#### Introduction to Algorithm design and analysis

Example: sorting problem.

Input: a sequence of n number  $\langle a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \rangle$ Output: a permutation (reordering)  $\langle a_1', a_2', ..., a_n' \rangle$ such that  $a_1' \leq a_2' \leq ... \leq a_n'$ .

Different sorting algorithms:

Insertion sort and Mergesort.

#### Efficiency comparison of two algorithms

#### • Suppose $n=10^6$ numbers:

- Insertion sort:  $c_1 n^2$
- Merge sort:  $c_2 n (\lg n)$
- Best programmer ( $c_1$ =2), machine language, one billion/second computer A.
- Bad programmer ( $c_2$ =50), high-language, ten million/second computer B.
- $-2(10^6)^2$  instructions/ $10^9$  instructions per second = 2000 seconds.
- 50 (10<sup>6</sup> lg 10<sup>6</sup>) instructions/10<sup>7</sup> instructions per second ≈ 100 seconds.
- Thus, merge sort on B is 20 times faster than insertion sort on A!
- If sorting ten million numbers, 2.3 days VS. 20 minutes.

#### • Conclusions:

- Algorithms for solving the same problem can differ dramatically in their efficiency.
- much more significant than the differences due to hardware and software.

# Algorithm Design and Analysis

- Design an algorithm
  - Prove the algorithm is correct.
    - Loop invariant.
    - Recursive function.
    - Formal (mathematical) proof.
- Analyze the algorithm
  - Time
    - Worse case, best case, average case.
    - For some algorithms, worst case occurs often, average case is often roughly as bad as the worst case. So generally, worse case running time.
  - Space
- Sequential and parallel algorithms
  - Random-Access-Model (RAM)
  - Parallel multi-processor access model: PRAM

# Insertion Sort Algorithm (cont.)

#### INSERTION-SORT(A) for j = 2 to length[A] **do** $key \leftarrow A[j]$ 3. //insert A[j] to sorted sequence A[1..j-1] $i \leftarrow j-1$ 4. while i > 0 and A[i] > key5. 6. **do** $A[i+1] \leftarrow A[i]$ //move A[i] one position right $i \leftarrow i-1$ 7. 8. $A[i+1] \leftarrow key$

### Correctness of Insertion Sort Algorithm

#### Loop invariant

 At the start of each iteration of the for loop, the subarray A[1..j-1] contains original A[1..j-1] but in sorted order.

#### • Proof:

- Initialization : j=2, A[1..j-1]=A[1..1]=A[1], sorted.
- Maintenance: each iteration maintains loop invariant.
- Termination: j=n+1, so A[1..j-1]=A[1..n] in sorted order.

# Analysis of Insertion Sort

```
INSERTION-SORT(A)
                                                                       cost times
        for j = 2 to length[A]
                                                                       C_1
                                                                                   n
2.
          do key \leftarrow A[j]
                                                                       c_2 n-1
3.
            //insert A[j] to sorted sequence A[1..j-1]
                                                                        0 \qquad n-1
                                                                        c_4 n-1
             i \leftarrow j-1
                                                                        c_{5} \sum_{j=2}^{n} t_{j}
c_{6} \sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_{j}-1)
c_{7} \sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_{j}-1)
5.
            while i > 0 and A[i] > key
6.
                 do A[i+1] \leftarrow A[i]
7.
                   i \leftarrow i-1
8.
             A[i+1] \leftarrow key
                                                                                   n-1
(t_i) is the number of times the while loop test in line 5 is executed for that value of j)
The total time cost T(n) = \text{sum of } cost \times times \text{ in each line}
                    =c_1n+c_2(n-1)+c_4(n-1)+c_5\sum_{i=2}^n t_i+c_6\sum_{i=2}^n (t_i-1)+c_7\sum_{i=2}^n (t_i-1)+c_8(n-1)
```

# Analysis of Insertion Sort (cont.)

- Best case cost: already ordered numbers
  - $-t_i=1$ , and line 6 and 7 will be executed 0 times

$$- T(n) = c_1 n + c_2(n-1) + c_4(n-1) + c_5(n-1) + c_8(n-1)$$

$$= (c_1 + c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8)n - (c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8) = cn + c'$$

- Worst case cost: reverse ordered numbers
  - $-t_j=j,$
  - SO  $\sum_{j=2}^{n} t_j = \sum_{j=2}^{n} j = n(n+1)/2-1$ , and  $\sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_j-1) = \sum_{j=2}^{n} (j-1) = n(n-1)/2$ , and
  - $T(n) = c_1 n + c_2 (n-1) + c_4 (n-1) + c_5 (n(n+1)/2 1) + c_6 (n(n-1)/2 1) + c_7 (n(n-1)/2) + c_8 (n-1) = ((c_5 + c_6 + c_7)/2) n_2 + (c_1 + c_2 + c_4 + c_5/2 c_6/2 c_7/2 + c_8) n (c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8) = an^2 + bn + c$
- Average case cost: random numbers
  - in average,  $t_i = j/2$ . T(n) will still be in the order of  $n^2$ , same as the worst case.

