

# Analysis of Algorithms: time & space

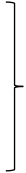


# Today..

- Why 'Time Limit Exceeded'?
- How to know your code will work in time?
- Why 'Memory Limit Exceeded'?
- How to know your code will not exceed memory?

# Why 'Time Limit Exceeded'?

- ..because your code was too slow than the intended solution.
- Several possible reasons:
  - Your code has a bug.
  - Your algorithm is too slow than the intended solution.
- We should find an sufficiently fast algorithm.

# How to know your algorithm will work in time?

- Simple: implement your algorithm and run the code.
  - However, it would be *better* if we can **estimate** the running time of the algorithm..
  - Lots of things give influence on running time:
    - Hardware (CPU speed / # of cores / ..) 
    - Compiler optimization
    - Input / Output size 
    - Your algorithm 
    - ...
1. We can't control these..  
2. Differs by a factor
- Proportional to the input/output size
- Depends on your algorithm!**

# How to measure efficiency of an algorithm?

- From now, we assume the running time *only* depends on your algorithm!
- Of course, the running time of an algorithm depends on the ***input size  $n$*** .
- We cannot measure the exact running time, since we don't 'run' the algorithm.
- Instead, let's try to count the number of steps in the algorithm.

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm.

- Example problem:
  - Given an initial value  $a$  and common ratio  $r$ ,
  - Calculate the sum of the first  $n$  terms of the geometric progression.
  - i.e. Calculate  $a + ar + ar^2 + \dots + ar^{n-1} = \sum_{i=1}^n ar^{i-1}$ .
- For now, we are going to consider only algorithms, not on how to implement it.

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- Algorithm 1.

1. Make a variable *sum* with initial value 0, which stores the answer.

# of steps

+1

2. Consider all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ :

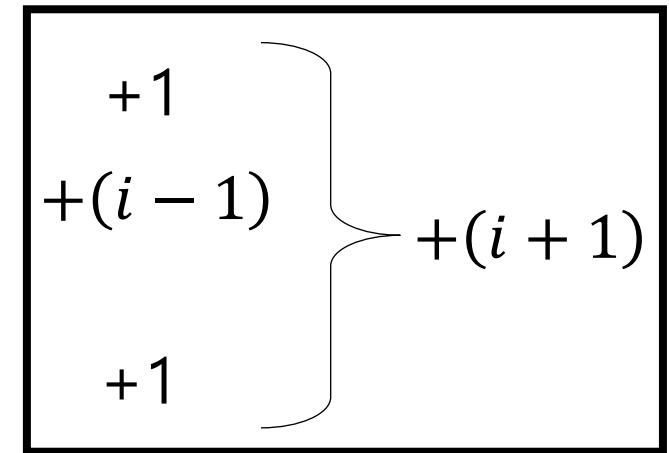
1. Make a variable *x* with initial value *a*.

2. Repeat  $i - 1$  times:

1. Multiply *r* to *x*.

3. Add *x* to *sum*.

- So Algorithm 1 needs  $\frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} + 1 = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{3}{2}n + 2$  steps.



$$\sum_{i=1}^n (i+1) = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$$

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- Algorithm 2.

# of steps

1. Make a variable *sum* with initial value 0, which stores the answer.

+1

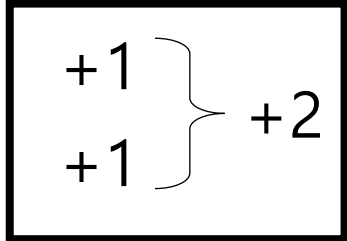
2. Make a variable *x* with initial value *a*.

+1

3. Consider all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ :

1. Add *x* to *sum*.

2. Multiply *x* by *r*.


$$\sum_{i=1}^n 2 = 2n$$

- So Algorithm 2 needs  $1 + 1 + 2n = 2n + 2$  steps.



# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- Algorithm 3:
- Use this formula:

$$a + ar^2 + \dots + ar^{n-1} = \begin{cases} \frac{a(r^n - 1)}{r - 1}, & r \neq 1 \\ a \cdot n, & r = 1 \end{cases}$$

- ..because we can calculate  $r^n$  very fast. How?

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- Algorithm 3:
- How to calculate  $r^n$  much faster (for computers)
  1. Calculate  $r^1, r^2, r^4, \dots, r^{2^k}$  first.
    - ..by  $r^1 = r, r^2 = (r^1)^2, r^4 = (r^2)^2, \dots, r^{2^k} = (r^{2^{k-1}})^2$ .
  2. Write  $n$  by binary representation.
    - Ex)  $19 = 2^4 + 2^1 + 2^0$
  3. Multiply some precalculated values according to the binary representation.
    - Ex)  $r^{19} = r^{2^4} \cdot r^{2^1} \cdot r^{2^0}$

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- Algorithm 3:
- How to calculate  $r^n$  much faster (for computers) (cont.)

