# complexity

March 27, 2024

# 1 Lecture 6: Computational complexity, dynamic programming

- Time complexity: Big O notation
- Recursive functions
- Dynamic programming: Levenshtein distance

#### 1.1 Midterm exam

- April 24, 10:15-11:00 (first half of the lecture), AND-3-02/06
- Pen-and-paper, multiple-choice and short text answers (no writing code)
- Not allowed: computers, documentation, slides, cheat sheet, any other material or devices
- More information on OLAT (``Exercise & Exam Info'')

# 1.2 Learning objectives

By the end of this lecture, you should:

- Understand what computational complexity is and why it is important
- Be able to determine and reduce the time complexity of simple algorithms
- Know the time complexity of some commonly used operations with lists, sets, and dicts
- Understand how recursion works and be able to write recursive functions
- Know what dynamic programming is and why it is useful
- Understand the dynamic programming algorithm for calculating the Levenshtein distance

### **1.2.1** Imports

```
[1]: import random
import string
import timeit

import utils
```

# 1.3 How can we measure the efficiency of a program?

### 1.3.1 What resources does a program need?

- Time (seconds)
- Memory (bytes)
- Network data (megabits)
- Power (kilowatt-hours)

• ...

### 1.3.2 How to measure usage of these resources?

- Benchmarking: Measure how many resources the program uses in absolute units
  - Requires running the program (many times, maybe under different conditions)
  - Depends on input data, hardware, and other factors
- Computational complexity: Determine how quickly runtime increases with increasing input length
  - Based on inherent characteristics of the program
  - Requires theoretical analysis of the code
  - Independent of hardware (can be done with pen and paper)

# 1.3.3 Two types of computational complexity

- Time complexity: How complex is our program in terms of the time it takes to run?
- Space complexity: How complex is our program in terms of the memory it takes to run?

Computational complexity tells us how **scalable** our algorithms are (e.g., with increasing corpus size, document length, vocabulary size, etc.)

### 1.4 Time complexity

Given an algorithm, how quickly does the **number of operations** grow when we increase the **input length**?

- 1. For each operation, count how many times it is called
- 2. Sum up the counts
- 3. Keep only highest-order terms, ignore constant factors

```
[2]: def minimum(numbers):
    min_number = float("inf")  # Called 1 time
    for number in numbers:
        if number < min_number: # Called n times
            min_number = number # Called n times
        return min_number</pre>
```

- Total number of operations: 2n+1
- Drop lower-order terms and constant factors  $\rightarrow n$
- Time complexity: O(n)
  - $\rightarrow$  Runtime increases **linearly** with length of the input (n)

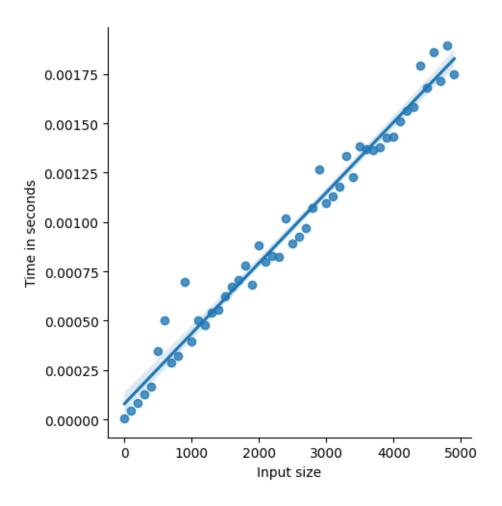
```
[3]: random_numbers = [random.randint(0, 100) for _ in range(50000)] utils.plot_time_complexity(minimum, random_numbers, regression_order=1)
```

```
0.0025 - 0.0020 - 0.0015 - 0.0005 - 0.0005 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0000 - 0.0
```

```
[4]: def optimized_minimum(numbers):
    min_number = float("inf")  # Called 1 time
    for number in numbers:
        if number == -float("inf"): # Called n times (worst case)
            return number
        if number < min_number: # Called n times (worst case)
            min_number = number  # Called n times (worst case)
        return min_number</pre>
```