# Merge Sort—divide-and-conquer

- **Divide:** divide the n-element sequence into two subproblems of n/2 elements each.
- Conquer: sort the two subsequences recursively using merge sort. If the length of a sequence is 1, do nothing since it is already in order.
- Combine: merge the two sorted subsequences to produce the sorted answer.

## Merge Sort –merge function

- Merge is the key operation in merge sort.
- Suppose the (sub)sequence(s) are stored in the array A. moreover, A[p..q] and A[q+1..r] are two sorted subsequences.
- MERGE(A,p,q,r) will merge the two subsequences into sorted sequence A[p..r]
  - MERGE(A,p,q,r) takes  $\Theta(r$ -p+1).

# MERGE-SORT(A,p,r)

- 1. if p < r
- 2. then  $q \leftarrow \lfloor (p+r)/2 \rfloor$
- 3. MERGE-SORT(A,p,q)
- 4. MERGE-SORT(A,q+1,r)
- 5. MERGE(A,p,q,r)

Call to MERGE-SORT(A,1,n) (suppose n=length(A))

# Analysis of Divide-and-Conquer

- Described by recursive equation
- Suppose T(n) is the running time on a problem of size n.

• 
$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n \le n_c \\ aT(n/b) + D(n) + C(n) & \text{if } n > n_c \end{cases}$$

Where *a*: number of subproblems

n/b: size of each subproblem

D(n): cost of divide operation

C(n): cost of combination operation

# Analysis of MERGE-SORT

- **Divide**:  $D(n) = \Theta(1)$
- Conquer: a=2,b=2, so 2T(n/2)
- Combine:  $C(n) = \Theta(n)$
- $T(n) = \Theta(1)$  if n=1 $2T(n/2) + \Theta(n)$  if n>1
- $T(n) = \begin{cases} c & \text{if } n=1 \\ 2T(n/2) + cn & \text{if } n>1 \end{cases}$

# Compute T(n) by Recursive Tree

- The recursive equation can be solved by recursive tree.
- T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn, (See its Recursive Tree).
- $\lg n+1$  levels, cn at each level, thus
- Total cost for merge sort is
  - $-T(n) = cn \lg n + cn = \Theta(n \lg n).$
  - Question: best, worst, average?
- In contrast, insertion sort is
  - $T(n) = \Theta(n^2).$

### Recursion tree of T(n)=2T(n/2)+cn

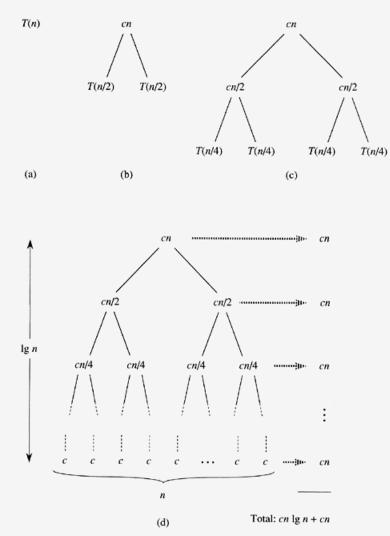
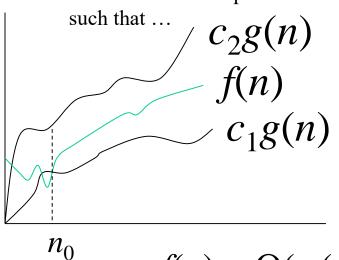


Figure 2.5 The construction of a recursion tree for the recurrence T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn. Part (a) shows T(n), which is progressively expanded in (b)–(d) to form the recursion tree. The fully expanded tree in part (d) has  $\lg n + 1$  levels (i.e., it has height  $\lg n$ , as indicated), and each level contributes a total cost of cn. The total cost, therefore, is  $cn \lg n + cn$ , which is  $\Theta(n \lg n)$ .

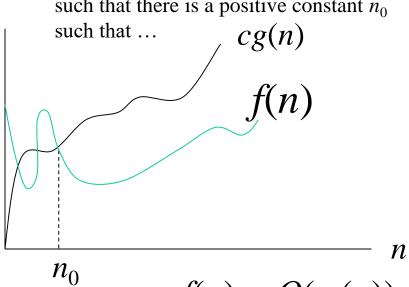
## Order of growth

- Lower order item(s) are ignored, just keep the highest order item.
- The constant coefficient(s) are ignored.
- The rate of growth, or the order of growth, possesses the highest significance.
- Use  $\Theta(n^2)$  to represent the worst case running time for insertion sort.
- Typical order of growth:  $\Theta(1)$ ,  $\Theta(\lg n)$ ,  $\Theta(\sqrt{n})$ ,  $\Theta(n)$ ,  $\Theta(n\lg n)$ ,  $\Theta(n^2)$ ,  $\Theta(n^3)$ ,  $\Theta(2^n)$ ,  $\Theta(n!)$
- Asymptotic notations:  $\Theta$ , O,  $\Omega$ , o,  $\omega$ .

