

EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT
EFFICIENT ALGORITHMS \$EFFICIENT

1

Machines & Models

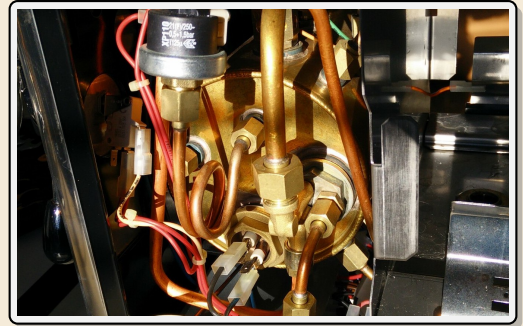
3 October 2022

Sebastian Wild

Learning Outcomes

1. Understand the difference between empirical *running time* and algorithm *analysis*.
2. Understand *worst / best / average case* models for input data.
3. Know the *RAM machine* model.
4. Know the definitions of *asymptotic notation* (Big-Oh classes and relatives).
5. Understand the reasons to make *asymptotic approximations*.
6. Be able to *analyze* simple *algorithms*.

Unit 1: *Machines & Models*



Outline

1 Machines & Models

- 1.1 Algorithm analysis
- 1.2 The RAM Model
- 1.3 Asymptotics & Big-Oh

What is an algorithm?

An algorithm is a sequence of instructions.

think: recipe

e. g. Python script

More precisely:

1. mechanically executable
 \rightsquigarrow no “common sense” needed
2. finite description \neq finite computation!
3. solves a *problem*, i. e., a class of problem instances

$x + y$, not only $17 + 4$

► input-processing-output abstraction



Typical example: *bubblesort*

\rightsquigarrow not a specific program
but the underlying idea

What is a data structure?

A data structure is

1. a rule for encoding data (in computer memory), plus
2. algorithms to work with it (queries, updates, etc.)

typical example: binary search tree



1.1 Algorithm analysis

Good algorithms

Our goal: Find good (best?) algorithms and data structures for a task.

Good “usually” means

can be complicated in distributed systems

- ▶ fast running *time*
- ▶ moderate memory *space* usage

Algorithm analysis is a way to

- ▶ compare different algorithms,
- ▶ predict their performance in an application

Running time experiments

Why not simply run and time it?

- ▶ results only apply to
 - ▶ single *test* machine
 - ▶ tested inputs
 - ▶ tested implementation
 - ▶ ...
- ≠ *universal truths*



- ▶ instead: consider and analyze algorithms on an abstract machine
 - ↪ provable statements for model
 - ↪ testable model hypotheses

survives Pentium 4

↪ Need precise model of machine (costs), input data and algorithms.

Data Models

Algorithm analysis typically uses one of the following simple data models:

- ▶ **worst-case performance:**
consider the *worst* of all inputs as our cost metric
- ▶ **best-case performance:**
consider the *best* of all inputs as our cost metric
- ▶ **average-case performance:**
consider the average/expectation of a *random* input as our cost metric

Usually, we apply the above for *inputs of same size n* .

↪ performance is only a **function of n** .

1.2 The RAM Model

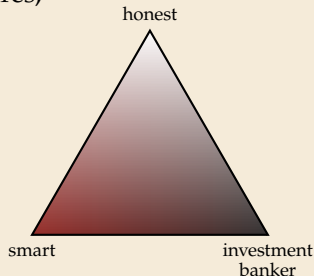
Machine models

The machine model decides

- ▶ what algorithms are possible
- ▶ how they are described (= programming language)
- ▶ what an execution *costs*

Goal: Machine model should be detailed and powerful enough to reflect actual machines, abstract enough to unify architectures, simple enough to analyze.

↪ usually some compromise is needed



Random Access Machines

Random access machine (RAM)

more detail in §2.2 of *Sequential and Parallel Algorithms and Data Structures*
by Sanders, Mehlhorn, Dietzfelbinger, Dementiev

- ▶ unlimited *memory* $\text{MEM}[0], \text{MEM}[1], \text{MEM}[2], \dots$
 - ▶ fixed number of *registers* R_1, \dots, R_r (say $r = 100$)
 - ▶ memory cells $\text{MEM}[i]$ and registers R_i store w -bit integers, i. e., numbers in $[0..2^w - 1]$
 w is the word width/size; typically $w \propto \lg n$ $\rightsquigarrow 2^w \approx n$
 - ▶ Instructions:
 - ▶ load & store: $R_i := \text{MEM}[R_j]$ $\text{MEM}[R_j] := R_i$
 - ▶ operations on registers: $R_k := R_i + R_j$ (arithmetic is *modulo* 2^w !)
also $R_i - R_j, R_i \cdot R_j, R_i \text{ div } R_j, R_i \bmod R_j$
C-style operations (bitwise and/or/xor, left/right shift)
 - ▶ conditional and unconditional jumps
 - ▶ cost: number of executed instructions
- \rightsquigarrow The RAM is the standard model for sequential computation.

\swarrow we will see further models later

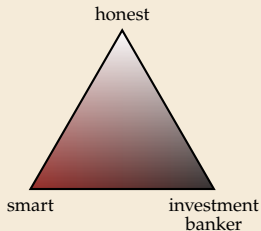
Pseudocode

- ▶ Programs for the random-access machine are very low level and detailed
≈ assembly/machine language

Typical simplifications when describing and analyzing algorithms:

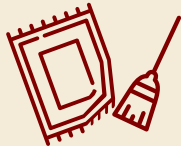
- ▶ more abstract *pseudocode* ← code that humans understand (easily)
 - ▶ control flow using **if**, **for**, **while**, etc.
 - ▶ variable names instead of fixed registers and memory cells
 - ▶ memory management (next slide)
- ▶ count *dominant operations* (e.g. memory accesses)
instead of all RAM instructions

In both cases: We can go to full detail where needed.