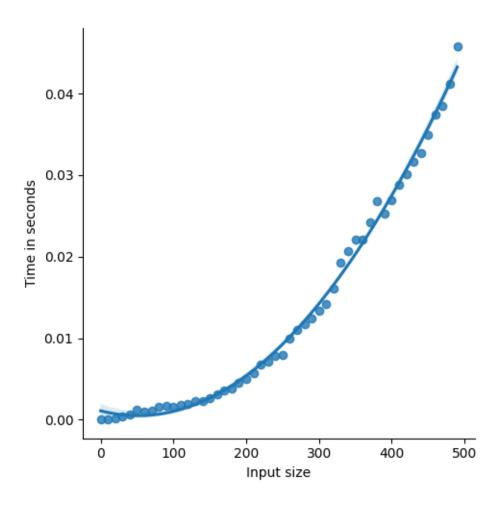
- In the best case (if numbers[0] == -inf), we only have 2 operations
- But in the worst case, we have 3n + 1 operations
- Big O notation always assumes the **worst case** scenario  $\rightarrow$  Time complexity is still O(n)

```
[5]: random_numbers = [random.randint(0, 100) for _ in range(5000)]
utils.plot_time_complexity(optimized_minimum, random_numbers,_
oregression_order=1)
```



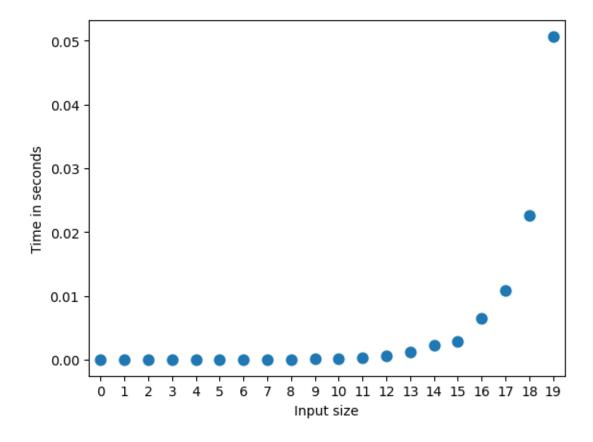
- Total number of operations:  $n^2 + 1$
- Drop lower-order terms and constant factors  $\rightarrow n^2$
- Time complexity:  $O(n^2)$ 
  - $\rightarrow$  Runtime increases quadratically with length of the input (n)

```
[7]: utils.plot_time_complexity(pairwise_sums, list(range(500)), regression_order=2)
```



- Total number of operations:  $2^n + 2n$
- Drop lower-order terms and constant factors  $\rightarrow \, 2^n$
- Time complexity:  $O(2^n)$ 
  - $\rightarrow$  Runtime increases **exponentially** with length of the input (n)

```
[10]: utils.plot_time_complexity(subset_sums, list(range(20)))
```



## 1.4.1 Common time complexity classes

Source: bigocheatsheet.com

### 1.4.2 Remember

- We are not interested in absolute runtime (which depends on hardware)
  - $\rightarrow$  Constant factors are irrelevant
- We are interested in how quickly runtime increases as inputs become very large
  - $\rightarrow$  Lower-order terms become negligible

## 1.4.3 Quiz: Time complexity

pwa.klicker.uzh.ch/join/asaeub

## 1.4.4 Example: Finding duplicate strings

### **OpenSubtitles**

- Movie subtitles in many languages
- Available in a cleaner, parallelized version as part of the OPUS corpus

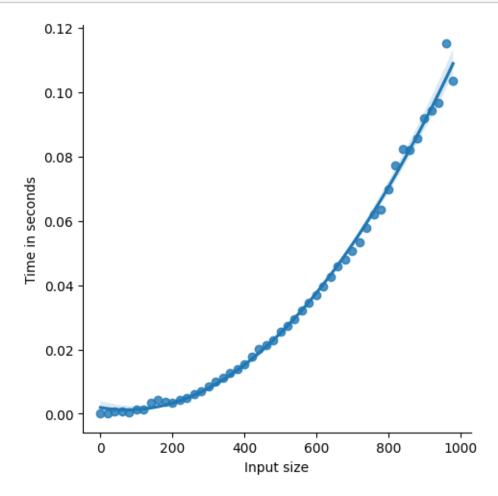
  The German part can be downloaded as plain text here
- Commonly used for machine translation

