#### **MA633L-Numerical Analysis**

Lecture 3 : Asymptotic Notations and Computation Time

#### Panchatcharam Mariappan<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Associate Professor Department of Mathematics and Statistics IIT Tirupati, Tirupati

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# **Asymptotic Notations**

Big O

**Definition 1 (Big O)** Let  $\{x_n\}$  and  $\{\alpha_n\}$  be two different sequences. We write

 $x_n = O(\alpha_n)$ 

if there exist constants  $\boldsymbol{C}$  such that

 $|x_n| \le C |\alpha_n| \quad \forall \ n \ge n_0.$ 

If  $\alpha_n \neq 0$  for all n, that is,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{x_n}{\alpha_n} \right| \le C$$

Here, we say  $x_n$  is big 0 of  $\alpha_n$ .



Little o

**Definition 2 (Little o)** We write

if C = 0. That is.

 $\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{x_n}{\alpha_n} \right| = 0$ 

 $x_n = o(\alpha_n)$ 

Here, we say  $x_n$  is little o of  $\alpha_n$ .

Let  $x_n \to 0$  and  $\alpha_n \to 0$ .

- 1. If  $x_n = O(\alpha_n)$ , then  $x_n$  converges to 0 at least as rapidly as  $\alpha_n$ .
- **2**. If  $x_n = o(\alpha_n)$ , then  $x_n$  converges to 0 more rapidly than  $\alpha_n$ .



#### **Example 3**

Verify whether the following is true or not?

$$\frac{n+1}{n^2} = O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$
$$\frac{1}{n\ln n} = o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$
$$\frac{1}{n} = o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$
$$\frac{1}{n} = o\left(\frac{1}{\ln n}\right)$$
$$\frac{5}{n} + e^{-n} = O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$
$$10\ln(n) + 5(\ln(n))^3 + 7n + 3n^2 + 6n^3 = O(n^3)$$



#### Example 4

Verify whether the following is true or not?

$$e^{-n} = o\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$
$$\ln 2 - \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} (-1)^{k-1} \frac{1}{k} = O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$
$$e^x - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} x^k \frac{1}{k!} = O\left(\frac{1}{n!}\right) \quad (|x| \le 1)$$



**Definition 5 (Big O)** Let f and g be two real valued functions. We write

$$f(x) = O(g(x)), \text{ as } x \to \infty$$

if there exists constant  $\boldsymbol{C}$  and  $\boldsymbol{r}$  such that

 $|f(x)| \le C|g(x)| \quad \forall \ x \ge r.$ 



**Definition 6 (Big O)** Let f and g be two real valued functions. We write

$$f(x) = O(g(x)), \text{ as } x \to x_0$$

if there exists constant C and r such that

 $|f(x)| \leq C|g(x)| \quad \forall x \text{ with } |x - x_0| < r.$ 





#### Definition 7 (Little o)

Let f and g be two real valued functions. In general, we write

$$f(x) = o(g(x)), \text{ as } x \to x_0$$

if

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right| = 0$$

#### **Example 8**

Verify whether the following is true or not?

$$\sin x - x + \frac{x^3}{6} = O(x^5) \quad (x \to 0)$$
  

$$\sqrt{x^2 + 1} = O(x) \quad (x \to \infty)$$
  

$$e^x - 1 = O(x^2) \quad (x \to 0)$$
  

$$\cot x = o(x^{-1}) \quad (x \to 0)$$







#### **Definition 9 (Big** $\Omega$ **)**

Let f and g be two real valued functions. In general, we write

$$f(x) = \Omega(g(x)), \text{ as } x \to x_0$$

if there exist constants  $\boldsymbol{C}$  and  $\boldsymbol{r}$  such that

 $|f(x)| \ge C|g(x)| \quad \forall \ x \ge r.$ 





#### **Definition 10 (Little** $\omega$ **)**

Let f and g be two real valued functions. In general, we write

$$f(x) = \omega(g(x)), \text{ as } x \to x_0$$

if 
$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right| = \infty$$

### $\Theta$ and $\sim$



#### **Definition 11 (Big** $\Theta$ )

Let f and g be two real valued functions. In general, we write

$$f(x) = \Theta(g(x)), \text{ as } x \to x_0$$

if there exist constants  $C_1, C_2$  and r such that

 $C_1|g(x)| \le |f(x)| \le C_2|g(x)| \quad \forall \ x \ge r.$ 





#### **Definition 12 (Similar)**

Let f and g be two real valued functions. In general, we write

$$f\sim g$$
 as  $x\rightarrow x_0$ 

if

if 
$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right| = 1$$

## o, O, $\Omega$ , $\omega$ , $\Theta$ and $\sim$

- f = O(g) means that g describes the upper bound for f
- f = o(g) means that g describes the upper bound for f, but f can never be equal to g
- $f = \Omega(g)$  means that g describes the lower bound for f
- $f = \Theta(g)$  means that g describes the exact bound for f
- $f \sim g$  means that f/g approaches 1



