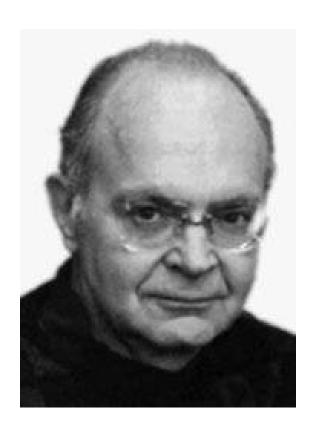
Algorithms and Analysis

Lesson 16: Analyse!





Pseudo code, binary search, insertion sort, selection sort, lower bound complexity

Outline

- 1. Algorithm Analysis
- 2. Search
- 3. Simple Sort
 - Insertion Sort
 - Selection Sort
- 4. Lower Bound



- We've covered most of the basic data structures
- The rest of the course is going to focus more on algorithms
- We will look predominantly at
 - ★ Searching
 - ★ Sorting
 - ★ Graph Algorithms
- Emphasise general solution strategies

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- It contains details such as throwing exception which are repetitive and often depends on who you are writing the code for
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- The commands are not too dissimilar to C++
- ullet The one strange convention is that assignments use an arrow \leftarrow
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- In pseudo-code you are free to invent any operations that can be easily interpreted

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```
DUMBSEARCH (\boldsymbol{a}, \times) {

/* search array \boldsymbol{a} = (a_1, \dots a_n) */

/* for x return true */

/* if successful else false */

for i \leftarrow 1 to n

if (a_i = \times)

return true

endif

endfor

return false
```

```
DUMBSEARCH (a, x)
{

/* search array a = (a_1, \dots a_n) */
/* for x return true */
/* if successful else false */

for i \leftarrow 1 to n

if (a_i = x)

return true
endif
endfor

return false
}
```

```
bool search(T a[], T x)
{
    for (int i=0; i<n; i++) {
        if (a[i] == x)
           return true;
    }
    return false;
}</pre>
```

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DUMBSEARCH (a, x) {

/* search array a = (a_1, \dots a_n) */
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/* if successful else false */

for i\leftarrow 1 to n

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return true

endif
endfor

return false

}

bool search(T a[], T x)

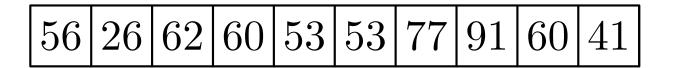
{

for (int i=0; i< n; i++) {

if (a[i] == x)
return true;

}

return false
```



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 for i \leftarrow 1 to n
                                              if (a[i] == x)
   if (a_i = x)
                                                 return true;
     return true
   endif
 endfor
                                            return false;
 return false
           find(53) \longrightarrow true
                       |62|60|53|53|77|91|60|41
```

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DUMBSEARCH (a, x)
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 /* for x return true */
 /* if successful else false */
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 for i \leftarrow 1 to n
                                              if (a[i] == x)
   if (a_i = x)
                                                 return true;
     return true
   endif
 endfor
                                            return false;
 return false
           find(60) \longrightarrow true
                       |62|60|53|53|77|91|60|41
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                                               if (a[i] == x)
   if (a_i = x)
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     return true
   endif
 endfor
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            find(12) \longrightarrow false
                        |62|60|53|53|77|91|
```

Worst case:

- ★ The worst case for a successful search is when the element is in the last location in the array
- \star This takes n comparisons: worst case is $\Theta(n)$
- Best case:
 - * The best case is when the element is in the first location
 - \star This takes 1 comparison: best case is $\Theta(1)$
- Average case:
 - * Assume every location is equally likely to hold the key

$$\frac{1+2+\ldots+n}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} i = \frac{1}{n} \times \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{n+1}{2}$$

