

## Project 4: sean-shreeji

**Description**

In this project we have implemented and compared two algorithms that solve the budgeted time-maximization problem. For one algorithm we use the dynamic pattern. This algorithm creates a cache of the “best” (highest time-per-cost) ride item that fits within the budget and keeps selecting ride items from that cache. For the second algorithm we use the exhaustive pattern, which is far slower than the dynamic algorithm. Specifically, among all subsets of rides, the exhaustive algorithm returns the subset whose cost in dollars fits within the budget and whose time is the largest. Comparing both the algorithms and their time complexity, we elaborate and demonstrate the extent that the dynamic algorithm outperforms the exhaustive algorithm.

**exhaustive**

```
std::unique_ptr<RideVector> exhaustive_max_time (const RideVector& rides, double total_cost) {

    int n = rides.size();
    if (n > 64) { n = 64; }
    for (size_t bits = 0; bits <= 2^n - 1; bits++) {
        unique_ptr<RideVector> candidate;
        for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {
            if ((bits >> j & 1) == 1) {
                candidate.push_back(rides[j]);
            }
        }
        int* total_cost_candidate, total_time_candidate;
        sum_ride_vector(candidate);
        int* total_time_main, total_cost_main;
        sum_ride_vector(best)
        if (total_cost_candidate <= total_cost) {
```

	<b>Step Count: 2</b>
if (n > 64) { n = 64; }	<b>2</b>
for (size_t bits = 0; bits <= 2^n - 1; bits++) {	<b>2^n</b>
for (int j = 0; j < n; j++) {	<b>n</b>
if ((bits >> j & 1) == 1) {	<b>3</b>
candidate.push_back(rides[j]);	<b>1 + 1 amortized</b>
}	
}	
int* total_cost_candidate, total_time_candidate;	
sum_ride_vector(candidate);	<b>n</b>
int* total_time_main, total_cost_main;	
sum_ride_vector(best)	<b>n</b>
if (total_cost_candidate <= total_cost) {	<b>1</b>

```

if (best.empty() || total_time_candidate > total_time_main) {
    *best = *candidate;
}
}
}

return best;
}

```

**Total step count:**

$$T(n) = (2^n)n + (2^n)5 + 4$$

$$T(n) = (2^n)7n + (2^n)5 + 4$$

**Big O notation:  $O(n * 2^n)$**

I will prove that the algorithm  $f(n)$  belongs to the order of  $O(g(n))$ . I will use L'hospital's rule.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F(n)}{G(n)} = \infty$$

If the limit as  $n$  approaches infinity, of  $f(n) / g(n)$  is defined and non-negative then  $f(n)$  belongs to the order of  $O(g(n))$ .

$$\text{Let } f(n) = (2^n)7n + (2^n)5 + 4$$

$$\text{Let } g(n) = (2^n)n$$

Using L'Hospital's Rule

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F(n)}{G(n)} = \frac{((2^n)7n + (2^n)5 + 4)}{((2^n)n)}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F'(n)}{G'(n)} = \frac{(-\ln(2) * 2^{(n+2)}n - 5 * 4^n - 2^{(n+2)})}{(4^n * n^2)}$$

limit = 0 as  $n$  approaches infinity

**The limit is defined and non-negative, therefore this algorithm belongs to the order of  $O(n * 2^n)$ .**

### dynamic

```
std::unique_ptr<RideVector> dynamic_max_time (const RideVector& rides, int total_cost) {  
    std::vector<std::vector<double>> cache;  
    std::unique_ptr<RideVector> source(new RideVector(rides));  
    std::unique_ptr<RideVector> result(new RideVector);  
    for (int i=0; i<=rides.size(); i++) {  
        cache.push_back(std::vector<double>());  
        for (int j=0; j<=total_cost+1; j++)  
            cache.at(i).push_back(0.0);  
    }  
    double results = 0.0;  
    for (int i = 1; i<= rides.size();i++) {  
        for (int j =1; j<= total_cost; j++) {  
            std::shared_ptr<RideItem> item = rides[i-1];  
            if ((j-item->cost())>=0)  
                results = std::max((item->time()+ cache[i-1][j-item->cost()]), cache[i-1][j]);  
            else  
                results = cache[i-1][j];  
            cache[i][j]=results;  
        }  
    }  
    double tempcost = total_cost;  
    for (int i = rides.size(); i >0; i--) {  
        if (cache[i][tempcost]== cache[i-1][tempcost]){  
            continue;  
        }  
        else {  
            result-> push_back(source-> at(i-1));  
            tempcost-=(rides.at(i-1))-> cost();  
        }  
    }  
    return result;  
}
```

