Chapter 3

(Brute Force and Exhaustive Search)

3

Brute Force and Exhaustive Search

Science is as far removed from brute force as this sword from a crowbar.
—Edward Lytton (1803–1873), *Leila*, Book II, Chapter I

Doing a thing well is often a waste of time.
—Robert Byrne, a master pool and billiards player and a writer

After introducing the framework and methods for algorithm analysis in the preceding chapter, we are ready to embark on a discussion of algorithm design strategies. Each of the next eight chapters is devoted to a particular design strategy. The subject of this chapter is brute force and its important special case, exhaustive search. Brute force can be described as follows:

> ***Brute force*** is a straightforward approach to solving a problem, usually directly based on the problem statement and definitions of the concepts involved.

The "force" implied by the strategy's definition is that of a computer and not that of one's intellect. "Just do it!" would be another way to describe the prescription of the brute-force approach. And often, the brute-force strategy is indeed the one that is easiest to apply.

As an example, consider the exponentiation problem: compute a^n for a nonzero number a and a nonnegative integer n. Although this problem might seem trivial, it provides a useful vehicle for illustrating several algorithm design strategies, including the brute force. (Also note that computing a^n mod m for some large integers is a principal component of a leading encryption algorithm.) By the definition of exponentiation,

$$a^n = \underbrace{a * \cdots * a}_{n \text{ times}}.$$

This suggests simply computing a^n by multiplying 1 by a n times.

We have already encountered at least two brute-force algorithms in the book: the consecutive integer checking algorithm for computing gcd(m, n) in Section 1.1 and the definition-based algorithm for matrix multiplication in Section 2.3. Many other examples are given later in this chapter. (Can you identify a few algorithms you already know as being based on the brute-force approach?)

Though rarely a source of clever or efficient algorithms, the brute-force approach should not be overlooked as an important algorithm design strategy. First, unlike some of the other strategies, brute force is applicable to a very wide variety of problems. In fact, it seems to be the only general approach for which it is more difficult to point out problems it *cannot* tackle. Second, for some important problems—e.g., sorting, searching, matrix multiplication, string matching—the brute-force approach yields reasonable algorithms of at least some practical value with no limitation on instance size. Third, the expense of designing a more efficient algorithm may be unjustifiable if only a few instances of a problem need to be solved and a brute-force algorithm can solve those instances with acceptable speed. Fourth, even if too inefficient in general, a brute-force algorithm can still be useful for solving small-size instances of a problem. Finally, a brute-force algorithm can serve an important theoretical or educational purpose as a yardstick with which to judge more efficient alternatives for solving a problem.

3.1 Selection Sort and Bubble Sort

In this section, we consider the application of the brute-force approach to the problem of sorting: given a list of n orderable items (e.g., numbers, characters from some alphabet, character strings), rearrange them in nondecreasing order. As we mentioned in Section 1.3, dozens of algorithms have been developed for solving this very important problem. You might have learned several of them in the past. If you have, try to forget them for the time being and look at the problem afresh.

Now, after your mind is unburdened of previous knowledge of sorting algorithms, ask yourself a question: "What would be the most straightforward method for solving the sorting problem?" Reasonable people may disagree on the answer to this question. The two algorithms discussed here—selection sort and bubble sort—seem to be the two prime candidates.

Selection Sort

We start selection sort by scanning the entire given list to find its smallest element and exchange it with the first element, putting the smallest element in its final position in the sorted list. Then we scan the list, starting with the second element, to find the smallest among the last $n - 1$ elements and exchange it with the second element, putting the second smallest element in its final position. Generally, on the

ith pass through the list, which we number from 0 to $n-2$, the algorithm searches for the smallest item among the last $n-i$ elements and swaps it with A_i:

$$\underbrace{A_0 \le A_1 \le \cdots \le A_{i-1}}_{\text{in their final positions}} \;\Big|\; \underbrace{A_i, \ldots, A_{min}, \ldots, A_{n-1}}_{\text{the last } n-i \text{ elements}}$$

After $n-1$ passes, the list is sorted.

Here is pseudocode of this algorithm, which, for simplicity, assumes that the list is implemented as an array:

ALGORITHM *SelectionSort*$(A[0..n-1])$
```
//Sorts a given array by selection sort
//Input: An array A[0..n − 1] of orderable elements
//Output: Array A[0..n − 1] sorted in nondecreasing order
for i ← 0 to n − 2 do
    min ← i
    for j ← i + 1 to n − 1 do
        if A[j] < A[min]  min ← j
    swap A[i] and A[min]
```

As an example, the action of the algorithm on the list 89, 45, 68, 90, 29, 34, 17 is illustrated in Figure 3.1.