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Binary Search

- If the array is ordered we can do better
- At each step we bisect the array

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BINARYSEARCH (a, x)
  low \leftarrow 1
  high \leftarrown
  while (low < high)
    mid \leftarrow \lfloor (low + high)/2 \rfloor
    if x>a_{\mathrm{mid}}
      low \leftarrow mid + 1
    elseif x < a_{\text{mid}}
      high ←mid -1
    else
      return true
    endif
  endwhile
  return false
```

- Based on a divide-and-conquer strategy
- ★ We check the middle of the array

$$\underbrace{a_1, a_2, \cdots, a_{m-1}}_{x < a_m}, \underbrace{a_m}_{x > a_m}, \underbrace{a_{m+1}, \cdots a_n}_{x > a_m}$$

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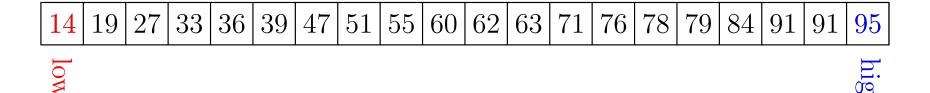
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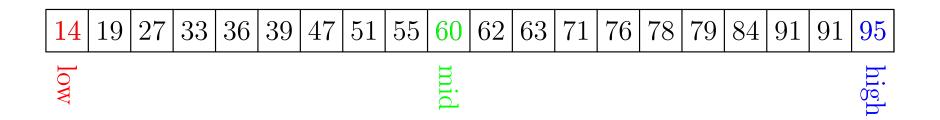
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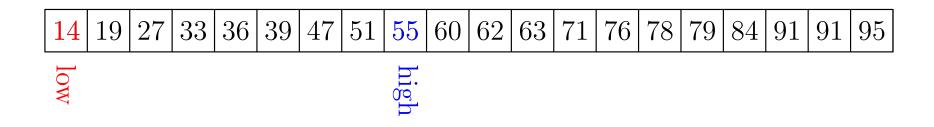
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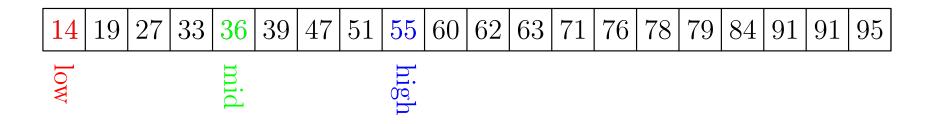
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14	19	27	33	36	39	47	51	55	60	62	63	71	76	78	79	84	91	91	95
				1	1														

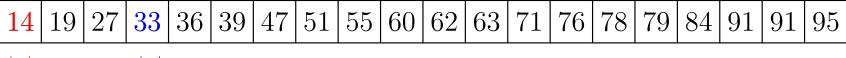








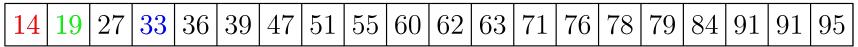
BINARYSEARCH($\mathbf{a}, 27$)



low

high

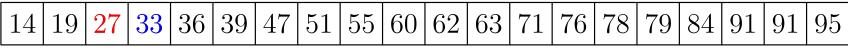
BINARYSEARCH($\mathbf{a}, 27$)



mid

