

# DS8001: Designs of Algorithms and Programming for Massive Data

## Lecture 2

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# Outline

- 1 Analyzing algorithms: time complexity
  - Simple for-loop
  - Simple nested for-loops
  - Simple sorting problem
- 2 Asymptotic notation
  - Overview
  - $\Theta$ -notation
  - $O$ -notation
  - $\Omega$ -notation
  - $o$ -notation
  - $\omega$ -notation
- 3 Analyzing algorithms: space complexity
  - Examples
- 4 Asymptotic notation and practice
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# Useful definitions

- $T$  The running time of an algorithm
- $c_i$  Constant amount of time required to execute  $i$ -th line of a pseudocode

# Useful definitions

## Informal

### Definition

- Best-case analysis: running time of the algorithm in case the input is 'optimal'; provides lower bound of  $T$ .
- Average-case analysis: running time of the algorithm in case the input is 'average'.
- Worst-case analysis: running time of the algorithm in case the input is 'average'; provides upper bound of  $T$ .

It is often difficult to define average- or best- case; thus, worst-case analysis is the most common one.

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# Number of operations

## Example 1: simple for-loop

Line	Pseudo code	Cost	Times
1	$k = 0$	$c_1$	1
2	for $i = 1$ to $n$	$c_2$	$n + 1$
3	$k = k + i$	$c_3$	$n$

- $T(n) = c_1 + c_2(n + 1) + c_3n = (c_2 + c_3)n + (c_1 + c_2)$ .
  - Number of operations grows linearly with  $n$ .
- For a given  $n$ , best-, average-, and worst-cases are the same.

### Question:

Why second line is executed  $n + 1$  times?

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# Number of operations

## Example 2: nested for-loop

Line	Pseudo code	Cost	Times
1	$k = 0$	$c_1$	1
2	for $i = 1$ to $n$	$c_2$	$n + 1$
3	for $j = 1$ to $n$	$c_3$	$n(n + 1)$
4	$k = k + i + j$	$c_4$	$n^2$

- $T(n) = c_1 + c_2(n + 1) + c_3n(n + 1) + c_4n^2 = (c_3 + c_4)n^2 + (c_2 + c_3)n + (c_1 + c_2)$ .
- For a given  $n$ , best-, average-, and worst-cases are the same.



# Number of operations

Example 3: nested for-loop with two 'control' variables

Line	Pseudo code	Cost	Times
1	$k = 0$	$c_1$	1
2	for $i = 1$ to $n$	$c_2$	$n + 1$
3	for $j = 1$ to $m$	$c_3$	$n(m + 1)$
4	$k = k + i + j$	$c_4$	$nm$

- $T(n, m) = c_1 + c_2(n + 1) + c_3n(m + 1) + c_4nm = (c_3 + c_4)nm + (c_2 + c_3)n + (c_1 + c_2)$ .
- For a given  $n$  and  $m$ , best-, average-, and worst-cases are the same.

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# Number of operations

## Example 4: Sorting problem

- Input: A sequence of numbers  $A = \langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$ .
- Output: A reordering (permutation)  $\langle a'_1, a'_2, \dots, a'_n \rangle$  of the input sequence, such that  $a'_1 \leq a'_2 \leq \dots \leq a'_n$ .
- $a_i$ s are also known as keys.

# Number of operations

## Example 4: Insertion sort

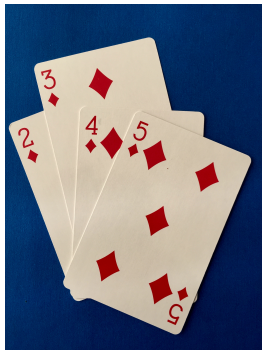


Figure: Graphic example of insertion sort

Detailed coverage of this example is given in [1, Ch. 2.2].