The analysis of selection sort is straightforward. The input size is given by the number of elements n; the basic operation is the key comparison $A[j] < A[min]$. The number of times it is executed depends only on the array size and is given by the following sum:

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n-1} 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} [(n-1) - (i+1) + 1] = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1-i).$$

| 89	45	68	90	29	34	**17**
17 |	45	68	90	**29**	34	89
17	29 |	68	90	45	**34**	89
17	29	34 |	90	**45**	68	89
17	29	34	45 |	90	**68**	89
17	29	34	45	68 |	90	**89**
17	29	34	45	68	89 |	90

FIGURE 3.1 Example of sorting with selection sort. Each line corresponds to one iteration of the algorithm, i.e., a pass through the list's tail to the right of the vertical bar; an element in bold indicates the smallest element found. Elements to the left of the vertical bar are in their final positions and are not considered in this and subsequent iterations.

Since we have already encountered the last sum in analyzing the algorithm of Example 2 in Section 2.3, you should be able to compute it now on your own. Whether you compute this sum by distributing the summation symbol or by immediately getting the sum of decreasing integers, the answer, of course, must be the same:

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n-1} 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1-i) = \frac{(n-1)n}{2}.$$

Thus, selection sort is a $\Theta(n^2)$ algorithm on all inputs. Note, however, that the number of key swaps is only $\Theta(n)$, or, more precisely, $n-1$ (one for each repetition of the i loop). This property distinguishes selection sort positively from many other sorting algorithms.

Bubble Sort

Another brute-force application to the sorting problem is to compare adjacent elements of the list and exchange them if they are out of order. By doing it repeatedly, we end up "bubbling up" the largest element to the last position on the list. The next pass bubbles up the second largest element, and so on, until after $n-1$ passes the list is sorted. Pass i $(0 \le i \le n-2)$ of bubble sort can be represented by the following diagram:

$$A_0, \ldots, A_j \overset{?}{\leftrightarrow} A_{j+1}, \ldots, A_{n-i-1} \mid \underbrace{A_{n-i} \le \cdots \le A_{n-1}}_{\text{in their final positions}}$$

Here is pseudocode of this algorithm.

ALGORITHM *BubbleSort*$(A[0..n-1])$
//Sorts a given array by bubble sort
//Input: An array $A[0..n-1]$ of orderable elements
//Output: Array $A[0..n-1]$ sorted in nondecreasing order
for $i \leftarrow 0$ **to** $n-2$ **do**
  for $j \leftarrow 0$ **to** $n-2-i$ **do**
    if $A[j+1] < A[j]$ swap $A[j]$ and $A[j+1]$

The action of the algorithm on the list 89, 45, 68, 90, 29, 34, 17 is illustrated as an example in Figure 3.2.

The number of key comparisons for the bubble-sort version given above is the same for all arrays of size n; it is obtained by a sum that is almost identical to the sum for selection sort:

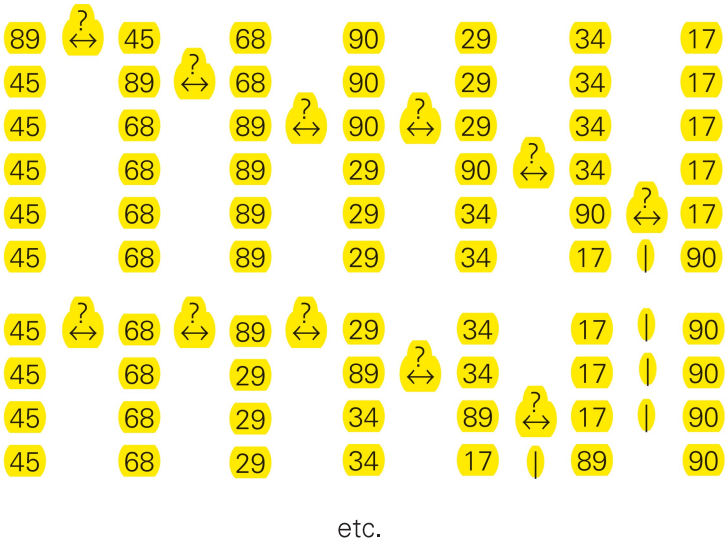


FIGURE 3.2 First two passes of bubble sort on the list 89, 45, 68, 90, 29, 34, 17. A new line is shown after a swap of two elements is done. The elements to the right of the vertical bar are in their final positions and are not considered in subsequent iterations of the algorithm.