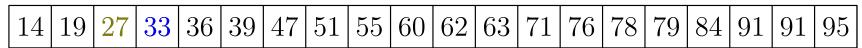
high

BINARYSEARCH($\mathbf{a}, 27$)



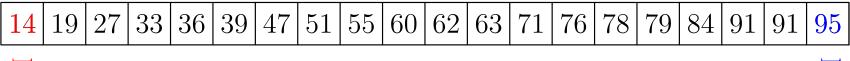
high low

BINARYSEARCH(a, 27) found



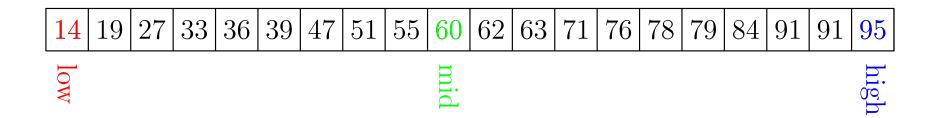


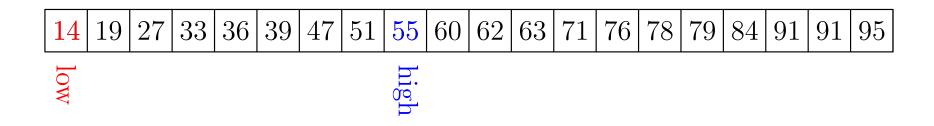
BINARYSEARCH($\mathbf{a}, 20$)

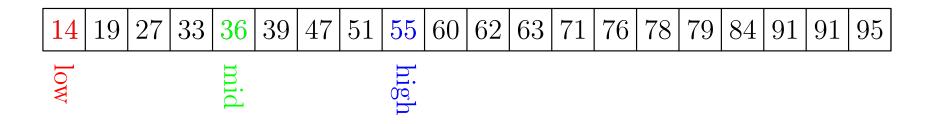


low

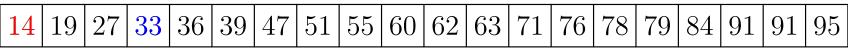
high







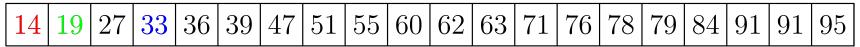
BINARYSEARCH($\mathbf{a}, 20$)



low

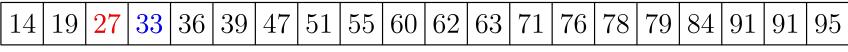
high

BINARYSEARCH($\mathbf{a}, 20$)



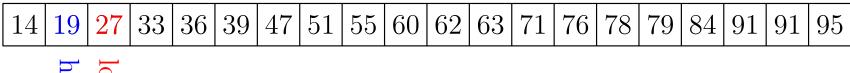
mid low high

BINARYSEARCH($\mathbf{a}, 20$)



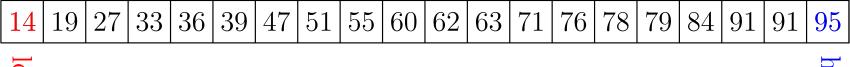
high low

BINARYSEARCH($\mathbf{a}, 20$) not found



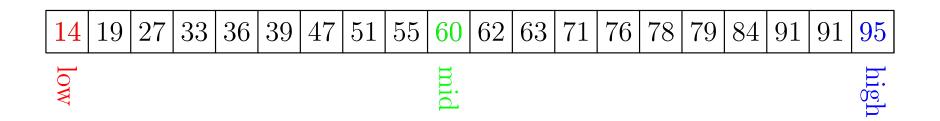
high

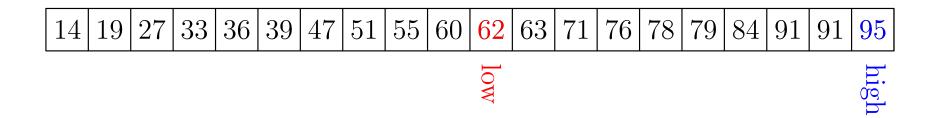
BINARYSEARCH(\mathbf{a} , 84)

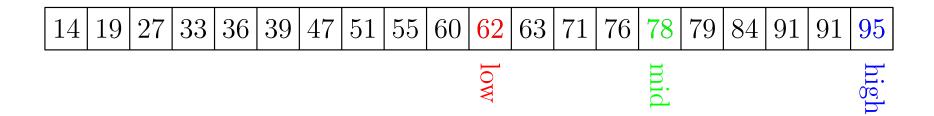


low

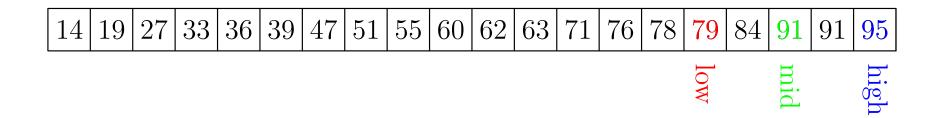
high







14	19	27	33	36	39	47	51	55	60	62	63	71	76	78	79	84	91	91	95
															low				high





BINARYSEARCH(\mathbf{a} , 84)



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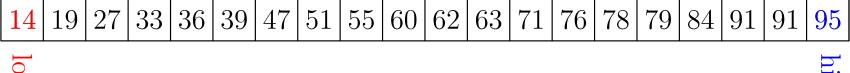


BINARYSEARCH $(\mathbf{a}, 84)$

found

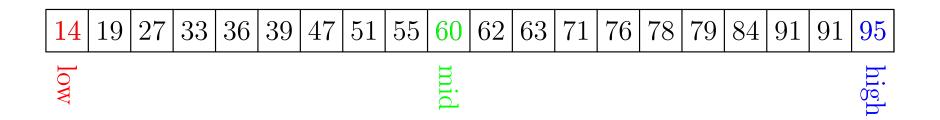


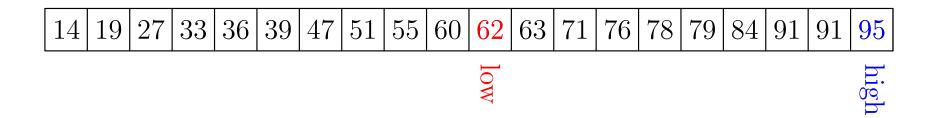
BINARYSEARCH(a, 99)

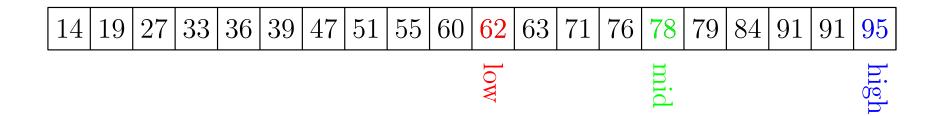


low

high







14	19	27	33	36	39	47	51	55	60	62	63	71	76	78	79	84	91	91	95