Memory management & Pointers

- ▶ A random-access machine is a bit like a bare CPU . . . without any operating system
 - ↪ cumbersome to use
- ▶ All high-level programming languages add *memory management* to that:
 - ▶ Instruction to *allocate* a contiguous piece of memory of a given size (like `malloc`).
 - ▶ used to allocate a new array (of a fixed size) or
 - ▶ a new object/record (with a known list of instance variables)
 - ▶ There's a similar instruction to free allocated memory again.
 - ▶ A *pointer* is a memory address (i. e., the *i* of `MEM[i]`).
 - ▶ Support for procedures (a.k.a. functions, methods) calls including recursive calls
 - ▶ (this internally requires maintaining call stack)



We will mostly ignore *how* all this works in COMP526.

1.3 Asymptotics & Big-Oh

Why asymptotics?

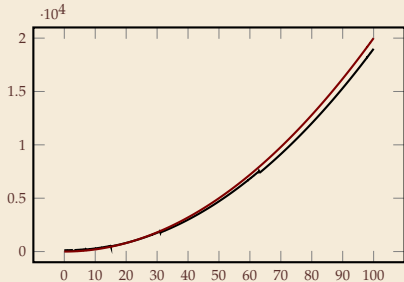
Algorithm analysis focuses on (the limiting behavior for infinitely) **large inputs**.

- ▶ abstracts from unnecessary detail
- ▶ simplifies analysis
- ▶ often necessary for sensible comparison

Asymptotics = approximation around ∞

Example: Consider a function $f(n)$ given by

$$2n^2 - 3n \lfloor \log_2(n+1) \rfloor + 7n - 3 \lfloor \log_2(n+1) \rfloor + 120 \sim 2n^2$$



Asymptotic tools – Formal & definitive definition

▶ **“Tilde Notation”:** $f(n) \sim g(n)$ if, and only if $\iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = 1$
„ f and g are asymptotically equivalent”

▶ **“Big-Oh Notation”:** $f(n) \in O(g(n))$ also write ‘=’ instead $\iff \left| \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \right|$ is bounded for $n \geq n_0$

need supremum since limit might not exist!
 $\iff \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \right| < \infty$

Variants: “Big-Omega”

▶ $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$ “Big-Omega” $\iff g(n) \in O(f(n))$

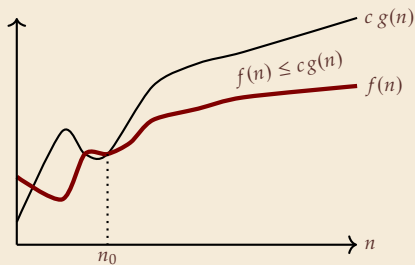
▶ $f(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$ “Big-Theta” $\iff f(n) \in O(g(n))$ **and** $f(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$

▶ **“Little-Oh Notation”:** $f(n) \in o(g(n))$ $\iff \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} \right| = 0$

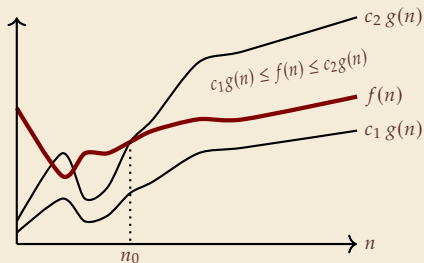
$f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$ if $\lim = \infty$

Asymptotic tools – Intuition

- ▶ $f(n) = O(g(n))$: $f(n)$ is **at most** $g(n)$ up to constant factors and for sufficiently large n



- ▶ $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$: $f(n)$ is **equal to** $g(n)$ up to constant factors and for sufficiently large n



Plots can be misleading!

Example [↗](#)

Asymptotics – Example 1

Basic examples:

▶ $20n^3 + 10n \ln(n) + 5 \sim 20n^3 = \Theta(n^3)$

▶ $3 \lg(n^2) + \lg(\lg(n)) = \Theta(\log n)$

▶ $10^{100} = O(1)$

Use *wolframalpha* to compute/check limits.

Asymptotics – Frequently used facts

▶ Rules:

- ▶ $c \cdot f(n) = \Theta(f(n))$ for constant $c \neq 0$
- ▶ $\Theta(f + g) = \Theta(\max\{f, g\})$ largest summand determines Θ -class

▶ Frequently used orders of growth:

- ▶ logarithmic $\Theta(\log n)$ Note: $a, b > 0$ constants $\rightsquigarrow \Theta(\log_a(n)) = \Theta(\log_b(n))$
- ▶ linear $\Theta(n)$
- ▶ linearithmic $\Theta(n \log n)$
- ▶ quadratic $\Theta(n^2)$
- ▶ polynomial $O(n^c)$ for constant c
- ▶ exponential $O(c^n)$ for constant c Note: $a > b > 0$ constants $\rightsquigarrow b^n = o(a^n)$

Asymptotics – Example 2

Square-and-multiply algorithm

for computing x^m with $m \in \mathbb{N}$

Inputs:

- ▶ m as binary number (array of bits)
- ▶ $n = \# \text{bits in } m$
- ▶ x a floating-point number

```
1 def pow(x, m):
2     # compute binary representation of exponent
3     exponent_bits = bin(m)[2:]
4     result = 1
5     for bit in exponent_bits:
6         result *= result
7         if bit == '1':
8             result *= x
9     return result
```

▶ Cost: $C = \# \text{ multiplications}$

▶ $C = n$ (line 4) + $\# \text{one-bits binary representation of } m$ (line 5)

$\rightsquigarrow n \leq C \leq 2n$