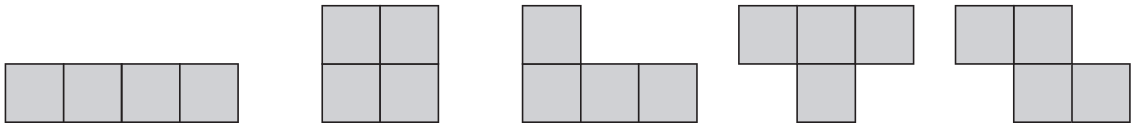
$$C(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \sum_{j=0}^{n-2-i} 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} [(n-2-i) - 0 + 1]$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1-i) = \frac{(n-1)n}{2} \in \Theta(n^2).$$

The number of key swaps, however, depends on the input. In the worst case of decreasing arrays, it is the same as the number of key comparisons:

$$S_{worst}(n) = C(n) = \frac{(n-1)n}{2} \in \Theta(n^2).$$

As is often the case with an application of the brute-force strategy, the first version of an algorithm obtained can often be improved upon with a modest amount of effort. Specifically, we can improve the crude version of bubble sort given above by exploiting the following observation: if a pass through the list makes no exchanges, the list has been sorted and we can stop the algorithm (Problem 12a in this section's exercises). Though the new version runs faster on some inputs, it is still in $\Theta(n^2)$ in the worst and average cases. In fact, even among elementary sorting methods, bubble sort is an inferior choice, and if it were not for its catchy name, you would probably have never heard of it. However, the general lesson you just learned is important and worth repeating:

> A first application of the brute-force approach often results in an algorithm that can be improved with a modest amount of effort.



Is it possible to tile—i.e., cover exactly without overlaps—an 8×8 chessboard with

a. straight tetrominoes? **b.** square tetrominoes?

c. L-tetrominoes? **d.** T-tetrominoes?

e. Z-tetrominoes?

7. *A stack of fake coins* There are n stacks of n identical-looking coins. All of the coins in one of these stacks are counterfeit, while all the coins in the other stacks are genuine. Every genuine coin weighs 10 grams; every fake weighs 11 grams. You have an analytical scale that can determine the exact weight of any number of coins.

a. Devise a brute-force algorithm to identify the stack with the fake coins and determine its worst-case efficiency class.

b. What is the minimum number of weighings needed to identify the stack with the fake coins?

8. Sort the list E, X, A, M, P, L, E in alphabetical order by selection sort.

9. Is selection sort stable? (The definition of a stable sorting algorithm was given in Section 1.3.)

10. Is it possible to implement selection sort for linked lists with the same $\Theta(n^2)$ efficiency as the array version?

11. Sort the list E, X, A, M, P, L, E in alphabetical order by bubble sort.

12. **a.** Prove that if bubble sort makes no exchanges on its pass through a list, the list is sorted and the algorithm can be stopped.

b. Write pseudocode of the method that incorporates this improvement.

c. Prove that the worst-case efficiency of the improved version is quadratic.

13. Is bubble sort stable?

14. *Alternating disks* You have a row of $2n$ disks of two colors, n dark and n light. They alternate: dark, light, dark, light, and so on. You want to get all the dark disks to the right-hand end, and all the light disks to the left-hand end. The only moves you are allowed to make are those that interchange the positions of two neighboring disks.

Design an algorithm for solving this puzzle and determine the number of moves it takes. [Gar99]

3.2 Sequential Search and Brute-Force String Matching

We saw in the previous section two applications of the brute-force approach to the sorting porblem. Here we discuss two applications of this strategy to the problem of searching. The first deals with the canonical problem of searching for an item of a given value in a given list. The second is different in that it deals with the string-matching problem.

Sequential Search

We have already encountered a brute-force algorithm for the general searching problem: it is called sequential search (see Section 2.1). To repeat, the algorithm simply compares successive elements of a given list with a given search key until either a match is encountered (successful search) or the list is exhausted without finding a match (unsuccessful search). A simple extra trick is often employed in implementing sequential search: if we append the search key to the end of the list, the search for the key will have to be successful, and therefore we can eliminate the end of list check altogether. Here is pseudocode of this enhanced version.