# Number of operations

## Example 4: Insertion sort

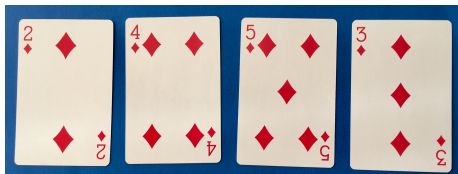


Figure: Step 1

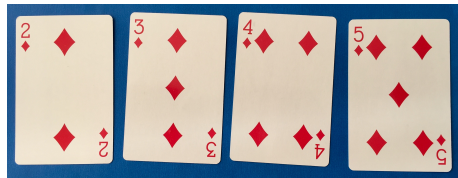


Figure: Step 3

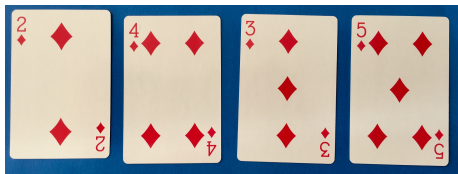


Figure: Step 2

Note that in practice we do not have to physically place new card into the deck until we find its proper spot.

# Number of operations

## Example 4: Insertion sort

Line	Pseudo code	Cost	Times
1	for $j = 2$ to $n$	$c_1$	$n$
2	$key = A[j]$	$c_2$	$n - 1$
3	// Insert $A[j]$ into $A[1, \dots, j - 1]$	0	$n - 1$
4	$i = j - 1$	$c_4$	$n - 1$
5	while $i > 0$ and $A[i] > key$	$c_5$	$\sum_{j=2}^n t_j$
6	$A[i + 1] = A[i]$	$c_6$	$\sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$
7	$i = i - 1$	$c_7$	$\sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$
8	$A[i + 1] = key$	$c_8$	$n - 1$

- $t_j$  is the number of times a while loop on line 5 is executed for a given  $j$ .
- $T(n) = c_1 n + c_2(n - 1) + c_4(n - 1) + c_5 \sum_{j=2}^n t_j + c_6 \sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1) + c_7 \sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1) + c_8(n - 1)$ .

# Number of operations

## Example 4: Insertion sort : Best Case

Line	Pseudo code	Cost	Times
1	for $j = 2$ to $n$	$c_1$	$n$
2	$key = A[j]$	$c_2$	$n - 1$
3	// Insert $A[j]$ into $A[1, \dots, j - 1]$	0	$n - 1$
4	$i = j - 1$	$c_4$	$n - 1$
5	while $i > 0$ and $A[i] > key$	$c_5$	$\sum_{j=2}^n t_j$
6	$A[i + 1] = A[i]$	$c_6$	$\sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$
7	$i = i - 1$	$c_7$	$\sum_{j=2}^n (t_j - 1)$
8	$A[i + 1] = key$	$c_8$	$n - 1$

- Best-case scenario: the sequence  $A$  is already sorted in ascending order. In this case  $t_j = 1$ . And  $T(n)$  simplifies to:
- $T(n) = c_1n + c_2(n - 1) + c_4(n - 1) + c_5(n - 1) + c_8(n - 1) = (c_1 + c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8)n - (c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8)$ .
- $T(n)$  is a linear function.

# Number of operations

## Example 4: Insertion sort : Worst Case

- Worst-case scenario: the sequence  $A$  is sorted in descending order. In this case  $t_j = j$ , since we need to compare  $A[j]$  with each element in  $A[1, \dots, j-1]$ .
- Knowing that  $\sum_{j=2}^n j = n(n+1)/2 - 1$  and that  $\sum_{j=2}^n (j-1) = n(n-1)/2$  (remember your first year calculus?),  $T(n)$  simplifies to
- $$T(n) = c_1n + c_2(n-1) + c_4(n-1) + c_5 \sum_{j=2}^n j + c_6 \sum_{j=2}^n (j-1) + c_7 \sum_{j=2}^n (j-1) + c_8(n-1) = (c_5/2 + c_6/2 + c_7/2)n^2 + (c_1 + c_2 + c_4 + c_5/2 - c_6/2 - c_7/2 + c_8)n - (c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8).$$
- $T(n)$  is a quadratic function.