- If we were to calculate  $r^{19} = r^{16+2+1}$ ,

- The naïve method needs 18 multiplications:

$$r \times r = r^2, r^2 \times r = r^3, r^3 \times r = r^4, \dots, r^{18} \times r = r^{19}$$

- However, this algorithm requires only 6 multiplications.

$$r \times r = r^2, r^2 \times r^2 = r^4, r^4 \times r^4 = r^8, r^8 \times r^8 = r^{16}$$

$$r^1 \times r^2 = r^3, r^3 \times r^{16} = r^{19}$$

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- Algorithm 3:

1. Make a variable  $sum$ , which stores the answer.
2. If  $r = 1$ , the answer is  $a \cdot n$ . So store  $a \cdot n$  in  $sum$ .
3. Otherwise,
  1. Make an array  $P[0..\lfloor \log n \rfloor]$ , which will store the powers of  $r$ . ( $P[i]$  stores  $r^{2^i}$ )
  2. Store  $r$  in  $P[0]$ .
  3. Consider all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$ :
    1. Store  $P[i-1] \times P[i-1]$  in  $P[i]$ .

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- Algorithm 3: (cont.)

4. Make a variable  $prod$ , which will store  $r^n$ .
5. Consider all  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$ :
  1. If  $2^i$  is in the binary representation, update  $prod$  to  $prod \cdot P[i]$ .
6. Store  $\frac{a \cdot (prod - 1)}{r - 1}$  in  $sum$ .

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- Algorithm 3: # of steps
  1. Make a variable  $sum$ , which stores the answer. +1
  2. If  $r = 1$ , the answer is  $a \cdot n$ . So store  $a \cdot n$  in  $sum$ . +1
  3. Otherwise,
    1. Make an array  $P[0..\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor]$ , which will store the powers of  $r$ . + $\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 1$   
( $P[i]$  stores  $r^{2^i}$ )
    2. Store  $r$  in  $P[0]$ . +1
    3. Consider all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$ :
      1. Store  $P[i - 1] \times P[i - 1]$  in  $P[i]$ . + $\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- Algorithm 3: (cont.)

4. Make a variable  $prod$ , which will store  $r^n$ .

**# of steps**

+1

5. Consider all  $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$ :

1. If  $2^i$  is in the binary representation, update  $prod$  to  $prod \cdot P[i]$ .

+ $\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$

6. Store  $\frac{a \cdot (prod - 1)}{r - 1}$  in  $sum$ .

+1

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- Algorithm 3: (cont.)

1. +1
2. If  $r = 1$ , ...: +1
3. Otherwise,
  1.  $+ \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor + 1$
  2. +1
  3.  $+ \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$
  4. +1
  5.  $+ \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$
  6. +1

So, Algorithm 3 needs

- 2 steps if  $r = 1$ ,
- $6 + 3 \lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$  steps if  $r \neq 1$ .



# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

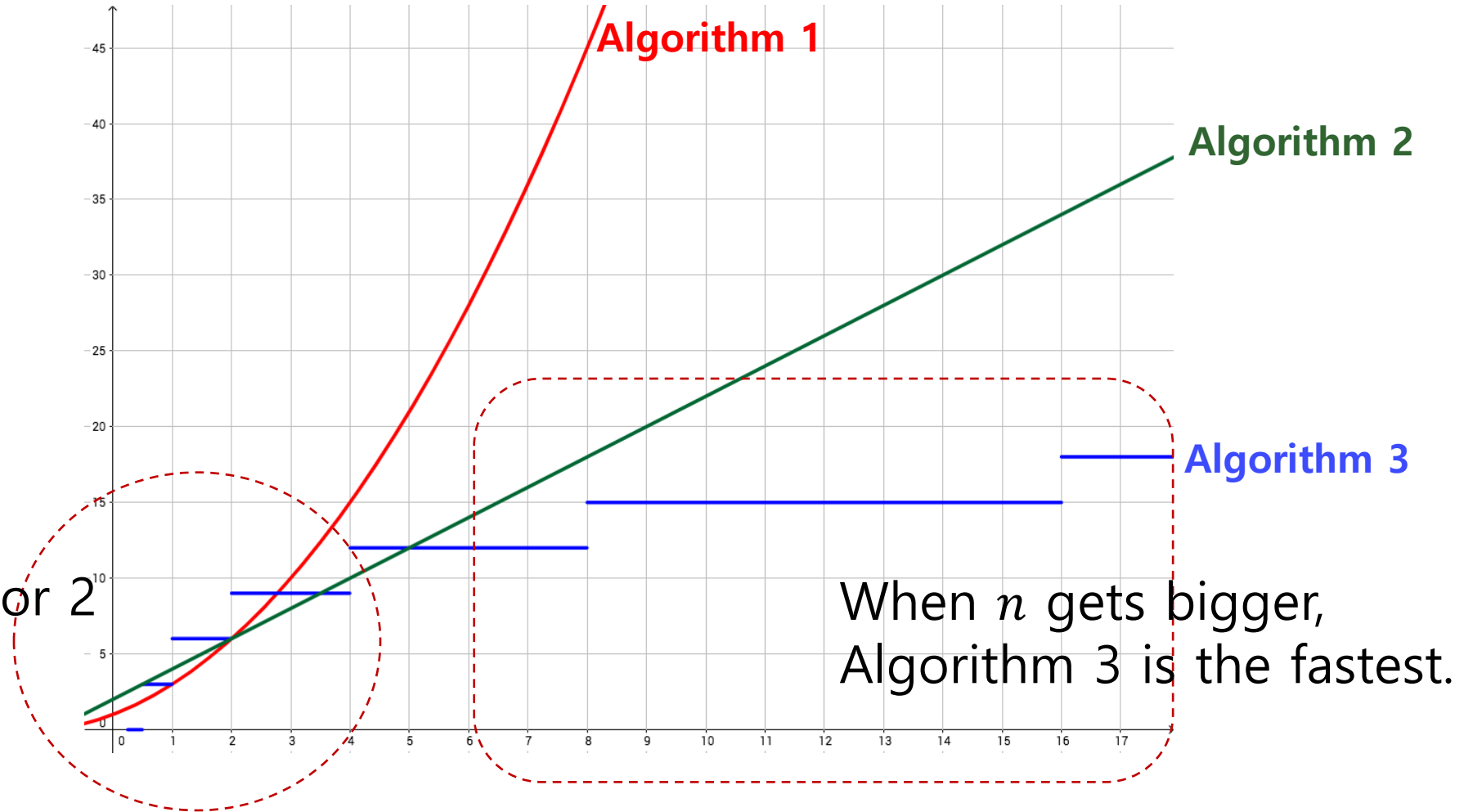
- # of steps of three given algorithms:
  - Algorithm 1:  $\frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{3}{2}n + 2$  steps
  - Algorithm 2:  $2n + 2$  steps
  - Algorithm 3: 2 steps if  $r = 1$ ,  $6 + 3\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$  steps if  $r \neq 1$ .
  - Like this, sometimes the *number of steps* changes by the condition of the input.
  - We need to assure that the algorithm will run in time for **every possible input**, so we usually take the **worst** case. (i.e. slower, with more steps)

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

- # of steps of three given algorithms:
  - Algorithm 1:  $\frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{3}{2}n + 2$  steps
  - Algorithm 2:  $2n + 2$  steps
  - Algorithm 3:  $6 + 3\lfloor \log_2 n \rfloor$  steps
- The # of steps depends on  $n$ , the input size.
- To compare, let's plot a graph.