ALGORITHM *SequentialSearch2*$(A[0..n], K)$

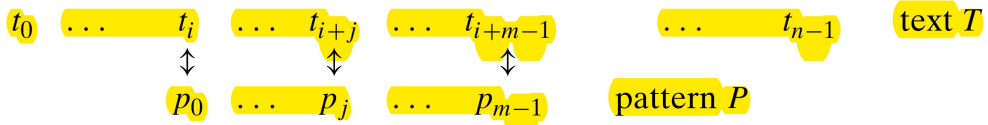
```
//Implements sequential search with a search key as a sentinel
//Input: An array A of n elements and a search key K
//Output: The index of the first element in A[0..n − 1] whose value is
//        equal to K or −1 if no such element is found
A[n] ← K
i ← 0
while A[i] ≠ K do
        i ← i + 1
if i < n return i
else return −1
```

Another straightforward improvement can be incorporated in sequential search if a given list is known to be sorted: searching in such a list can be stopped as soon as an element greater than or equal to the search key is encountered.

Sequential search provides an excellent illustration of the brute-force approach, with its characteristic strength (simplicity) and weakness (inferior efficiency). The efficiency results obtained in Section 2.1 for the standard version of sequential search change for the enhanced version only very slightly, so that the algorithm remains linear in both the worst and average cases. We discuss later in the book several searching algorithms with a better time efficiency.

Brute-Force String Matching

Recall the string-matching problem introduced in Section 1.3: given a string of n characters called the ***text*** and a string of m characters ($m \le n$) called the ***pattern***, find a substring of the text that matches the pattern. To put it more precisely, we want to find i—the index of the leftmost character of the first matching substring in the text—such that $t_i = p_0, \ldots, t_{i+j} = p_j, \ldots, t_{i+m-1} = p_{m-1}$:



If matches other than the first one need to be found, a string-matching algorithm can simply continue working until the entire text is exhausted.

A brute-force algorithm for the string-matching problem is quite obvious: align the pattern against the first m characters of the text and start matching the corresponding pairs of characters from left to right until either all the m pairs of the characters match (then the algorithm can stop) or a mismatching pair is encountered. In the latter case, shift the pattern one position to the right and resume the character comparisons, starting again with the first character of the pattern and its counterpart in the text. Note that the last position in the text that can still be a beginning of a matching substring is $n - m$ (provided the text positions are indexed from 0 to $n - 1$). Beyond that position, there are not enough characters to match the entire pattern; hence, the algorithm need not make any comparisons there.

ALGORITHM *BruteForceStringMatch*$(T[0..n-1], P[0..m-1])$

```
//Implements brute-force string matching
//Input: An array T[0..n − 1] of n characters representing a text and
//       an array P[0..m − 1] of m characters representing a pattern
//Output: The index of the first character in the text that starts a
//        matching substring or −1 if the search is unsuccessful
for i ← 0 to n − m do
    j ← 0
    while j < m and P[j] = T[i + j] do
        j ← j + 1
    if j = m return i
return −1
```

An operation of the algorithm is illustrated in Figure 3.3. Note that for this example, the algorithm shifts the pattern almost always after a single character comparison. The worst case is much worse: the algorithm may have to make all m comparisons before shifting the pattern, and this can happen for each of the $n - m + 1$ tries. (Problem 6 in this section's exercises asks you to give a specific example of such a situation.) Thus, in the worst case, the algorithm makes

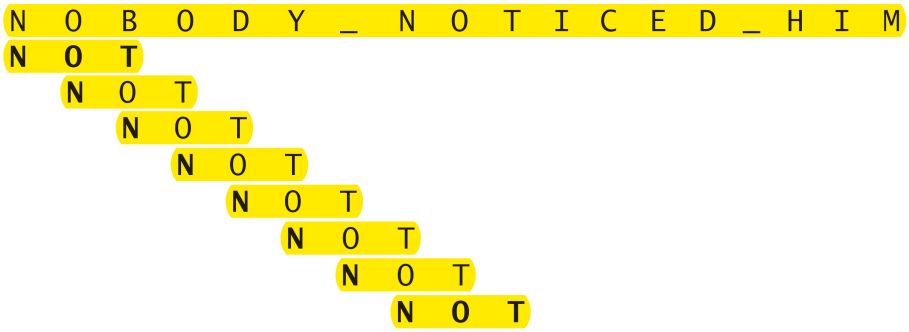


FIGURE 3.3 Example of brute-force string matching. The pattern's characters that are compared with their text counterparts are in bold type.

