f(n) \geq c * g(n)$  when  $n \geq n_0$ .

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n)/g(n)) > 0$ , if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n)/g(n))$  exists

$g(n)$  is a *lower bound* on  $f(n)$

# Implication of the $\Omega$ Notation

Suppose, an algorithm has complexity  $\Omega(f(n))$  .

This means that there exists a positive constant  $c$  such that for all sufficiently large  $n$ , there exists at least one input for which the algorithm consumes at least  $c * f(n)$  steps.

# Other Complexity Notation

## Definition 2.3

$f(n) = \theta(g(n))$  if and only if  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$

- $\theta(g(n))$  is referred to as “asymptotic equality”
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n)/g(n))$  is a finite, positive constant, if it exists

$f(n)$  has a rate of growth equal to that of  $g(n)$

# Other Complexity Notation

## Definition 2.4

$f(n) = o(g(n))$  if, for all positive constants  $c$ , there exists an  $n_0$  such that  $f(n) < c * g(n)$  when  $n > n_0$ . (“asymptotic strict inequality”)

- Less formally,  $f(n) = o(g(n))$  if  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) \neq \theta(g(n))$ .
- $f(n)$  is  $o(g(n))$  if given any positive constant  $c$ , there exists some  $m$  such that  $f(n) < c * g(n)$  for all  $n \geq m$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n)/g(n)) = 0$ , if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (f(n)/g(n))$  exists

- Small  $oh$  means: ““is ultimately smaller than”

# Rates of growth

Suppose that  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$  satisfy  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c$

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c$  where  $0 < c < \infty$ , it follows  
that  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = c$  where  $0 \leq c < \infty$ , it follows  
that  $f(n) = \mathbf{O}(g(n))$

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$ , we will say  $f(n) = \mathbf{o}(g(n))$   
 $f(n)$  has a rate of growth less than that of  $g(n)$

# Terminology

**Asymptotically less than or equal to**  $O$

**Asymptotically greater than or equal to**  $\Omega$

**Asymptotically equal to**  $\theta$

**Asymptotically strictly less**  $o$

# Recap

$$f(n) = \mathbf{o}(g(n))$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 0$$

$$f(n) = \mathbf{O}(g(n))$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty$$

$$f(n) = \mathbf{\Theta}(g(n))$$

$$0 < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} < \infty$$

$$f(n) = \mathbf{\Omega}(g(n))$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} > 0$$

# Example Functions

$\text{sqrt}(n)$  ,  $n$ ,  $2n$ ,  $\ln n$ ,  $\exp(n)$ ,  $n + \text{sqrt}(n)$  ,  $n + n^2$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{sqrt}(n) / n = 0$$

$\text{sqrt}(n)$  is  $o(n)$ ,  $O(n)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n / \text{sqrt}(n) = \text{infinity}$$

$n$  is  $\Omega(\text{sqrt}(n))$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n / \ln(n) = \text{infinity}$$

$n$  is  $\Omega(\ln(n))$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2n / n = 2$$

$2n$  is  $\theta(n)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n / 2n = 1/2$$

$n$  is  $\theta(2n)$



# Terminology

The most common classes are given names:

$\Theta(1)$

constant

$\Theta(\ln(n))$

logarithmic

$\Theta(n)$

linear

$\Theta(n \ln(n))$

“ $n \log n$ ”

$\Theta(n^2)$

quadratic

$\Theta(n^3)$

cubic

$2^n, e^n, 4^n, \dots$

exponential

# Little-o as a Weak Ordering

We can show that, for example

$$\ln(n) = o(n^p)$$

for any  $p > 0$

Proof: Using l'Hôpital's rule, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(n)}{n^p} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/n}{pn^{p-1}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{pn^p} = \frac{1}{p} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n^{-p} = 0$$

# Little-o as a Weak Ordering

Other observations:

- If  $p$  and  $q$  are real positive numbers where  $p < q$ , it follows that

$$n^p = \mathbf{o}(n^q)$$

- For example, matrix-matrix multiplication is  $\Theta(n^3)$  but a refined algorithm is  $\Theta(n^{\lg(7)})$  where  $\lg(7) \approx 2.81$
- Also,  $n^p = \mathbf{o}(\ln(n)n^p)$ , but  $\ln(n)n^p = \mathbf{o}(n^q)$ 
  - $n^p$  has a slower rate of growth than  $\ln(n)n^p$ , but
  - $\ln(n)n^p$  has a slower rate of growth than  $n^q$  for  $p < q$

# Algorithms Analysis

An algorithm is said to have polynomial time complexity if its run-time may be described by  $O(n^d)$  for some fixed  $d \geq 0$

- We will consider such algorithms to be efficient

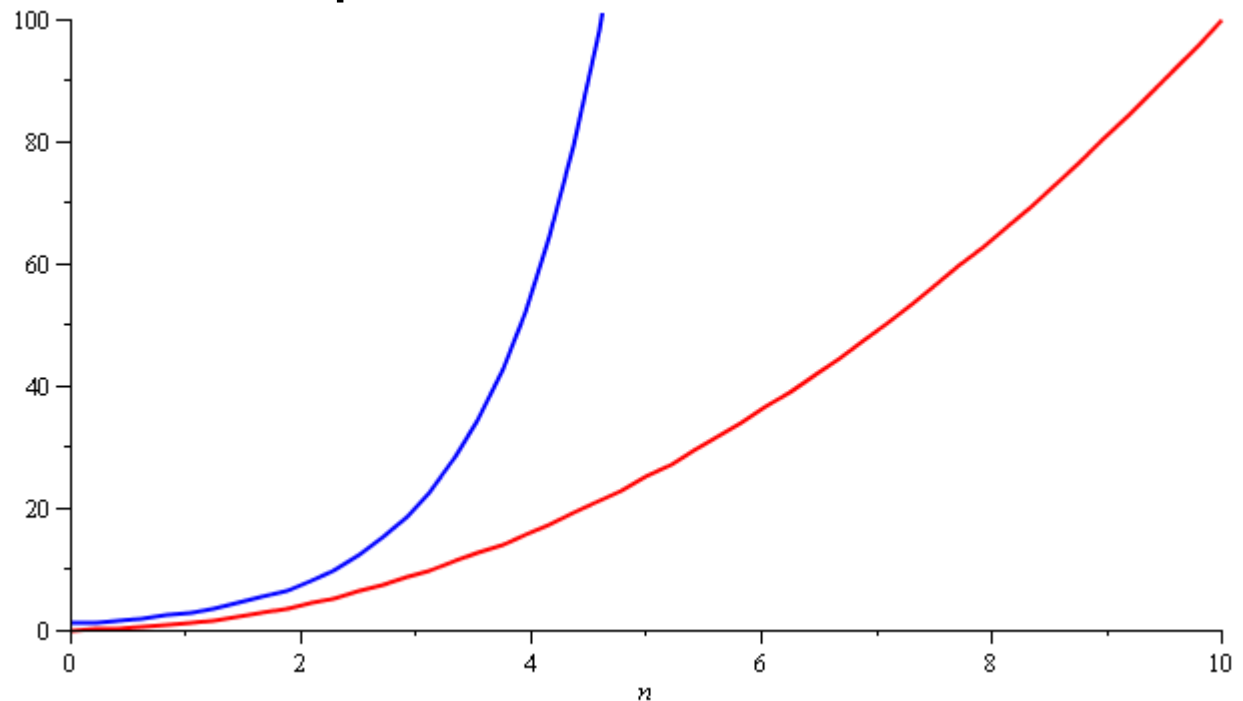
Problems that have no known polynomial-time algorithms are said to be intractable

- Traveling salesman problem: find the shortest path that visits  $n$  cities
- Best run time:  $\Theta(n^2 2^n)$

