



Great Theoretical Ideas In Computer Science

Steven Rudich

CS 15-251

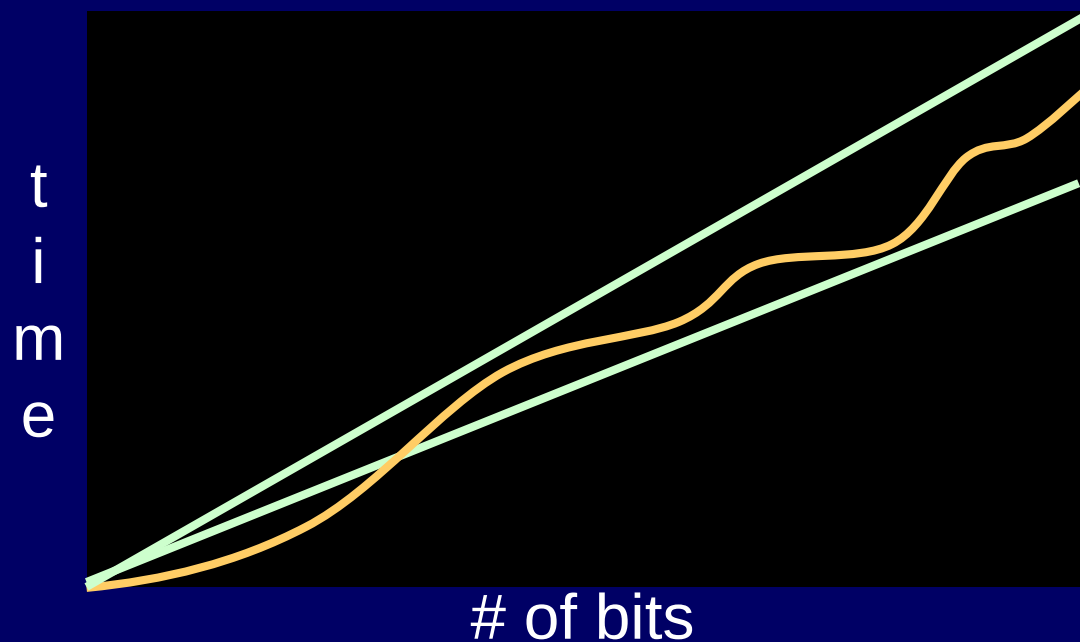
Spring 2004

Lecture 15

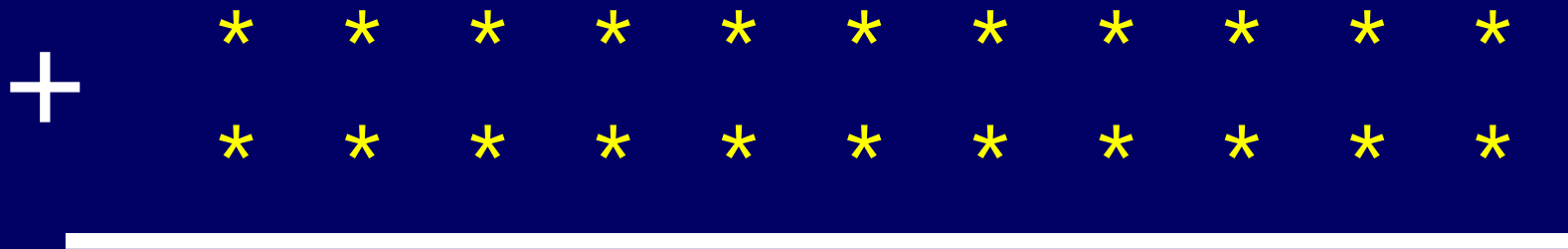
March 2, 2004

Carnegie Mellon University

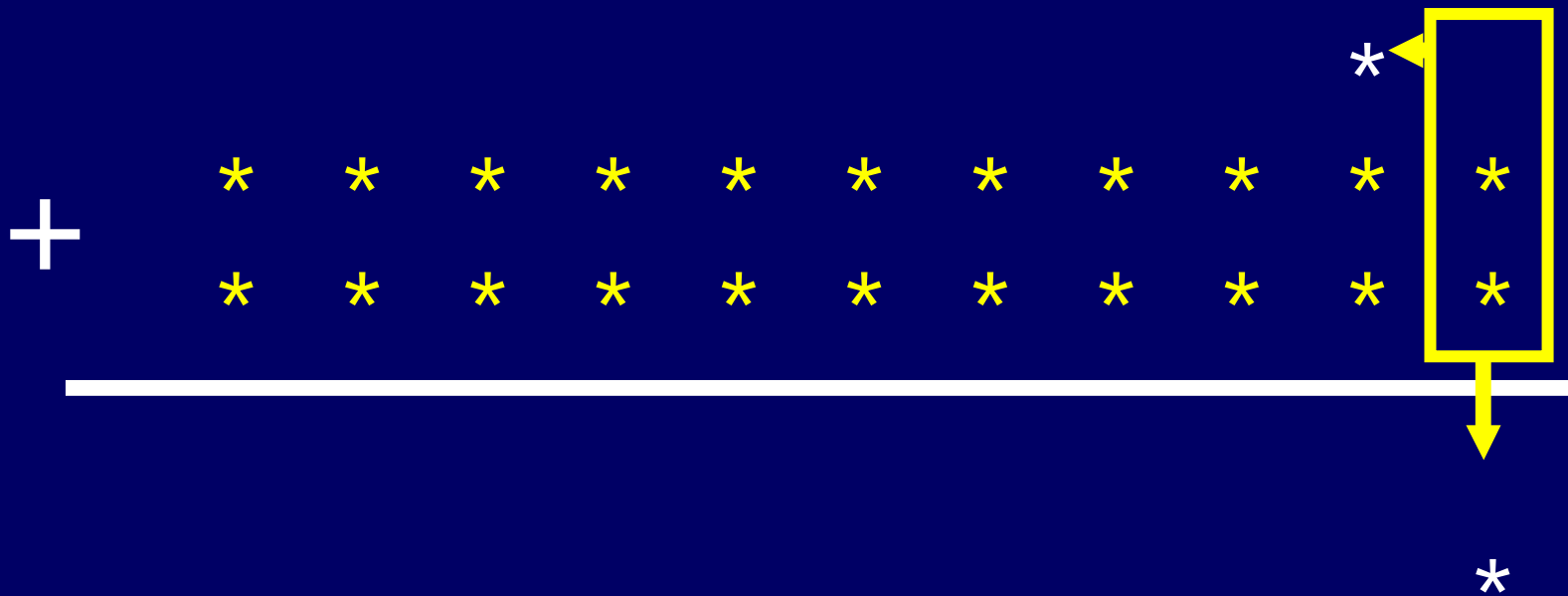
On Time Versus Input Size



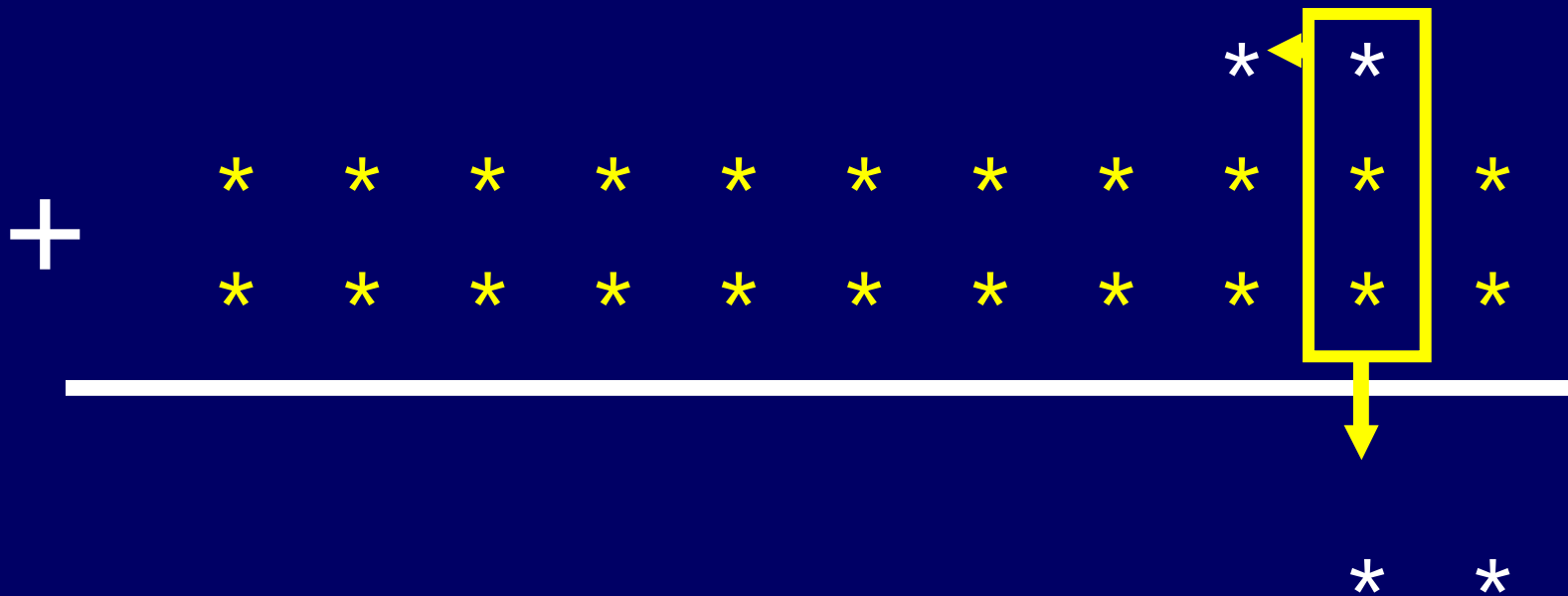
How to add 2 n-bit numbers.