$m(n - m + 1)$ character comparisons, which puts it in the $O(nm)$ class. For a typical word search in a natural language text, however, we should expect that most shifts would happen after very few comparisons (check the example again). Therefore, the average-case efficiency should be considerably better than the worst-case efficiency. Indeed it is: for searching in random texts, it has been shown to be linear, i.e., $\Theta(n)$. There are several more sophisticated and more efficient algorithms for string searching. The most widely known of them—by R. Boyer and J. Moore—is outlined in Section 7.2 along with its simplification suggested by R. Horspool.

Exercises 3.2

1. Find the number of comparisons made by the sentinel version of sequential search
   a. in the worst case.
   b. in the average case if the probability of a successful search is p $(0 \le p \le 1)$.
2. As shown in Section 2.1, the average number of key comparisons made by sequential search (without a sentinel, under standard assumptions about its inputs) is given by the formula

$$C_{avg}(n) = \frac{p(n+1)}{2} + n(1-p),$$

   where p is the probability of a successful search. Determine, for a fixed n, the values of p $(0 \le p \le 1)$ for which this formula yields the maximum value of $C_{avg}(n)$ and the minimum value of $C_{avg}(n)$.

3. *Gadget testing* A firm wants to determine the highest floor of its n-story headquarters from which a gadget can fall without breaking. The firm has two identical gadgets to experiment with. If one of them gets broken, it cannot be repaired, and the experiment will have to be completed with the remaining gadget. Design an algorithm in the best efficiency class you can to solve this problem.

4. Determine the number of character comparisons made by the brute-force algorithm in searching for the pattern GANDHI in the text

   THERE_IS_MORE_TO_LIFE_THAN_INCREASING_ITS_SPEED

   Assume that the length of the text—it is 47 characters long—is known before the search starts.

5. How many comparisons (both successful and unsuccessful) will be made by the brute-force algorithm in searching for each of the following patterns in the binary text of one thousand zeros?

   a. 00001 **b.** 10000 **c.** 01010

6. Give an example of a text of length n and a pattern of length m that constitutes a worst-case input for the brute-force string-matching algorithm. Exactly how many character comparisons will be made for such input?

7. In solving the string-matching problem, would there be any advantage in comparing pattern and text characters right-to-left instead of left-to-right?

8. Consider the problem of counting, in a given text, the number of substrings that start with an A and end with a B. For example, there are four such substrings in CABAAXBYA.

   a. Design a brute-force algorithm for this problem and determine its efficiency class.

   b. Design a more efficient algorithm for this problem. [Gin04]

9. Write a visualization program for the brute-force string-matching algorithm.

10. *Word Find* A popular diversion in the United States, "word find" (or "word search") puzzles ask the player to find each of a given set of words in a square table filled with single letters. A word can read horizontally (left or right), vertically (up or down), or along a 45 degree diagonal (in any of the four directions) formed by consecutively adjacent cells of the table; it may wrap around the table's boundaries, but it must read in the same direction with no zigzagging. The same cell of the table may be used in different words, but, in a given word, the same cell may be used no more than once. Write a computer program for solving this puzzle.

11. *Battleship game* Write a program based on a version of brute-force pattern matching for playing the game Battleship on the computer. The rules of the game are as follows. There are two opponents in the game (in this case, a human player and the computer). The game is played on two identical boards (10×10 tables of squares) on which each opponent places his or her ships, not seen by the opponent. Each player has five ships, each of which occupies a certain number of squares on the board: a destroyer (two squares), a submarine (three squares), a cruiser (three squares), a battleship (four squares), and an aircraft carrier (five squares). Each ship is placed either horizontally or vertically, with no two ships touching each other. The game is played by the opponents taking turns "shooting" at each other's ships. The

result of every shot is displayed as either a hit or a miss. In case of a hit, the player gets to go again and keeps playing until missing. The goal is to sink all the opponent's ships before the opponent succeeds in doing it first. To sink a ship, all squares occupied by the ship must be hit.

3.3 Closest-Pair and Convex-Hull Problems by Brute Force

In this section, we consider a straightforward approach to two well-known problems dealing with a finite set of points in the plane. These problems, aside from their theoretical interest, arise in two important applied areas: computational geometry and operations research.

Closest-Pair Problem

The closest-pair problem calls for finding the two closest points in a set of n points. It is the simplest of a variety of problems in computational geometry that deals with proximity of points in the plane or higher-dimensional spaces. Points in question can represent such physical objects as airplanes or post offices as well as database records, statistical samples, DNA sequences, and so on. An air-traffic controller might be interested in two closest planes as the most probable collision candidates. A regional postal service manager might need a solution to the closest-pair problem to find candidate post-office locations to be closed.