# Algorithm Analysis

In general, you don't want to implement exponential-time or exponential-memory algorithms

- Warning: don't call a **quadratic** curve “**exponential**”, either...please



# Rules for arithmetic with big-O symbols

- If  $T_1(n) = O(f(n))$  and  $T_2(n) = O(g(n))$ , then
  - (a)  $T_1(n) + T_2(n) = O(f(n) + g(n))$  (intuitively and less formally it is  $O(\max(f(n), g(n)))$ ),
  - (b)  $T_1(n) * T_2(n) = O(f(n) * g(n))$ .
- If  $T(n)$  is a polynomial of degree  $k$ , then  $T(n) = \theta(n^k)$ .
- $\log^k n = O(n)$  for any constant  $k$ .

This tells us that logarithms grow very slowly.

# Rules for arithmetic with big-O symbols

- If  $f(n) = O(g(n))$ , then  $c * f(n) = O(g(n))$  for any constant  $c$ .
- If  $f_1(n) = O(g(n))$  but  $f_2(n) = o(g(n))$ , then  $f_1(n) + f_2(n) = O(g(n))$ .
- If  $f(n) = O(g(n))$ , and  $g(n) = o(h(n))$ , then  $f(n) = o(h(n))$ . (complexity of  $f \circ g$ )
- These are not all of the rules, but they're enough for most purposes.

# Complexity of a Problem vs Algorithm

A problem is  $O(f(n))$  means there is some  $O(f(n))$  algorithm to solve the problem.

A problem is  $\Omega(f(n))$  means every algorithm that can solve the problem is  $\Omega(f(n))$



# Algorithm Complexity Analysis

- We define  $T_{\text{avg}}(N)$  and  $T_{\text{worst}}(N)$ , as the average and worst-case running time, resp., used by an algorithm on input of size  $N$ . Clearly,  $T_{\text{avg}}(N) \leq T_{\text{worst}}(N)$ .
- Occasionally, the best-case performance of an algorithm is analyzed.
  - of little interest: does not represent the typical behavior.
- Average-case performance often reflects typical behavior
- **Worst-case performance represents a guarantee for performance on any possible input**
- Interested in algorithm analysis not programme analysis: implementation issues/details/inefficiencies, etc.

# Algorithm Complexity Analysis

Consider the following algorithm

```
diff = sum = 0;
```

```
For (k=0: k < N; k++)
```

```
    sum → sum + 1;
```

```
    diff → diff - 1;
```

```
For (k=0: k < 3N; k++)
```

```
    sum → sum - 1;
```

- First line takes 2 basic steps
- Every iteration of first loop takes 2 basic steps.
- First loop runs  $N$  times
- Every iteration of second loop takes 1 basic step
- Second loop runs for  $3N$  times
- Overall,  $2 + 2N + 3N$  steps
- This is  $O(N)$

# Rules

Complexity of a loop:

**$O(\text{Number of iterations in a loop} * \text{maximum complexity of each iteration})$**

Nested Loops:

**Analyze the innermost loop first,**

**Complexity of next outer loop = number of iterations in this loop \* complexity of inner loop, etc.**

```
sum = 0;
```

```
For (i=0; i < N; i++)
```

```
    For (j=0; j < N; j++)    sum  $\rightarrow$  sum + 1;
```

Inner loop:  $O(N)$

Outer loop:  $N$  iterations

Overall:  $O(N^2)$

```

for( i = 0; i < n; ++i )
    a[ i ] = 0;
for( i = 0; i < n; ++i )
    for( j = 0; j < n; ++j )
        a[ i ] += a[ j ] + i + j;

```

First loop:  $O(N)$

Inner loop:  $O(N)$

Outer loop:  $N$  iterations

Overall:  $O(N^2) + O(N)$   
 SO  $O(N)$

If (Condition)

S1

Else S2      **Maximum of the two complexities**

If (yes)

print(1,2,...1000N)

else print(1,2,... $N^2$ )

