Analysis of Algorithms, I CSOR W4321

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Outline

1 Overview

- 2 A first algorithm: insertion sort
- 3 Analysis of algorithms
- 4 Efficient algorithms

Today

1 Overview

- 2 A first algorithm: insertion sort
- 3 Analysis of algorithms
- 4 Efficient algorithms

Algorithms

- An algorithm is a well-defined computational procedure that transforms the input (a set of values) into the output (a new set of values).
- ▶ The desired input/output relationship is specified by the statement of the **computational problem** for which the algorithm is designed.
- ► An algorithm is **correct** if, for every input, it **halts** with the correct output.

Efficient Algorithms

- ▶ In this course we are interested in algorithms that are correct and efficient.
- ► Efficiency is related to the resources an algorithm uses: time, space
 - ► How much time/space are used?
 - ► How do they scale as the input size grows?

We will primarily focus on efficiency in **running time**.

Running time

Running time = number of primitive computational steps performed; typically these are

- 1. arithmetic operations: add, subtract, multiply, divide fixed-size integers
- 2. data movement operations: load, store, copy
- 3. control operations: branching, subroutine call and return

We will use pseudocode for our algorithm descriptions.

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Sorting

- ▶ **Input:** A list A of n integers x_1, \ldots, x_n .
- ▶ Output: A permutation x'_1, x'_2, \ldots, x'_n of the *n* integers where they are sorted in non-decreasing order, i.e., $x'_1 \leq x'_2 \leq \ldots \leq x'_n$

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Example

- ▶ Input: n = 6, $A = \{9, 3, 2, 6, 8, 5\}$
- Output: $A = \{2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9\}$

What data structure should we use to represent the list?

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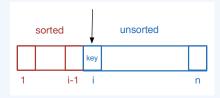
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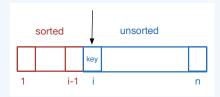
What data structure should we use to represent the list?

Array: collection of items of the same data type

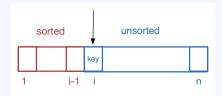
- ▶ allows for random access
- ▶ "zero" indexed in C++ and Java



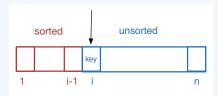
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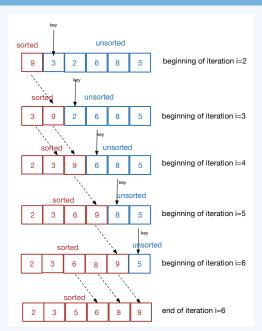


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 - ► Compare key with every element x of the sorted subarray, starting from the **right**.
 - ▶ If x > key, move x one position to the right.
 - Else $(x \le \text{key})$, **insert** key after x.



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- 3. Repeat Step 2. until the sorted subarray has size n.

Example of insertion sort: $n = 6, A = \{9, 3, 2, 6, 8, 5\}$



Pseudocode

```
Let A be an array of n integers.
insertion-sort(A)
  for i=2 to n do
      kev = A[i]
      //Insert A[i] into the sorted subarray A[1, i-1]
      i = i - 1
     while j > 0 and A[j] > \text{key do}
         A[i+1] = A[i]
        i = i - 1
     end while
      A[i+1] = \text{key}
  end for
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Analysis of algorithms

► Correctness

► Running time

Space

Analysis of algorithms

- ► Correctness: formal proof often by induction
- ► Running time: number of primitive computational steps
 - ▶ Not the same as **time** it takes to execute the algorithm.
 - ▶ We want a measure that is independent of hardware.
 - ▶ We want to know how running time scales with the size of the input.
- ▶ **Space:** how much space is required by the algorithm

Analysis of insertion-sort

Notation: A[i, j] is the subarray of A that starts at position i and ends at position j.

- ▶ Correctness: follows from the key observation that after loop i, the subarray A[1,i] is sorted
- ▶ Running time: number of primitive computational steps
- ▶ Space: in place algorithm (at most a constant number of elements of A are stored outside A at any time)

Example of induction

Fact 1.

For all
$$n \ge 1$$
, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.

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Proof.

- ▶ Base case: n = 1
- ▶ Inductive hypothesis: Assume that the statement is true for $n \ge 1$, that is, $\sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$.
- ▶ **Inductive step:** We show that the statement is true for n+1. That is, $\sum_{i=1}^{n+1} i = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$. (Show this!)
- ▶ Conclusion: It follows that the statement is true for all n since we can apply the inductive step for n = 2, 3, ...

Correctness of insertion-sort

Notation: A[i, j] is the subarray of A that starts at position i and ends at position j.

Minor change in the pseudocode: in line 1, start from i = 1 rather than i = 2. How does this change affect the algorithm?

Claim 1.

Let $n \ge 1$ be a positive integer. For all $1 \le i \le n$, after the *i*-th loop, the subarray A[1,i] is sorted.

Correctness of insertion-sort follows if we show Claim 1 (why?).

Proof of Claim 1

By induction on i.

- ▶ Base case: i = 1, trivial.
- ▶ Induction hypothesis: assume that the statement is true for some $1 \le i < n$.
- ▶ **Inductive step:** Show it true for i + 1.

In loop i+1, element $\ker A[i+1]$ is inserted into A[1,i], which is sorted (by the induction hypothesis). Since \ker is inserted after the first element $A[\ell]$ for $1 \le \ell \le i$ such that $\ker A[\ell]$, and all elements in $A[\ell+1,j]$ are pushed one position to the right with their order preserved, the statement is true for i+1.

- ► How many primitive computational steps are executed by the algorithm?
- ▶ Equivalently, what is the running time T(n)? Bounds on T(n)?