• Subtitles are usually short and contain a lot of duplicates

```
[11]: with open('de.txt', 'r') as f:
          lines = f.readlines()
      len(lines)
[11]: 41612280
[12]: lines[:10]
[12]: ['Ich geh lieber wieder an die Arbeit.\n',
       'Verspielt nicht alle Streichhölzer...\n',
       '- Hallo, Mac.\n',
       '- Hallo, Click.\n',
       'Tag, zusammen.\n',
       '- Hallo.\n',
       '- Hallo.\n',
       'Willkommen zu Hause, Mann.\n',
       'Komm, setz dich und spiel uns was vor.\n',
       '- Wir zahlen mit Versprechen.\n']
     A naive approach
[13]: def get_duplicates_naive(lines):
          duplicates = set()
          for i1, line1 in enumerate(lines):
              for i2, line2 in enumerate(lines):
                  if line1 == line2 and i1 != i2:
                      duplicates.add(line1)
          return duplicates
[14]: get_duplicates_naive(lines[:500])
[14]: {'- Gut.\n',
       '- Hallo.\n',
       '- Ja.\n',
       '- Morgen.\n',
       '- Nein.\n',
       '- Und wenn?\n',
       'Danke.\n',
       'Grant.\n',
       'Hier.\n',
       'Ja.\n',
       'Lass mich los!\n',
       'Nein.\n',
       'Weit reisen kannst du nur auf Gleisen\n',
       'Wieso?\n',
       'Wirklich?\n'}
```

```
[16]: timeit.timeit(lambda: get_duplicates_naive(lines[:10000]), number=1)
```

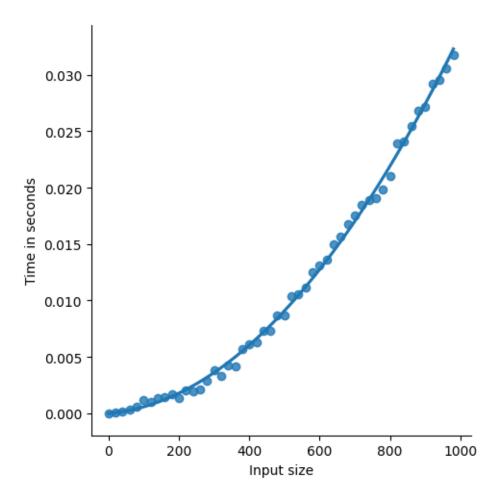
[16]: 2.4275523179999254



```
A better approach?
```

```
[18]: def get_duplicates_maybe_better(lines):
    duplicates = set()
    for line in lines:
        count = lines.count(line)
        if count > 1:
            duplicates.add(line)
        return duplicates
```

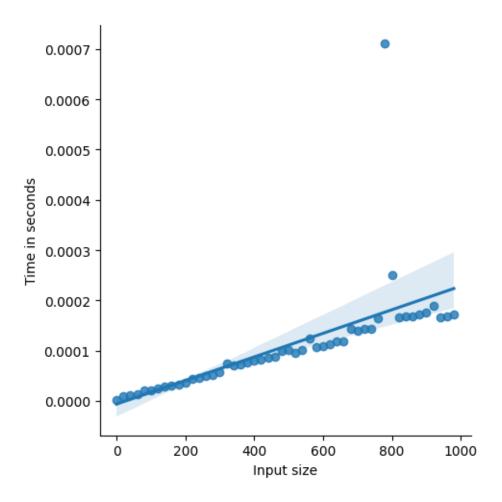
```
[19]: utils.plot_time_complexity(get_duplicates_maybe_better, lines[:1000], using the progression_order=2)
```



# Actually a better approach

```
[20]: def get_duplicates_really_better(lines):
    lines_set = set()
    duplicates = set()
    for line in lines:
        if line in lines_set:
            duplicates.add(line)
        else:
            lines_set.add(line)
        return duplicates
```

```
[23]: utils.plot_time_complexity(get_duplicates_really_better, lines[:1000], ueregression_order=1)
```



## 1.4.5 Time complexity in lists

Due to the way list is implemented in Python, the following methods need to iterate over all elements (in the worst case):

- list.count()
- list.index()
- list.\_\_contains\_\_()

Their time complexity is O(n) (= linear).