# Analysis of recursion

- Suppose we have the code (not a good one):

```
Long fib (int n) {  
    if (n <= 1)                                1  
        return 1;                               2  
    else  
        return fib(n - 1) + fib(n - 2);        3  
}
```

$T(0) = T(1) = 1;$

$n \geq 2$   $T(n)$  = cost of constant op at 1 + cost of line 3 work

$T(n) = 1 \text{ op} + (\text{addition} + 2 \text{ function calls}) = O(1) + (\text{addition} + \text{cost of fib}(n-1) + \text{cost fib}(n-2)) = 2 + T(n-1) + T(n-2)$

# Analysis of recursion

- Easy to show by induction  $T(n) \geq \text{fib}(n)$
  - Can prove for  $n > 4$ ,  $\text{fib}(n) \geq (3/2)^n$
- Running time of the programme grows exponentially

By using an array and a for loop, the programme running time can be reduced substantially.

# Maximum Subsequence Problem

Given an array of  $N$  elements

Need to find  $i, j$  such that the sum of all elements between the  $i$ th and  $j$ th positions is maximum for all such sums



# Running time of 4 algorithms for max subsequence sum (in seconds) [Weiss, Fig 2.2]

Input Size	Algorithm Time			
	1	2	3	4
	$O(N^3)$	$O(N^2)$	$O(N \log N)$	$O(N)$
$N = 100$	0.000159	0.000006	0.000005	0.000002
$N = 1,000$	0.095857	0.000371	0.000060	0.000022
$N = 10,000$	86.67	0.033322	0.000619	0.000222
$N = 100,000$	NA	3.33	0.006700	0.002205
$N = 1,000,000$	NA	NA	0.074870	0.022711

# Algorithm 1

```
/**
 * Cubic maximum contiguous subsequence sum algorithm.
 */
int maxSubSum1( const vector<int> & a )
{
    int maxSum = 0;

    for( int i = 0; i < a.size( ); ++i )
        for( int j = i; j < a.size( ); ++j )
        {
            int thisSum = 0;

            for( int k = i; k <= j; ++k )
                thisSum += a[ k ];

            if( thisSum > maxSum )
                maxSum = thisSum;
        }

    return maxSum;
}
```

# Analysis of Algorithm 1

Inner loop:

$$\sum_{j=i}^{N-1} (j-i+1) = (N-i+1)(N-i)/2$$

Outer Loop:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (N-i+1)(N-i)/2 = (N^3 + 3N^2 + 2N)/6$$

Overall:  $O(N^3)$

Note: The innermost loop can be made more efficient leading to  $O(N^2)$  → exercise with complexity analysis

# Algorithm 2

```
/**
 * Quadratic maximum contiguous subsequence sum algorithm.
 */
int maxSubSum2( const vector<int> & a )
{
    int maxSum = 0;

    for( int i = 0; i < a.size( ); ++i )
    {
        int thisSum = 0;
        for( int j = i; j < a.size( ); ++j )
        {
            thisSum += a[ j ];

            if( thisSum > maxSum )
                maxSum = thisSum;
        }
    }

    return maxSum;
}
```

# Divide and Conquer

- Break a big problem into two small sub-problems
- Solve each of them efficiently.
- Combine the two solutions

# Maximum subsequence sum by divide and conquer

- Divide the array into two parts: left part, right part each to be solved recursively
- Max. subsequence lies completely in left, or completely in right or spans the middle.
- If it spans the middle, then it includes the max subsequence in the left ending at the last element and the max subsequence in the right starting from the center

4   -3   5   -2        -1   2   6   -2

Max subsequence sum for first half = 6

second half = 8

Max subsequence sum for first half ending at the last element (4<sup>th</sup> element included) is 4

Max subsequence sum for second half starting at the first element (5<sup>th</sup> element included) is 7