There exist positive constants  $c_1$  and  $c_2$ such that there is a positive constant  $n_0$ 



There exist positive constants c such that there is a positive constant  $n_0$ 



$$f(n) = O(g(n))$$

n

 $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ 

There exist positive constants c such that there is a positive constant  $n_0$ such that ... f(n) $n_0$ 

$$f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$$

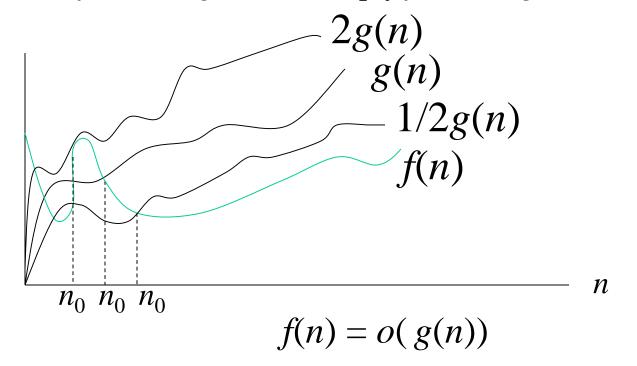
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Prove 
$$f(n)=an^2+bn+c=\Theta(n^2)$$

- a, b, c are constants and a>0.
- Find  $c_1$ , and  $c_2$  (and  $n_0$ ) such that
  - $-c_1 n^2 \le f(n) \le c_2 n^2$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ .
- It turns out:  $c_1 = a/4$ ,  $c_2 = 7a/4$  and
  - $-n_0 = 2 \cdot \max(|\mathbf{b}|/\mathbf{a}, \operatorname{sqrt}(|\mathbf{c}|/\mathbf{a}))$
- Here we also can see that lower terms and constant coefficient can be ignored.
- How about  $f(n)=an^3+bn^2+cn+d$ ?

#### o-notation

- For a given function g(n),
  - o(g(n))={f(n): for any positive constant c, there exists a positive  $n_0$  such that  $0 \le f(n) \le cg(n)$  for all  $n \ge n_0$ }
  - Write  $f(n) \in o(g(n))$ , or simply f(n) = o(g(n)).



### Notes on o-notation

- *O*-notation may or may not be asymptotically tight for upper bound.
  - $-2n^2 = O(n^2)$  is tight, but  $2n = O(n^2)$  is not tight.
- o-notition is used to denote an upper bound that is not tight.
  - $-2n = o(n^2)$ , but  $2n^2 \neq o(n^2)$ .
- Difference: for some positive constant *c* in *O*-notation, but all positive constants *c* in *o*-notation.
- In o-notation, f(n) becomes insignificant relative to g(n) as n approaches infinitely: i.e.,

$$-\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{f(n)}{g(n)}=0.$$

#### ω-notation

- For a given function g(n),
  - $ω(g(n))={f(n): for any positive constant c, there exists a positive <math>n_0$  such that 0 ≤ cg(n) ≤ f(n) for all  $n ≥ n_0$ }
  - Write  $f(n) \in \omega(g(n))$ , or simply  $f(n) = \omega(g(n))$ .
- ω-notation, similar to *o*-notation, denotes lower bound that is not asymptotically tight.
  - $n^2/2 = \omega(n)$ , but  $n^2/2 \neq \omega(n^2)$
- $f(n) = \omega(g(n))$  if and only if g(n) = o(f(n)).
- $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f(n)}{g(n)} = \infty$

#### Techniques for Algorithm Design and Analysis

- Data structure: the way to store and organize data.
  - Disjoint sets
  - Balanced search trees (red-black tree, AVL tree, 2-3 tree).
- Design techniques:
  - divide-and-conquer, dynamic programming, prune-and-search,
     laze evaluation, linear programming, ...
- Analysis techniques:
  - Analysis: recurrence, decision tree, adversary argument, amortized analysis,...

## NP-complete problem

#### • Hard problem:

- Most problems discussed are efficient (poly time)
- An interesting set of hard problems: NP-complete.

#### • Why interesting:

- Not known whether efficient algorithms exist for them.
- If exist for one, then exist for all.
- A small change may cause big change.

#### • Why important:

- Arise surprisingly often in real world.
- Not waste time on trying to find an efficient algorithm to get best solution, instead find approximate or near-optimal solution.
- Example: traveling-salesman problem.