# Overview: Time complexity in lists

Method	Time complexity
append(x)	O(1)
getitem(i)	O(1)
len()	O(1)
<pre>pop()</pre>	O(1)
pop(0)	O(n)

Method	Time complexity
remove(x)	O(n)
<pre>insert(i, x)</pre>	O(n)
contains(x)	O(n)
count(x)	O(n)
reverse()	O(n)
sort()	$O(n \log n)$

More details: wiki.python.org/moin/TimeComplexity

# 1.4.6 Time complexity in dicts and sets

dict and set are implemented using hash tables. These are very efficient for looking up values:

- set.\_\_contains\_\_()
- dict.\_\_getitem\_\_()

These methods have time complexity O(1) (= constant).

## Overview: Time complexity in sets

Method	Time complexity
add(x)	$O(1)^*$
pop()	O(1)
len()	O(1)
contains()	O(1)

### Overview: Time complexity in dicts

Time complexity
$O(1)^*$
O(1)
O(1)
O(1)
O(1)

<sup>\*</sup> assuming no hash collisions

More details: wiki.python.org/moin/TimeComplexity

# 1.5 Space complexity

- Big O notation can also be used for **memory usage**
- Same principle: we look at the implementation of the algorithm and figure out how much memory is used in the **worst case** (not by running the code)

### 1.5.1 Example: Finding the k longest strings

```
[]: def longest_naive(strings, k=3):
    return sorted(strings, key=len)[-k:]

longest_naive(['a', 'ab', 'abc', 'abcd', 'abcde'])
```

- sorted() creates a new list of size n
- The return value is a list of size k
- Space complexity: O(n+k)
- Time complexity:  $O(n \log n)$

```
[]: def longest_better(strings, k=3):
    longest = []
    for string in strings:
        if len(longest) < k:
            longest.append(string)
        else:
            shortest_longest = min(longest, key=len)
            if len(string) > len(shortest_longest):
                longest.remove(shortest_longest)
                longest.append(string)
        return longest
        longest_better(['a', 'ab', 'abc', 'abcd', 'abcde'])
```

- The auxiliary list longest has size k
- The return value has size k
- Everything else requires only constant space
- Space complexity: O(k)
- Time complexity: ?

### 1.6 Recursive functions

**Problem:** Calculate the sum of numbers in arbitrarily nested data structures like this:

```
[24]: data = [1, 2, [3, 4], 5, [6, [7, 8]]]
```

This won't work:

[25]: sum(data)

```
TypeError Traceback (most recent call last)
Cell In[25], line 1
----> 1 sum(data)

TypeError: unsupported operand type(s) for +: 'int' and 'list'
```

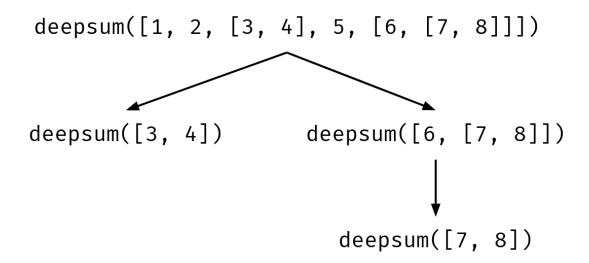
Solution: Recursively sum up elements of nested lists:

1

deepsum([7, 8])

```
[26]: def deepsum(data):
          total = 0
          for item in data:
              if isinstance(item, list):
                  total += deepsum(item) # Recursive call
              else:
                                           # Termination
                  total += item
          return total
[27]: deepsum([1, 2, [3, 4], 5, [6, [7, 8]]])
[27]: 36
     How many times was deepsum called?
[28]: call_counter = utils.CallCounter()
      @call_counter.register
      def deepsum(data):
          total = 0
          for item in data:
              if isinstance(item, list):
                  total += deepsum(item)
              else:
                  total += item
          return total
      deepsum([1, 2, [3, 4], 5, [6, [7, 8]]])
      call_counter.print_most_common()
             deepsum([1, 2, [3, 4], 5, [6, [7, 8]]])
     1
             deepsum([3, 4])
     1
             deepsum([6, [7, 8]])
```

#### 1.6.1 Recursion tree



What about the time complexity of deepsum?

