

# **2301520 FUNDAMENTALS OF AMCS**

## Lecture 2: Complexity

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# Outline

- Algorithm performance
- Grouping inputs by size
- Worst-case, best-case and average-case analysis
- Measuring resource usage
- RAM model of computation
- Asymptotic notation: Big Oh, Big Omega, Theta, little oh, little omega
- Complexity usages

# Objective

- We study how we analyze an algorithm.
- To compare several algorithms that solve the same problem, we group inputs by their sizes.
- Three types of analysis are measured. All are based on RAM model.
- We introduce an Asymptotic notation,  $O$ ,  $\Omega$ ,  $\Theta$ ,  $o$ ,  $\omega$ .
- Then we apply this to classify different Algorithm class

# Algorithm performance (1)

Q: How might we establish whether algorithm A is faster than algorithm B?

# Algorithm performance (2)

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A1: We could implement both of them, run them on the same input and time how long each of them takes

# Algorithm performance (3)

Q: How might we establish whether algorithm A is faster than algorithm B?

A1: We could implement both of them, run them on the same input and time how long each of them takes

- Unfair test: what if one of the algorithms just happens to be faster on this particular input?

# Algorithm performance (4)

Q: How might we establish whether algorithm A is faster than algorithm B?

A2: We could implement both of them, run them on lots of different inputs and time how long each of them takes on each input

# Algorithm performance (5)

Q: How might we establish whether algorithm A is faster than algorithm B?

A2: We could implement both of them, run them on lots of different inputs and time how long each of them takes on each input

- Assuming we can try every input of a particular size, this would give us best, worst and average running times for this particular implementation on this particular computer for this particular input size
- Still an unfair test: what if one algorithm just happens to be faster on this size of input?
- What if we want a more general answer? Not tied to one computer or implementation.



# Algorithm performance (6)

Let's generalise things slightly...

The function:  $T: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^+$

is a mapping from the set of all inputs  $I$  to the time taken on that input

- For any problem instance  $i$  in  $I$ ,  $T(i)$  is the running time on  $i$ .
  - Computing the running time for every possible problem instance is overwhelming
  - Instead, group together “similar” inputs
  - Gives us running time as a function of a class of instances
  - How shall we group inputs?

# Grouping inputs by size (1)

Grouping inputs together of equal size is generally the most useful  
Bigger problems are harder to solve

Q:What do we mean by the size of an input?

# Grouping inputs by size (2)

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A:It depends on the problem.

# Grouping inputs by size (3)

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Bigger problems are harder to solve

Q:What do we mean by the size of an input?

A:It depends on the problem.

- Integer input → number of digits
- Set input → number of elements in a set
- Text string → number of characters
- Generally obvious

# Grouping inputs by size (4)

Grouping inputs together of equal size is generally the most useful  
Bigger problems are harder to solve

Q:What do we mean by the size of an input?

A:It depends on the problem.

- Integer input → number of digits
- Set input → number of elements in a set
- Text string → number of characters
- Generally obvious

Not always so neat: what if the input was a graph?

May need more than one size parameter: graph size = (# vertices, # edges)

# Types of performance analysis (1)

We denote the set of all instances of size  $n$  in  $\mathbb{N}$  as  $I_n$ .

We can define three measures of performance:

# Types of performance analysis (2)

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We can define three measures of performance:

- Worst-case:  $T(n) = \max \{T(i) \mid i \text{ in } I_n\}$

$T(n)$  = maximum time of algorithm on any input of size  $n$ .

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$T(n)$  = minimum time of algorithm on any input of size  $n$ .

- Average-case:  $T(n) = \frac{1}{|I_n|} \sum_{i \in I_n} T(i)$

$T(n)$  = expected time of algorithm on any input of size  $n$ .

# Types of performance analysis (5)

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Q: What assumption is being made here?