**Step Count:**

$n + 1 * ($	<b>1 amortized</b>
$m + 2 * (1)$	<b>1 amortized</b>
$1$	<b>1</b>
$n * (m * nm+8)$	<b>1</b>
$m *(nm+8)$	<b>2</b>
$2 + \max(2, nm+3)$	<b>2 + max(2, nm+3)</b>
$n*m + 3$	<b>n*m + 3</b>
$3$	<b>3</b>
$1$	<b>1</b>
$1$	<b>1</b>
$n * (9)$	<b>n * (9)</b>
$3 + \max (0, 1 \text{ amortized} + 5)$	<b>3 + max (0, 1 amortized + 5)</b>
$1 \text{ amortized} + 2$	<b>1 amortized + 2</b>
$3$	<b>3</b>

**Total step count:**

$$T(n) = m^2n^2 + 9mn + m + 12n + 5$$

$$T(n) = m^2n^2 + 9mn + m + 12n + 5$$

**Big O notation:  $O(m^2 * n^2)$**

I will prove that the algorithm  $f(n)$  belongs to the order of  $O(g(n))$ . I will use L'Hospital's rule.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F(n)}{G(n)} = \infty$$

If the limit as  $n$  approaches infinity, of  $f(n) / g(n)$  is defined and non-negative then  $f(n)$  belongs to the order of  $O(g(n))$ .

$$\text{Let } f(n) = m^2n^2 + 9mn + m + 12n + 5$$

$$\text{Let } g(n) = m^2n^2$$

Using L'Hospital's Rule

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F(n)}{G(n)} = \frac{(m^2n^2 + 9mn + m + 12n + 5)}{(m^2n^2)}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F'(n)}{G'(n)} = \frac{(2m * 2n + 10)}{(2m * 2n)}$$