## o, O, $\Omega$ , $\omega$ , $\Theta$ and $\sim$

- f = O(g) means that f grows no faster than g
- f = o(g) means that f grows slower than g
- $f = \Omega(g)$  means that f grows at least as fast as g
- $f = \omega(g)$  means that f grows faster than g
- $f \sim g$  means that f/g approaches 1



## o, O, $\Omega$ , $\omega$ , $\Theta$ and $\sim$

Notation	Comparison	Limit Definition
f = O(g)	$f \leq g$	$\lim_{x \to x_0} \left  \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right  < \infty$
f = o(g)	f < g	$\lim_{x \to x_0} \left  \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right  = 0$
$f = \Theta(g)$	f = g	$\lim_{x \to x_0} \left  \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right  \in (0, \infty)$
$f = \Omega(g)$	$f \ge g$	$\lim_{x \to x_0} \left  \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right  > 0$
$f = \omega(g)$	f > g	$\lim_{x \to x_0} \left  \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right  = \infty$
$f \sim g$	$f \sim g$	$\lim_{x \to x_0} \left  \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right  = 1$



## o, O, $\Omega$ , $\omega$ , $\Theta$ and $\sim$

The following observations are immediate

**Theorem 13** 

$$\begin{split} f &= O(g) \quad \text{and} \quad f = \Omega(G) & \iff \quad f = \Theta(g) \\ & f = O(g) \quad \iff \quad g = \Omega(f) \\ & f = o(g) \quad \iff \quad g = \omega(f) \\ & f = o(g) \quad \implies \quad f = O(g) \\ & f = \omega(g) \quad \implies \quad f = \Omega(g) \\ & f \sim g \quad \implies \quad f = \Theta(f) \\ & (\ln n)^k = o(n^\alpha) \quad \text{and} \quad n^k = o((1 + \alpha)^n), \forall k, \alpha > 0 \end{split}$$



## Big O



Notation	Name
O(1)	Constant
$O(\log(n))$	logarithmic
$O((\log(n))^c)$	polyalgorithmic
O(n)	linear
$O(n^2)$	quadratic
$O(n^c)$	polynomial
$O(c^n)$	exponential

Note that  $O(n^c)$  and  $O(c^n)$  are different,  $O(c^n)$  grows much faster. A function that grows faster than any power of n is called superpolynomial and that grows slower than an exponential function  $c^n$  is called subexponential.

## **Big O Graph**





## **Big O Graph**







## **Computation Time**

## **Algorithm and Computer Program**



#### **Definition 14 (Algorithm)**

An algorithm is a list of unambiguous rules that specify successive steps to solve a problem.

#### **Definition 15 (Computer Program)**

The computer program is clearly specified sequence of computer instructions implementing algorithm.

## **Elementary Operations**



#### **Definition 16 (Elementary Operations)**

Most modern computers and languages build complex programs from ordinary arithmetic and logical operations such as standard unary and binary operations (negation, addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, modulo operations, assignment), boolean operations, binary comparisons (=, >, <, ≥, ≤), branching operations. These operations are called as elementary operations.

## **Running Time**



#### **Definition 17 (Running Time)**

The running time or computing time of an algorithm is the number of its elementary operations. It is denoted by T(n).

For this course, let us consider only addition, subtraction, multiplication and division as elementary operations, for simplicity. Also, let us ignore the indexing sum.

## **FLOPS**



#### **Definition 18 (Floating Point Operation)**

A floating point operation means that the arithmetic mathematical computation is accomplished in floating point numbers that may include addition, subtraction, multiplication or division.

Definition 19 (FLOPS) FLoating point Operations Per Second (FLOPS)

## **FLOPS**

- A major factor in the comparison of the computational power of different systems
- In particular, it is an important factor where numerical calculations are a key point
- It measures the number of operations that a system can execute in terms of one second computation power
- One of the major measure to assess whether a computer is supercomputer or not





## **Running Time : Sum of Elements of an array**

#### Example 20

Let a denote an array or list of integers where the sum

$$s = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a[i]$$

is required. To get the sum s, we need to repeat n times the same elementary operations. Therefore, the running time  $T_1(n)$  is proportional to or linear in n. That is  $T_1(n) = cn$ . This algorithm is called linear algorithm. The unknown factor c depends on a particular computer, programming language, compiler, OS etc.

## Running Time: $T_1(n)$

Algorithm 1: Linear Sum

Input: array,  $a[0, 1, \cdots, n-1]$ Output: s

 $\mathbf{1} \ s \leftarrow 0$ 

2 for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to n-1 do

$$\mathbf{3} \qquad s \leftarrow s + a[i]$$

In the above algorithm, suppose  $T_1(1)$  is given to you, then you can compute  $T_1(1000) = 1000T_1(1) = 10T_1(100)$ . If per addition, it takes 1s, then  $T_1(1) = 1$ , then  $T_1(1000) = 1000s$ .