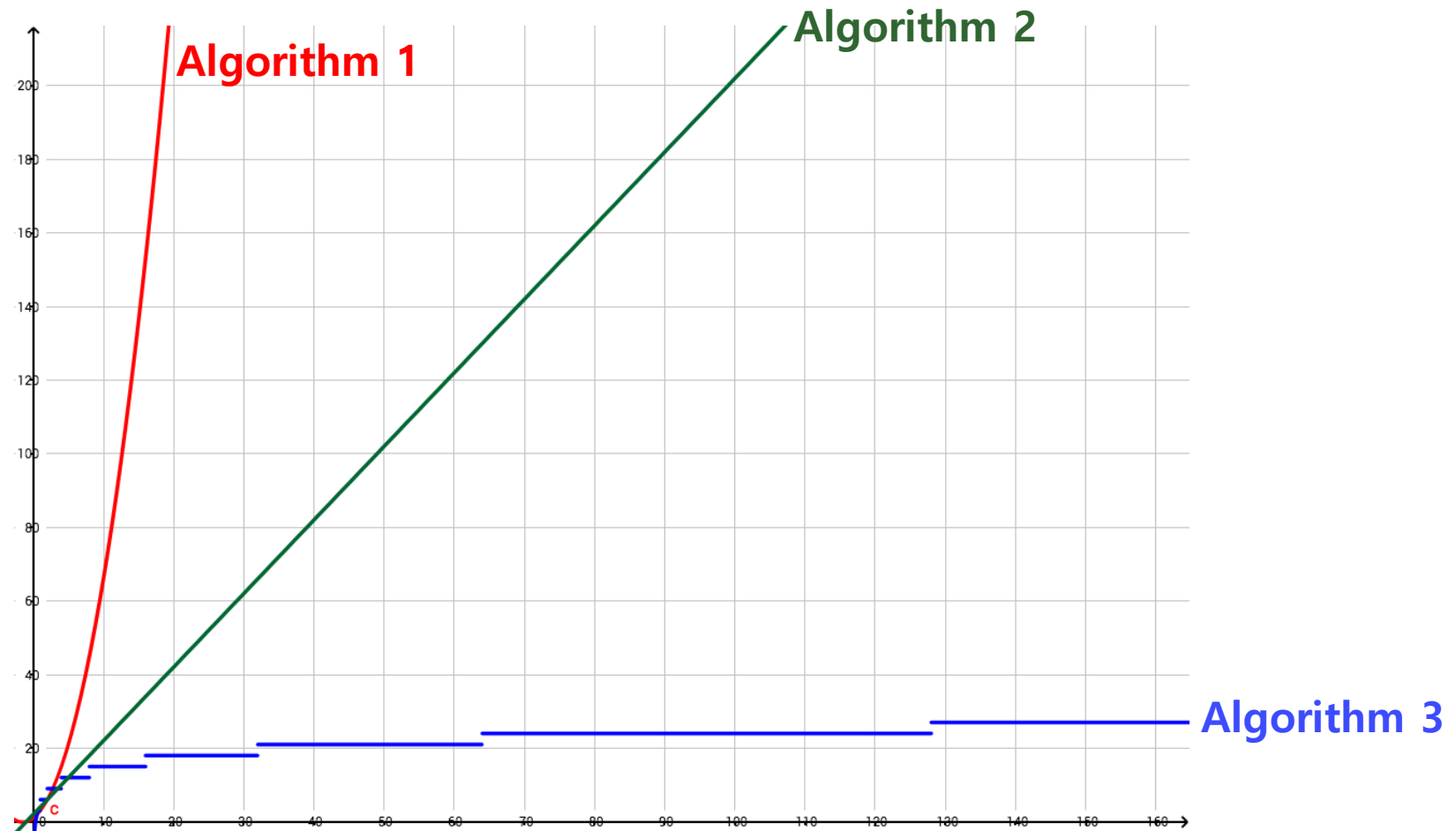
# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)

For small  $n$ ,  
Algorithm 1 or 2  
is faster.



When  $n$  gets bigger,  
Algorithm 3 is the fastest.

# Counting the number of steps of an algorithm. (cont.)



# Is 'Step' analysis good enough?

- The 'step' analysis I've given to you have flaws:
  1. We didn't define what a "step" is.
  2. We didn't count some operations like "Consider all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ", because we don't know what "step" means.
  3. We assumed all 'steps' take the same time.
    - Obviously, calculating  $\frac{a \cdot (prod-1)}{r-1}$  takes more time than calculating  $x \times r$ .

# Is 'Step' analysis good enough? (cont.)

- However, we could use this analysis because..
  1. This is not a 'rule' for exact running time.
  2. This can only *estimate* the running time *asymptotically*.
    - In other words, **we can be certain** that, for **large  $n$** , Algorithm 3 is the fastest among given algorithms.
  3. So we don't need to *define* the meaning of 'step', but we can introduce some criteria:
    - Good: Basic C++ operations like addition, multiplication, division, substitution, comparison, ...
    - Bad: Comparing two strings, computing the sum a sequence of size  $n$ , Sorting a sequence, ...

