## Introduction

### 1.1 Complexity

- Definition of an algorithm: is a sequence of computational steps that transforms input into output."
- Definition of the complexity of an algorithm: is the number of elementary operations it must perform to complete a calculation based on the size of the input data.
- Definition of Algorithm Efficiency: The efficiency of an algorithm is measured by the increase in computation time as a function of data size.


## Data size

- The size of the data (or of the inputs) will depend on the coding of these inputs.
- For example, depending on the problem, the inputs and their sizes can be:
- Elements: number of elements
- Numbers: number of bits necessary for the representation of these;
- Polynomials: the degree, the number of nonzero coefficients;
- Matrices: $\max (\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}), \mathrm{m} . \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m}+\mathrm{n}$;
- Graphs: number of vertices, number of arcs, product of the two;
- Lists, tables, files: number of boxes, elements;
- Words: their length.


## Calculation time

The calculation time of a program depends on several elements:

- The amount of data.
- Their encoding;
- The quality of the code generated by the compiler;
- The nature and speed of language instructions;
- The quality of programming;
- The efficiency of the algorithm.
- The complexity of the algorithms studied will depend neither on the computer, nor on the language used, nor on the programmer, nor on the implementation quite simply, it depends on a number of fundamental operations.
- The fundamental operations depend on the problem to be solved.

| Problem | Fundamental operation |
| :--- | :--- |
| Searching for an item in a list | Comparison |
| Sorting a list, a file, ... | Comparisons, displacements |
| Multiplication of real matrices | Multiplications and additions |
| Addition of binary integers | Binary operation |

Table 1: fundamental operations according to the problems

### 1.2 Cost of operations

For the time complexity, there are several possibilities:

- First possibility: calculate (as a function of $n$ ) the number of elementary operations (addition, comparison, assignment, etc.) required by the execution then multiply it by the average time for each of them;
- For an algorithm with essentially numerical calculations, count the costly operations (multiplications, root, exponential, etc.).
- Otherwise count the number of calls to the most frequent operation.


### 1.2.1 Sequential cost

- Sequence: $T_{\text {sequence }}(n)=\sum T_{\text {elements-of-sequence }}(n)$
- Alternative: if C then J else K : $\quad T(n)=T_{C}(n)+\max \left(T_{J}(n), T_{K}(n)\right)$
- Bounded iteration: for $\mathbf{i}$ from $\mathbf{j}$ to $\mathbf{k}$ do $\mathbf{B}: T(n)=(k-j+1)\left(T_{\text {header }}(n)+T_{B}(n)\right)+T_{\text {header }}(n)$ where the header is put the index assignment and the continuation test
- Unbounded iteration: while C do B : $T(n)=N B_{\text {loops }}\left(T_{B}(n)+T_{C}(n)\right)+T_{C}(n) \quad$ with $N B_{\text {loops }}$ the number of loops which is evaluated by inductive method
- Repeat B until C: $T(n)=N B_{\text {loops }} .\left(T_{B}(n)+T_{C}(n)\right)$


### 1.2.2 Recursive cost

The recursive method uses three steps at each level of the recursion:

- Divide the problem into a number of sub-problems;
- Rule over sub-problems by solving them recursively. If the size of the subproblem is small enough, it is solved immediately;
- Combine the solutions of the sub-problems to produce the solution of the original problem.


### 1.3 The different measures of complexity

- Let $\mathbf{A}$ be an algorithm, $\mathbf{n}$ an integer, $\mathbf{D}_{\mathbf{n}}$ the set of inputs of size $\mathbf{n}$, an input $\mathbf{d}$ $\in D_{n}$ and $\operatorname{cost}_{A}(d)$ the number of fundamental operations performed by $\mathbf{A}$ with input d.
- Best case Complexity : $\operatorname{Min}_{A}=\min \left\{\cos _{t_{A}}(d) / d \in D_{n}\right\}$
- Worst case complexity: $\operatorname{Max}_{A}=\max \left\{\operatorname{cost}_{A}(d) / d \in D_{n}\right\}$
- The average case complexity : $\operatorname{Avg}_{A}(n)=\sum_{d \in D_{A}} p_{\text {probac-asistan }}(d) \cdot \cos t_{A}(d)$