# Number of operations

## Example 4: Insertion sort : Average Case

- Average-case scenario: suppose that we draw  $n$  numbers from uniform distribution. Then, on average, half the elements in  $A[1, \dots, j-1]$  are less than  $A[j]$  and half are greater than  $A[j]$ . Thus, on average,  $t_j = j/2$ .
- I will leave it for you to compute. Hint:  $\sum_{j=2}^n j/2 = n(n+1)/4 - 1$  and  $\sum_{j=2}^n (j/2 - 1) = n(n-3)/4 + 1/2$
- $T(n)$  will be messier, but it will still be a quadratic function (similar to the worst case).

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# Asymptotic notation

## Overview

- Asymptotic notation (Bachmann-Landau notation) was invented by Paul Bachmann [2] (1894) and Edmund Landau [3] (1909).
- Describes limiting behaviour of a function when function's argument(s) tend toward particular value (e.g., infinity).
- We will use it to simplify  $T(n)$ .

# Asymptotic notation

## Pronunciation

$\Theta(g(n))$  big-theta of g of n (sometimes theta of g of n)

$O(g(n))$  big-oh of g of n (sometimes oh of g of n)

$o(g(n))$  little-oh of g of n

$\Omega(g(n))$  big-omega of g of n (sometimes omega of g of n)

$\omega(g(n))$  little-omega of g of n

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# $\Theta$ -notation

- For a given function  $g(n)$  we denote a set of functions  $\Theta(g(n))$  such that
  - $\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \exists c_1, c_2, n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq c_1g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}$ .
- $f(n)$  belongs to  $\Theta(g(n))$  if it can be “sandwiched” between  $c_1g(n)$  and  $c_2g(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ .

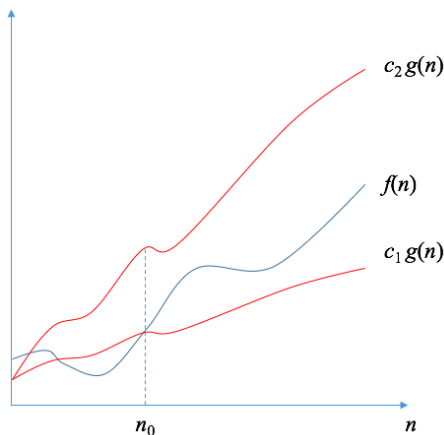


Figure: Graphic example of  $\Theta$ -notation

# $\Theta$ -notation

- $f(n)$  belongs to  $\Theta(g(n))$  if it can be “sandwiched” between  $c_1g(n)$  and  $c_2g(n)$  for all  $n \geq n_0$ .
- That is  $f(n)$  is equal to  $g(n)$  within a constant factor.
- The fancy term for this is that  $g(n)$  is an **asymptotically tight bound** for  $f(n)$ .

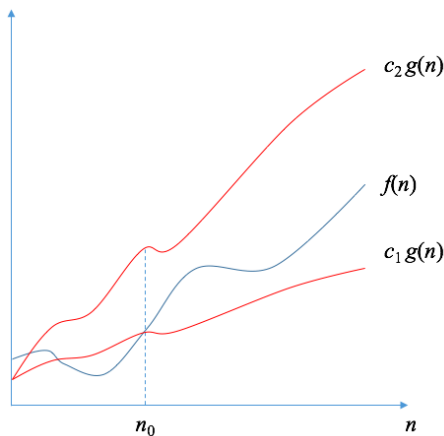


Figure: Graphic example of  $\Theta$ -notation

# $\Theta$ -notation

- We can say that  $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ , to indicate that  $f(n)$  is a member of  $\Theta(g(n))$ . Instead, we usually write  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$
- Note that the definition of  $\Theta(g(n))$  requires that every member of the, i.e.  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$  be **asymptotically non-negative** for sufficiently large  $n$ . This assumption holds for other notations discussed below.