# Step analysis is too difficult

- However, still calculating the # of steps is ambiguous, boring and tired.
- So we are going to simplify by..
  1. Only considering the terms ***which increases fastest***.
  2. Removing all coefficients

# Simplifying 'step' analysis

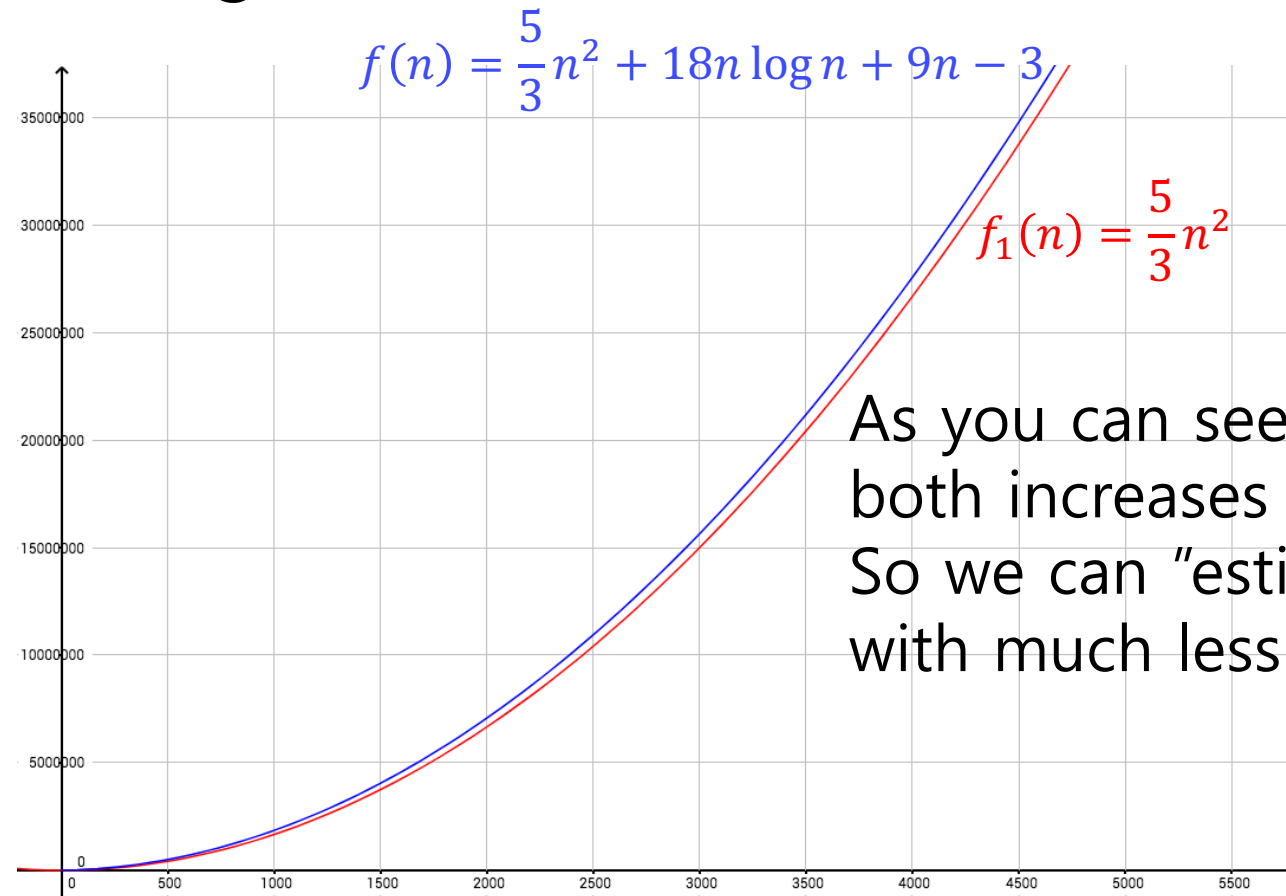
1. Only considering the terms ***which increases fastest***.

- Example:  $f(n) = \frac{5}{3}n^2 + 18n \log n + 9n - 3$
- By inspection we know  $\frac{5}{3}n^2$  increases most rapidly. So we just write  $f_1(n) = \frac{5}{3}n^2$ .
- We can do this because for ***large n***, even without smaller terms,  $f(n) \approx f_1(n)$ .
  - Of course the difference gets bigger as  $n$  increases, but..



# Simplifying 'step' analysis (cont.)

1. Only considering the terms ***which increases fastest***.



As you can see,  
both increases similarly,  
So we can "estimate"  $f$   
with much less terms.