															low				high

14 19 27	33 3	86 39	47	51	55	60	62	63	71	76	78	79	84	91	91	95
												low		mid		high

BINARYSEARCH($\mathbf{a}, 99$)





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14 19 27 33 36 39 47 51 55 60 62 63 71 76 78 79 84 91 91 95		14	19	27	33	36	39	47	51	55	60	62	63	71	76	78	79	84	91	91	95
---	--	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----





BINARYSEARCH(\mathbf{a} , 99) not found

		14	19	27	33	36	39	47	51	55	60	62	63	71	76	78	79	84	91	91	95
--	--	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----





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- Let C(n) be the number of comparisons needed to search in an array of size n
- After one comparison we are left (in the worst case) with having to search an array not larger than $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$, thus

$$C(n) < C(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor) + 1$$

- We've seen this relation before (lesson on Recursion)
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Outline

- 1. Algorithm Analysis
- 2. Search
- 3. Simple Sort
 - Insertion Sort
 - Selection Sort
- 4. Lower Bound



- Sort is one of the best studied algorithms. We care about stability, space and time complexity
- A sort algorithm is said to be stable if it does not change the order of elements that have the same value
- Space Complexity. Sort is said to be
 - **In-place** if the memory used is O(1)
- Time Complexity. In particular we are interested in
 - ⋆ Worst case
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- This subsequence is increased by inserting the next element into its correct position

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INSERTIONSORT (a) {

for i\leftarrow2 to n

v\leftarrowa_i

j\leftarrowi-1

while j\geq1 and a_j>v

a_{j+1}\leftarrowa_j

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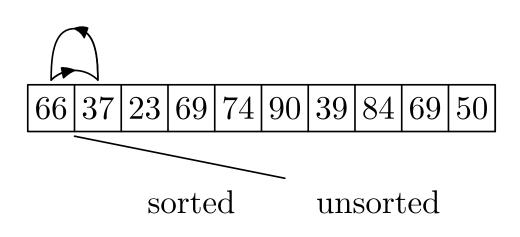
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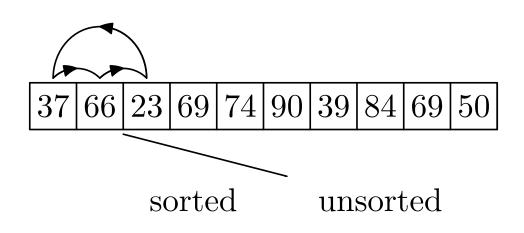


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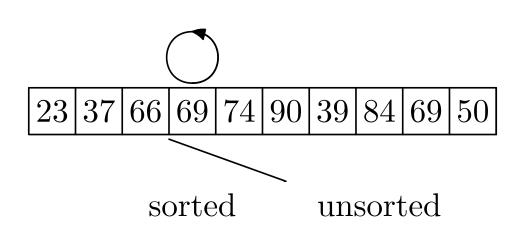
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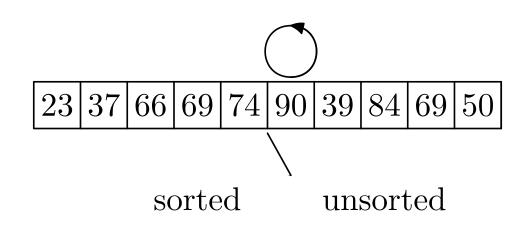
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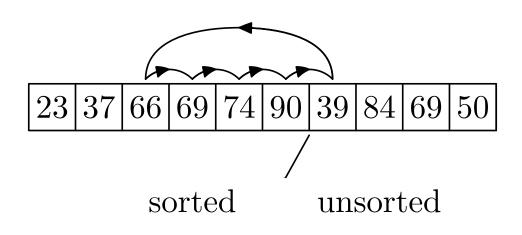
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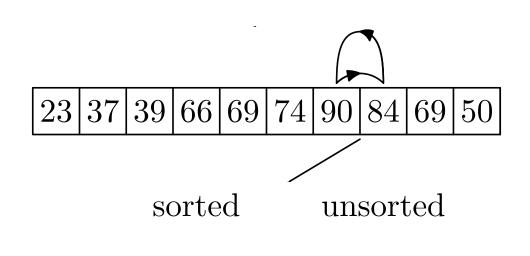
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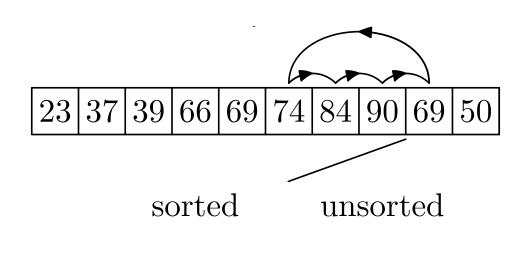
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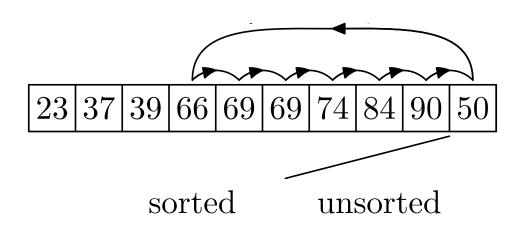
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- Insertion sort is stable. We only swap the ordering of two elements if one is strictly less than the other
- It is in-place
- Worst time complexity
 - ★ Occurs when the array is in inverse order
 - * Every element has to be moved to front of the array
