

ASSIGNMENT-1

ALGORITHMS, CSE 214

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CSE O-14

1. Short notes on Optimization

Optimization is a program transformation technique, which tries to improve the code by making it consume less resources (CPU, Memory) and deliver high speed.

In optimization, high-level general programming constructs are replaced by very efficient low-level programming codes. A code optimizing process must follow the three rules given below:

- The output code must not, in any way, change the meaning of the program.
- Optimization should increase the speed of the program and if possible, the program should demand a smaller number of resources.
- Optimization should itself be fast and should not delay the overall compiling process.

Efforts for an optimized code can be made at various levels of compiling the process.

- At the beginning, users can change/rearrange the code or use better algorithms to write the code.
- After generating intermediate code, the compiler can modify the intermediate code by address calculations and improving loops.
- While producing the target machine code, the compiler can make use of memory hierarchy and CPU registers.

Optimization can be categorized broadly into two types: machine independent and machine dependent.

2. Different algorithms that I know.

- Some algorithms (selection, bubble, heapsort) work by moving elements to their final position, one at a time. You sort an array of size N, put 1 item in place, and continue sorting an array of size N-1 (heapsort is slightly different).
- Some algorithms (insertion, quicksort, counting, radix) put items into a temporary position, close(r) to their final position. You rescan, moving items closer to the final position with each iteration.
- One technique is to start with a "sorted list" of one element, and merge unsorted items into it, one at a time.

Complexity and running time

- a. **Factors:** algorithmic complexity, startup costs, additional space requirements, use of recursion (function calls are expensive and eat stack space), worst-case behavior, assumptions about input data, caching, and behavior on already-sorted or nearly-sorted data
- b. Worst-case behavior is important for real-time systems that need guaranteed performance. For security, you want the guarantee that data from an attacker does not have the ability to overwhelm your machine.
- c. Caching algorithms with sequential comparisons take advantage of spatial locality and prefetching, which is good for caching.
- d. Algorithmic time vs. real time The simple algorithms may be $O(N^2)$, but have low overhead. They can be faster for sorting small data sets (< 10 items). One compromise is to use a different sorting method depending on the input size.
- e. "Comparison sorts" make no assumptions on the data and compare all elements against each other (majority of sorts). O(N lg N) time is the ideal "worst-case" scenario (if that makes sense O(N lg N) is the smallest penalty you can hope for in the worst case). Heapsort has this behavior.
- f. O(N) time is possible if we make assumptions about the data and don't need to compare elements against each other (i.e., we know the data falls into a certain range or has some distribution). O(N) clearly is the minimum sorting time possible, since we must examine every element at least once (how can you sort an item you do not even examine?).

Bubble Sort [Best: O(N), Worst, (N^2)]

Starting on the left, compare adjacent items and keep "bubbling" the larger one to the right (it's in its final place). Bubble sort the remaining N -1 items.

• Though "simple" I found bubble sort nontrivial. In general, sorts where you iterate backwards (decreasing some index) were counter-intuitive for me. With bubble-sort, either you bubble items "forward" (left-to-right) and move the endpoint backwards (decreasing), or bubble items "backward" (right-toleft) and increase the left endpoint. Either way, some index is decreasing.

• You also need to keep track of the next-to-last endpoint, so you don't swap with a non-existent item.

Selection Sort [Best/Worst: O(N^2)]

Scan all items and find the smallest. Swap it into position as the first item. Repeat the selection sort on the remaining N-1 items.

• I found this the most intuitive and easiest to implement — you always iterate forward (i from 0 to N-1), and swap with the smallest element (always i).

Quicksort [Best: O (N Lg N), Avg: O (N Lg N), Worst(N^2)]

There are many versions of Quicksort, which is one of the most popular sorting methods due to its speed (O (N \lg N) average, but O(N 2) worst case). Here's a few:

Using external memory:

- Pick a "pivot" item
- Partition the other items by adding them to a "less than pivot" sub list, or "greater than pivot" sub list
- The pivot goes between the two lists
- Repeat the quicksort on the sub lists, until you get to a sub list of size 1 (which is sorted).
- Combine the lists the entire list will be sorted

3. Why I am learning so many algorithms

Algorithms are clearly specified means to solve problems.