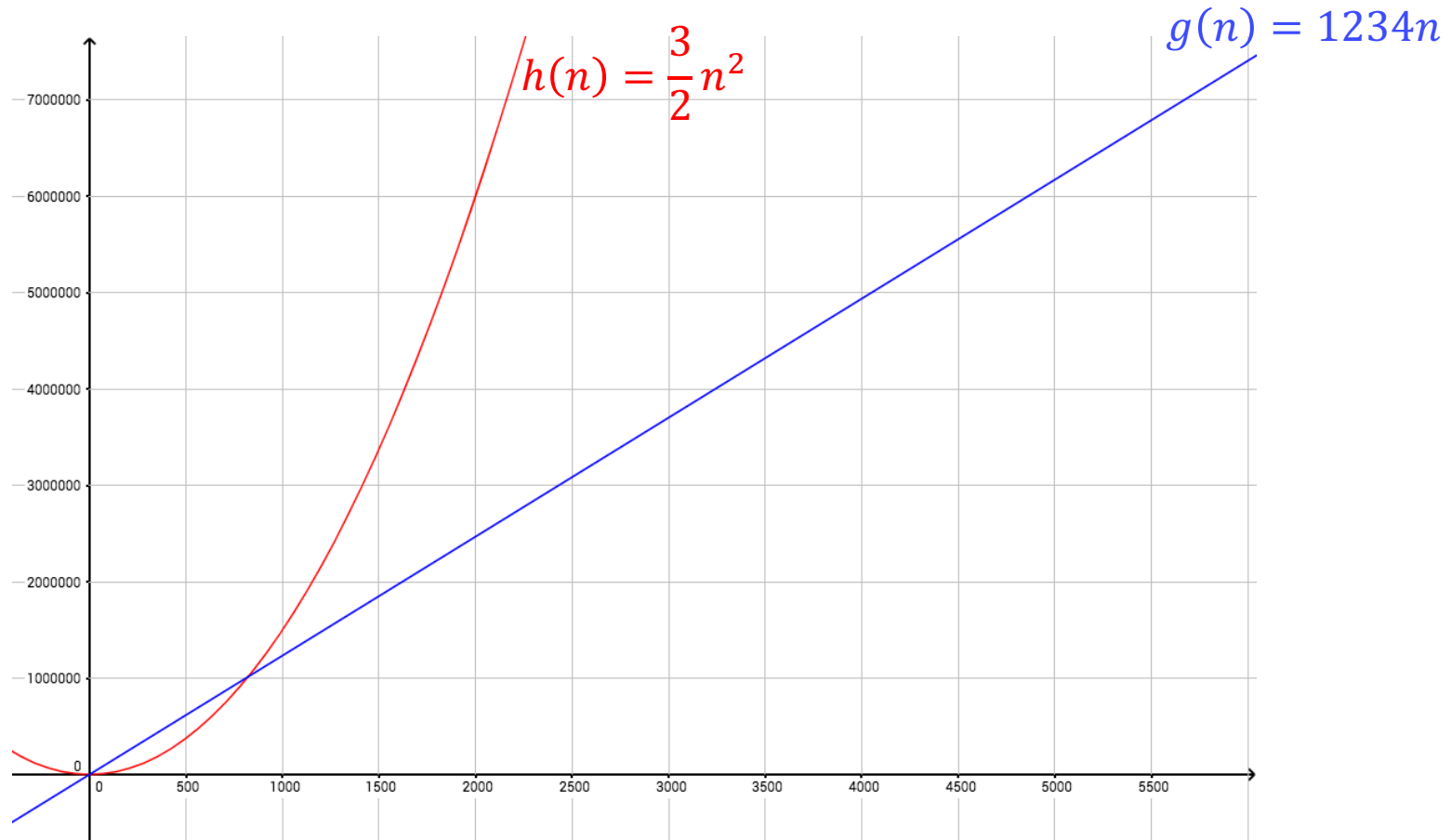
# Simplifying 'step' analysis (cont.)

## 2. Removing all coefficients

- We don't know how much time each step takes.
- Even if we know that, coefficients are not *that* important..
- Example:  $g(n) = 1234n$ ,  $h(n) = \frac{3}{2}n^2$ .
  - Because of big coefficient,  $g$  seems quite good. But..

# Simplifying 'step' analysis (cont.)

## 2. Removing all coefficients



# Simplifying 'step' analysis (cont.)

## 2. Removing all coefficients

- Eventually  $1234n$  is faster than  $\frac{3}{2}n^2$ .
- So why don't we just think  $n$  and  $n^2$  instead? Now we know which is faster by inspection.
- **HOWEVER**, this example implies that for some small inputs,  $\frac{3}{2}n^2$  **can be faster** than  $1234n$ . So we should be more careful when we handle *small inputs*.

# Big-oh notation

- This simplification can be written mathematically:

**DEFINITION** Let  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  be positive for  $x$  sufficiently large. Then  $f$  is **of at most the order of**  $g$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$  if there is a positive integer  $M$  for which

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \leq M,$$

for  $x$  sufficiently large. We indicate this by writing  $f = O(g)$  (“ $f$  is big-oh of  $g$ ”).