 - \star Number of comparisons for an array of size $C_w(n)$

$$C_w(n) = \sum_{i=2}^n (i-1) = 1 + 2 + \dots + n - 1 = \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \in \Theta(n^2)$$

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Average Time Complexity

- On average we can expect that each new element being sorted moves half the way down sorted list
- \star This gives us an average time complexity, $C_a(n)$ of half the worst time

$$C_a(n) = \frac{n(n-1)}{4} \in \Theta(n^2)$$

- Best Time Complexity
 - * This occurs if the array is already sorted
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- Insertion sort is a good sort for small arrays because it is stable, in-place and is efficient when the arrays are almost sorted

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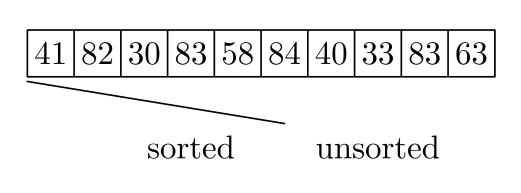
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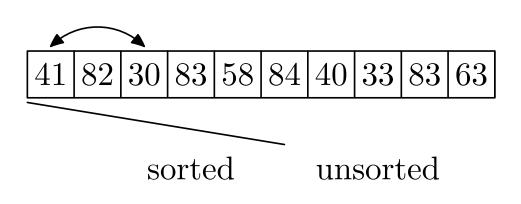
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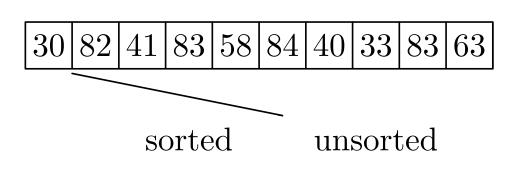
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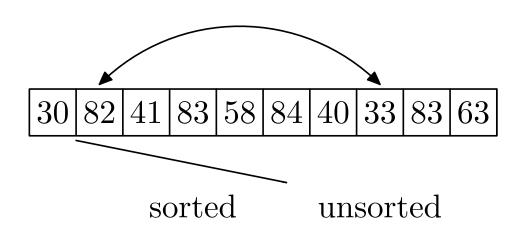
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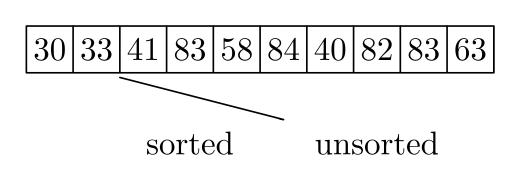
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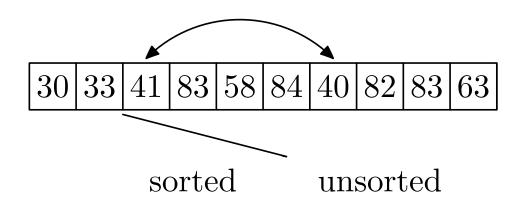
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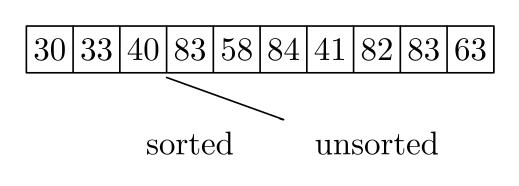