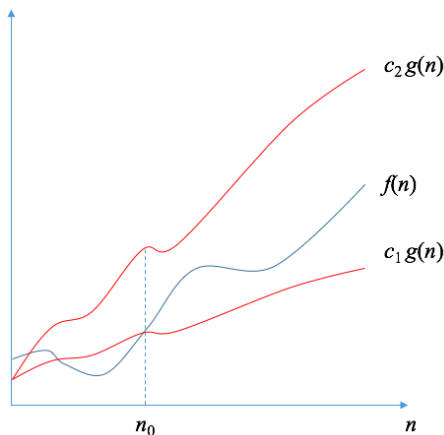


Figure: Graphic example of  $\Theta$ -notation



## Common growth functions

- $\Theta(1)$  – constant ( $n^0 = 1$ )
- $\Theta(\log(n))$  – logarithmic
- $\Theta(n)$  – linear
- $\Theta(n^2)$  – quadratic
- $\Theta(c^n)$  – exponential ( $c > 1$ )
- $\Theta(n!)$  – factorial

Note that  $\cdot$  in  $\Theta(\cdot)$  is used in other notations.

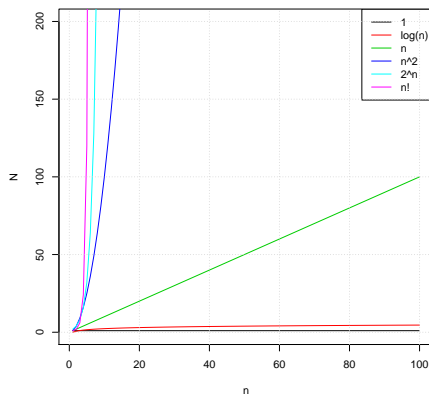


Figure: Number of operations  $N$  vs. input size  $n$ .

# $\Theta$ -notation

## Example

Show that  $n^2/3 - 3n = \Theta(n^2)$ . We need to compute positive constants  $c_1, c_2, n_0$  (if they exist), such that

$$c_1 n^2 \leq n^2/3 - 3n \leq c_2 n^2, \forall n \geq n_0.$$

Note that we have undetermined system of equations: three unknowns and two equations – will need to “pinpoint” one of the constants. Dividing by  $n^2$  yields

$$c_1 \leq 1/3 - 3/n \leq c_2.$$

Let's pick  $n_0 = 10$ , then

$$c_1 \leq 1/30 \leq c_2.$$

E.g., we can set  $c_1$  to  $1/31$  and  $c_2$  to  $1/29$  for the inequalities to hold. Obviously, other choices of the constants exist.

# $\Theta$ -notation

## Examples

- Let us look at complexity of a simple for-loop discussed in slide 6:
  - $T(n) = (c_2 + c_3)n + (c_1 + c_2) = \Theta(n)$ .
- And for nested loop (discussed in slide 8):
  - $T(n) = (c_3 + c_4)n^2 + (c_2 + c_3)n + (c_1 + c_2) = \Theta(n^2)$ .
- If multiple variables are involved (as in the nested for-loop, controlled by  $m$  and  $n$ , as shown in slide 9), we have to be careful to understand the growth rate of each variable involved in the equation. In the simplest case, as  $m, n \rightarrow \infty$ :
  - $T(n, m) = (c_3 + c_4)nm + (c_2 + c_3)n + (c_1 + c_2) \stackrel{m, n \rightarrow \infty}{=} \Theta(nm)$ .

- Finally, for the sorting example given in slides 12-onward:

- Best case:

$$T(n) = (c_1 + c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8)n + (c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8) = \Theta(n).$$

- Average case:

$$T(n) = \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\text{...}} = \Theta(n^2).$$

And here goes the formula that you computed on slide 17

- Worst case:  $T(n) = (c_5/2 + c_6/2 + c_7/2)n^2 + (c_1 + c_2 + c_4 + c_5/2 - c_6/2 - c_7/2 + c_8)n - (c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8) = \Theta(n^2).$

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# $O$ -notation

- For a given function  $g(n)$  we denote a set of functions  $O(g(n))$  such that
  - $O(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \exists c, n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}$ .
- $O$ -notation gives upper bound of the function, while  $\Theta$ -notation gives both upper and lower bound.
- $O$  stands for 'Ordnung' in  $[2, 3]$  (German for order).