```
for i=2 to n do
                                         line 1
    kev = A[i]
                                         line 2
    //Insert A[i] into the sorted subarray A[1, i-1]
    i = i - 1
                                         line 3
   while j > 0 and A[j] > \text{key do}
                                         line 4
       A[j+1] = A[j]
                                         line 5
      i = i - 1
                                          line 6
   end while
    A[i+1] = \text{key}
                                          line 7
end for
```

▶ For $2 \le i \le n$, let $t_i = \#$ times line 4 is executed.

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▶ For $2 \le i \le n$, let $t_i = \#$ times line 4 is executed. Then

$$T(n) = n + 3(n-1) + \sum_{i=2}^{n} t_i + 2\sum_{i=2}^{n} (t_i - 1) = 3\sum_{i=2}^{n} t_i + 2n - 1$$

- ▶ Which input yields the smallest (best-case) running time?
- ► Which input yields the largest (worst-case) running time?

```
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▶ For $2 \le i \le n$, let $t_i = \#$ times line 4 is executed. Then

$$T(n) = 3\sum_{i=2}^{n} t_i + 2n - 1$$

- ▶ Best-case running time: 5n-4
- ▶ Worst-case running time: $\frac{3n^2}{2} + \frac{7n}{2} 4$

Worst-case analysis

Definition 2.

Worst-case running time: largest possible running time of the algorithm over all inputs of a given size n.

Why worst-case analysis?

- ▶ It gives well-defined computable bounds.
- ► Average-case analysis can be tricky: how do we generate a "random" instance?

The worst-case running time of insertion-sort is quadratic. Is insertion-sort efficient?

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Efficiency of insertion-sort and the brute force solution

Compare to brute force solution:

- \triangleright At each step, generate a new permutation of the n integers.
- ▶ If sorted, stop and output the permutation.

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Efficiency of insertion-sort and the brute force solution

Compare to brute force solution:

- \triangleright At each step, generate a new permutation of the n integers.
- ▶ If sorted, stop and output the permutation.

Worst-case analysis: generate n! permutations. Is brute force solution efficient?

- \triangleright Efficiency relates to the performance of the algorithm as n grows.
- ▶ Stirling's approximation formula: $n! \approx \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$.
 - ▶ For n = 10, generate $3.67^{10} \ge 2^{10}$ permutations.
 - ▶ For n = 50, generate $18.3^{50} \ge 2^{200}$ permutations.
 - ▶ For n = 100, generate $36.7^{100} \ge 2^{700}$ permutations!
- ⇒ Brute force solution is **not** efficient.

Efficient algorithms –Attempt

Definition 3 (Attempt 1).

An algorithm is efficient if it achieves better worst-case performance than brute-force search.

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Caveat: fails to discuss the scaling properties of the algorithm.

▶ If the input size grows by a constant factor, we would like the running time T(n) of the algorithm to increase by a constant factor as well.

Efficient algorithms –Attempt 1

Definition 3 (Attempt 1).

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Caveat: fails to discuss the scaling properties of the algorithm.

- ▶ If the input size grows by a constant factor, we would like the running time T(n) of the algorithm to increase by a constant factor as well.
- Note that polynomial running times scale well: on input of size n, T(n) is at most $c \cdot n^d$ for c, d > 0 constants.
 - ightharpoonup the smaller the exponent of the polynomial the better

Efficient algorithms

Definition 4.

An algorithm is efficient if it has a polynomial running time.

Caveat

▶ What about huge constants in front of the leading term or large exponents?

However

- ► Small degree polynomial running times exist for most problems that can be solved in polynomial time.
- ► Conversely, problems for which no polynomial-time algorithm is known tend to be very hard in practice.
- ► So we can distinguish between easy and hard problems.

Remark 1.

Today's big data: even low degree polynomials might be too slow!

Are we done with sorting?

Insertion sort is efficient. Are we done with sorting?

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Insertion sort is efficient. Are we done with sorting?

- 1. Can we do better?
- 2. And what is better?
 - E.g., is $T(n) = n^2 + n 4$ worth aiming for?

Running time in terms of # primitive steps

To discuss this, we need a coarser classification of running times of algorithms; exact characterizations

- are too detailed;
- do not reveal similarities between running times in an immediate way as n grows large;
- ▶ are often **meaningless**: pseudocode steps will **expand** by a constant factor that depends on the hardware.

Coming up...

- ▶ A framework that will allow us to compare the rate of growth of different running times as the input size *n* grows.
 - We will express the running time as a function of the number of primitive steps; the latter is a function of the size of the input n.
 - ► To compare functions expressing running times, we will ignore their low-order terms and focus solely on the highest-order term.
- ► A faster algorithm for sorting using the divide-and-conquer principle.