The deeper the data structure, the longer the runtime: - deepsum([[1], [[2], [[3]]]) takes longer than deepsum([1, 2, 3])

The broader the data structure, the longer the runtime: - deepsum([1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]) takes longer than deepsum([1, 2, 3])

 $\rightarrow$  Runtime depends on number of elements and depth:  $O(n \times d)$ 

#### 1.7 Levenshtein distance

How to turn zebra into amoeba?

- Edit operations: we can *insert*, *delete*, or *replace* letters
- Every edit operation comes with a **cost**
- The edit distance is the smallest possible cost to get from word A to word B
- The most common variant is the **Levenshtein distance** and defines:

Edit operation	Cost
Insertion	1
Deletion	1
Substitution	1

 $\rightarrow$  Levenshtein distance = number of edit operations

#### 1.7.1 zebra $\rightarrow$ amoeba: naive approach

- 1. Replace z with  $a \to costs 1$
- 2. Replace e with  $m \to costs 1$
- 3. Replace b with  $o \rightarrow costs 1$
- 4. Replace r with  $e \rightarrow costs 1$

- 5. Replace a with  $b \to \cos ts 1$
- 6. Insert  $a \to costs 1$

**Total cost:**  $\mathbf{6} \to \operatorname{Can}$  we do better?

### 1.7.2 zebra $\rightarrow$ amoeba: optimal solution

- 1. Replace z with  $a \to costs 1$
- 2. Insert  $m \to costs 1$
- 3. Insert  $o \to costs 1$
- 4. Keep e
- 5. Keep b
- 6. Delete  $r \to costs 1$
- 7. Keep a

**Total cost:** 4 (= Levenshtein distance)

### 1.7.3 Quiz: Levenshtein distance

pwa.klicker.uzh.ch/join/asaeub

### 1.7.4 A convenient property of the Levenshtein distance problem

We can derive the Levenshtein distance of the **full strings** from the Levenshtein distance between some **substrings**.

For example, if we already know the following:

- levenshtein(zebra  $\rightarrow$  amoeb) = 5
- levenshtein(zebr  $\rightarrow$  amoeba) = 4
- levenshtein(zebr  $\rightarrow$  amoeb) = 4

Then we can easily get levenshtein(zebra  $\rightarrow$  amoeba).

- 1. Suppose we already know that levenshtein(zebra  $\rightarrow$  amoeb) = 5
  - → Turning zebra into amoeba is possible with 1 additional edit operation (inserting a)
  - $\rightarrow$  Total cost: 6
- 2. Suppose we already know that levenshtein(zebr  $\rightarrow$  amoeba) = 4
  - → Turning zebra into amoeba is possible with 1 additional edit operation (deleting a)
  - $\rightarrow$  Total cost: 5
- 3. Suppose we already know that levenshtein(zebr  $\rightarrow$  amoeb) = 4
  - → Turning zebra into amoeba is possible without additional edit operations (keeping a)
  - $\rightarrow$  Total cost: 4

Solution 3 is the cheapest, and there are no other solutions.

Therefore, levenshtein(zebra  $\rightarrow$  amoeba) = 4

#### 1.7.5 Recursive definition of Levenshtein distance

```
\operatorname{levenshtein}(a,b) = \begin{cases} |a| & \text{if } |b| = 0, \\ |b| & \text{if } |a| = 0, \\ |\operatorname{levenshtein}\left(a[:-1], b[:-1]\right) & \text{if } a[-1] = b[-1], \\ 1 + \min \begin{cases} \operatorname{levenshtein}\left(a, b[:-1]\right) & \text{otherwise} \\ |\operatorname{levenshtein}\left(a[:-1], b\right) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
```