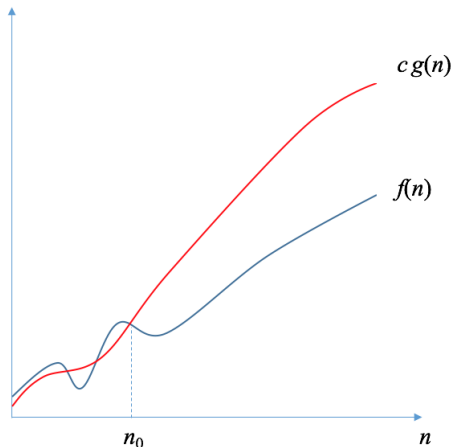


Figure: Graphic example of  $O$ -notation

# $O$ -notation

- Note that  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  implies that  $f(n) = O(g(n))$ , i.e.,  $\Theta(g(n)) \subseteq O(g(n))$ .
- Often,  $O$ -notation provide an upper bound, without claiming that it is asymptotically tight [1]. For example, we can say that  $n = O(n^2)$  (or even that  $n = O(n^{100})$ ) even though  $O(n)$  would have been a tighter bound.

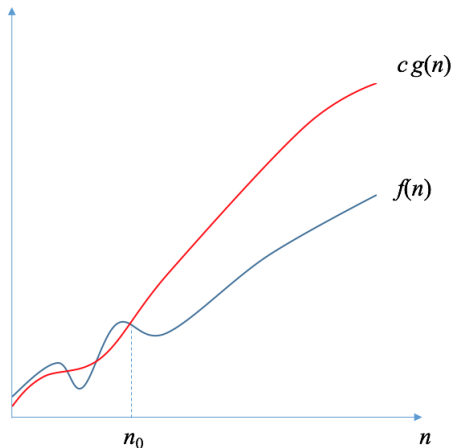


Figure: Graphic example of  $O$ -notation

- Remember our insertion sort (slides 12-onward), where best-case scenario was  $\Theta(n)$  and worst-case was  $\Theta(n^2)$ ?
- Since,  $\Theta(g(n)) \supseteq O(g(n))$ ,  $O(n^2)$  gives upper bound on the worst-case insertion sort.
- Colloquially, we say that “running time of insertion sort is  $O(n^2)$ ”. We are abusing the terminology here, as run time order will vary with input for a given  $n$ . What we typically mean by this statement is that the worst-case run time is  $O(n^2)$ .



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- For a given function  $g(n)$  we denote a set of functions  $\Omega(g(n))$  such that
  - $\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \exists c, n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}$ .
- $\Omega$ -notation gives asymptotic lower bound of the function.

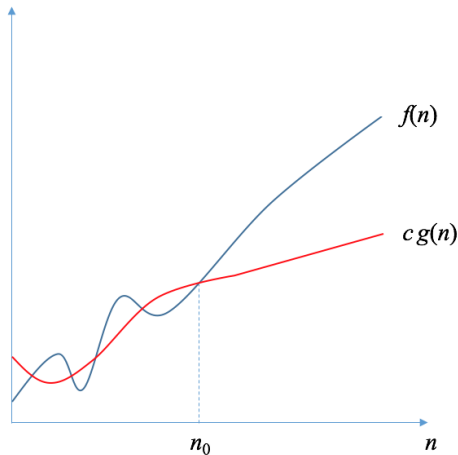


Figure: Graphic example of  $\Omega$ -notation

## Theorem

*For any two functions  $f(n)$  and  $g(n)$ , we have  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  if and only if  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ .*

- We say that running time of an algorithm is  $\Omega(g(n))$  meaning that running time is at least  $g(n)$  units of time (multiplied by some constant) for sufficiently large  $n$ .
- Essentially, we are looking at the best-case scenario. In the case of our insertion sort best case was bounded by  $\Theta(n)$ , thus lower bound for insertion sort  $\Omega(n)$ .
- However, we can say that the **worst-case** running time for the insertion sort is  $\Omega(n^2)$ , since there does exist an input that will cause the algorithm to use  $\Omega(n^2)$  time.