You want to know two things about an algorithm:

- 1. Does it solve the problem?
- 2. Does it use resources efficiently?

If you write code that does not solve the problem, or if it solves the problem but uses resources inefficiently (for example, it takes too long or uses too much memory), then your code doesn't really help.

That's why we study algorithms. We want to know that our code is based on ideas that solve the problem and that we're using resources efficiently. And we want to know that our solution is correct and efficient for all possible situations, or at least to know that the cases in which our algorithm fails to meet these criteria are rare.

Even if you intend to just call functions in APIs and not design algorithms yourself, you should know about the algorithms and data structures used in implementing these APIs. No data structure is the best choice for every situation, and so you need to know the strengths and weaknesses of each.

4. Show analysis of a recursive algorithm

Example: Factorial

```
n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3...n and 0! = 1 (called initial case) So, the recursive definition n! = n \cdot (n-1)!
```

Algorithm
$$F(n)$$
 if $n = 0$ then return $1 / /$ base case else $F(n-1) \cdot n / /$ recursive call

Basic operation? multiplication during the recursive call

Formula for multiplication

$$M(n) = M(n-1) + 1$$
 is a recursive

formula too. This is typical.

We need the initial case which corresponds to the base case M

$$(0) = 0$$

There are no multiplications

Solve by the method of backward substitutions

```
M(n) = M(n-1) + 1

= [M(n-2) + 1] + 1 = M(n-2) + 2 substituted M(n-2) for M(n-1)

= [M(n-3) + 1] + 2 = M(n-3) + 3 substituted M(n-3) for M(n-2)

... a pattern evolves

= M(0) + n

= n

Therefore M(n) \in \Theta(n)
```

5. Design an iterative and recursive algorithm and prove that your algorithm works

· Iterative (Binary Search) class

```
// we find the mid value in the search space and
                    // compares it with key
value
                           int mid = (left + right)
/ 2;
                    // overflow can happen. Use:
                    // int mid = left + (right - left) / 2;
                    // int mid = right - (right - left) / 2;
                    // key value is found
             if (x == A[mid]) {
       return mid;
                     }
                    // discard all elements in the right search
                           // including the mid element
space
else if (x < A[mid]) {
                                               right = mid - 1;
                    // discard all elements in the left search space
                    // including the mid element
                    else {
                           left = mid + 1;
                     }
              }
             // x doesn't exist in the array
             return -1;
       }
       public static void main(String[] args)
       {
```

```
int[] A = \{ 2, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10 \};
      int key = 5;
             int index = binarySearch (A, key);
             if (index != -1) {
                    System.out.println("Element found at index " + index);
             } else {
                    System.out.println("Element not found in the array");
      }
}
      Recursive (Binary Search) class
   Main
   {
      // Find out if a key x exists in the sorted array
                                                           //
   A[left..right] or not using binary search algorithm
                                                           public
   static int binarySearch(int[] A, int left, int right, int x)
      {
             // Base condition (search space is exhausted)
             if (left > right) {
                   return -1;
             }
             // we find the mid value in the search space and
```

```
// compares it with key value
         int mid = (left + right) / 2;
         // overflow can happen. Use below
         // int mid = left + (right - left) / 2;
         // Base condition (key value is found)
         if (x == A[mid]) {
                return mid;
          }
         // discard all elements in the right search space
         // including the mid element
                                                  else if
(x < A[mid]) {
                                    return
binarySearch(A, left, mid - 1, x);
          }
         // discard all elements in the left search space
         // including the mid element
         else {
                return binarySearch(A, mid + 1, right, x);
          }
   }
   public static void main(String[] args)
```

Algorithm Prove

We know that at each step of algorithm, our search space reduces to half. That means if initially our search space reduces to half. That means if initially our search space contains n elements, then after one iteration it contains n/2 then n/4 and so on ...

$$n - > n/2 - > n/4 \dots - > 1$$

Suppose after K steps our search apace is executed.

```
n/2k =1 n=
2k
k = long2n
```

There for time complexity of binary search algorithm is O(log2n) which is very efficient. Auxiliary space used by it is O(log2n) for recursive implementation due to call stack.

Thank You Sir