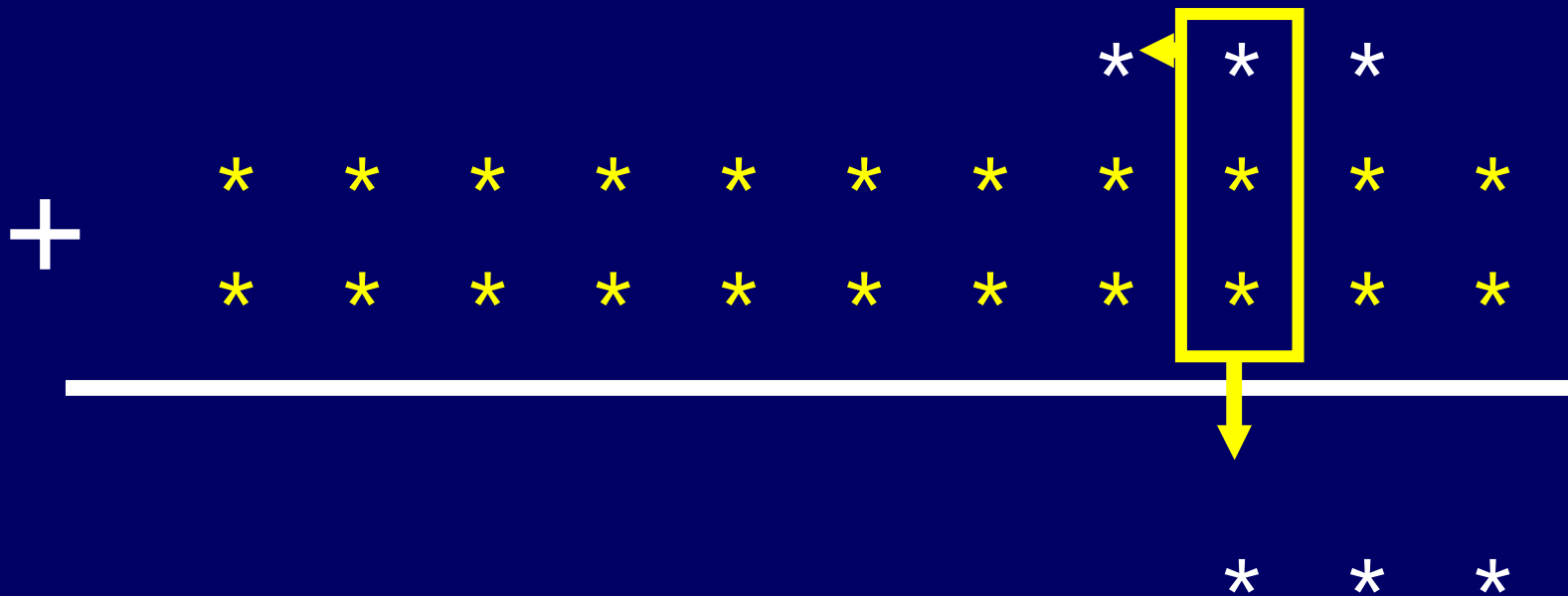
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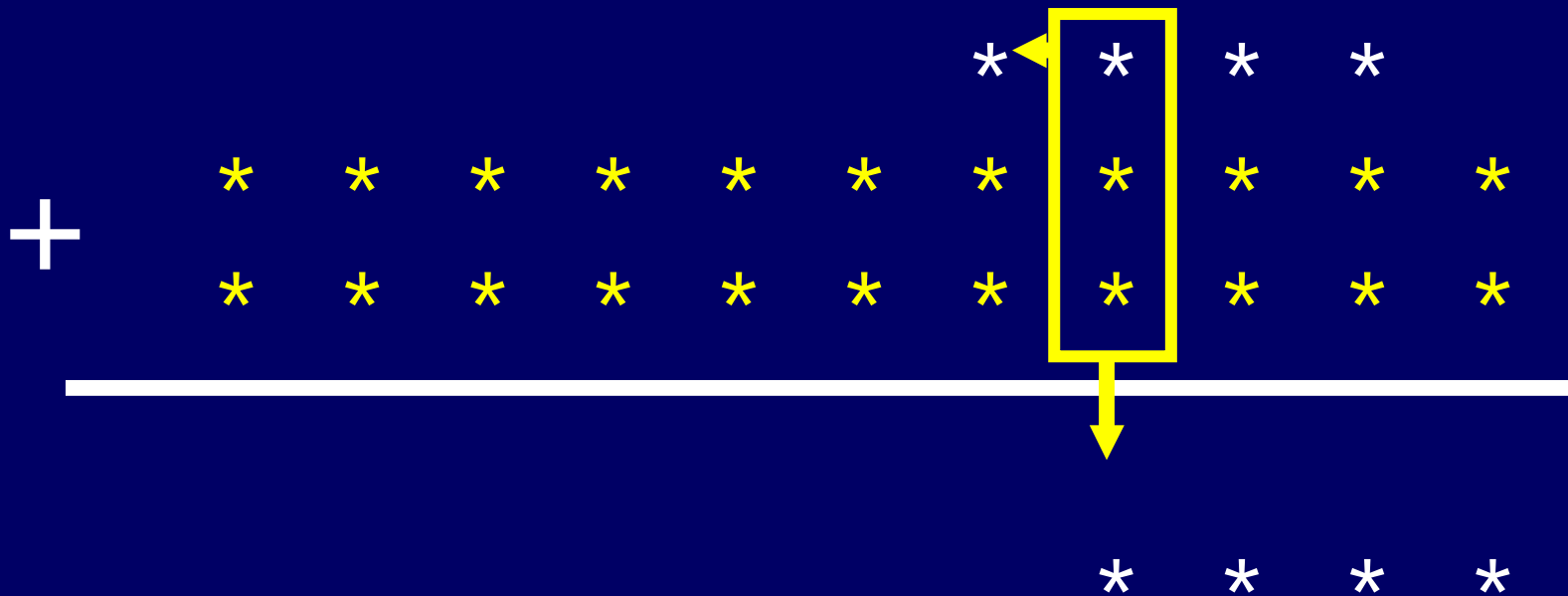
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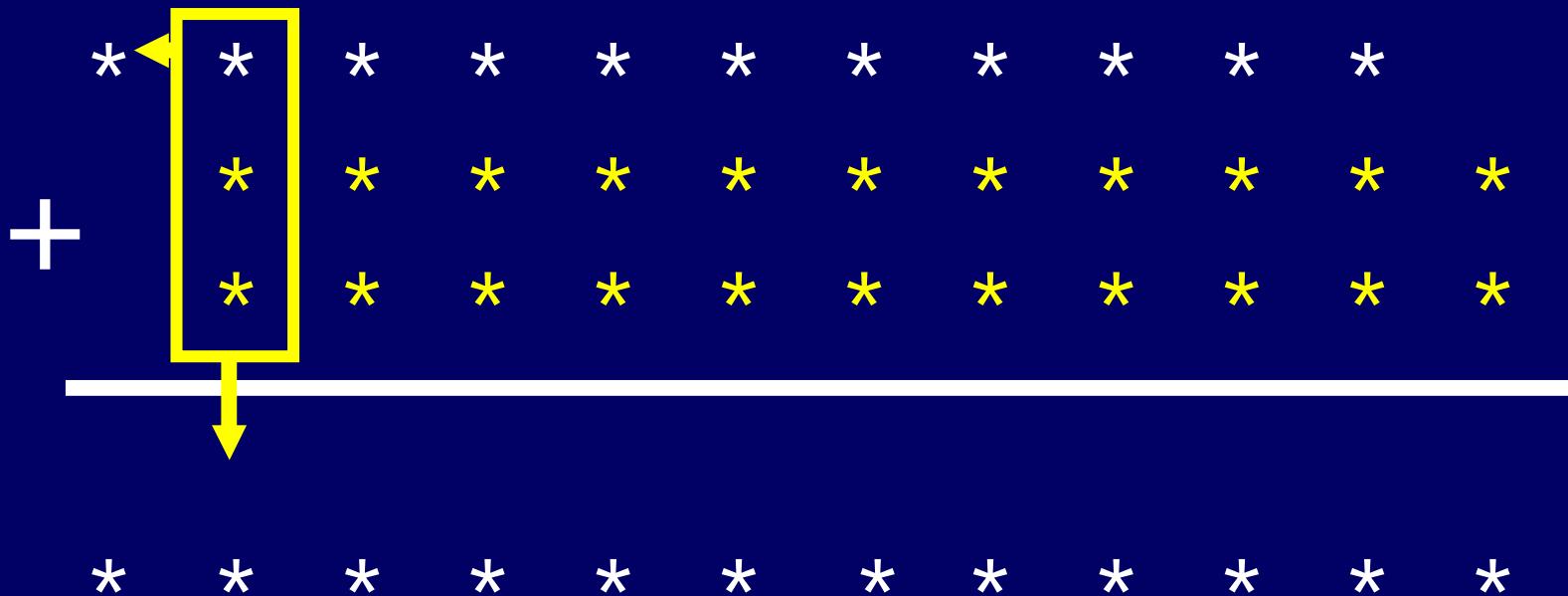
How to add 2 n-bit numbers.



How to add 2 n-bit numbers.



How to add 2 n-bit numbers.



Time complexity of grade school addition



$T(n)$ = The amount of time grade school addition uses to add two n -bit numbers



What do you mean by “time”?

Roadblock ???

A given algorithm will take different amounts of time on the same inputs depending on such factors as:

- Processor speed
- Instruction set
- Disk speed
- Brand of compiler

Our Goal

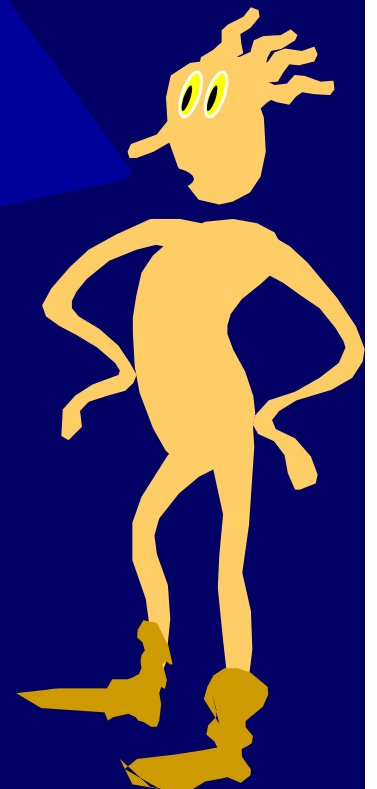
We want to define TIME in a sense that transcends implementation details and allows us to make assertions about grade school addition in a very general way.

Hold on! You just admitted that it makes no sense to measure the time, $T(n)$, taken by the method of grade school addition since the time depends on the implementation details. We will have to speak of the time taken by a particular implementation, as opposed to the time taken by the method in the abstract.



Don't jump to conclusions!
Your objections are serious, but not insurmountable. There is a very nice sense in which we can analyze grade school addition without ever having to worry about implementation details.

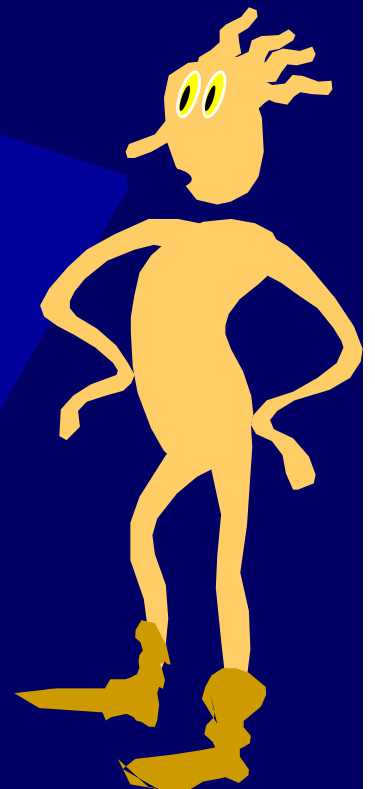
Here is how it works . . .