## Sum of Elements of Subarrays

#### Example 21

Now, let us compute the sum of each subarray of some m. That is,

$$s_j = \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} a[j+k], j = 0, 1, 2, \cdots, n-m$$

- 1. How many subarrays are there in this sum?
- 2. Prove or disprove  $T_2(n) = cm(n-m+1)$ .
- 3. Also, if  $m = \frac{n}{2}$ , prove or disprove  $T_2(n) = 0.25cn^2 + 0.5cn = O(n^2)$ .



## Running Time: $T_2(n)$

Algorithm 2: Quadratic Algorithms: Slow Sum

```
Input: array, a[0, 1, \dots, 2m - 1]Output: s[0, 1, \dots, m]1 s \leftarrow 02 for i \leftarrow 0 to m do3 s[i] \leftarrow 04 for j \leftarrow 0 to m - 1 do5 \lfloor s[i] \leftarrow s[i] + a[i + j]
```



## Running Time: $T_3(n)$

Algorithm 3: Quadratic algorithms: Fast Sum

Input: array,  $a[0, 1, \dots, 2m - 1]$ Output:  $s[0, 1, \dots, m]$ 1  $s[0] \leftarrow 0$ 2 for  $j \leftarrow 0$  to m - 1 do 3  $\lfloor s[0] \leftarrow s[0] + a[j]$ 4 for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to m do 5  $\lfloor s[i] \leftarrow s[i - 1] + a[i + m - 1] - a[i - 1]$ 



## **Running Time:** $T_1, T_2, T_3$



n	$T_1(n)$	Minutes	$T_2(n)$	Minutes	$T_3(n)$	Minutes
100						
500						
1000						
5000						
50000						

Table 1:  $T_1(n), T_2(n), T_3(n)$ 

## Norm of a Vector

**Example 22** Let  $x = (x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_n)$  be a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2}^{2} &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i}|^{2} \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|_{1} &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i}| \\ \|\mathbf{x}\|_{p}^{p} &= \sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_{i}|^{p} \end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

Compute the time requirement for each of the above sum when  $n = 10^{12}$ .



# MUMERICAL ARALYER

#### **Exercise 1: Medium**

- 1. Compute the  $T_1(10^{12})$ ,  $T_2(10^{12})$  and  $T_3(10^{12})$  without doing the array sum operation.
- 2. Estimate the value of c from the table
- 3. Let a denote an array or list of real number and

$$s(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i x^i$$

is required. Let  $T_4(n)$  be the running time to compute s(x). Compute the  $T_4(10^{12})$  without doing the array sum operation.

# MUMERICAL ARALYER

#### **Exercise 2: Medium**

- 1. Compute the  $T_1(10^{12})$ ,  $T_2(10^{12})$  and  $T_3(10^{12})$  without doing the array sum operation.
- 2. Estimate the value of c from the table
- 3. Let a denote an array or list of real number and

$$s(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a_i x^i$$

is required. Let  $T_4(n)$  be the running time to compute s(x). Compute the  $T_4(10^{12})$  without doing the array sum operation.



#### **Exercise 3: Medium**

4. Let  $S_1(x)$  be the Taylor polynomial for sin(x)

$$S_1(x) = \sin x = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (-1)^i \frac{x^{2i+1}}{(2i+1)!}$$

- **5**. For given n and x, compute  $S_1(x)$
- 6. Compare the value of  $S_1(x)$  and  $\sin x$  value obtained using the Python numpy library





#### **Exercise 4: Medium**

7. Let  $T_5(n, x)$  be running time for  $S_1(x)$ . Fill out the following table

x	n	$S_1(x)$	np.sin(x)	$T_5(n,x)$	Seconds
$\pi/3$	20				
$\pi/4$	20				
$\pi/6$	20				
$\pi/2$	20				
$\pi/3$	50				
$\pi/3$	100				

Table 2: sin(x)



#### **Exercise 5: Medium**

- 8. Repeat exercise 7 for the Taylor polynomial corresponding to  $\cos(x), e^x, \tan^{-1}(x), \cos^{-1}(x), Li_2(x)$  [make changes in x, if necessary]
- 9. Convert the table entries to years. How many years will take for  $T_i(n), i = 1, 2, \cdots, 8$  if  $n = 10^6$ ?
- 10. Suppose your computer can perform  $10^3$  [kFLOPS] operations (+,-,\*,/) per second, how many years will it take for finding the sum using algorithm 2 and algorithm 3, when  $n = 10^9$ ?
- 11. Repeat exercise 10, if computer can do  $10^6$  operations [MFLOPS],  $10^9$  operations [GFLOPS] and  $10^{12}$  operations [TFLOPS].

## Thanks

#### **Doubts and Suggestions**

panch.m@iittp.ac.in





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#### Panchatcharam Mariappan<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Associate Professor Department of Mathematics and Statistics IIT Tirupati, Tirupati

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