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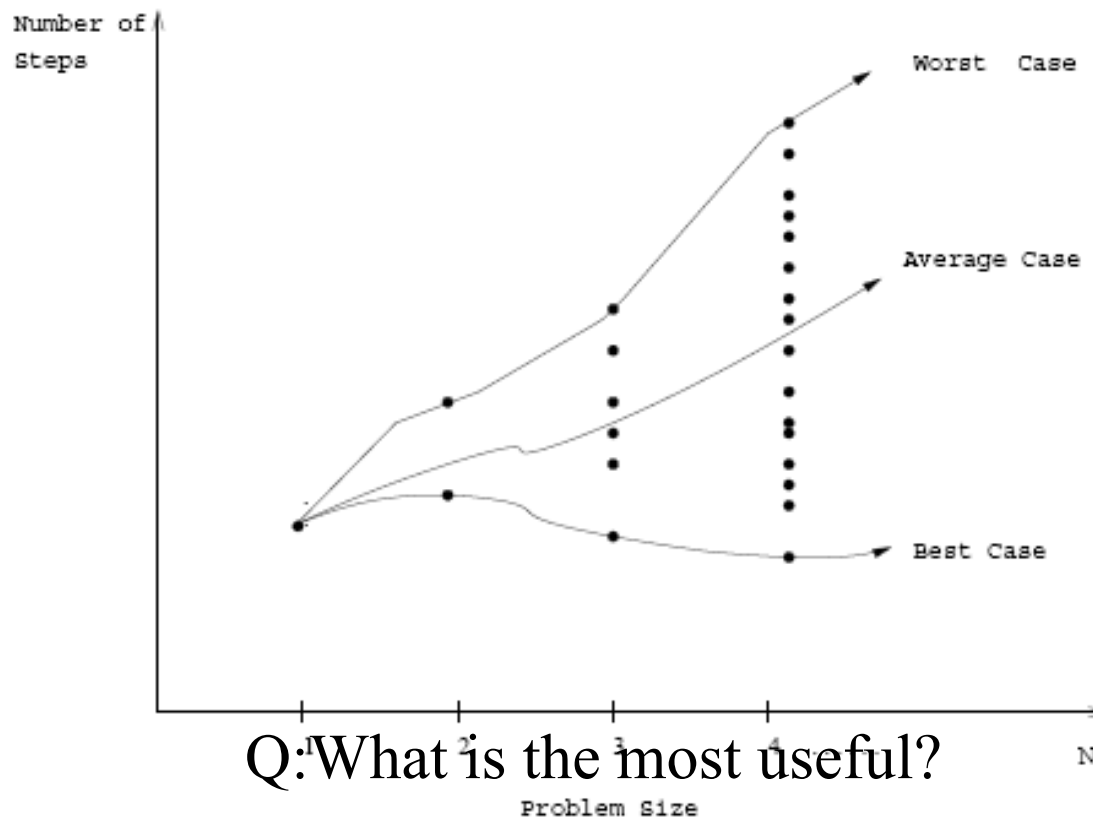
Q: What assumption is being made here?

All inputs equally likely – if not we need to know the probability distribution

# Types of performance analysis (7)

We denote the set of all instances of size  $n$  in  $N$  as  $I_n$ .

We can define three measures of performance:



Q: How can we modify almost any algorithm to have a good best case running time?

# Types of performance analysis (8)

Q: Which is most useful?

A: Generally concentrate on worst-case execution time – strongest performance guarantee

# Types of performance analysis (9)

Q: Which is most useful?

A: Generally concentrate on worst-case execution time – strongest performance guarantee

Q: How can we modify almost any algorithm to have a good best-case running time?

A: Find a solution for one particular input and store it. When that input is encountered, return our precomputed answer immediately.

Other more subtle ways of improving best-case performance.

Best-case is generally bogus!

# Measuring resource usage (1)

Example

Summing the first  $n$  positive integers:

Precondition:  $n$  in  $\mathbb{N}$ ; Postcondition:  $r = \sum_{i=1}^n i$

Two solutions:

$r := 0$

for  $i := 1$  to  $n$  do

$r := r + i$

endfor

$$r := \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

# Measuring resource usage (2)

Example

Summing the first  $n$  positive integers:

Precondition:  $n$  in  $\mathbb{N}$ ; Postcondition:  $r = \sum_{i=1}^n i$

Two solutions:

$r := 0$

for  $i := 1$  to  $n$  do

$r := r + i$

endfor

$$r := \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Both algorithms are correct.

Q: Which is better?