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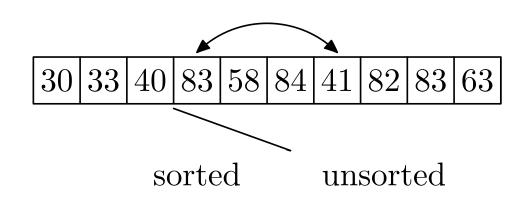
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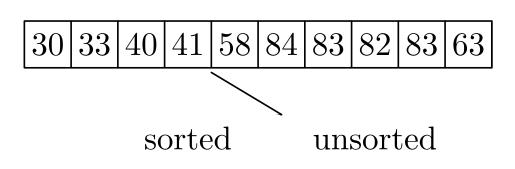
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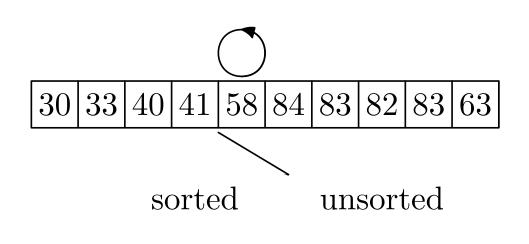
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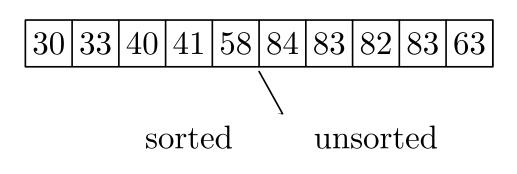
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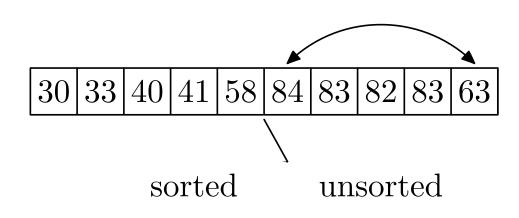
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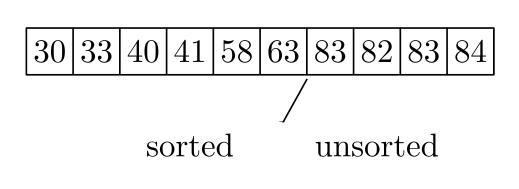
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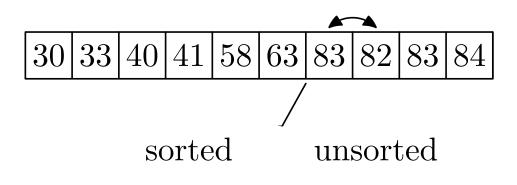
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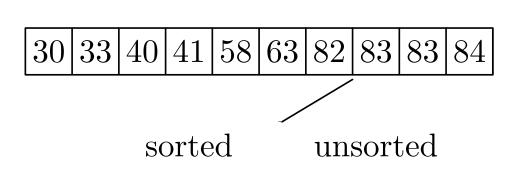
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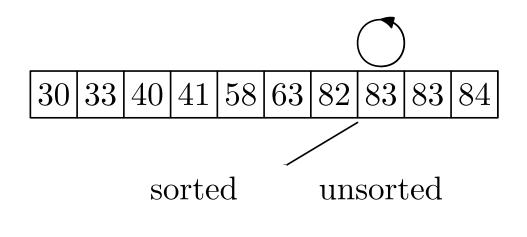
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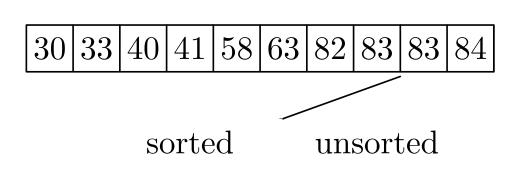
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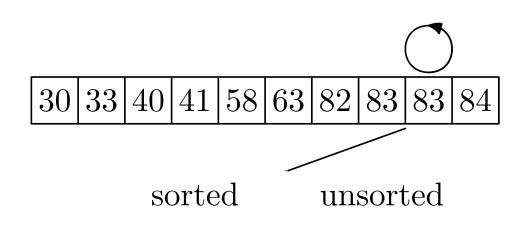
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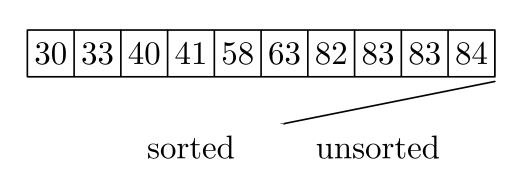
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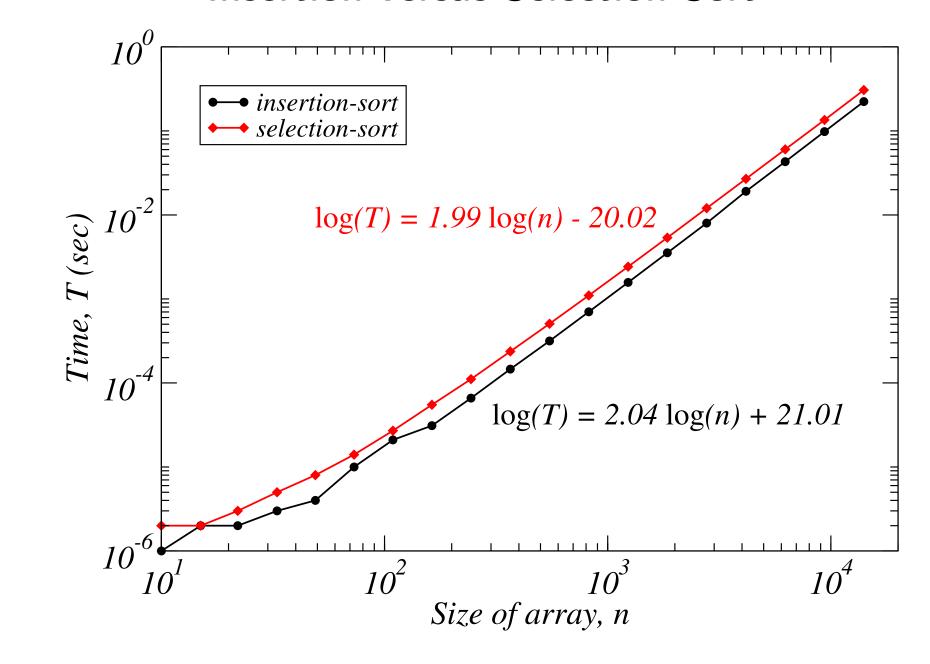
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Insertion versus Selection Sort



- There are many other simple sort strategies
- One popular one is bubble sort—keep on swapping neighbours until the array is sorted