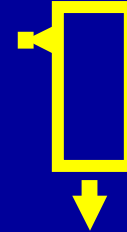
On any reasonable computer adding 3 bits and writing down the two bit answer can be done in constant time. Pick any particular computer A and define c to be the time it takes to perform



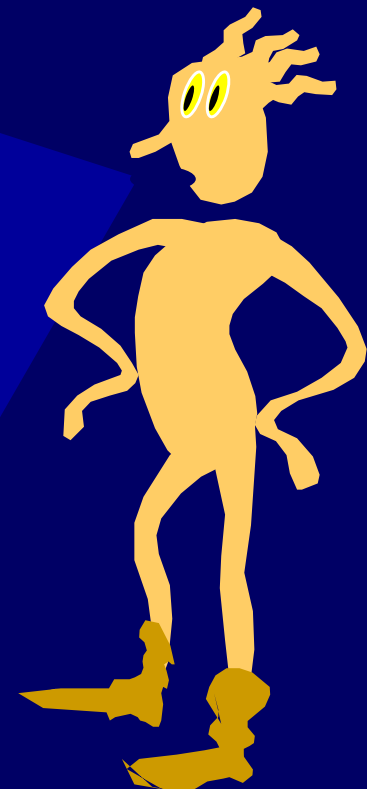
Total time to add two n -bit numbers using grade school addition: cn
[c time for each of n columns]

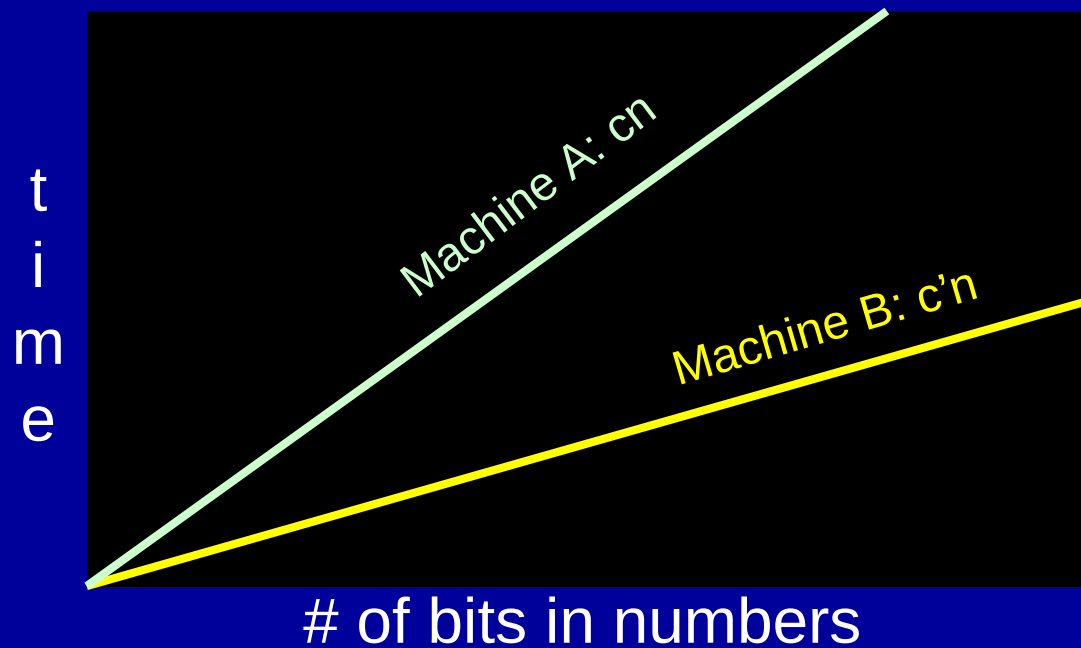


Implemented on another computer B
the running time will be $c'n$ where c' is
the time it takes to perform
on that computer.

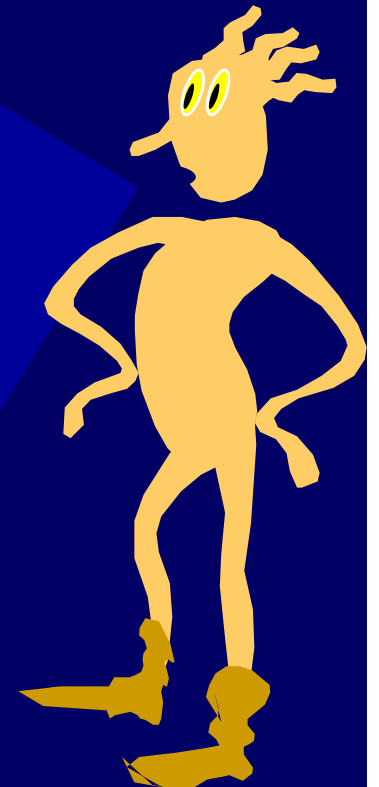


Total time to add two n -bit numbers
using grade school addition: $c'n$
[c' time for each of n columns]



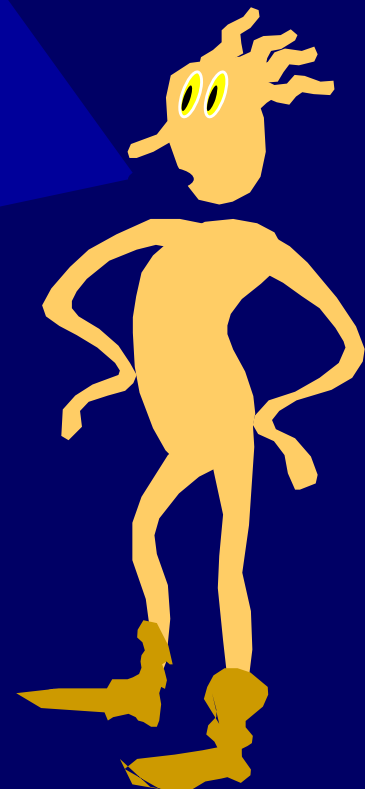


The fact that we get a line is **invariant** under changes of implementations. Different machines result in different slopes, but **time grows linearly as input size increases**.



Thus we arrive at an implementation independent insight: **Grade School Addition is a linear time algorithm.**

Determining the growth rate of the resource curve as the problem size increases is one of the fundamental ideas of computer science.



Abstraction:

Abstract away the inessential
features of a problem or solution



=



I see! We can define away the details
of the world that we do not wish to
currently study, in order to recognize
the similarities between seemingly
different things..

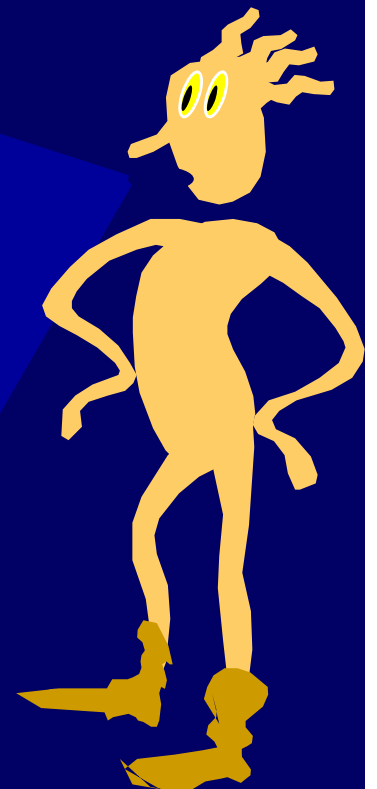
TIME vs INPUT SIZE

For any algorithm, define
INPUT SIZE = # of bits to specify inputs,

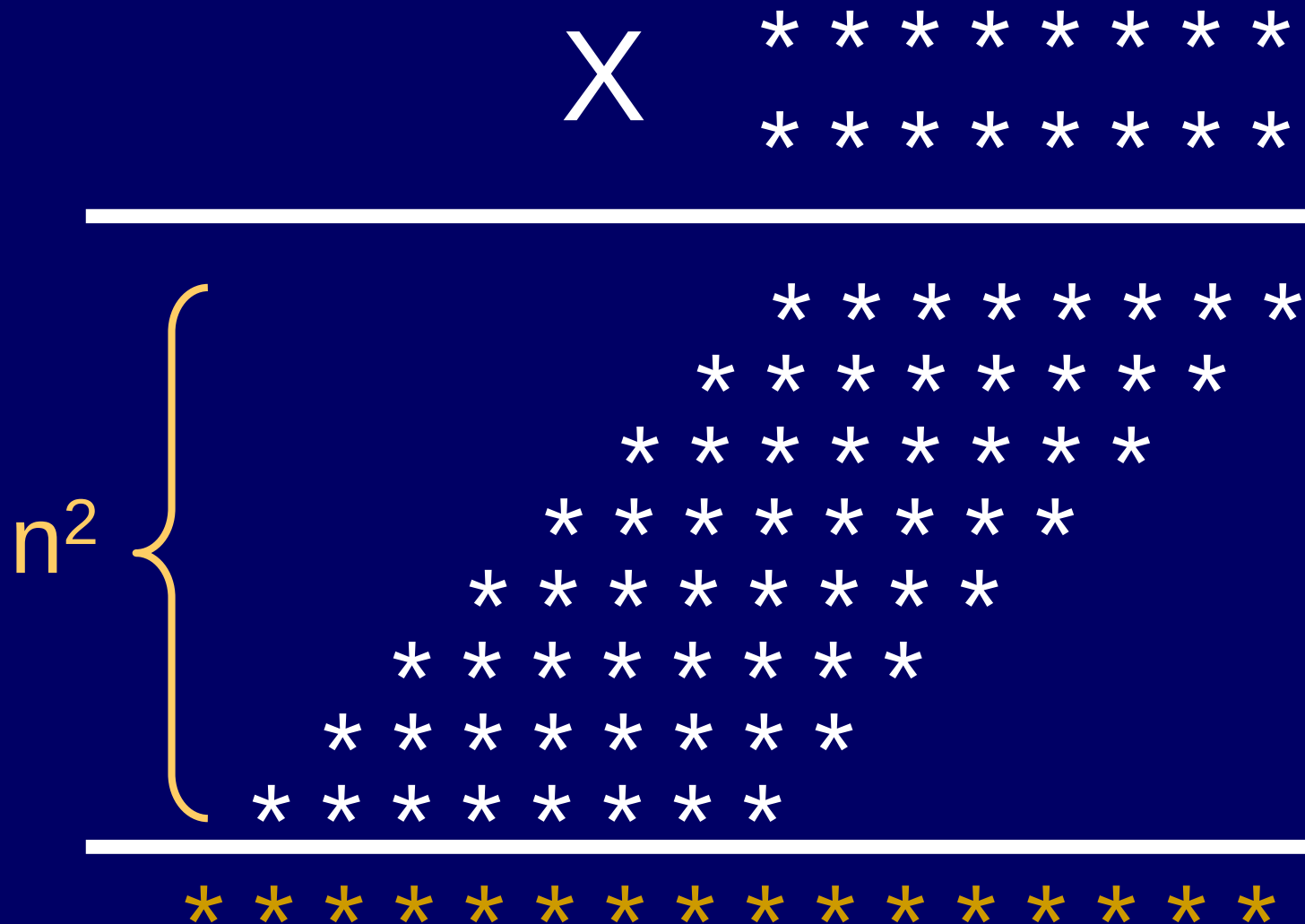
Define
 TIME_n = the worst-case amount of time
used on inputs of size n .