# Big-oh notation (cont.)

- Example:  $\frac{5}{3}n^2 + 18n \log n + 9n - 3 = O(n^2)$

- ..because: the limit

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{5}{3}n^2 + 18n \log n + 9n - 3}{n^2} = \frac{5}{3}$$

- exists, we can let  $M = 2$ .
- From this "limit" approach, we can only consider the term that has maximum degree.

# Big-oh notation (cont.)

- This gives the estimation of the ***upper bound*** of the running time.
- Example:  $\frac{7}{3}n + \log n - 5 = O(n^2)$ .  $n^2$  is also a possible *upper bound*.

**DEFINITION** Let  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  be positive for  $x$  sufficiently large. Then  $f$  is of **at most** the order of  $g$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$  if there is a positive integer  $M$  for which

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \leq M,$$

for  $x$  sufficiently large. We indicate this by writing  $f = O(g)$  (“ $f$  is big-oh of  $g$ ”).

# Big-oh notation (cont.)

- *Upper bound* should be as **low** as possible.
- So even though  $\frac{7}{3}n + \log n - 5 = O(n^2)$ , it is better to denote
$$\frac{7}{3}n + \log n - 5 = O(n)$$
- .. Since this is also true.



# Time complexity

- By these methods, we can write the *time complexity* of an algorithm using the *Big-Oh notation*.

$$f(n) = O(g(n))$$

- We can compare the efficiency of the algorithm by comparing  $g(n)$ .

# Comparing time complexities

- These are time complexities you will frequently encounter:
- $O(1) < O(\log n) \ll O(\sqrt{n}) < O(n) < O(n \log n) < O(n\sqrt{n}) < O(n^2) < O(n^3) < O(n^4) \ll O(2^n) < O(n \cdot 2^n) \ll\ll O(n!) \ll O(n^n) < \dots$
- **$O(1)$** : Running time is always the same regardless of input.
- **$O(2^n)$** : Running time is exponential to  $n$ .
- We don't write the base of the logarithm, since we can convert the base by multiplying a constant:  $\log_a x = \frac{1}{\log a} \log x$ .

# Comparing time complexities (cont.)

- Go back to the geometric progression:
  1. Algorithm 1:  $\frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{3}{2}n + 2 = O(n^2)$
  2. Algorithm 2:  $2n + 2 = O(n)$
  3. Algorithm 3:  $6 + 3\lceil \log_2 n \rceil = O(\log n)$
- So we can conclude Algorithm 3 is the best.

# How to know the time complexity?

- Only the *fastest increasing term* is important.
- As you've seen in examples, **loops** gives biggest influence on running time.
- If there are some **nested loops**, the deepest loop gives biggest influence. If there are many nested loops, consider the *most deepest* one.
- Try to focus on these "loops" on your algorithm, and find the time complexity *approximately*.

# How to know the time complexity? (cont.)

- Example: Algorithm 1 again

# of steps

1. Make a variable *sum* with initial value 0, which stores the answer.

+1

2. Consider all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ :

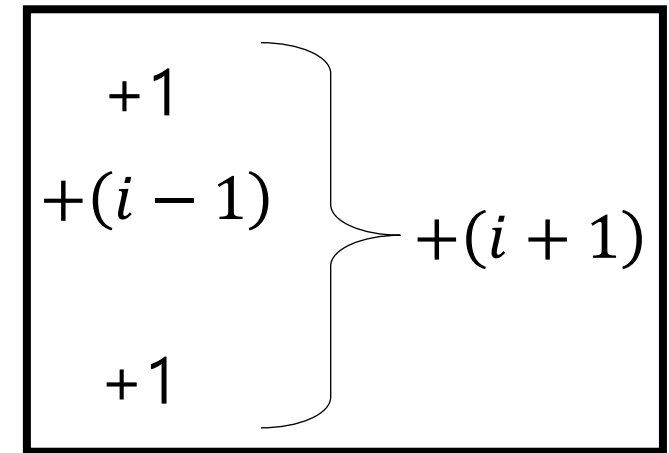
1. Make a variable *x* with initial value *a*.

2. Repeat  $i - 1$  times:

1. Multiply *r* to *x*.

3. Add *x* to *sum*.

- So Algorithm 1 needs  $\frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} + 1 = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{3}{2}n + 2$  steps.



$$\sum_{i=1}^n (i+1) = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$$

# How to know the time complexity? (cont.)

- Example: Algorithm 1 again

1. Make a variable *sum* with initial value 0, which stores the answer.

2. Consider all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ :

1. Make a variable *x* with initial value *a*.

2. Repeat  $i - 1$  times:

1. Multiply *r* to *x*.

3. Add *x* to *sum*.

**Nested loop!**

**We know  $\sum_{i=1}^n (i - 1) = O(n^2)$ .**

- So Algorithm 1 needs **The whole algorithm runs in  $O(n^2)$ .**  
 $\frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2} + 1 = \frac{1}{2}n^2 + \frac{3}{2}n + 2$  steps.