One of the important applications of the closest-pair problem is cluster analysis in statistics. Based on n data points, hierarchical cluster analysis seeks to organize them in a hierarchy of clusters based on some similarity metric. For numerical data, this metric is usually the Euclidean distance; for text and other nonnumerical data, metrics such as the Hamming distance (see Problem 5 in this section's exercises) are used. A bottom-up algorithm begins with each element as a separate cluster and merges them into successively larger clusters by combining the closest pair of clusters.

For simplicity, we consider the two-dimensional case of the closest-pair problem. We assume that the points in question are specified in a standard fashion by their (x, y) Cartesian coordinates and that the distance between two points $p_i(x_i, y_i)$ and $p_j(x_j, y_j)$ is the standard Euclidean distance

$$d(p_i, p_j) = \sqrt{(x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2}.$$

The brute-force approach to solving this problem leads to the following obvious algorithm: compute the distance between each pair of distinct points and find a pair with the smallest distance. Of course, we do not want to compute the distance between the same pair of points twice. To avoid doing so, we consider only the pairs of points (p_i, p_j) for which $i < j$.

Pseudocode below computes the distance between the two closest points; getting the closest points themselves requires just a trivial modification.

ALGORITHM *BruteForceClosestPair*(P)

```
//Finds distance between two closest points in the plane by brute force
//Input: A list P of n (n ≥ 2) points p1(x1, y1), . . . , pn(xn, yn)
//Output: The distance between the closest pair of points
d ← ∞
for i ← 1 to n − 1 do
    for j ← i + 1 to n do
        d ← min(d, sqrt((xi − xj)^2 + (yi − yj)^2)) //sqrt is square root
return d
```

The basic operation of the algorithm is computing the square root. In the age of electronic calculators with a square-root button, one might be led to believe that computing the square root is as simple an operation as, say, addition or multiplication. Of course, it is not. For starters, even for most integers, square roots are irrational numbers that therefore can be found only approximately. Moreover, computing such approximations is not a trivial matter. But, in fact, computing square roots in the loop can be avoided! (Can you think how?) The trick is to realize that we can simply ignore the square-root function and compare the values $(x_i - x_j)^2 + (y_i - y_j)^2$ themselves. We can do this because the smaller a number of which we take the square root, the smaller its square root, or, as mathematicians say, the square-root function is strictly increasing.

Then the basic operation of the algorithm will be squaring a number. The number of times it will be executed can be computed as follows:

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n} 2 = 2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (n-i)$$
$$= 2[(n-1) + (n-2) + \cdots + 1] = (n-1)n \in \Theta(n^2).$$

Of course, speeding up the innermost loop of the algorithm could only decrease the algorithm's running time by a constant factor (see Problem 1 in this section's exercises), but it cannot improve its asymptotic efficiency class. In Chapter 5, we discuss a linearithmic algorithm for this problem, which is based on a more sophisticated design technique.

Convex-Hull Problem

On to the other problem—that of computing the convex hull. Finding the convex hull for a given set of points in the plane or a higher dimensional space is one of the most important—some people believe the most important—problems in computational geometry. This prominence is due to a variety of applications in which

this problem needs to be solved, either by itself or as a part of a larger task. Several such applications are based on the fact that convex hulls provide convenient approximations of object shapes and data sets given. For example, in computer animation, replacing objects by their convex hulls speeds up collision detection; the same idea is used in path planning for Mars mission rovers. Convex hulls are used in computing accessibility maps produced from satellite images by Geographic Information Systems. They are also used for detecting outliers by some statistical techniques. An efficient algorithm for computing a diameter of a set of points, which is the largest distance between two of the points, needs the set's convex hull to find the largest distance between two of its extreme points (see below). Finally, convex hulls are important for solving many optimization problems, because their extreme points provide a limited set of solution candidates.

We start with a definition of a convex set.

DEFINITION A set of points (finite or infinite) in the plane is called ***convex*** if for any two points p and q in the set, the entire line segment with the endpoints at p and q belongs to the set.

All the sets depicted in Figure 3.4a are convex, and so are a straight line, a triangle, a rectangle, and, more generally, any convex polygon,[1] a circle, and the entire plane. On the other hand, the sets depicted in Figure 3.4b, any finite set of two or more distinct points, the boundary of any convex polygon, and a circumference are examples of sets that are not convex.