We Often Ask:

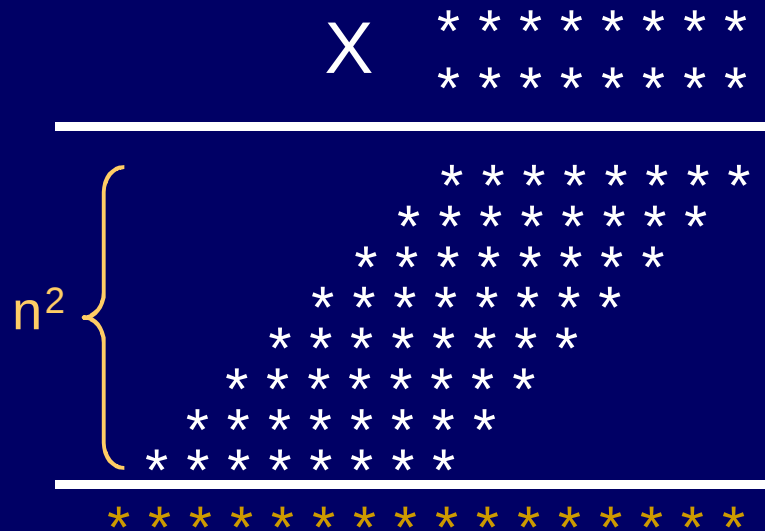
What is the GROWTH RATE
of Time_n ?



How to multiply 2 n-bit numbers.



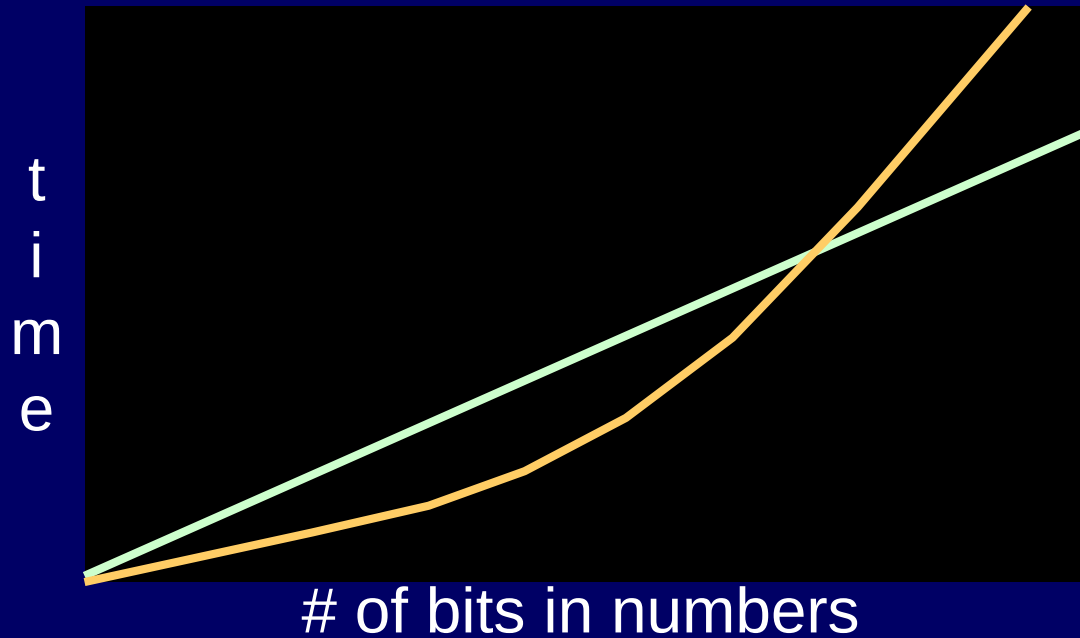
How to multiply 2 n-bit numbers.



I get it!
The total time is
bounded by cn^2 .



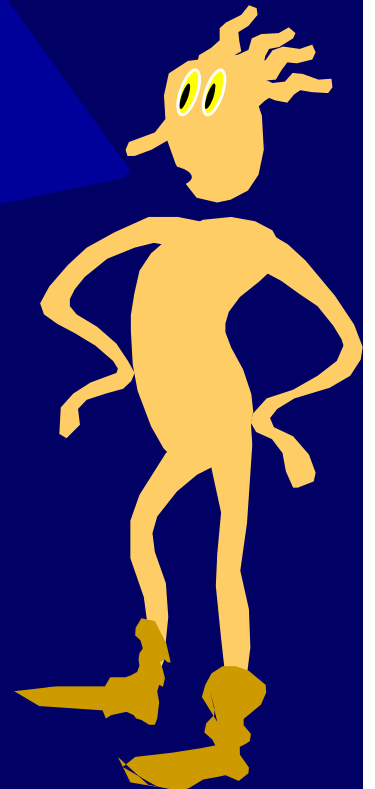
Grade School Addition: Linear time
Grade School Multiplication: Quadratic time



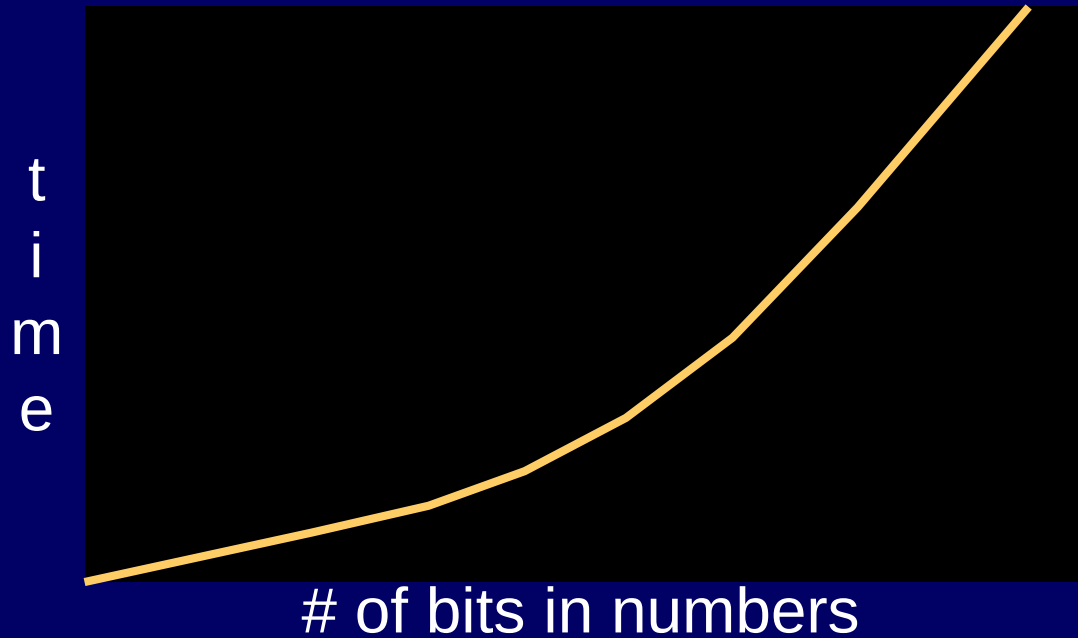
No matter how dramatic the difference in the constants the **quadratic curve** will eventually dominate the **linear curve**

Ok, so...

How much time does it take to
square the number n using
grade school multiplication?

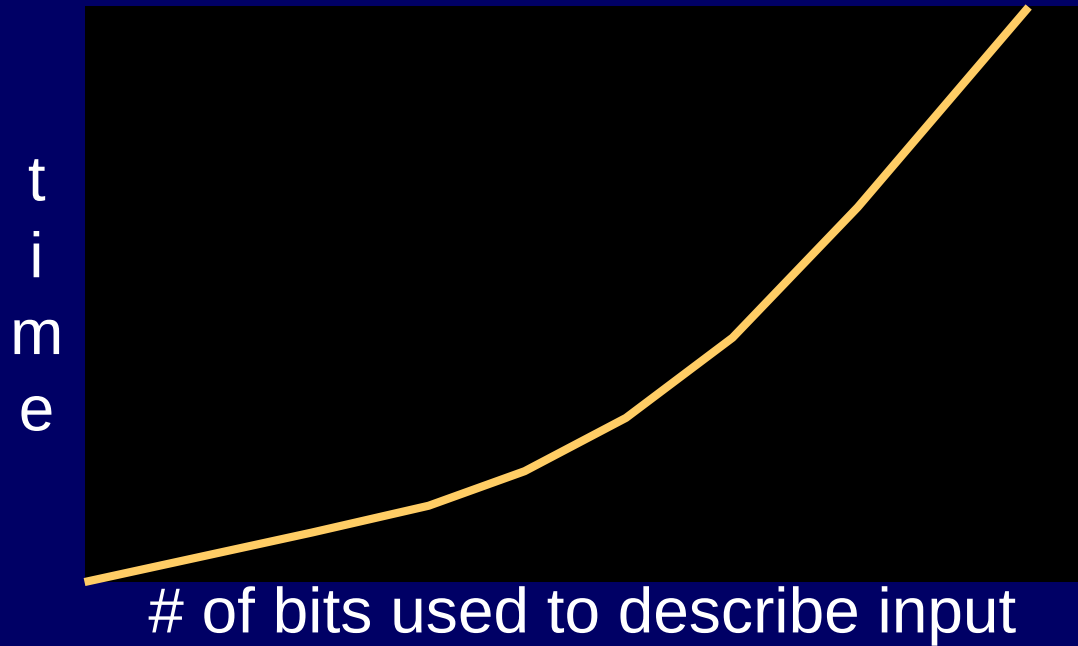


Grade School Multiplication: Quadratic time



$(\log n)^2$ time to square
the number n

Time Versus Input Size



Input size is measured in bits,
unless we say otherwise.

How much time does it take?

Nursery School Addition

INPUT: Two n -bit numbers, a and b

OUTPUT: $a + b$

Start at a and add 1, b times

$T(n) = ?$

What is $T(n)$?

Nursery School Addition

INPUT: Two n -bit numbers, a and b

OUTPUT: $a + b$

Start at a and add 1, b times

If $b=000.0000$, then NSA takes almost no time. If $b = 111111.11$, then NSA takes $c n^2$ time.

What is $T(n)$?

