

Zero Lecture on Design and Analysis of Algorithm CSE408

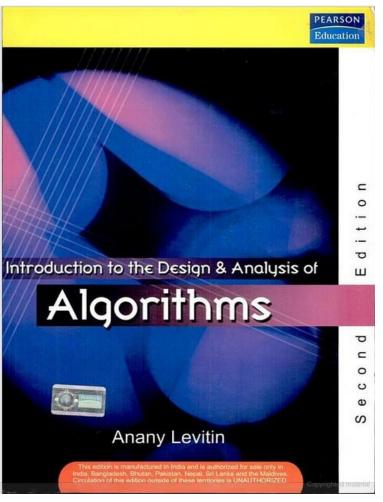
Course Details



□ LTP – 3 0 0 [Three lectures/week]

□ Text Book

- INTRODUCTION TO THE DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS
 - ANANY LEVITIN,PEARSON EDUCATION



Detail of Academic Tasks



□ AT1: Test1 Lecture #11(Before MTE)

□ AT2: Test2 Lecture #19(Before MTE)

□ AT3: Test3 Lecture #33(After MTE)

> Best 2 will be considered with the conditions as:

- AT1 or AT2
- AT3 will be mandatory

Weight age of AT,MTT,ETT



> Attendance: 5 Marks

> Academic Tasks(CA): 25 Marks

> MTT : 20 Marks

> ETT: 50 Marks



Need to study this course.

Why are we learning Design and analysis of algorithms

- Algorithms are used in almost every program or software system.
- □ Once we design an algorithm we need to know how well it performs on any input.
- In particular we would like to know whether there are better algorithms for the problem, An answer to this first demands a way to analyze an algorithm in a machine-independent way.
- □ Some Specific design techniques are essential ingredients of many software applications.

The course contents CSE408



- □ UNIT I Foundations of algorithm
- □ UNIT II String matching algorithms and computational geometry
- □ UNIT III Divide and conquer and ordered statists
- □ UNIT IV Dynamic programming and greedy techniques
- □ UNIT V Backtracking and approximation algorithms
- UNIT VI Number-theoretic algorithms and complexity classes

CSE408:DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Course Outcomes: Through this course students should be able to

CO1 :: explain the basic techniques of analyzing the algorithms using space and time complexity, asymptotic notations

CO2 :: analyse various string matching algorithms and understand brute force algorithm design technique

CO3 :: understand divide and conquer algorithm design technique using various searching and sorting algorithms

CO4 :: define dynamic programming and greedy algorithm design technique and solve various all pair and single source shortest path problems

CO5 :: apply the backtracking method to solve some classic problems and understand branch and bound algorithm design technique

CO6 :: define various number theory problems and understand the basics concepts of complexity classes

Unit I

Foundations of Algorithm: Algorithms, Fundamentals of Algorithmic Problem Solving:, Basic Algorithm Design Techniques, Analyzing Algorithm, Fundamental Data Structure:, Linear Data Structure, Graphs and Trees, Fundamentals of the Analysis of Algorithm Efficiency:, Measuring of Input Size, Units for Measuring Running Time, Order of Growth, Worst-Case, Best-Case, and Average-Case Efficiency, Asymptotic Notations and Basic Efficiency Classes:, O(Big-oh)-notation, Big-omega notation, Big-theta notation, Useful Property Involving the Asymptotic Notations, Using Limits for Comparing Orders of Growth

Unit II

String Matching Algorithms and Computational Geometry: Sequential Search and Brute-Force String Matching, Closest-Pair and Convex-Hull Problem, Exhaustive Search, Voronoi Diagrams, Naiva String-Matching Algorithm, Rabin-Karp Algorithm, Knuth-Morris-Pratt Algorithm

Unit III

Divide and Conquer and Order Statistics: Merge Sort and Quick Sort, Binary Search,
Multiplication of Large Integers, Strassen's Matrix Multiplication, Substitution Method for Solving
Recurrences, Recursion-Tree Method for Solving Recurrences, Master Method for Solving Recurrence,
Closest-Pair and Convex-Hull Problems by Divide and Conquer, Decrease and Conquer: Insertion Sort,
Depth-First Search and Breadth-First Search, Connected Components, Topological Sort, Transform
and Conquer: Presorting, Balanced Search Trees, Minimum and Maximum, Counting Sort, Radix Sort,
Bucket Sort, Heaps and Heapsort, Hashing, Selection Sort and Bubble Sort