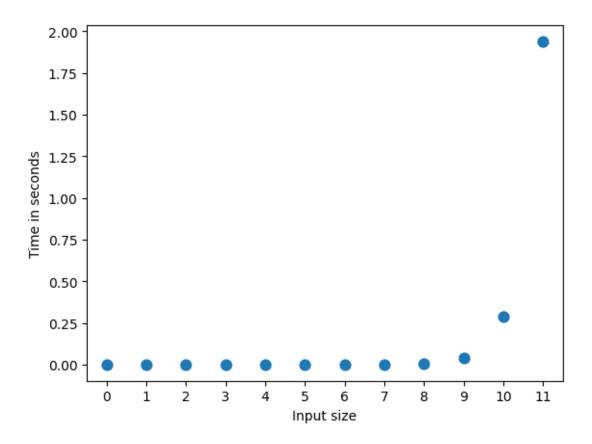
```
[29]: def levenshtein(a: str, b: str) -> int:
    if a == "":
        return len(b)  # Termination
    if b == "":
        return len(a)  # Termination
    if a[-1] == b[-1]:
        return levenshtein(a[:-1], b[:-1])  # Recursive call
    return 1 + min(
        levenshtein(a, b[:-1]),  # Recursive call
        levenshtein(a[:-1], b),  # Recursive call
        levenshtein(a[:-1], b[:-1]),  # Recursive call
    )

levenshtein("zebra", "amoeba")
```

#### [29]: 4

What is the time complexity of the recursive Levenshtein distance algorithm?

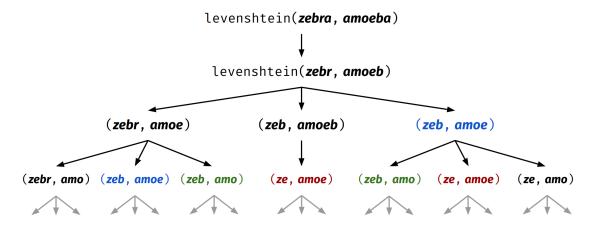
```
[30]: random_string = "".join(random.choices(string.ascii_letters, k=12))
utils.plot_time_complexity(lambda x: levenshtein(x, "".join(reversed(x))),
arandom_string, number=1)
```



## Why is it so bad?

```
[31]: call_counter = utils.CallCounter()
      levenshtein = call_counter.register(levenshtein)
      levenshtein("zebra", "amoeba")
      call_counter.print_most_common()
             levenshtein('', 'a')
     108
             levenshtein('z', '')
     107
     77
             levenshtein('z', 'a')
     77
             levenshtein('', '')
             levenshtein('', 'am')
     40
     38
             levenshtein('ze', '')
             levenshtein('z', 'am')
     31
     30
             levenshtein('ze', 'a')
             levenshtein('ze', 'am')
     16
     9
             levenshtein('zeb', '')
     9
             levenshtein('z', 'amo')
             levenshtein('', 'amo')
     9
     8
             levenshtein('zeb', 'a')
             levenshtein('zeb', 'am')
     6
             levenshtein('ze', 'amo')
     6
```

```
levenshtein('zeb', 'amo')
4
3
        levenshtein('ze', 'amoe')
        levenshtein('zeb', 'amoe')
2
1
        levenshtein('zebra', 'amoeba')
        levenshtein('zebr', 'amoeb')
1
        levenshtein('zebr', 'amoe')
1
1
        levenshtein('zebr', 'amo')
        levenshtein('zebr', 'am')
1
        levenshtein('zebr', 'a')
1
        levenshtein('zebr', '')
1
1
        levenshtein('zeb', 'amoeb')
```



# 1.8 More efficient implementation of Levenshtein distance

(See levenshtein.pdf or video on OLAT)

Good online demo: https://phiresky.github.io/levenshtein-demo/

```
[32]: def levenshtein_recursive(a: str, b: str) -> int:
    """Return the Levenshtein distance between two strings using recursion."""
    if a == "":
        return len(b)
    if b == "":
        return len(a)
    if a[-1] == b[-1]:
        return levenshtein_recursive(a[:-1], b[:-1])
    return 1 + min(
        levenshtein_recursive(a, b[:-1]),
        levenshtein_recursive(a[:-1], b),
        levenshtein_recursive(a[:-1]],
    )

levenshtein_recursive("zebra", "amoeba")
```

[32]: 4

```
[33]: def levenshtein_dynamic(a: str, b: str) -> int:
          """Return the Levenshtein distance between two strings using dynamic_{\sqcup}
       ⇔programming."""
          # Initialize table
          table = [[0] * (len(b) + 1) for _ in range(len(a) + 1)]
          for i in range(len(a) + 1):
              table[i][0] = i
          for j in range(len(b) + 1):
              table[0][j] = j
          # Fill table
          for i in range(1, len(a) + 1):
              for j in range(1, len(b) + 1):
                  if a[i - 1] == b[j - 1]:
                      table[i][j] = table[i - 1][j - 1] # Keep
                  else:
                      table[i][j] = 1 + min(
                          table[i][j - 1],
                                                 # Insert
                          table[i - 1][j],
                                               # Delete
                          table[i - 1][j - 1], # Replace
          # Solution in the bottom right corner
          return table[-1][-1]
      levenshtein dynamic("zebra", "amoeba")
```