# Measuring resource usage (3)

Define some constants:

- $i$  is the time to increment by 1
- $a$  is the time to perform an addition
- $t$  is the time to perform the loop test
- $m$  is the time to multiply two numbers
- $d$  is the time to divide by 2
- $s$  is the time to perform an assignment

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**Version 1**

**Cost    Number of Times:**

$r := 0$

for  $i := 1$  to  $n$  do

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endfor

# Measuring resource usage (5)

Define some constants:

- $i$  is the time to increment by 1
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- $s$  is the time to perform an assignment

| <b>Version 1</b>       | <b>Cost</b> | <b>Number of Times:</b> |
|------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| $r := 0$               | $s$         | 1                       |
| for $i := 1$ to $n$ do |             |                         |
| $r := r + i$           |             |                         |
| endfor                 |             |                         |

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| $r := 0$               | $s$         | 1                       |
| for $i := 1$ to $n$ do | $t + i$     | $n+1$                   |
| $r := r + i$           |             |                         |
| endfor                 |             |                         |

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Define some constants:

- $i$  is the time to increment by 1
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|------------------------|-------------|-------------------------|
| $r := 0$               | $s$         | 1                       |
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| $r := r + i$           | $a + s$     | $n$                     |
| endfor                 |             |                         |

# Measuring resource usage (8)

Define some constants:

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| <b>Version 1</b>       | <b>Cost</b>                  | <b>Number of Times:</b> |
|------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| $r := 0$               | $s$                          | 1                       |
| for $i := 1$ to $n$ do | $t + i$                      | $n+1$                   |
| $r := r + i$           | $a + s$                      | $n$                     |
| endfor                 | $T_1 = n(t+i+a+s) + t+i + s$ |                         |

# Measuring resource usage (9)

Define some constants:

- $i$  is the time to increment by 1
- $a$  is the time to perform an addition
- $t$  is the time to perform the loop test
- $m$  is the time to multiply two numbers
- $d$  is the time to divide by 2
- $s$  is the time to perform an assignment

**Version 2**

**Cost    Number of Times:**

$$r := \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

# Measuring resource usage (10)

Define some constants:

- $i$  is the time to increment by 1
- $a$  is the time to perform an addition
- $t$  is the time to perform the loop test
- $m$  is the time to multiply two numbers
- $d$  is the time to divide by 2
- $s$  is the time to perform an assignment

**Version 2**

**Cost    Number of Times:**

$$r := \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$i+m+d+s \quad 1$$



# Measuring resource usage (11)

Define some constants:

- $i$  is the time to increment by 1
- $a$  is the time to perform an addition
- $t$  is the time to perform the loop test
- $m$  is the time to multiply two numbers
- $d$  is the time to divide by 2
- $s$  is the time to perform an assignment

**Version 2**

**Cost    Number of Times:**

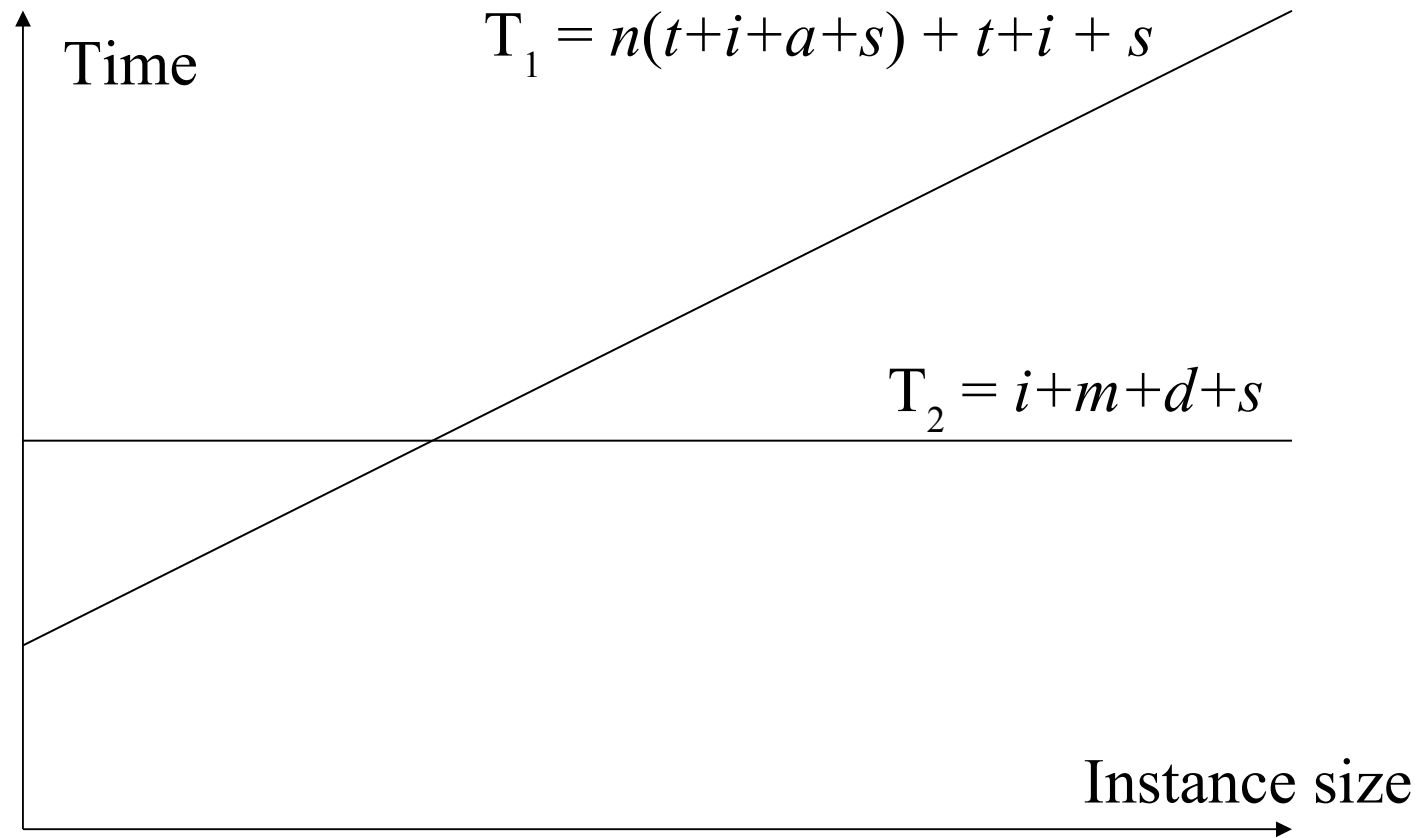
$$r := \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$i+m+d+s \quad 1$$