Unit IV

Dynamic Programming and Greedy Techniques: Dynamic Programming: Computing a Binomial Coefficient, Warshall's and Floyd's Algorithm, Optimal Binary Search Trees, Knapsack Problem and Memory Functions, Matrix-Chain Multiplication, Longest Common Subsequence, Greedy Technique and Graph Algorithm: Minimum Spanning Trees, Prim's Algorithm, Kruskal's Algorithm, Dijkstra's Algorithm, Huffman Code, Single-Source Shortest Paths, All-Pairs Shortest Paths, Iterative Improvement: The Maximum-Flow Problem. Limitations of Algorithm Power: Lower-Bound Theory

Unit V

Backtracking and Approximation Algorithms: Backtracking: n-Queens Problem, Hamiltonian Circuit Problem, Subset-Sum Problem, Branch-and-Bound: Assignment Problem, Knapsack Problem, Traveling Salesman Problem. Vertex-Cover Problem and Set-Covering Problem. Bin Packing Problems

Unit VI

Number-Theoretic Algorithms and Complexity Classes: Number Theory Problems: Modular Arithmetic, Chinese Remainder Theorem, Greatest Common Divisor, Optimization Problems, Basic Concepts of Complexity Classes- P, NP, NP-hard, NP-complete Problems

Course Outcomes



CO1 :: Explain the basic techniques of analyzing the algorithms using space and time complexity, asymptotic notations

CO2 :: Analyze various string matching algorithms and understand brute force algorithm design technique

CO3:: Understand divide and conquer algorithm design technique using various searching and sorting algorithms

..contd..



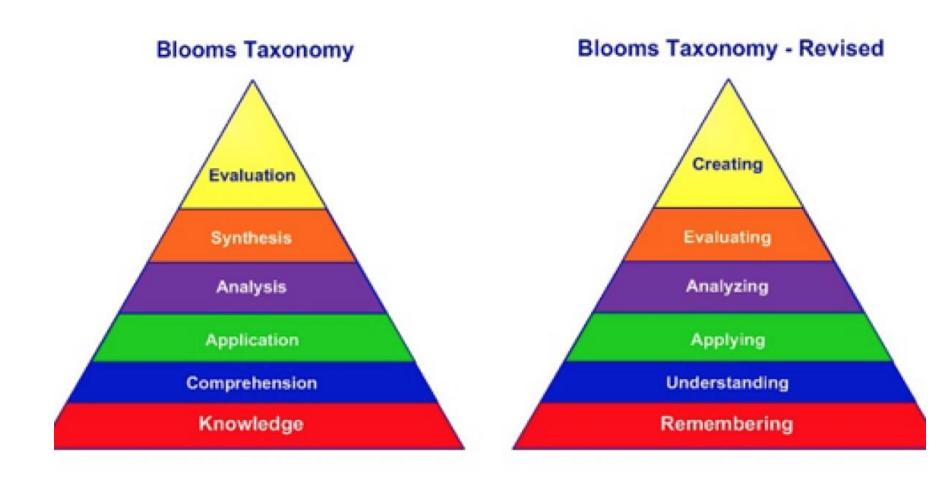
CO4:: define dynamic programming and greedy algorithm design technique and solve various all pair and single source shortest path problems

CO5:: apply the backtracking method to solve some classic problems and understand branch and bound algorithm design technique

CO6:: define various number theory problems and understand the basics concepts of complexity classes

RBT- Revised Blooms Tax anomy





Creating

 The student can put elements together to form a functional whole, create a new product or point of view: assemble, generate, construct, design, develop, formulate, rearrange, rewrite, organize, devise.