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- For a given function  $g(n)$  we denote a set of functions  $o(g(n))$  such that
  - $o(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{for any positive constant } c > 0, \text{ there exists } n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq f(n) \leq cg(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}$ .
- Upper bound provided by  $O$ -notation may or may not be asymptotically tight. However,  $o$ -notation denotes upper bound that is **not asymptotically tight**.
- We can say that  $2n = O(n)$  and  $2n = O(n^2)$ .
  - The former is asymptotically tight, the latter is not.
- However,  $2n \neq o(n)$  and  $2n = o(n^2)$ .

Question:

Why  $2n \neq o(n)$ ?

- Given that  $f(n) < g(n)$  (for  $n > n_0$ ) we can say that

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

- This ratio is often used as a definition of  $o$ -notation.

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- For a given function  $g(n)$  we denote a set of functions  $o(g(n))$  such that
  - $o(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{for any positive constant } c > 0, \text{ there exists } n_0 > 0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq cg(n) \leq f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}.$
- Lower bound provided by  $\Omega$ -notation may or may not be asymptotically tight. However,  $\omega$ -notation denotes lower bound that is **not asymptotically tight**.
- We can say that  $2n^2 = \Omega(n^2)$  and  $2n^2 = \Omega(n)$ .
  - The former is asymptotically tight, the latter is not.
- However,  $2n^2 \neq \omega(n^2)$  and  $2n^2 = \omega(n)$ .

Question:

Why  $2n^2 \neq \omega(n^2)$ ?

- Given that  $f(n) > g(n)$  (for  $n > n_0$ ) we can say that

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

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# Amount of memory

Example 3: nested for-loop with two 'control' variables

Consider example from slide 9

Line	Pseudo code
1	$k = 0$
2	for $i = 1$ to $n$
3	for $j = 1$ to $m$
4	$k = k + i + j$

- We have scalar variables  $k, i, j, n, m$ , each one consuming fixed amount of spaces.
- Thus, memory consumption will look like
- $$M(n) = \underbrace{c_1}_k + \underbrace{c_2}_i + \underbrace{c_3}_j + \underbrace{c_4}_n + \underbrace{c_5}_m = \Theta(1)$$

# Amount of memory I

## Example 4: insertion sort

Consider example from slide 12

Line	Pseudo code
1	for $j = 2$ to $n$
2	$key = A[j]$
3	// Insert $A[j]$ into $A[1, \dots, j - 1]$
4	$i = j - 1$
5	while $i > 0$ and $A[i] > key$
6	$A[i + 1] = A[i]$
7	$i = i - 1$
8	$A[i + 1] = key$

# Amount of memory II

## Example 4: insertion sort

- We have scalar variables  $i, j, n, key$  each one consuming fixed amount of spaces and a data structure storing vector  $A$  (can be implemented using array, linked list, etc.).
- Thus, memory consumption will look like
- $$M(n) = \underbrace{c_1}_i + \underbrace{c_2}_j + \underbrace{c_3}_n + \underbrace{c_4}_{key} + \underbrace{c_5 n}_A = \Theta(n)$$

# Outline

- 1 Analyzing algorithms: time complexity
  - Simple for-loop
  - Simple nested for-loops
  - Simple sorting problem
- 2 Asymptotic notation
  - Overview
  - $\Theta$ -notation
  - $O$ -notation
  - $\Omega$ -notation
  - $o$ -notation
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- 3 Analyzing algorithms: space complexity
  - Examples
- 4 Asymptotic notation and practice
  - Examples

# Asymptotic notation and small $n$

- For small values of  $n$  with modern hardware the difference between algorithms is often negligible [4]. E.g., consider linear search, where in the worst-case scenario you have to scan through the whole array to find an element of interest.
- Depending on the implementation details, we can scan 700,000 and 45,000,000 elements (and that's without parallelism) in less than 200ms [4]. That's between 3MB and 172MB of data (assuming we are searching in array of 32-bit integers).
  - 200ms is perceived as instantaneous by human brain [4].