Nursery School Addition

INPUT: Two n -bit numbers, a and b

OUTPUT: $a + b$

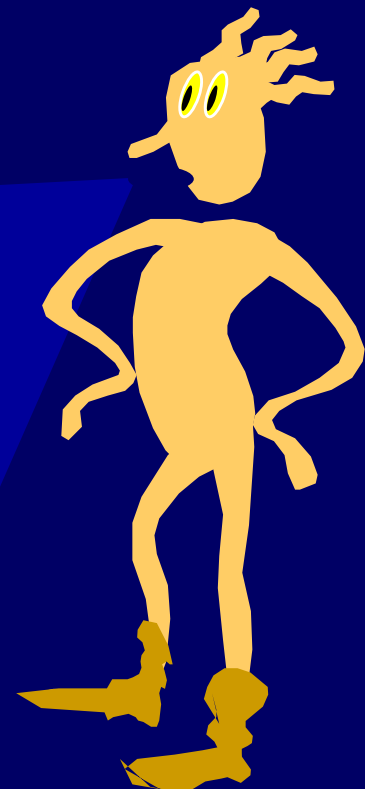
Start at a and add 1, b times

Worst case time is $c n 2^n \beta$ Exponential!

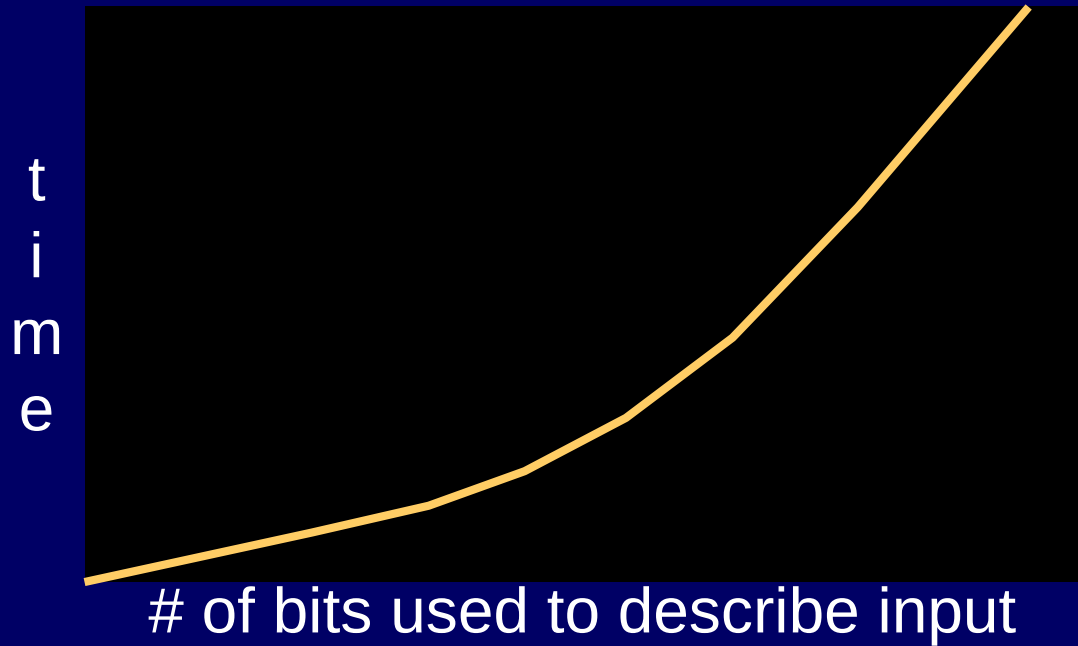
Worst-case Time $T(n)$
for algorithm A means that
we define a measure of
input size n , and we define

$$T(n) =$$

$\text{MAX}_{\text{all permissible inputs } X \text{ of size } n}$
running time of algorithm A on X .



Worst-case Time Versus Input Size



Worst Case Time Complexity

What is $T(n)$?

Kindergarden Multiplication

INPUT: Two n -bit numbers, a and b

OUTPUT: $a * b$

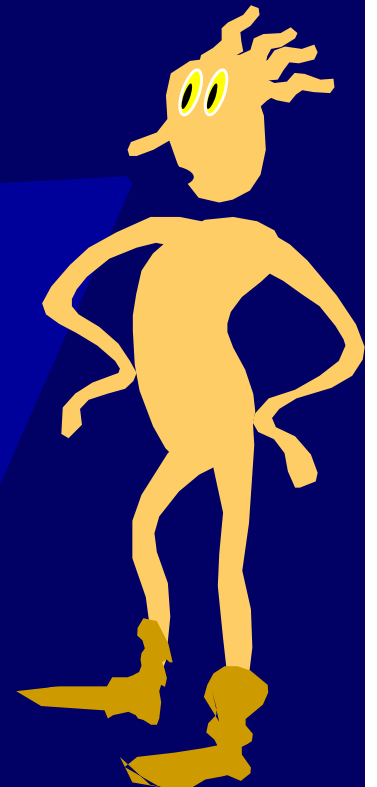
Start at a and add a , $b-1$ times

We always pick the **WORST CASE** for the input size n .

Thus, $T(n) = c n 2^n \propto$ Exponential

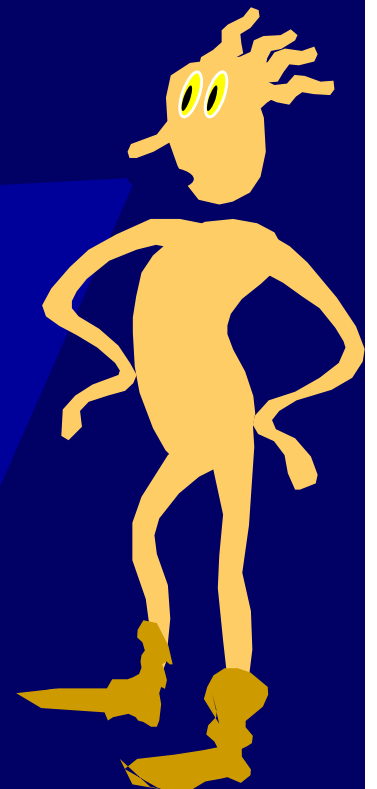
Thus, Nursery School adding and multiplication are exponential time. They SCALE HORRIBLY as input size grows.

Grade school methods scale polynomially – just linear and quadratic. Thus, we can add and multiply fairly large numbers.



Multiplication is efficient, what about reverse multiplication?

Let's define FACTORING n to any method to produce a non-trivial factor of n , or to assert that n is prime.



Factoring The Number n By Trial Division

Trial division up to $\sqrt{n}$

```
for  $k = 2$  to  $\sqrt{n}$  do  
  if  $k \mid n$  then  
    return  $n$  "has a non-trivial factor"  $k$ 
```

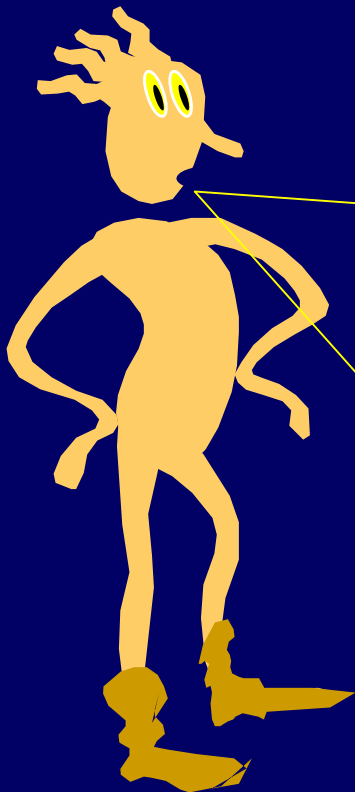
```
return  $n$  "is prime"
```

$O(\sqrt{n} (\log n)^2)$ time if division is $O((\log n)^2)$

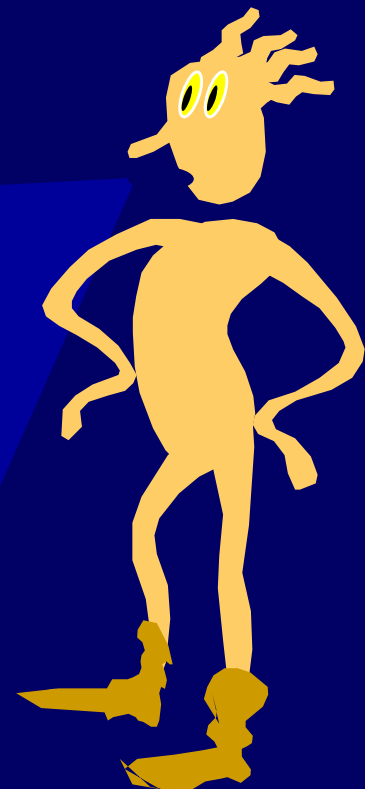
On input n , trial factoring uses $O(\sqrt{n}(\log n)^2)$ time. Is that efficient?

No! The input length is $\log(n)$.
Let $k = \log n$. In terms of k ,
we are using $2^{k/2} k^2$ time.

The time is **EXPONENTIAL** in
the input length.



We know methods of
FACTORING that are
sub-exponential
(about $2^{\text{cube root of } k}$), but
nothing efficient.



Useful notation to discuss growth rates

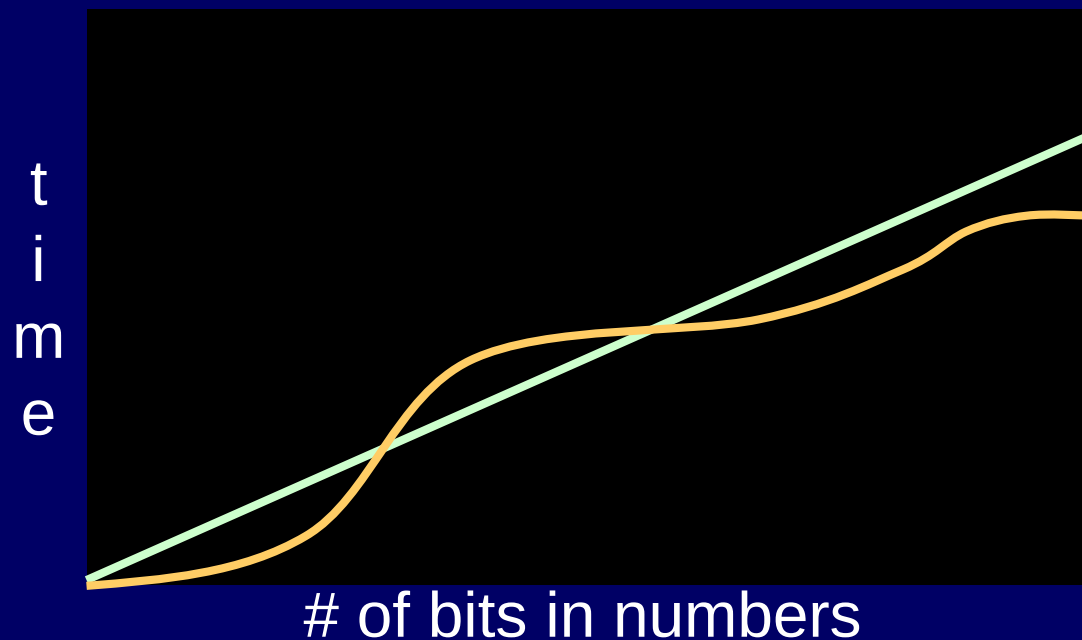
For any monotonic function f from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say " $f = O(n)$ " or " f is $O(n)$ "

if:

Some constant times n eventually dominates f

[There exists a constant c such that for all sufficiently large n : $f(n) \leq cn$]

$f = O(n)$ means that there is a line that
can be drawn that stays above f from
some point on



Useful notation to discuss growth rates

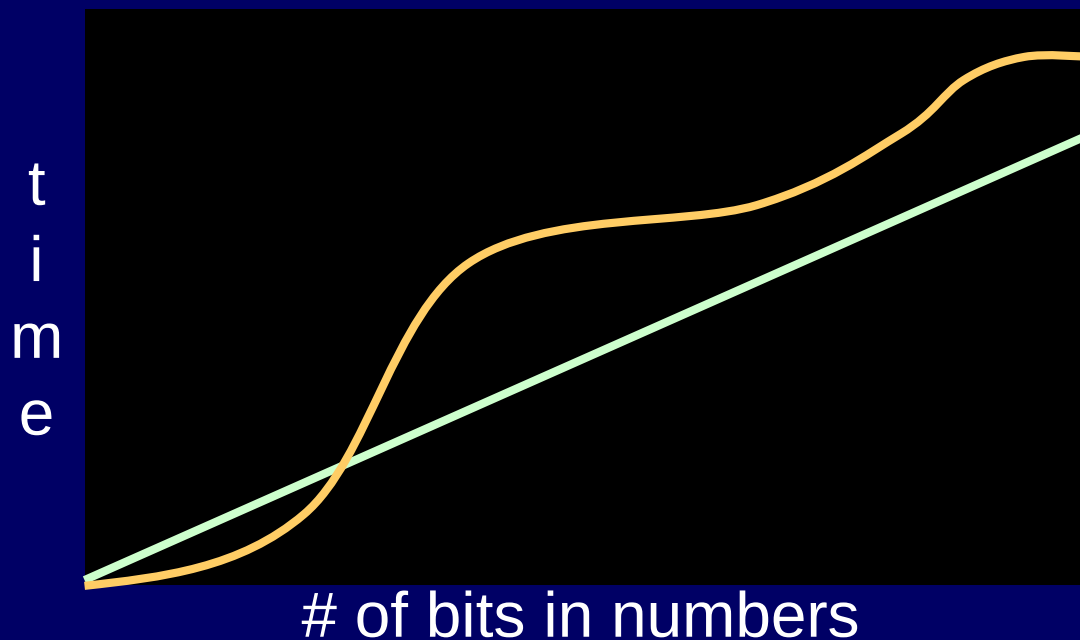
For any monotonic function f from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say " $f = \Omega(n)$ " or " f is $\Omega(n)$ "

if:

f eventually dominates some constant times n

[There exists a constant c such that for all sufficiently large n : $f(n) \geq cn$]

$f = \Omega(n)$ means that there is a line that can be drawn that stays below f from some point on



Useful notation to discuss growth rates

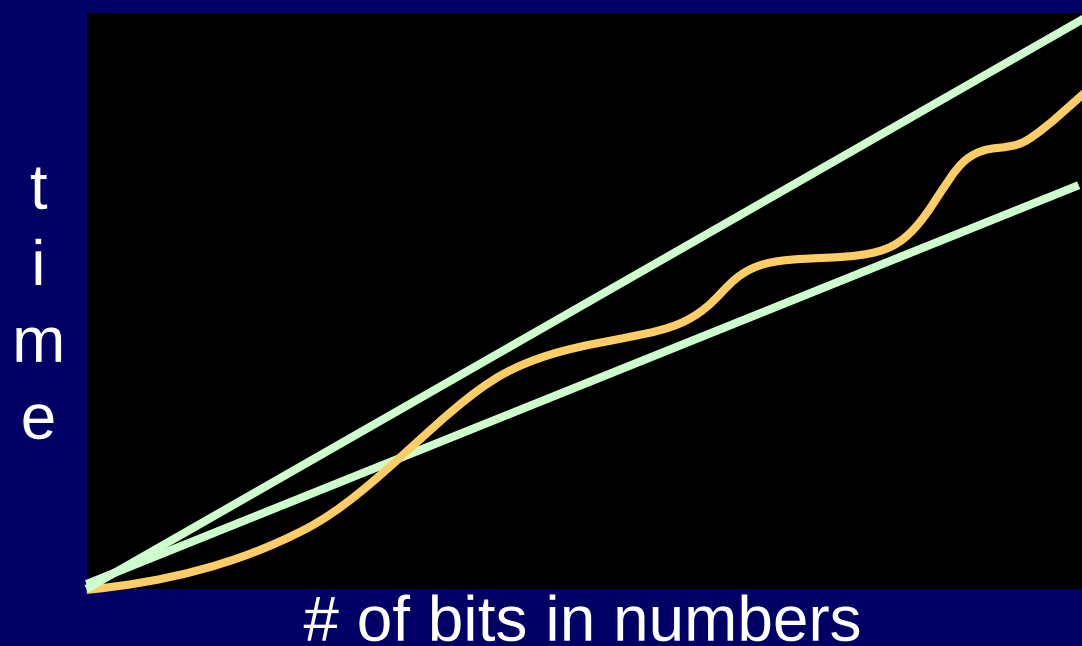
For any monotonic function f from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say

" $f = \Theta(n)$ " or " f is $\Theta(n)$ "

if:

$f = O(n)$ and $f = \Omega(n)$

$f = \Theta(n)$ means that f can be sandwiched between two lines



Useful notation to discuss growth rates

For any monotonic functions f and g from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say " $f = O(g)$ " or " f is $O(g)$ "

if:

Some constant times g eventually dominates f

[There exists a constant c such that for all sufficiently large n : $f(n) \leq cg(n)$]

Useful notation to discuss growth rates

For any monotonic functions f and g from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say " $f = \Omega(g)$ " or " f is $\Omega(g)$ "

if:

f eventually dominates some constant times g

[There exists a constant c such that for all sufficiently large n : $f(n) \geq cg(n)$]

Useful notation to discuss growth rates

For any monotonic functions f and g from the positive integers to the positive integers, we say

" $f = \Theta(g)$ " or " f is $\Theta(g)$ "

if:

$f = O(g)$ and $f = \Omega(g)$

- $n = O(n^2)$?
 - YES
- $n = O(\text{sqrt}(n))$?
 - NO
- $3n^2 + 4n + \pi = O(n^2)$?
 - YES
- $3n^2 + 4n + \pi = \Omega(n^2)$?
 - YES
- $n^2 = \Omega(n \log n)$?
 - YES
- $n^2 \log n = \Theta(n^2)$
 - NO

Quickies

Names For Some Growth Rates

Linear Time $T(n) = O(n)$

Quadratic Time $T(n) = O(n^2)$

Cubic Time $T(n) = O(n^3)$

Polynomial Time mean that for some constant k , $T(n) = O(n^k)$.

Example: $T(n) = 13n^5$

Names For Some Growth Rates

Exponential Time means that for some constant k , $T(n) = O(k^n)$

Example: $T(n) = n2^n = O(3^n)$

Almost Exponential Time means that for some constant k , $T(n) = 2^{\text{kth root of } n}$

Names For Some Growth Rates

Logarithmic Time $T(n) = O(\log n)$

Example: $T(n) = 15\log_2(n)$

Polylogarithmic Time means that for some constant k , $T(n) = O(\log^k(n))$

Note: These kind of algorithms can't possibly read all of their inputs.

Binary Search

A very common example of logarithmic time is looking up a word in a sorted dictionary.

Some Big Ones

Doubly Exponential Time means that for some constant k , $T(n)$ is 2 to the 2^n

Triply Exponential.

And so forth.

2STACK

$$2STACK(0) = 1$$

$$2STACK(n) = 2^{2STACK(n-1)}$$

$$2STACK(1) = 2$$

$$2STACK(2) = 4$$

$$2STACK(3) = 16$$

$$2STACK(4) = 65536$$

$$2STACK(5) \geq 10^{80}$$

= atoms in universe

$\log^*(n)$ = Inverse 2STACK(n)
of times you have to apply the log
function to n to get it to 1

$$2STACK(0) = 1$$

$$2STACK(n) = 2^{2STACK(n-1)}$$

$$2STACK(1) = 2$$

$$2STACK(2) = 4$$

$$2STACK(3) = 16$$

$$2STACK(4) = 65536$$

$$2STACK(5) \geq 10^{80}$$

= atoms in universe

$$\text{Log}^*(1) = 0$$

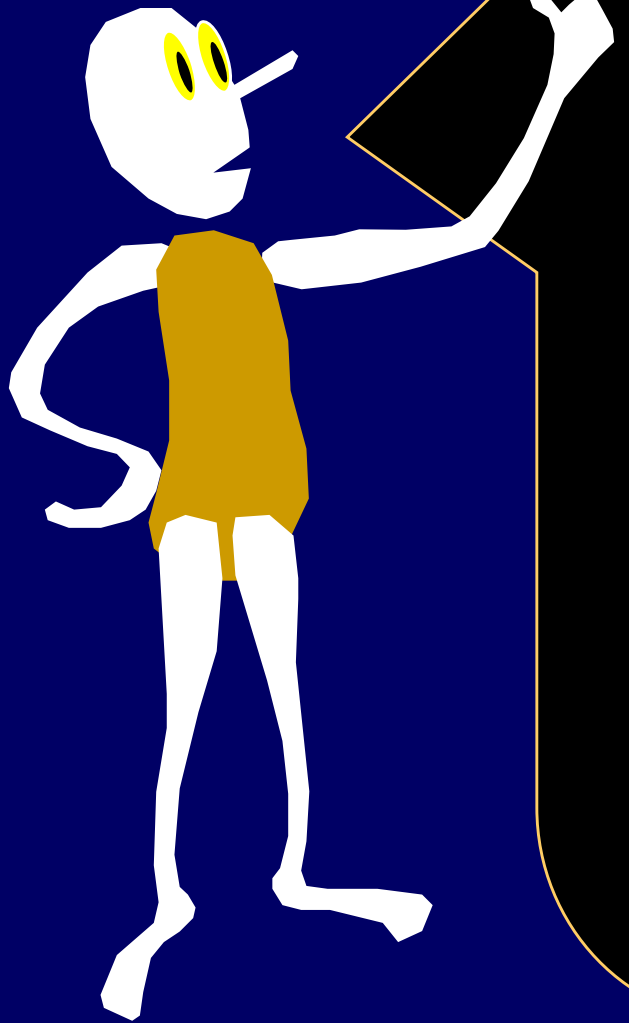
$$\text{Log}^*(2) = 1$$

$$\text{Log}^*(4) = 2$$

$$\text{Log}^*(16) = 3$$

$$\text{Log}^*(65536) = 4$$

$$\text{Log}^*(\text{way big}) = 5$$



So an algorithm that
can be shown to run
in

$O(n \log^*(n))$ Time
is

LINEAR TIME FOR
ALL PRACTICAL
PURPOSES!