Now we are ready for the notion of the convex hull. Intuitively, the convex hull of a set of n points in the plane is the smallest convex polygon that contains all of them either inside or on its boundary. If this formulation does not fire up your enthusiasm, consider the problem as one of barricading n sleeping tigers by a fence of the shortest length. This interpretation is due to D. Harel [Har92]; it is somewhat lively, however, because the fenceposts have to be erected right at the spots where some of the tigers sleep! There is another, much tamer interpretation of this notion. Imagine that the points in question are represented by nails driven into a large sheet of plywood representing the plane. Take a rubber band and stretch it to include all the nails, then let it snap into place. The convex hull is the area bounded by the snapped rubber band (Figure 3.5).

A formal definition of the convex hull that is applicable to arbitrary sets, including sets of points that happen to lie on the same line, follows.

DEFINITION The ***convex hull*** of a set S of points is the smallest convex set containing S. (The "smallest" requirement means that the convex hull of S must be a subset of any convex set containing S.)

If S is convex, its convex hull is obviously S itself. If S is a set of two points, its convex hull is the line segment connecting these points. If S is a set of three

1. By "a triangle, a rectangle, and, more generally, any convex polygon," we mean here a region, i.e., the set of points both inside and on the boundary of the shape in question.

b. a square

c. the boundary of a square

d. a straight line

9. Design a linear-time algorithm to determine two extreme points of the convex hull of a given set of $n > 1$ points in the plane.

10. What modification needs to be made in the brute-force algorithm for the convex-hull problem to handle more than two points on the same straight line?

11. Write a program implementing the brute-force algorithm for the convex-hull problem.

12. Consider the following small instance of the linear programming problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{maximize} \quad & 3x + 5y \\ \text{subject to} \quad & x + \ \ y \le 4 \\ & x + 3y \le 6 \\ & x \ge 0,\ y \ge 0. \end{aligned}$$

a. Sketch, in the Cartesian plane, the problem's ***feasible region***, defined as the set of points satisfying all the problem's constraints.

b. Identify the region's extreme points.

c. Solve this optimization problem by using the following theorem: A linear programming problem with a nonempty bounded feasible region always has a solution, which can be found at one of the extreme points of its feasible region.

3.4 Exhaustive Search

Many important problems require finding an element with a special property in a domain that grows exponentially (or faster) with an instance size. Typically, such problems arise in situations that involve—explicitly or implicitly—combinatorial objects such as permutations, combinations, and subsets of a given set. Many such problems are optimization problems: they ask to find an element that maximizes or minimizes some desired characteristic such as a path length or an assignment cost.

Exhaustive search is simply a brute-force approach to combinatorial problems. It suggests generating each and every element of the problem domain, selecting those of them that satisfy all the constraints, and then finding a desired element (e.g., the one that optimizes some objective function). Note that although the idea of exhaustive search is quite straightforward, its implementation typically requires an algorithm for generating certain combinatorial objects. We delay a discussion of such algorithms until the next chapter and assume here that they exist.

We illustrate exhaustive search by applying it to three important problems: the traveling salesman problem, the knapsack problem, and the assignment problem.

Traveling Salesman Problem

The ***traveling salesman problem (TSP)*** has been intriguing researchers for the last 150 years by its seemingly simple formulation, important applications, and interesting connections to other combinatorial problems. In layman's terms, the problem asks to find the shortest tour through a given set of n cities that visits each city exactly once before returning to the city where it started. The problem can be conveniently modeled by a weighted graph, with the graph's vertices representing the cities and the edge weights specifying the distances. Then the problem can be stated as the problem of finding the shortest ***Hamiltonian circuit*** of the graph. (A Hamiltonian circuit is defined as a cycle that passes through all the vertices of the graph exactly once. It is named after the Irish mathematician Sir William Rowan Hamilton (1805–1865), who became interested in such cycles as an application of his algebraic discoveries.)

It is easy to see that a Hamiltonian circuit can also be defined as a sequence of $n + 1$ adjacent vertices $v_{i_0}, v_{i_1}, \ldots, v_{i_{n-1}}, v_{i_0}$, where the first vertex of the sequence is the same as the last one and all the other $n - 1$ vertices are distinct. Further, we can assume, with no loss of generality, that all circuits start and end at one particular vertex (they are cycles after all, are they not?). Thus, we can get all the tours by generating all the permutations of $n - 1$ intermediate cities, compute the tour lengths, and find the shortest among them. Figure 3.7 presents a small instance of the problem and its solution by this method.

An inspection of Figure 3.7 reveals three pairs of tours that differ only by their direction. Hence, we could cut the number of vertex permutations by half. We could, for example, choose any two intermediate vertices, say, b and c, and then consider only permutations in which b precedes c. (This trick implicitly defines a tour's direction.)