# Then, how to estimate whether my program will run in time?

- Suppose you've got the time complexity in Big-Oh notation.
- **1e8 Rule** (not formal, made about 10 years ago):
  - Suppose 1 sec  $\approx 10^8$  (100 million) in Big-Oh notation.
- $O(1)$  algorithm will always work regardless of input size.
- $O(n)$  algorithm will work in 1 sec if  $n \leq 10^8$ .
- $O(n \log n)$  algorithm will work in 1 sec if  $n \leq 4523071$ .
- $O(n^2)$  algorithm will work in 1 sec if  $n \leq 10^4$ .

# Then, how to estimate whether my program will run in time? (cont.)

- Substitute the maximum  $n$  into the time complexity, and check whether it exceeds  $10^8$ .
  - There is a problem with constraint  $n \leq 5,000$ .
  - You've come up with an  $O(n^2)$  algorithm.
  - $5,000^2 = 25,000,000 \ll 10^8$ .
  - So you are confident that your algorithm will work in time.



# Then, how to estimate whether my program will run in time? (cont.)

Time complexity	Max $n$ to work in 1 sec.
$O(1)$	No condition
$O(\log n)$	$2^{10^8}$
$O(\sqrt{n})$	$10^{16}$
$O(n)$	$10^8$
$O(n \log n)$	4523071
$O(n^2)$	10,000
$O(n^3)$	464
$O(n^4)$	100
$O(2^n)$	26
$O(n!)$	11
$O(n^n)$	8

# Then, how to estimate whether my program will run in time? (cont.)

- **CAUTION:** The 1e8 rule is not a “rule of thumb”. You should not underrate or overrate your algorithm.
  - Example: There is a problem with constraint  $n \leq 20,000$ .
  - You’ve come up with a  $O(n^2)$  solution.
  - $20,000^2 = 4 \times 10^8 > 10^8$ , so you think it might won’t work in 1 sec.
  - However, it turned out that your algorithm uses only simple operations, and it actually worked!
  - This is because the “1e8 rule” doesn’t consider the cost of operations, CPU, ...

# Then, how to estimate whether my program will run in time? (cont.)

- You should use this rule like this:
  - Example: There is a problem with constraint  $n \leq 1,000,000$ .
  - You've come up with a  $O(n^3)$  solution.
  - $1,000,000^3 = 10^{18} \gggg 10^6$ , so this algorithm won't work.
  - We can be sure the algorithm won't work because factor like  $10^{12}$  is very hard to reach by optimizations.

# Why 'Memory Limit Exceeded'?

- ..because your code needed much more memory than the given limit (256MiB).
- Several possible reasons:
  - You made lots of arrays.
  - Your code has a bug. (Allocated memory in an infinite loop?)
- However, generally, we can calculate the memory used.

# How to know the memory usage?

- If you implemented your algorithm into a C++ code,
- ..there is an operator called **sizeof**!
- **sizeof**(A) gives the number of bytes used by A.

```
int a[5050][1203];
```

```
int b[5050];
```

```
...
```

```
printf("%lu\n", sizeof(a) + sizeof(b));
```

```
// Result: 24320800
```

- You can add all sizes of arrays that you used, and see whether it exceeds 268435456 ( $256 \times 1024 \times 1024$ ) bytes.

# How to know the memory usage? (cont.)

- However, you cannot use this method if:
  - You didn't code
  - Your algorithm uses pointers.
- Then, you need to calculate your memory. Actually it is easy, and sometimes you can *explicitly* (not *approximately*!) "calculate" the memory.

# How to know the memory usage? (cont.)

- Example: Suppose you need two  $n \times n$  `int`-type arrays. How much bytes are needed?
  - Since one `int` takes 4 bytes, an  $n \times n$  `int`-type array takes  $4n^2$  bytes.
  - We need  $8n^2$  bytes for two  $n \times n$  `int`-type arrays.
  - If  $n = 1000$ , we need 8,000,000 bytes.
- If you didn't know one `int` takes 4 bytes, you can print `sizeof(int)` and check. You can do the same for other types.

```
printf( "%lu\n", sizeof(int) );
```