Evaluating

 The student can make judgments and justify decisions: appraise, argue, defend, judge, select, support, evaluate, debate, measure, select, test, verify

Analyzing

 The student can distinguish between parts, how they relate to each other, and to the overall structure and purpose: compare, contract, criticize, differentiate, discriminate, question, classify, distinguish, experiment

Applying

 The student can use information in a new way: demonstrate, dramatize, interpret, solve, use, illustrate, convert, discover, discuss, prepare

Understanding

 The Student can construct meaning from oral, written and graphic messages: interpret, exemplify, classify, summarize, infer, compare, explain, paraphrase, discuss

Remembering

 The student can recognize and recall relevant knowledge from long-term memory: define, duplicate, list, memorize, repeat, reproduce



MOOC-Massive Open Online Course Approved (MOOC Course)

1. NPTEL

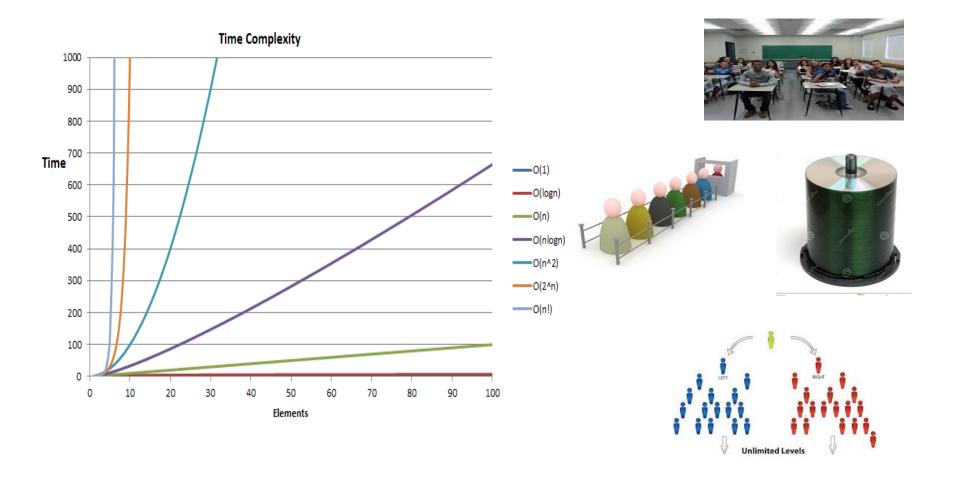
https://nptel.ac.in/courses/106106131/

Benefit to register the Approved MOOC is All CAs



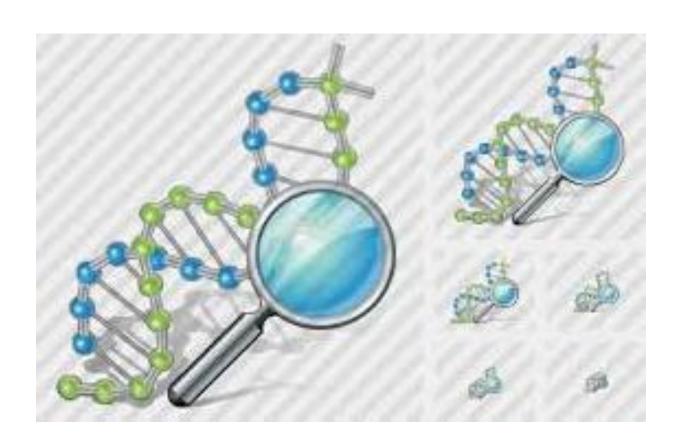


Foundations of algorithm



String matching algorithms and computational geometry









Divide and conquer and ordered statists





Dynamic programming and greedy technique



Which sweet should I have next?





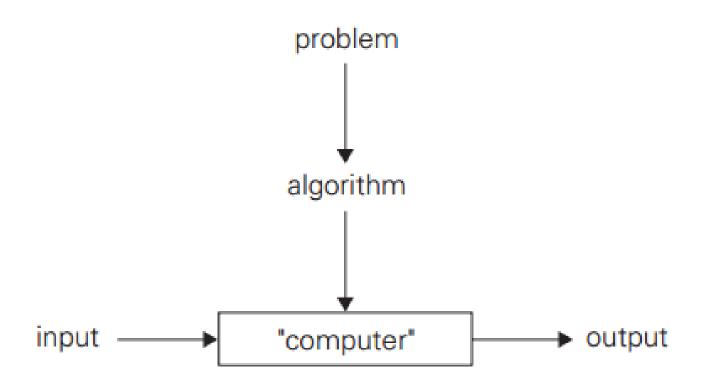
Algorithm



An *algorithm* is a sequence of unambiguous instructions for solving a problem, i.e., for obtaining a required output for any legitimate input in a finite amount of time.