Max subsequence sum spanning the middle is  $4 + 7 = 11$

Max subsequence spans the middle

# Algorithm 3: Divide & Conquer

```
6  int maxSumRec( const vector<int> & a, int left, int right )
7  {
8      if( left == right ) // Base case
9          if( a[ left ] > 0 )
10             return a[ left ];
11         else
12             return 0;
13
14     int center = ( left + right ) / 2;
15     int maxLeftSum  = maxSumRec( a, left, center );
16     int maxRightSum = maxSumRec( a, center + 1, right );
17
18     int maxLeftBorderSum = 0, leftBorderSum = 0;
19     for( int i = center; i >= left; --i )
20     {
21         leftBorderSum += a[ i ];
22         if( leftBorderSum > maxLeftBorderSum )
23             maxLeftBorderSum = leftBorderSum;
24     }
```



```
26     int maxRightBorderSum = 0, rightBorderSum = 0;
27     for( int j = center + 1; j <= right; ++j )
28     {
29         rightBorderSum += a[ j ];
30         if( rightBorderSum > maxRightBorderSum )
31             maxRightBorderSum = rightBorderSum;
32     }
33
34     return max3( maxLeftSum, maxRightSum,
35                 maxLeftBorderSum + maxRightBorderSum );
36 }
37
38 /**
39  * Driver for divide-and-conquer maximum contiguous
40  * subsequence sum algorithm.
41  */
42 int maxSubSum3( const vector<int> & a )
43 {
44     return maxSumRec( a, 0, a.size( ) - 1 );
45 }
```

# Algorithm 3 Analysis

- If  $N=1$ ; lines 8 to 12 executed; taken to be one unit  
→  $T(1) = 1$
  - $N>1$ : 2 recursive calls, 2 for loops, some bookkeeping ops (e.g. lines 14, 34)
    - The 2 for loops (lines 19 to 32): clearly  $O(N)$
    - Lines 8, 14, 18, 26, 34: constant time; ignored compared to  $O(N)$
    - Recursive calls made on half the array size each.  
→  $2 * T(N/2)$
- SO: programme time is  $2 * T(N/2) + O(N)$  with  $T(1) = 1$

# Complexity Analysis

$$T(1)=1$$

$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$$

$$= 2.cn/2 + 4T(n/4) + cn$$

$$= 4T(n/4) + 2cn$$

$$= 8T(n/8) + 3cn$$

$$= \dots\dots\dots$$

$$= 2^i T(n/2^i) + icn$$

$$= \dots\dots\dots \text{ (reach a point when } n = 2^i \text{ } i=\log n)$$

$$= n.T(1) + c n \log n$$

$$n + c n \log n = O(n \log n)$$

# Algorithm 4

```
1  /**
2   * Linear-time maximum contiguous subsequence sum algorithm.
3   */
4  int maxSubSum4( const vector<int> & a )
5  {
6      int maxSum = 0, thisSum = 0;
7
8      for( int j = 0; j < a.size( ); ++j )
9      {
10         thisSum += a[ j ];
11
12         if( thisSum > maxSum )
13             maxSum = thisSum;
14         else if( thisSum < 0 )
15             thisSum = 0;
16     }
17
18     return maxSum;
19 }
```

# Algorithm 4 Analysis

- $T(N) = O(N)$  Obvious!
- What is not so obvious is the logic of the algorithm.

**Exercise:** convince yourself that it does the required work.

# Binary Search

- You have a sorted list of numbers
- You need to search the list for a specific number
- If the number exists find its position.
- If the number does not exist you need to detect that

Search(num, A[], left, right)

{

    if (left = right)

    {

        if (A[left] = num)     **return(left) and exit;**

        else **conclude NOT PRESENT and exit;**

    }

    center =  $\lfloor (left + right)/2 \rfloor$ ;

    If (A[center] < num)

**Search(num, A[], center + 1, right);**

    If (A[center] > num)

**Search(num, A[], left, center );**

    If (A[center] = num) **return(center) and exit;**

}

# Complexity Analysis

$$T(n) = T(n/2) + c$$

$O(\log n)$  complexity