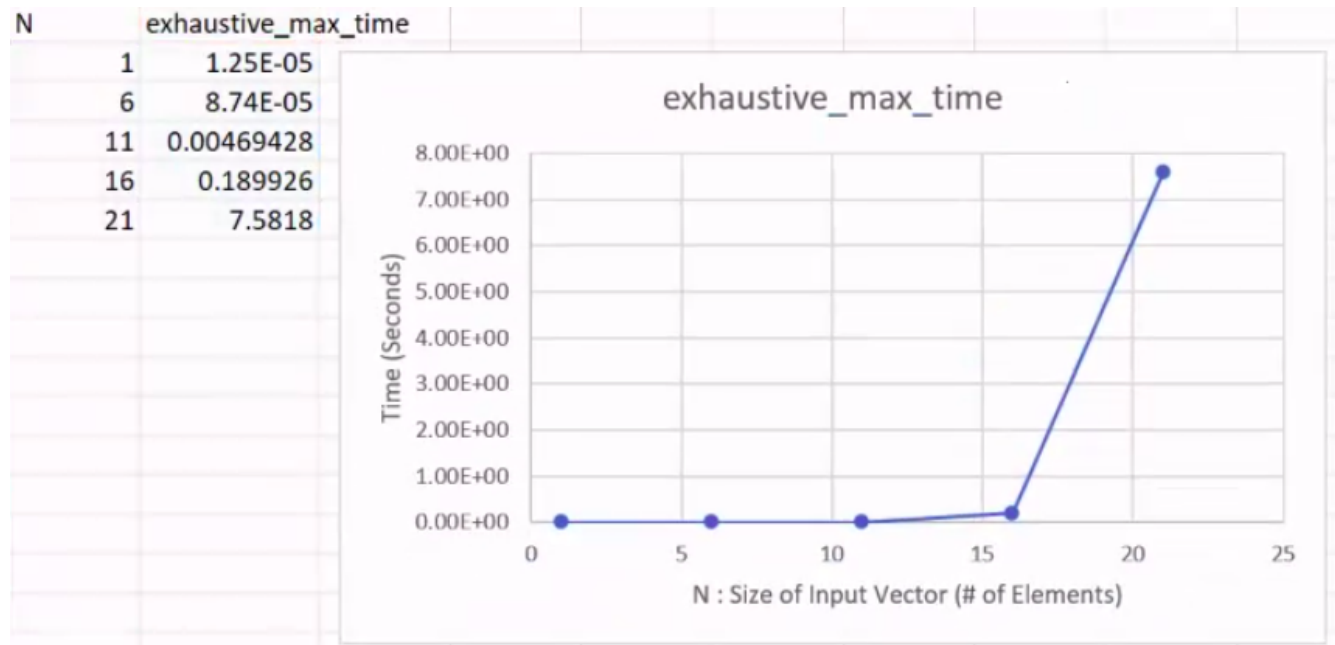
limit = 1 as  $n$  approaches infinity

**The limit is defined and non-negative, therefore this algorithm belongs to the order of  $O(n^2 m^2)$ .**

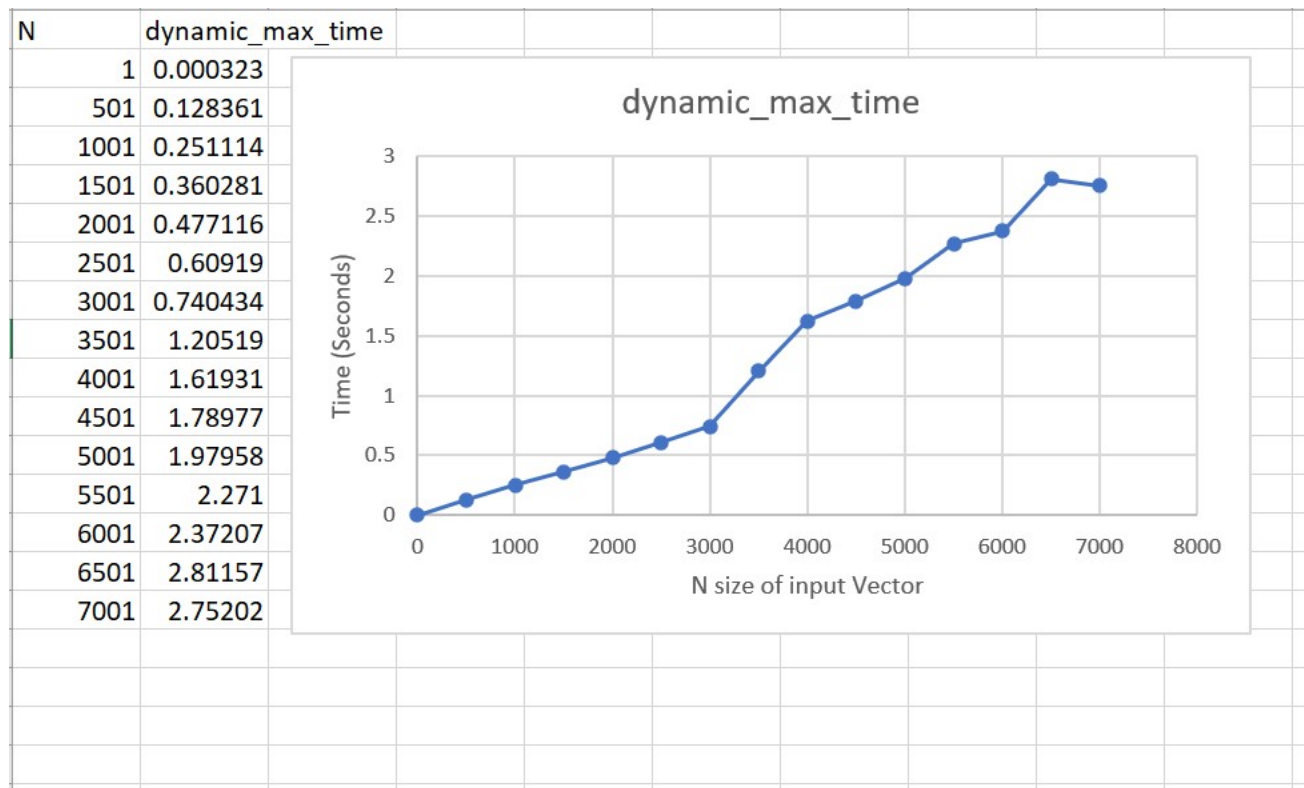
## Empirical Data (Scatter Plots)

The tables contain the N values (size of input vector) in the left column and the time in seconds (obtained from running each algorithm with an input size of “n”) in the right column.