- The nonambiguity requirement for each step of an algorithm cannot be compromised.
- The range of inputs for which an algorithm works has to be specified carefully.
- The same algorithm can be represented in several different ways.
- There may exist several algorithms for solving the same problem.





Problem for Swapping 2 Numbers



Vousble

using temporary variable

```
Void swap (int a, int b)

2 int temp;

temp = a;

a = b;

b = temp;

3
```

```
Void swap(int a, int b)

2

a=a+b;
b=a-b;
a=a-b;
3
```



Fundamentals of algorithmic problem solving

- •Understanding the problem
- •Ascertaining the capabilities of a computational device.
- •Choosing between exact and approximate problem solving.
- Deciding an appropriate Data Structure
- •Algorithm design techniques.
- •Methods of specifying an algorithm.
- Proving an algorithms correctness
- •Analyzing an algorithm.
- •Coding an algorithm

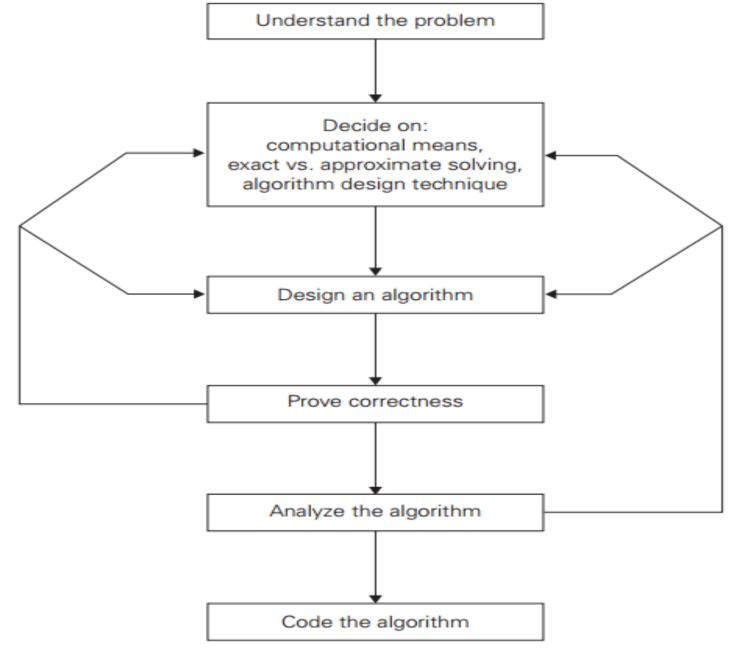


FIGURE 1.2 Algorithm design and analysis process.

Step 1- Understanding the problem



- Understand the given problem completely.
- ☐ Read the problem description carefully
- ☐ Ask doubts about the problem
- Do few examples
- □ Think about special cases like boundary value
- ☐ Know about the already known algorithms for solving that problem
- □ Clear about the input to an algorithm.

a computational device



- □ Sequential Algorithms: Instructions are executed one after another and one operation at a time. Algorithms designed to be executed on such machine are called sequential algorithms
- □ Parallel Algorithms: Modern computers that can execute instructions in parallel. Algorithms designed to be executed on such machine are called parallel algorithms

approximate problem solving



- □ Exact Algorithm: Solving problem exactly
- □ Approx. Algm. : Solving problem approximately
- □ Why Approx. Algm.?
- □ Some problems cannot be solved exactly
- □ Solving problem exactly can be unacceptably slow because of the problem complexity.

Step 4- Deciding on appropriate Date Structures

- □ Decide on the suitable data structure
- □ A Data structure is defined as a particular scheme of organizing related data items.