$$T_2 = i+m+d+s$$

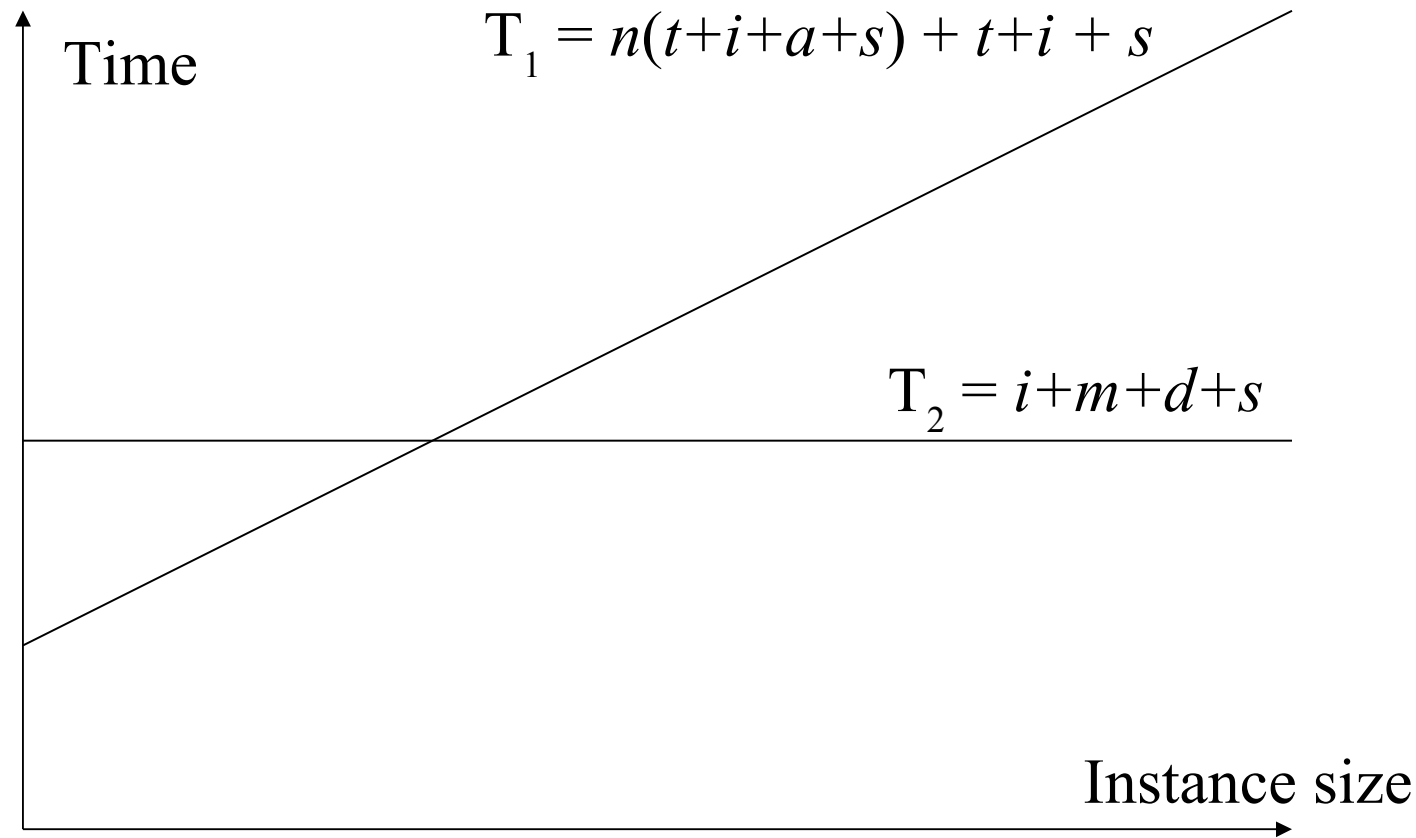
# Measuring resource usage (12)