### exhaustive



### dynamic



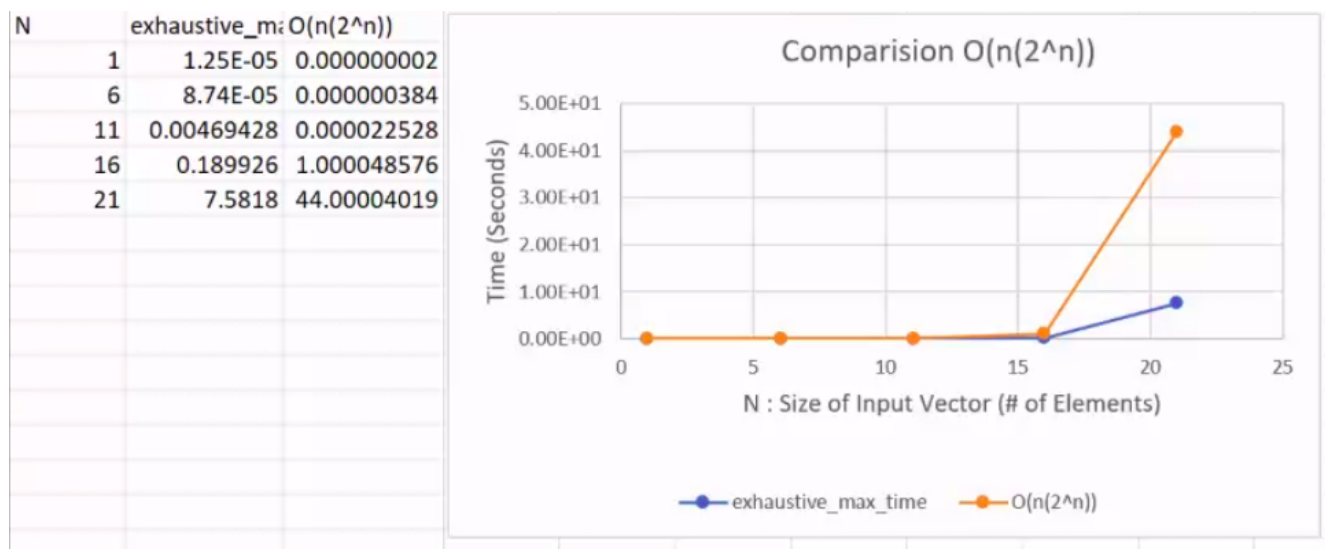
### Questions:

a) There is a noticeable difference in the performance of the two algorithms. The dynamic selection algorithm is much faster in terms of run-time. This does not surprise us. Our dynamic algorithm is  $O(n^2 m^2)$  while our exhaustive algorithm is  $O(n \cdot 2^n)$ . The exhaustive algorithm's complexity is much larger than the dynamic algorithm's complexity. This becomes most obvious when we compare the graphs of both functions side-by-side.

b)