# CPU layout

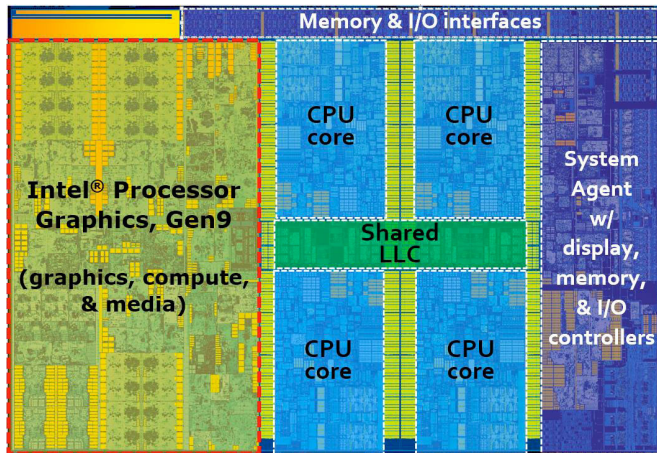


Figure: Intel Skylake die (taken from [5]).

LLC stands for Last Level Cache, (typically L3).

# CPU Cache

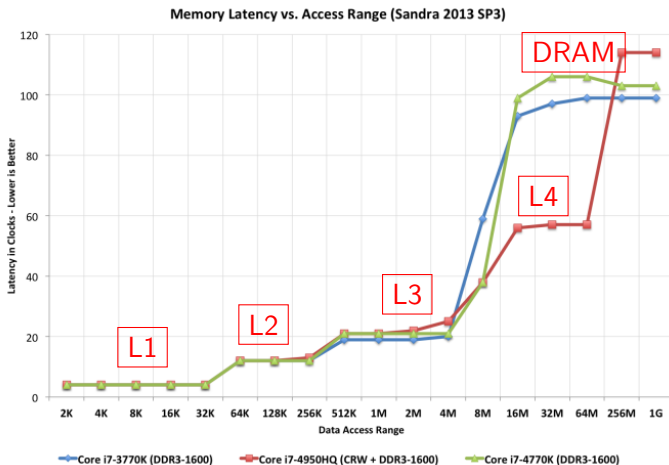


Figure: Memory latency (taken from [6]).

# Coefficients matter! I

When it comes to implementation...

- Modern CPUs can do a lot of computations per second. 3GHz CPU does  $3 \times 10^9$  cycles per second per core.
  - For simplicity, let's ignore number of instructions per cycle, number of instructions per second, etc.
- CPU manufacturers are working very hard to move the data into cache proactively, so that CPUs do not have to idle [7].

# Coefficients matter! II

When it comes to implementation...

- Consider two algorithms: one  $O(n)$  another  $O(n \log(n))$ . For small  $n$   $O(n) > O(n \log(n))$  and for large  $n$  it's the opposite. Let us quantify the terms 'small' and 'large'.
- This is where the cost of operations  $c_i$  becomes important.
- Assume that the  $O(n)$  algorithm designed or implemented in such a way that it leads to frequent L3 cache misses leading to waste of  $\approx 40$  CPU cycles per every operation [7]. Also assume that  $O(n \log(n))$  algorithm has no cache misses. Then:
  - $40n > n \log(n) \Rightarrow n < 2^{40} = 1 \text{ trillion}$ .
    - We assume that  $\log(n)$  is the binary logarithm  $\log_2(n)$ .
    - That is  $O(n)$  will prevail only when  $n > 2^{40}$ .
- And what happens if we constantly have to go to DRAM? Then it's 100 to 200 cycles [7], and  $2^{100}$  is a very big number.
  - Far greater than any massive data we are dealing with now...

# Coefficients matter! III

When it comes to implementation...

- Of course, if the workload is I/O-bound, then cache misses become the least of your problems, but in many cases we can load significant chunks of data into memory for faster processing.

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# References I

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