Which is better?



# Measuring resource usage (13)

Which is better?



Depends on size of input. Beyond intersection  $T_2$  will always win.

# The RAM model of computation

- The above analysis made some implicit assumptions
- Modern hardware is hugely complex (pipelines, multiple cores, caches etc)
- We need to abstract away from this
- We require a model of computation that is simple and machine independent
- Typically use a variant of a model developed by John von Neumann in 1945
- Programs written with his model in mind run efficiently on modern hardware

# Operations on RAM model

- Each simple operation (+, \*, -, =, if, assignment) takes exactly one time step
- Loops and subroutine calls not considered simple operations
- We have a finite, but always sufficiently large, amount of memory
- Each memory access takes exactly one time step
- Instructions are executed one after another
- Time  $\propto$  number of instructions

# Exact analysis is hard!

- RAM model justifies counting number of operations in our algorithms to measure execution time.
- Only predict real execution times up to a constant factor
- Precise details depend on uninteresting coding details
- Constant speedups just reflect running code on a faster computer
- We are really interested in machine independent growth rates
- Why?
- We are interested in performance for large  $n$ , we want to be able to solve difficult instances; start-up time dominates for small  $n$
- Known as *asymptotic analysis*
- We can characterize and compare running times of algorithms with simple functions

# Asymptotic Notation

- Consider two functions  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$  with integer inputs and numerical outputs
- We say  $f$  grows no faster than  $g$  in the limit if:

There exist positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$  such that