Step 5- Algorithm Design techniques



- ▶ An algorithm design technique is a general approach to solve problems algorithmically.
- ▶ The various design techniques are:
- ▶ Brute force
- Divide and conquer
- Greedy approach
- Dynamic programming
- Backtracking



Step 6- Method of specifying an algorithm

- Natural language
- ☐ There are 3 methods:
 - Easy but ambiguous
- □ Pseudo code
 - Mixture of programming language and natural language
- □ Flow chart
 - It is pictorial representation of the algorithm.
 - Here symbols are used.

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Step 7- Proving an algorithm's

correctness

- ▶ Correctness: Prove that the algo. Yields the required result for every legitimate input in a finite amount of time.
- ▶ A common technique for proving correctness is to use mathematical induction
- In order to show the alg. Is incorrect, we have to take just one instance of its input for which the algm. Fails.
- ▶ If a algo. is found to be incorrect, then reconsider one or more those decisions
- ▶ For approx. algo. We should show that the error produced by the algo does not exceed the predefined limit.

Step 8- Analyzing an algorithm



- ▶ Analyze the following qualities of the algorithm
- Efficiency:
 - Time efficiency and Space efficiency
- Simplicity
 - Simple algorithms mean easy to understand and easy to program.
- Generality
 - Design an algm. for a problem in more general terms. In some cases, designing more general algm. Is unnecessary or difficult.
 - Optimality
 - The algorithm should produce optimal results.

Step 9- Coding an algorithm



- Algorithms are designed to be implemented as computer programs.
- ☐ Use code tuning technique. For eg., replacing costlier multiplication operation with cheaper addition operation.



Fundamental data structures

- □ list
 - array
 - linked list
 - string
- □ stack
- queue
- priority queue/heap

- graph
- □ tree and binary tree
- set and dictionary

TYPES OF DATA STRUCTURES



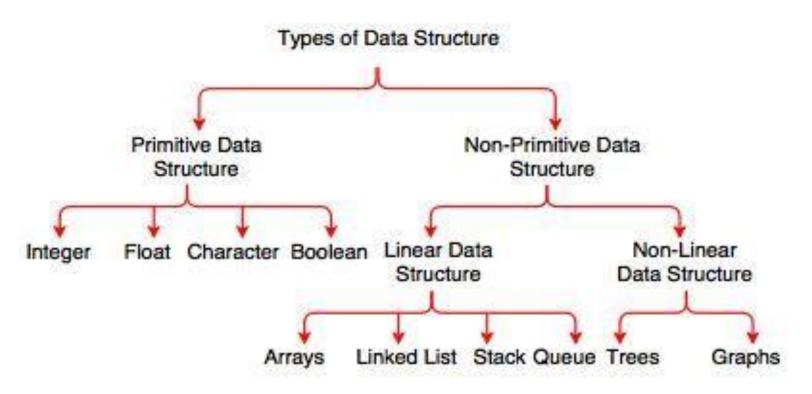


Fig. Types of Data Structure

Linear Data Structures



□ Arrays

• A sequence of n items of the same data type that are stored contiguously in computer memory and made accessible by specifying a value of the array's index.

☐ Linked List

- A sequence of zero or more nodes each containing two kinds of information: some data and one or more links called pointers to other nodes of the linked list.
- Singly linked list (next pointer)
- Doubly linked list (next + previous pointers)

Stacks and Queues



□ Stacks

- A stack of plates
 - insertion/deletion can be done only at the top.
 - LIFO
- Two operations (push and pop)

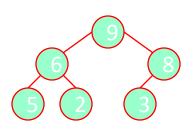
Queues

- A queue of customers waiting for services
 - Insertion/enqueue from the rear and deletion/dequeue from the front.
 - FIFO
- Two operations (enqueue and dequeue)

Priority Queue and Heap



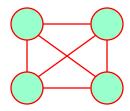
- Priority queues (implemented using heaps)
 - A data structure for maintaining a set of elements, each associated with a key/priority, with the following operations
 - Finding the element with the highest priority
 - Deleting the element with the highest priority
 - Inserting a new element
 - Scheduling jobs on a shared computer