Ackermann's Function

$$A(0, n) = n + 1 \quad \text{for } n \geq 0$$

$$A(m, 0) = A(m - 1, 1) \quad \text{for } m \geq 1$$

$$A(m, n) = A(m - 1, A(m, n - 1)) \quad \text{for } m, n \geq 1$$

$A(4, 2) > \#$ of particles in universe

$A(5, 2)$ can't be written out in this universe

Inverse Ackermann

$$A(0, n) = n + 1 \quad \text{for } n \geq 0$$

$$A(m, 0) = A(m - 1, 1) \quad \text{for } m \geq 1$$

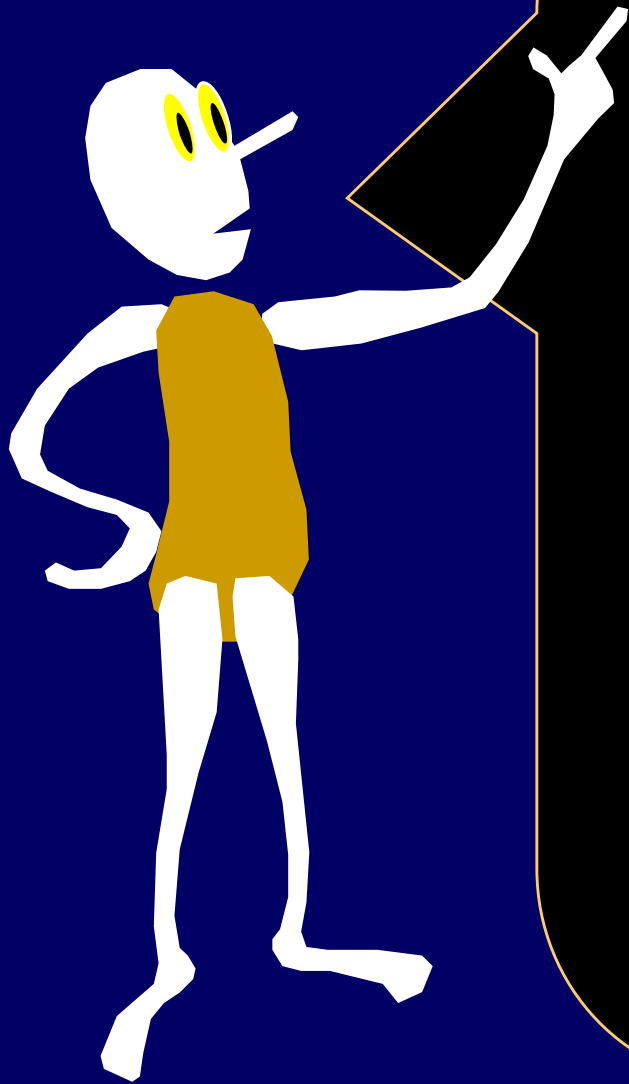
$$A(m, n) = A(m - 1, A(m, n - 1)) \quad \text{for } m, n \geq 1$$

$$A'(k) = A(k, k)$$

Inverse Ackerman is the inverse of A'

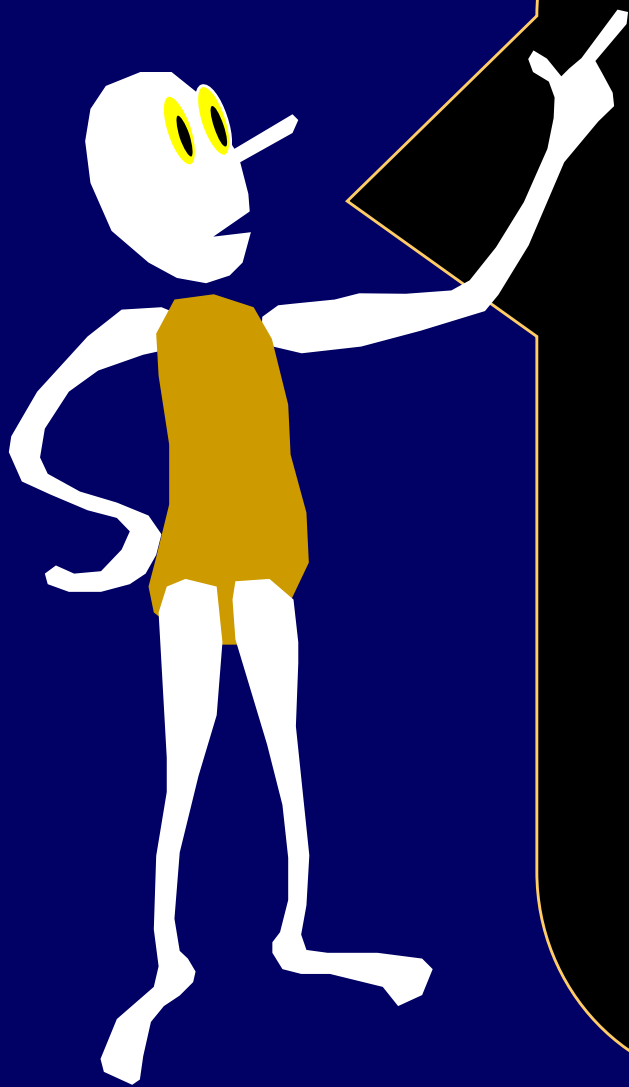
Practically speaking:

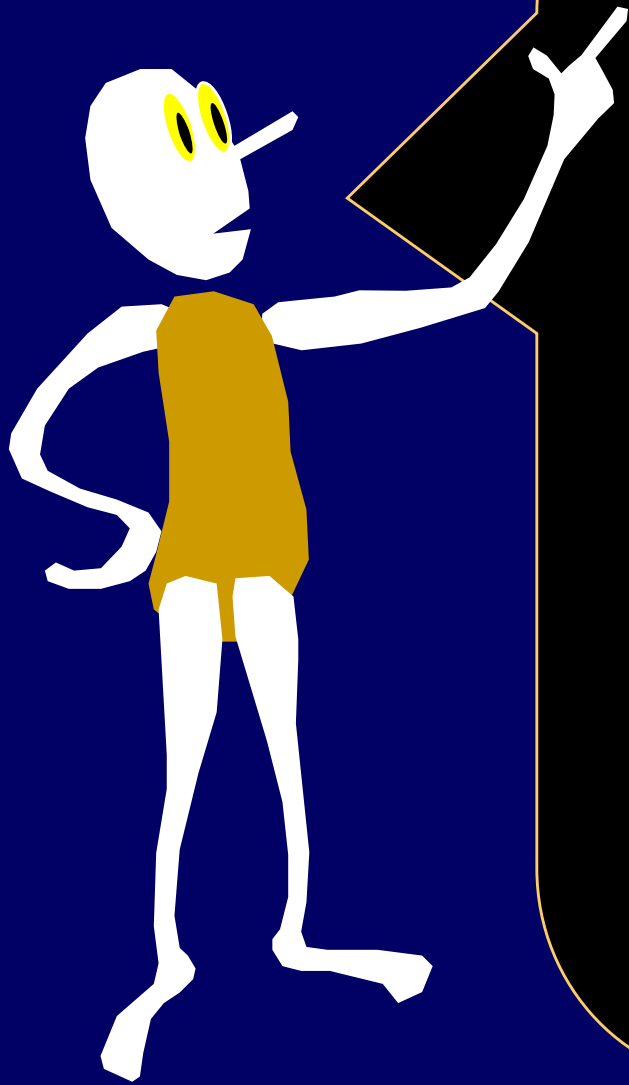
$$n * \text{inverse-Ackermann}(n) \leq 4n$$



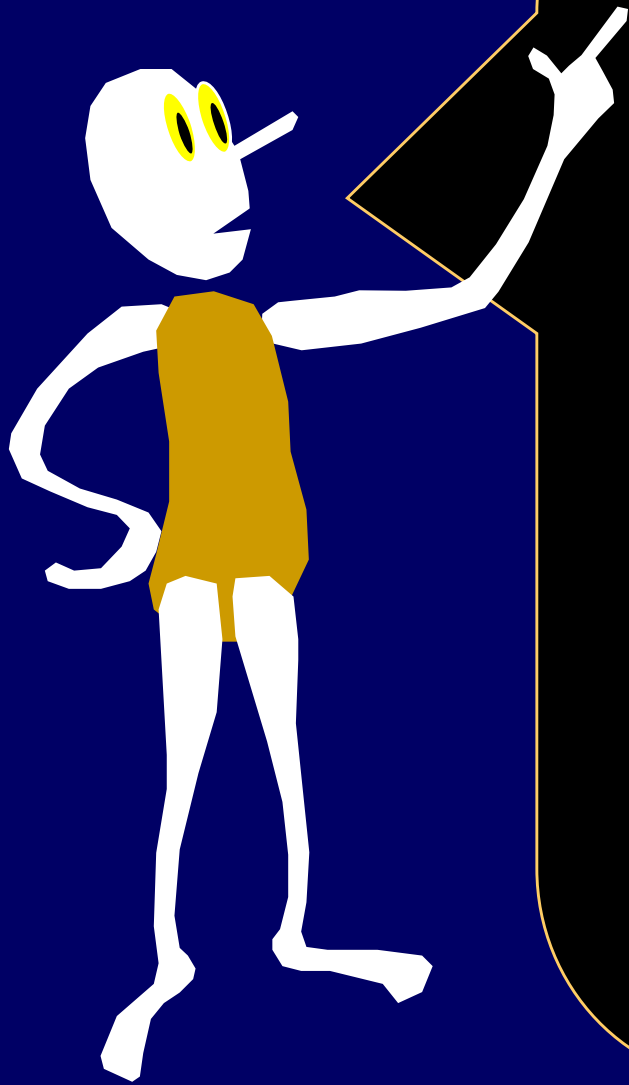
$n^{\text{inverse-Ackermann}}(n)$
arises in the seminal
paper of

D. D. Sleator and R. E.
Tarjan. *A data structure
for dynamic trees.*
Journal of Computer and
System Sciences,
26(3):362-391, 1983.





One the last day of this
course we will define the
BUSYBEAVER function -
it makes Akermann look
like dust.



Let's get back to our
original thinking...