#### **exhaustive**

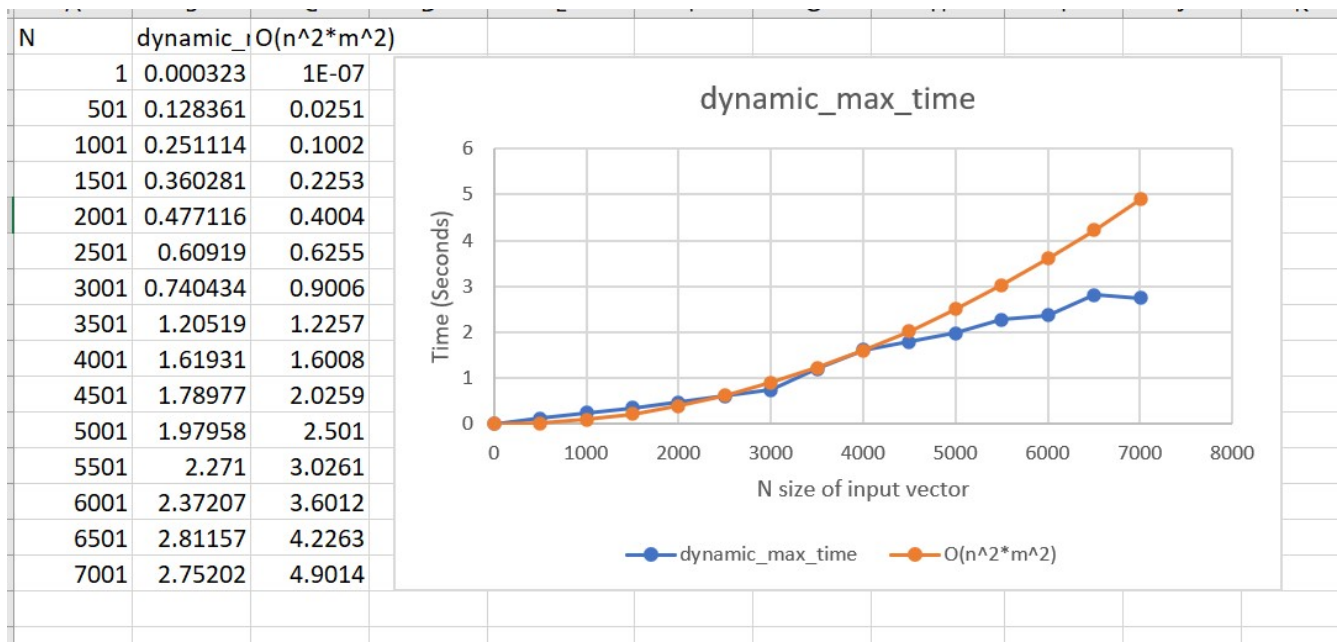
We took  $(n \cdot 2^n)$  for our various input sizes, and scaled down the result (by 1 billion) to represent nanoseconds. So for  $n = 2$ , we took  $2 \cdot 0.000000001$ . Then we plotted that line against our empirically-observed data.



From this graph, we can see that our empirically-observed data is consistent with our mathematically-derived big-O efficiency class.

#### **dynamic**

We took  $m$  as 1000 for our various input sizes, and derived  $O(n^2 m^2)$ , and scaled down the result (by 10 trillion). So for  $n = 2$ , we took  $2^2 \cdot 1000^2 \cdot 0.000000000000001$ . Then we plotted that line against our empirically-observed data.



From this graph, we can see that our empirically-observed data is consistent with our mathematically-derived big-O efficiency class.

c) We will restate the hypothesis.

*Exhaustive search algorithms are feasible to implement, and produce correct outputs.*

The evidence is consistent with the hypothesis. This exhaustive search algorithm was feasible to implement. In fact, the algorithm was quite straightforward to implement. I believe a similar algorithm could be easily implemented for any similar problems of this nature. The outputs were correct each time.

d) We will restate the second hypothesis.

*Algorithms with exponential running times are extremely slow, probably too slow to be of practical use.*

The evidence is consistent with the second hypothesis. The exhaustive algorithm, with an exponential running time, was extremely slow and was in fact too slow of any practical use. When applied to a sample size of only 21 elements, our run time was over 7 seconds. At 26 elements, our operating systems would kill the process for taking too long. When you look at the sharp increase in running time when we change element sizes from 16 to 21, the impracticality becomes obvious. At 16 elements, the running time was still less than 1/5th of a second. When we increase the elements to 21 (only 5 more elements), the running time shoots up to 7 seconds. From this trend, we can see why 26 elements was taking too long to execute. Our dynamic algorithm, by comparison, was able to execute on an sample with over 7,000 elements in about 3 seconds. In conclusion, algorithms with exponential running times are extremely slow, and this particular algorithm is too slow to be of practical use. The dynamic algorithm is quadratic, not exponential. This algorithm can be of practical use, by comparison.