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Graphs

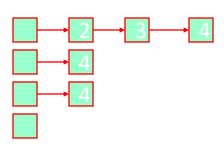
- □ Formal definition
 - A graph $G = \langle V, E \rangle$ is defined by a pair of two sets: a finite set V of items called vertices and a set E of vertex pairs called edges.
- □ Undirected and directed graphs (digraphs).
- □ maximum number of edges in an undirected graph with |V| vertices
- Complete graphs
 - A graph with every pair of its vertices connected by an edge is called complete, $K_{|V|}$





Graph Representation

- Adjacency matrix
 - n x n boolean matrix if |V| is n.
 - The element on the ith row and jth column is 1 if there's an edge from ith vertex to the jth vertex; otherwise 0.
 - The adjacency matrix of an undirected graph is symmetric.
- □ Adjacency linked lists
 - A collection of linked lists, one for each vertex, that contain all the vertices adjacent to the list's vertex.
- □ Which data structure would you use if the graph is a 100-node star shape?



Weighted Graphs



Weighted graphs

• Graphs or digraphs with numbers assigned to the edges.

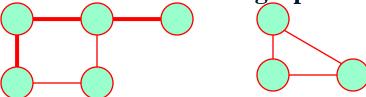
- A dense graph is a graph in which the number of edges is close to the maximal number of edges. The opposite, a graph with only a few edges, is a sparse graph.

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Graph Properties -- Paths and Connectivity

Paths

- A path from vertex u to v of a graph G is defined as a sequence of adjacent (connected by an edge) vertices that starts with u and ends with v.
- Simple paths: All edges of a path are distinct.
- Path lengths: the number of edges, or the number of vertices − 1.
- Connected graphs
 - A graph is said to be connected if for every pair of its vertices u and v there is a path from u to v.
- □ Connected component
 - The maximum connected subgraph of a given graph.





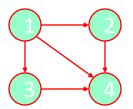
Graph Properties -- Acyclicity

□ Cycle

• A simple path of a positive length that starts and ends a the same vertex.

☐ Acyclic graph

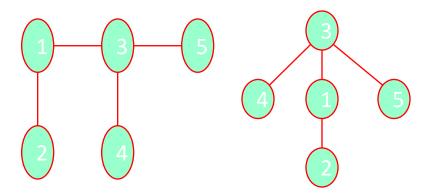
- A graph without cycles
- DAG (Directed Acyclic Graph)



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Trees

- Trees
 - A tree (or <u>free tree</u>) is a connected acyclic graph.
 - Forest: a graph that has no cycles but is not necessarily connected.
- Properties of trees
 - For every two vertices in a tree there always exists exactly one simple path from one of these vertices to the other.
 - Rooted trees: The above property makes it possible to select an arbitrary vertex in a free tree and consider it as the root of the so called rooted tree.
 - Levels in a rooted tree.



Rooted Trees (I)

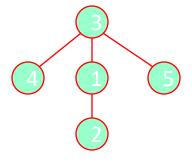


- Ancestors
 - For any vertex v in a tree T, all the vertices on the simple path from the root to that vertex are called ancestors.
- Descendants
 - All the vertices for which a vertex *v* is an ancestor are said to be descendants of *v*.
- Parent, child and siblings
 - If (u, v) is the last edge of the simple path from the root to vertex v, u is said to be the parent of v and v is called a child of u.
 - Vertices that have the same parent are called siblings.
- Leaves
 - A vertex without children is called a leaf.
- □ Subtree
 - A vertex *v* with all its descendants is called the subtree of *T* rooted at *v*.

Rooted Trees (II)



- Depth of a vertex
 - The length of the simple path from the root to the vertex.
- Height of a tree
 - The length of the longest simple path from the root to a leaf.



Ordered Trees



- Ordered trees
 - An ordered tree is a rooted tree in which all the children of each vertex are ordered.
- Binary trees
 - A binary tree is an ordered tree in which every vertex has no more than two children and each children is designated s either a left child or a right child of its parent.
- □ Binary search trees
 - Each vertex is assigned a number.
 - A number assigned to each parental vertex is larger than all the numbers in its left subtree and smaller than all the numbers in its right subtree.
- $\lceil \log_2 n \rfloor \le h \le n-1$, where h is the height of a binary tree and n the size.