[33]: 4

### 1.9 Dynamic programming

- This tabular approach of finding the edit distance is an example of **dynamic programming**
- Some recursive problems can be solved more efficiently using dynamic programming

Requirements for applying dynamic programming:

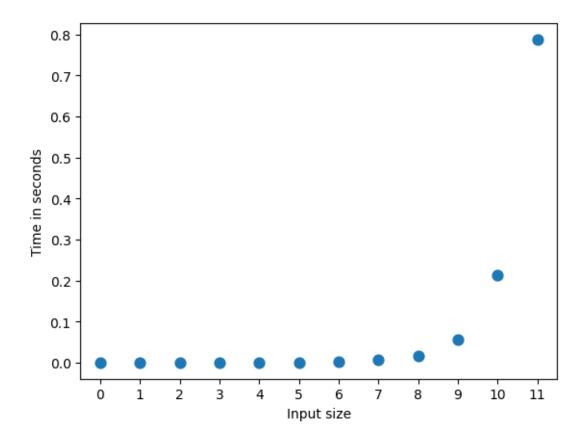
- The problem can be divided into **subproblems**Example: Edit distance between strings > edit distance between substrings
- The optimal solution for the problem can be derived from optimal solutions for the subproblems

Example: If we know the edit distance between all substrings, we know the edit distance between the full strings

# 1.9.1 Complexity without dynamic programming

```
[34]: random_string = "".join(random.choices(string.ascii_letters, k=12))
utils.plot_time_complexity(lambda x: levenshtein_recursive(x, "".

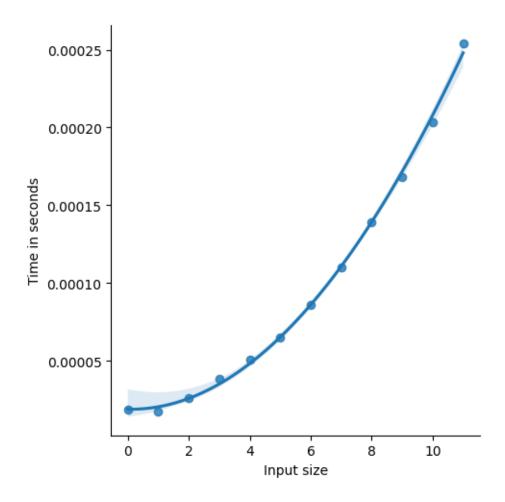
→join(reversed(x))), random_string, number=1)
```



# 1.9.2 Time complexity with dynamic programming

```
[35]: random_string = "".join(random.choices(string.ascii_letters, k=12))
utils.plot_time_complexity(lambda x: levenshtein_dynamic(x, "".

→join(reversed(x))), random_string, number=10, regression_order=2)
```



### 1.9.3 More examples of dynamic programming

- Text-to-speech: Viterbi algorithm for finding the best speech samples in context
- Syntax parsing: CYK algorithm for context-free grammar parsing
- Graphs (e.g., WordNet): Dijkstra's algorithm for finding the shortest path between two nodes
- Sequence alignment (similar to edit distance!): matching DNA or protein sequences

### 1.10 Take-home messages

- Computational complexity measures how efficient an algorithm is as the size of its input increases
  - Time complexity and space complexity
  - $O(1) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n^2) < O(2^n)$
  - Complexity is a theoretical concept -- it doesn't tell us anything about how many seconds or bytes the algorithm will take to run!
- Checking if a specific value exists in a list is slow! Use set or dict instead
- Recursive functions are functions that call themselves
- **Dynamic programming** is a technique to reduce time complexity by dividing the problem into subproblems and storing the results of those subproblems

• Levenshtein distance is the lowest number of edit operations (insertions, deletions, substitutions) required to turn one string into another

# 1.11 Enjoy your spring break! :)