$$f(n) \leq c g(n) \text{ for all } n > n_0$$

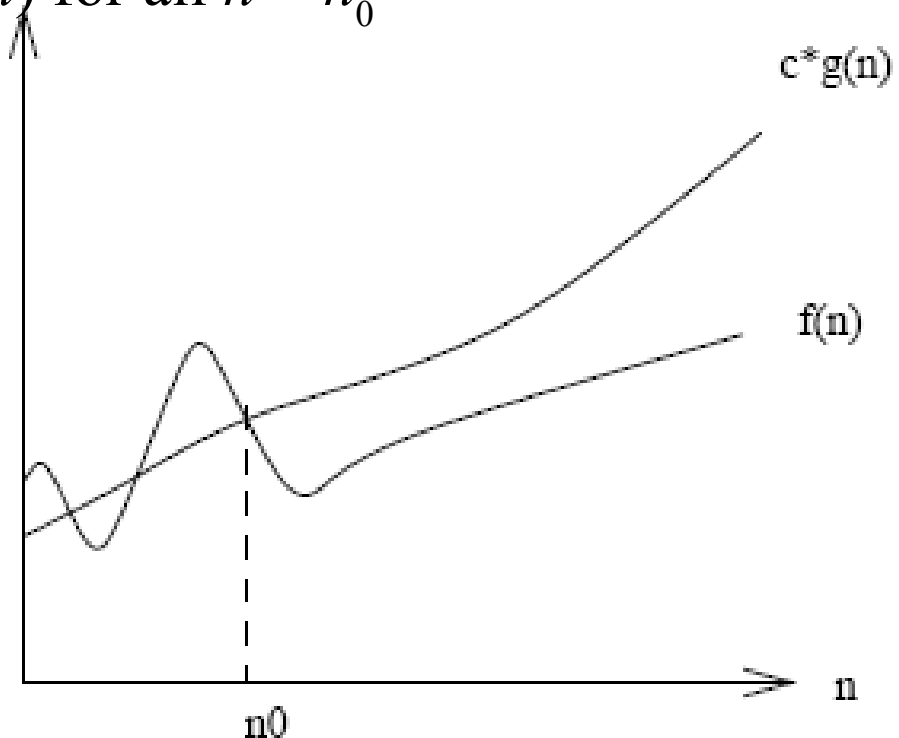
We write this as:  $f(n) = O(g(n))$

Read as “ $f$  is Big Oh of  $g$ ”

We can also say “ $f$  is asymptotically dominated by  $g$ ”

“ $g$  is an upper bound on  $f$ ”

“ $f$  grows no faster than  $g$ ”



# Definition of Big Oh (1)

- Format definition:

$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ iff } \exists c \in \mathbb{R}^+; n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > n_0, f(n) \leq c g(n)$$

- Breaking this up:

$n_0, n > n_0$  means we don't care about small  $n$ .

$c, f(n) \leq c g(n)$  means we don't care about constant speedups.

Unusual notation: “one way equality”

Really an ordering relation (think of  $<$  and  $>$ )

$f(n) = O(g(n))$  definitely does not imply  $g(n) = O(f(n))$

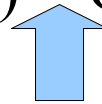


# Definition of Big Oh (2)

- Might like to think in terms of sets:

$$O(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid \exists c \in \mathbb{R}^+; n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > n_0, f(n) \leq c g(n)\}$$

- In this way: we can interpret  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  as  $f(n) \in O(g(n))$



Sometimes read as “ $f$  is in Big Oh of  $g$ ”

# Big Oh example (1)

$n^2 + 1 = O(n^2)$  – True or false? -----(\*)

How would we prove it?

- Consider the definition:

$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ iff } \exists c \in \mathbb{R}^+; n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > n_0, f(n) \leq c g(n)$$

- To prove  $\exists x P$  we need:
  - A witness (value) for  $x$
  - A proof that  $P$  holds when witness substituted for  $x$ .

# Big Oh example (2)

$$n^2 + 1 = O(n^2) - \text{True} \text{ -----} (*)$$

- Let choose  $c = 2$
- Need to find an  $n_0$  such that

$$\forall n > n_0, n^2 + 1 \leq 2n^2$$

- In this case,  $n_0 = 1$  or greater value will do.
- By convention, always complex to simple:

$$\text{complex} = O(\text{simple})$$

- e.g.  $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = O(n^2)$

$$3n^2 + 102n + 56 = O(n^3)$$

$$3n^2 + 102n + 56 = O(n)$$

- Related operators follow from definition of Big Oh...

# Definition of Big Omega

- If Big Oh is like  $\leq$  then Big Omega is like  $\geq$
- “ $f$  grows no slower than  $g$ ”

$$f(n) = \Omega(g(n)) \text{ iff } g(n) = O(f(n))$$

- Read as “ $f$  is Big Omega of  $g$ ”
- Express as a set:

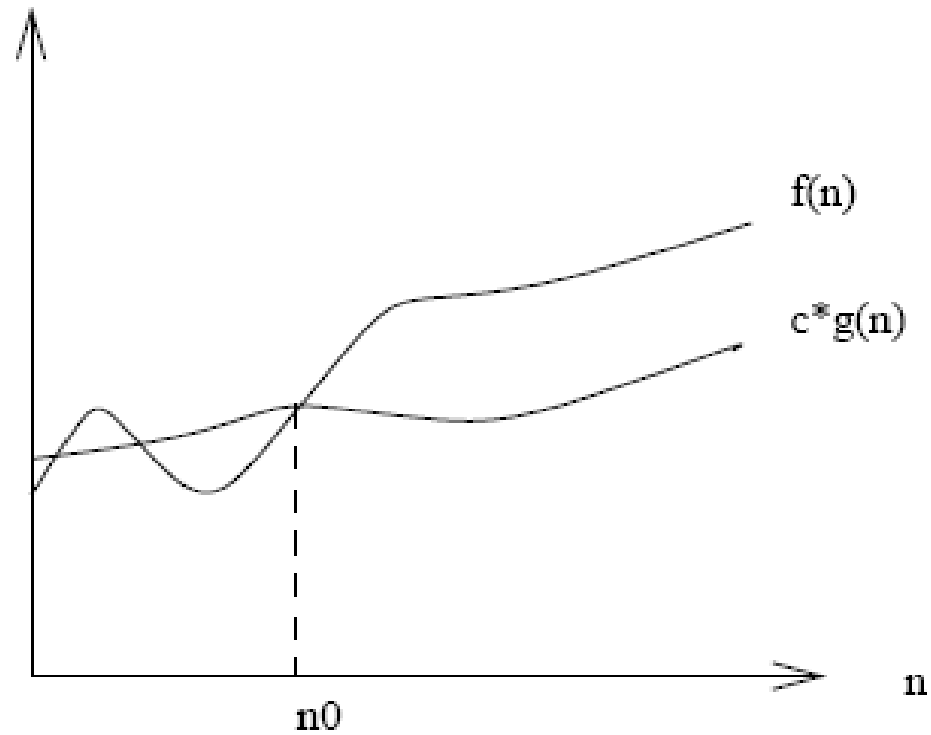
$$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid \exists c \in \mathbb{R}^+; n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > n_0, f(n) \geq c g(n)\}$$



Same as Big Oh just reverse equality

- e.g.  $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = \Omega(n^2)$   
 $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = \Omega(n^3)$   
 $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = \Omega(n)$

# Graph of Big Omega



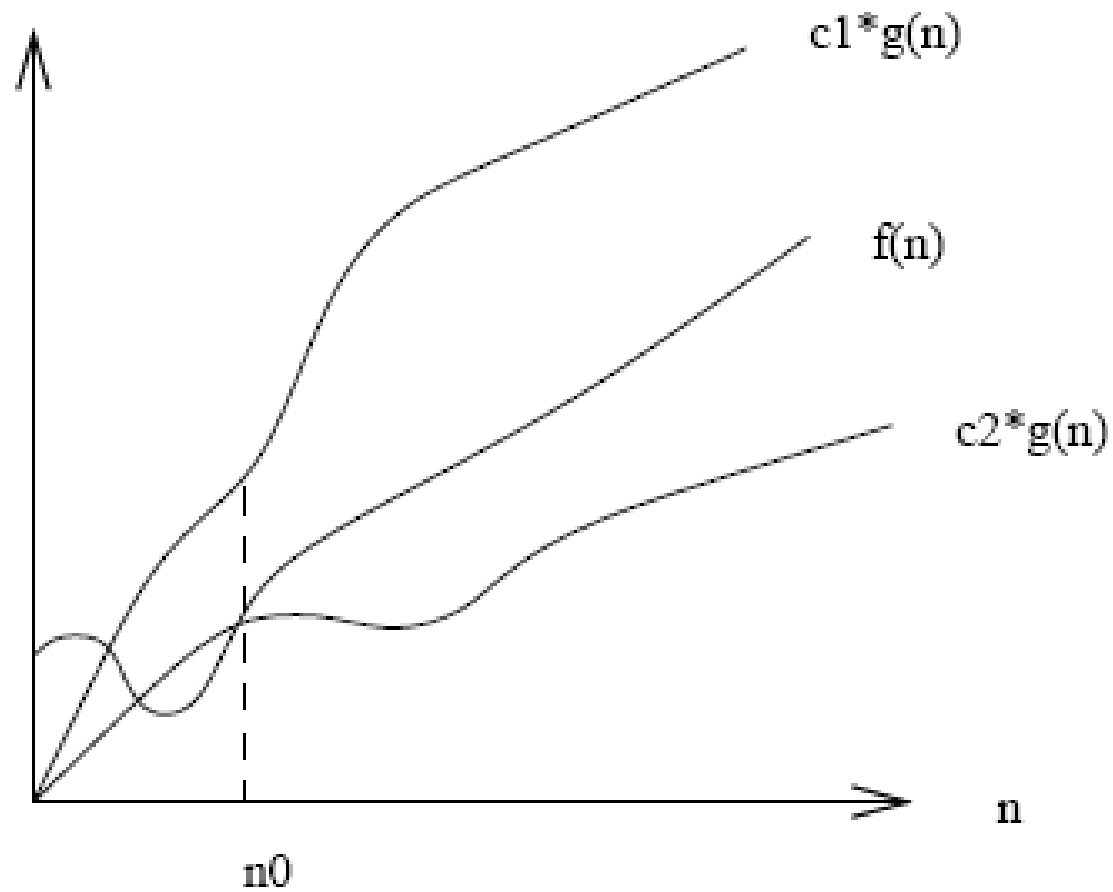
# Definition of Big Theta

- Big Theta is like =
- “ $f$  grows at the same rate as  $g$ ”  
$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \text{ iff } f(n) = O(g(n)) \ \& \ f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$$
- Read as “ $f$  is Big Theta of  $g$ ”
- Express as a set:

$$\Theta(g(n)) = O(g(n)) \cap \Omega(g(n))$$

- e.g.  $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = \Theta(n^2)$   
 $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = \Theta(n^3)$   
 $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = \Theta(n)$

# Graph of Big Theta



# Definition of little oh

- If Big Oh is like  $\leq$  then little oh is like  $<$
- “ $f$  grows strictly slower than  $g$ ”

$$f(n) = o(g(n)) \text{ iff } f(n) = O(g(n)) \ \& \ f(n) \neq \Theta(g(n))$$

- Read as “ $f$  is little oh of  $g$ ”
- Express as a set:

$$o(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid \forall c \in \mathbb{R}^+; n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > n_0, f(n) < c g(n)\}$$

Same as Big Oh, but existential becomes universal

- e.g.  $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = o(n^2)$   
 $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = o(n^3)$   
 $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = o(n)$



# Definition of little omega

- If Big Omega is like  $\geq$  then little omega is like  $>$
- “ $f$  grows strictly faster than  $g$ ”

$$f(n) = \omega(g(n)) \text{ iff } f(n) = \Omega(g(n)) \ \& \ f(n) \neq \Theta(g(n))$$

- Read as “ $f$  is little omega of  $g$ ”
- Express as a set:

$$\omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) \mid \forall c \in \mathbb{R}^+; n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > n_0, f(n) > c g(n)\}$$

Same as Big Omega, but existential becomes universal

- e.g.  $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = \omega(n^2)$   
 $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = \omega(n^3)$   
 $3n^2 + 102n + 56 = \omega(n)$

# Summary

$$\begin{aligned} \leq & \left| f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ iff } \exists c \in \mathbb{R}^+; n_0 \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n > n_0, f(n) \leq c g(n) \right. \\ \geq & \left. f(n) = \Omega(g(n)) \text{ iff } g(n) = O(f(n)) \right. \\ = & \left. f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \text{ iff } f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) = \Omega(g(n)) \right. \\ < & \left. f(n) = o(g(n)) \text{ iff } f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) \neq \Theta(g(n)) \right. \\ > & \left. f(n) = \omega(g(n)) \text{ iff } f(n) = \Omega(g(n)) \text{ and } f(n) \neq \Theta(g(n)) \right. \end{aligned}$$

An alternative limit-based interpretation:

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

$$f(n) := \omega(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \infty$$

$$f(n) := \Theta(g(n)) \Leftrightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = r > 0$$

- Q: How might we use this to empirically test the complexity of an algorithm implementation?

# Practical complexity theory (1)

- Properties of Big Oh and others leads to mechanical rules for simplification
- Drop low order terms
- Ignore leading constants

$$3n^3 + 90n^2 + 5n + 6046$$

# Practical complexity theory (2)

- Properties of Big Oh and others leads to mechanical rules for simplification
- Drop low order terms
- Ignore leading constants

$$3n^3 + \cancel{90n^2} + \cancel{5n} + \cancel{6046}$$

# Practical complexity theory (3)

- Properties of Big Oh and others leads to mechanical rules for simplification
- Drop low order terms
- Ignore leading constants

$$\cancel{3}n^3 + \cancel{90}n^2 + \cancel{5}n + \cancel{6046}$$

# Practical complexity theory (4)

- Properties of Big Oh and others leads to mechanical rules for simplification
- Drop low order terms
- Ignore leading constants

$$\cancel{3}n^3 + \cancel{90}n^2 + \cancel{5}n + \cancel{6046} = \Theta(n^3)$$

# Conclusion

- We now have some tools for algorithm analysis allowing us to talk abstractly about the complexity of an algorithm.
- Next, we will learn how to apply this tool
- Classify the complexity class
- Which level of complexity is considered “efficient” or “do-able”?