This improvement cannot brighten the efficiency picture much, however. The total number of permutations needed is still $\frac{1}{2}(n-1)!$, which makes the exhaustive-search approach impractical for all but very small values of n. On the other hand, if you always see your glass as half-full, you can claim that cutting the work by half is nothing to sneeze at, even if you solve a small instance of the problem, especially by hand. Also note that had we not limited our investigation to the circuits starting at the same vertex, the number of permutations would have been even larger, by a factor of n.

Knapsack Problem

Here is another well-known problem in algorithmics. Given n items of known weights $w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n$ and values $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$ and a knapsack of capacity W, find the most valuable subset of the items that fit into the knapsack. If you do not like the idea of putting yourself in the shoes of a thief who wants to steal the most

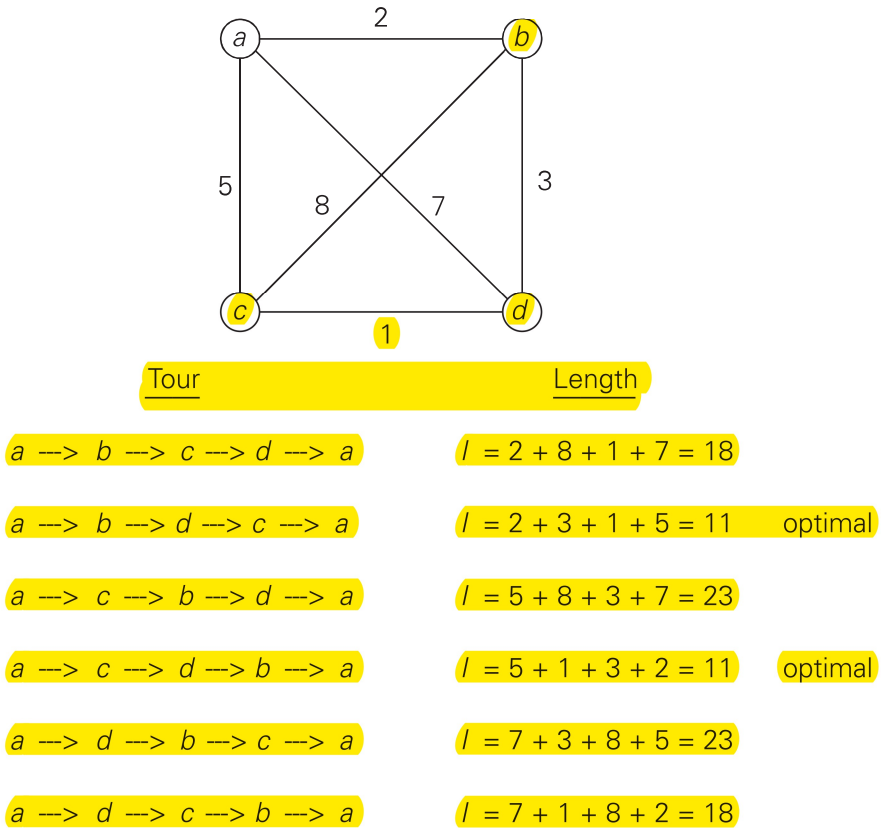


FIGURE 3.7 Solution to a small instance of the traveling salesman problem by exhaustive search.

valuable loot that fits into his knapsack, think about a transport plane that has to deliver the most valuable set of items to a remote location without exceeding the plane's capacity. Figure 3.8a presents a small instance of the knapsack problem.

The exhaustive-search approach to this problem leads to generating all the subsets of the set of n items given, computing the total weight of each subset in order to identify feasible subsets (i.e., the ones with the total weight not exceeding the knapsack capacity), and finding a subset of the largest value among them. As an example, the solution to the instance of Figure 3.8a is given in Figure 3.8b. Since the number of subsets of an n-element set is 2^n, the exhaustive search leads to a $\Omega(2^n)$ algorithm, no matter how efficiently individual subsets are generated.

Thus, for both the traveling salesman and knapsack problems considered above, exhaustive search leads to algorithms that are extremely inefficient on every input. In fact, these two problems are the best-known examples of so-called ***NP-hard problems***. No polynomial-time algorithm is known for any *NP*-hard problem. Moreover, most computer scientists believe that such algorithms do not exist, although this very important conjecture has never been proven. More-sophisticated approaches—backtracking and branch-and-bound (see Sections 12.1 and 12.2)—enable us to solve some but not all instances of these and