Time complexity of grade school addition

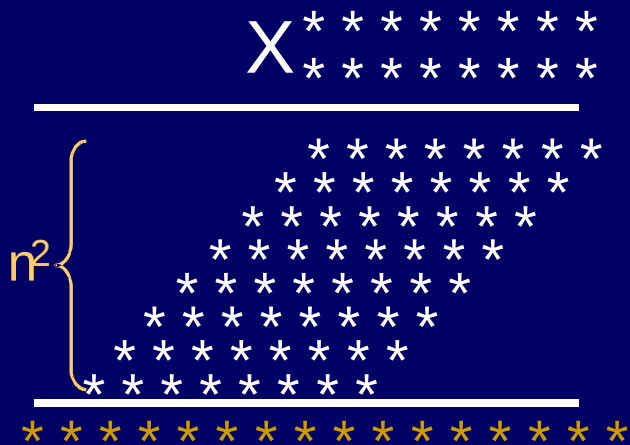


$T(n)$ = The amount of time grade school addition uses to add two n -bit numbers



We saw that $T(n)$ was linear.

Time complexity of grade school multiplication

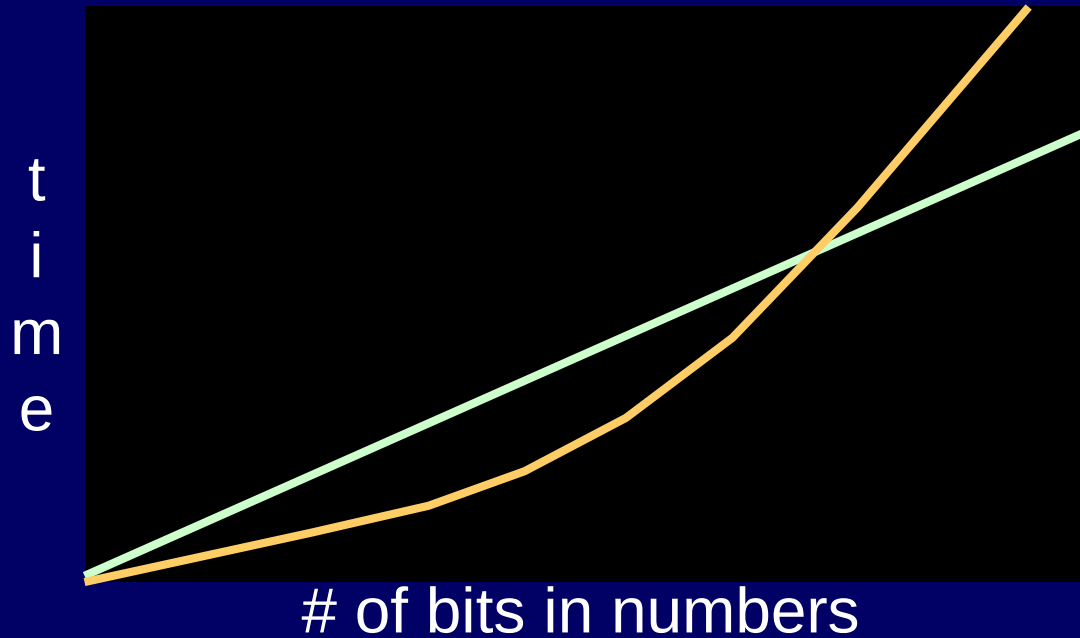


$T(n)$ = The amount of time grade school multiplication uses to add two n -bit numbers



We saw that $T(n)$ was quadratic.

Grade School Addition: Linear time
Grade School Multiplication: Quadratic time



No matter how dramatic the difference in the constants the **quadratic curve** will eventually dominate the **linear curve**



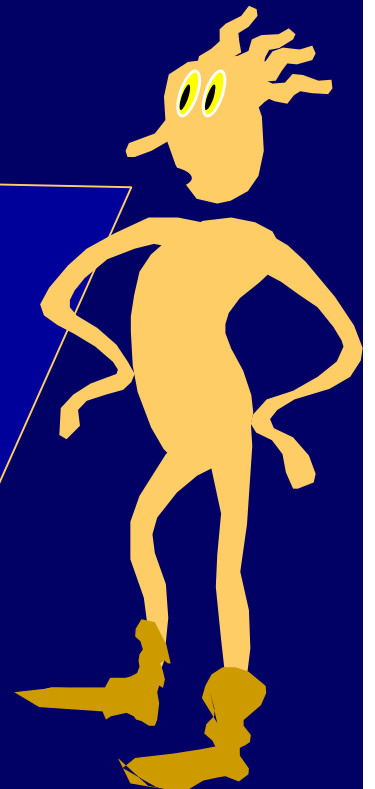
Neat! We have demonstrated that as things scale multiplication is a harder problem than addition.

Mathematical confirmation of our common sense.

Don't jump to conclusions!

We have argued that grade school multiplication uses more time than grade school addition. This is a comparison of the complexity of two algorithms.

To argue that multiplication is an **inherently harder** problem than addition we would have to show that **“the best” addition algorithm is faster than “the best” multiplication algorithm.**



Grade school addition is
linear time.

Is there a sub-linear time for
addition?

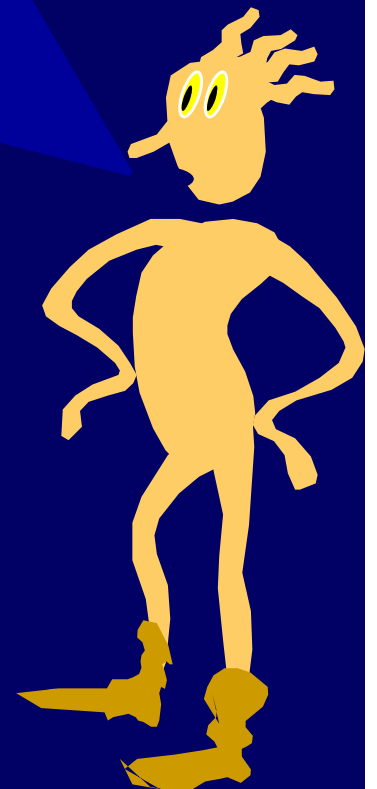


Any algorithm for addition must read all of the input bits

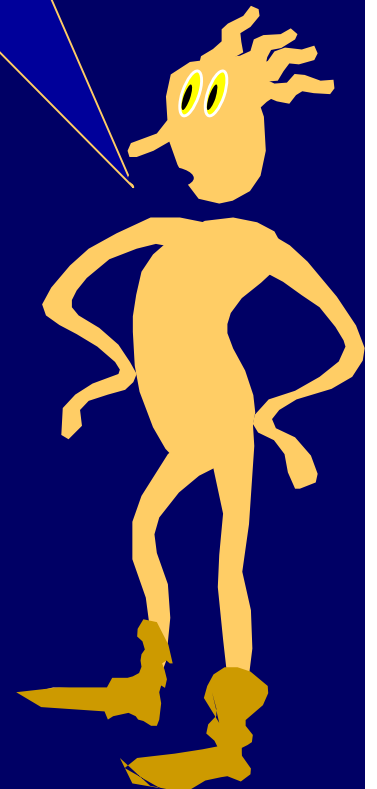
- Suppose there is a mystery algorithm A that does not examine each bit
- Give A a pair of numbers. There must be some unexamined bit position i in one of the numbers
- If the A is not correct on the numbers, we found a bug
- If A is correct, flip the bit at position i and give A the new pair of numbers. A give the same answer as before, which is now wrong.

So **any algorithm** for addition must use time at least linear in the size of the numbers.

Grade school addition can't be improved upon by more than a constant factor.

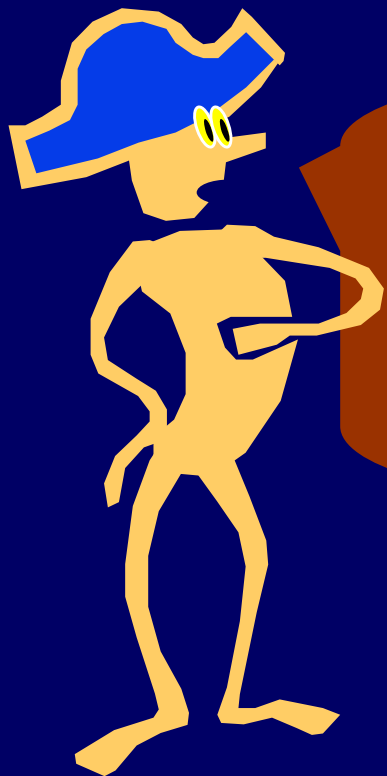


To argue that multiplication is an
inherently harder problem than
addition we would have to show that
no possible multiplication algorithm
runs in linear time.



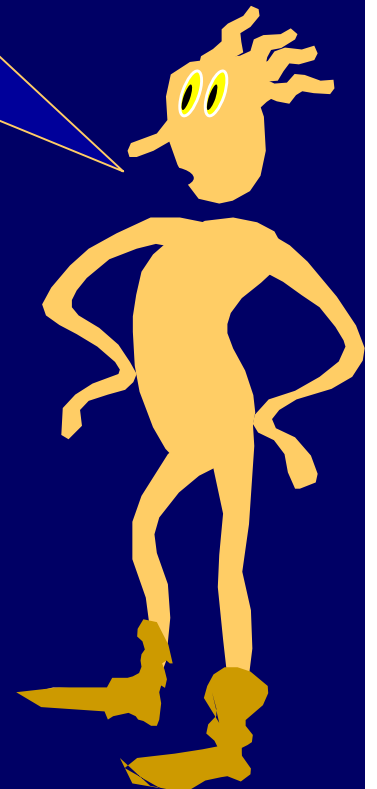
Grade School Addition: $\Theta(n)$ time
Furthermore, it is optimal

Grade School Multiplication: $\Theta(n^2)$ time



Is there a clever algorithm to
multiply two numbers in linear
time?

Despite years of research, no one knows! If you resolve this question, Carnegie Mellon will give you a PhD!

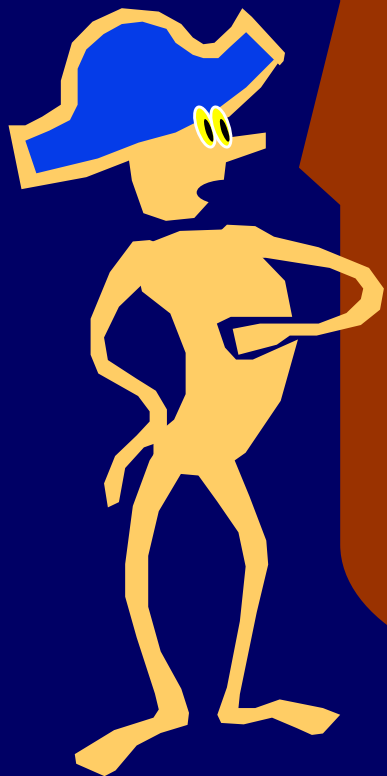




Can we even brake the quadratic time barrier – in other words can we do something very different than grade school multiplication?

Grade School Multiplication: $\Theta(n^2)$ time

Kissing Intuition



Intuition: Let's say that each time an algorithm has to multiply a digit from one number with a digit from the other number, we call that a “kiss”. It seems as if any correct algorithm must kiss at least n^2 times.