Where $\mathrm{p}(\mathrm{d})$ is probabilistic distribution law of inputs.
for example: for uniform distribution law: $\quad A v g_{A}(n)=\frac{1}{\operatorname{card}\left(D_{n}\right)} \sum_{\operatorname{sen}} \cos _{A}(d)$

### 1.4 Comparison between algorithms

- to compare two algorithms, we will compare their growth rate or order of magnitude i.e. the execution time of the algorithm for a large number of data (inputs).
- An algorithm is more efficient than another if its worst-case running time has a lower order of magnitude.
- For the measurement of the complexity the notation O (Notation of Landau or big O ) is often used.


### 1.4.1 Properties of big 0

- If $f(n) \in O(g(n))$, then $k . f(n) \in O(g(n))$
- In particular, if a.b $\in O(1)$ then $a^{n+b} \in O\left(a^{n}\right)$
- If $e(n) \in O(g(n))$ and $f(n) \in O(h(n))$ and if $g(n) \in O(h(n))$ then $e(n)+f(n) \in O(h(n))$
- Particularly, $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n})=\sum_{d=0}^{D} a_{d} n^{d} \in O\left(n^{D}\right)$
- If $\mathrm{e}(\mathrm{n}) \in \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{n}))$ and $\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n}) \in \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{h}(\mathrm{n}))$, then $\mathrm{e}(\mathrm{n}) \mathrm{f}(\mathrm{n}) \in \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{n}) \mathrm{h}(\mathrm{n}))$
- Lower bound (big Omega $\Omega$ ): $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ if $g(n) \in O(f(n))$
- Upper and lower bound (theta $\Theta): ~ f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ if $f(n) \in O(g(n)) \cap \Omega(g(n))$

(a)

(b)

(c)

Illustration : Graphical definition of the different notations used in the calculation of complexity

### 1.5 Classification of algorithms

| Complexity | Description |
| :---: | :---: |
| O(1) Complexity Constant time complexity | Execution does not depend on the number of input elements but always takes place in a constant number of operations |
| $\mathbf{O}(\log (\mathrm{n}))$ Complexity Logarithmic complexity | The execution time increases slightly with $n$. This scenario occurs when the size of the problem is divided by a constant entity at each iteration. |
| O(n) Complexity Linear complexity | This is typically the case of a program with a loop from 1 to $n$ and the body of the loop performs work of constant duration and independent of $n$. |
| $\mathbf{O}(\mathbf{n} \log (\mathbf{n})$ ) Complexity n-logarithmic complexity | Occurs in algorithms where at each iteration the size of the problem is divided by a constant with each time a linear path of the data (ex: the "quick sort" sorting algorithm) |
| $\mathbf{O}\left(\mathbf{n}^{2}\right)$ Complexity Quadratic complexity | Typically this is the case of algorithms with two nested loops each ranging from 1 to $n$ and with the body of the internal loop which is constant. |
| O( $\mathbf{n}^{3}$ ) Complexity Cubic complexity | A three nested loops algorithm. |
| O( $\mathrm{n}^{\mathfrak{p}}$ ) Complexity Polynomial complexity | All the previous complexities are included in this one. An algorithm is said to be practicable, efficient if it is polynomial. |
| $\mathbf{O}\left(\mathbf{2}^{\mathbf{n}}\right)$ Complexity Exponential complexity | Algorithms of this kind are called "naive" because they are inefficient and unusable as soon as $n$ exceeds 50 . |

### 1.5.1 Complexity of a problem

- The complexity of a problem $A$ is the complexity of the best algorithm that solves A.

| Problem | Algorithm name | Complexity |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Array element access | Element access in integer array | $0(1)$ |
| Search in sorted array | Binary search | $0(\log (\mathrm{n}))$ |
| Search in unsorted array | Unsorted search | $0(\mathrm{n})$ |
|  | Quick sort | $0(\mathrm{n} \log (\mathrm{n}))$ |
| Sorting array | Bubble sort | $0\left(\mathrm{n}^{2}\right)$ |
| Multiplication of matrices | Square matrix multiplication | $0\left(\mathrm{n}^{3}\right)$ |
| Traveling salesman | Exhaustive search | $0\left(2^{n}\right)$ |