- It is stable and in-place
- This again has $O(n^2)$ complexity
- This isn't bad for a simple sort, but it does do more work than insertion sort and selection sort
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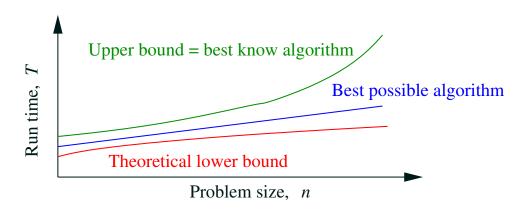
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Outline

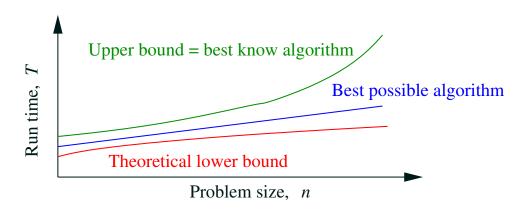
- 1. Algorithm Analysis
- 2. Search
- 3. Simple Sort
 - Insertion Sort
 - Selection Sort
- 4. Lower Bound



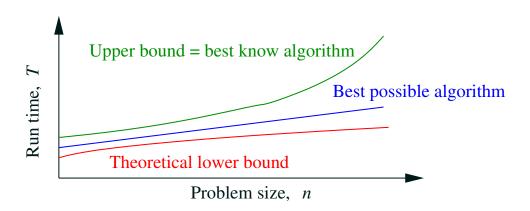
- Given a problem we would like to know what is the time complexity of the best possible program
- Usually there is no way of knowing this
- We can get an upper bound—if we know the time complexity of any algorithm that solves the problem we have an upper bound
- Lower bounds are far trickier
- A lower bound of f(n) is a guarantee that we spend at least f(n) operations to solve the problem



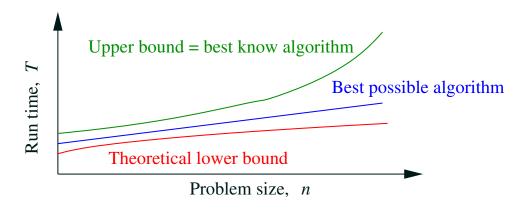
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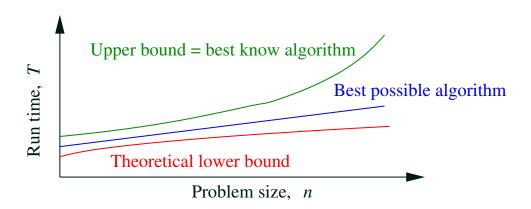
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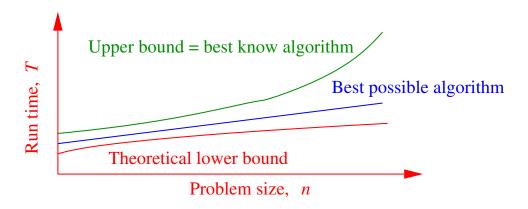
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- Decision trees are a way to visualise (at least, in principle) many algorithms
- They will eventually give us a lower bound on the time complexity of sort using binary decisions
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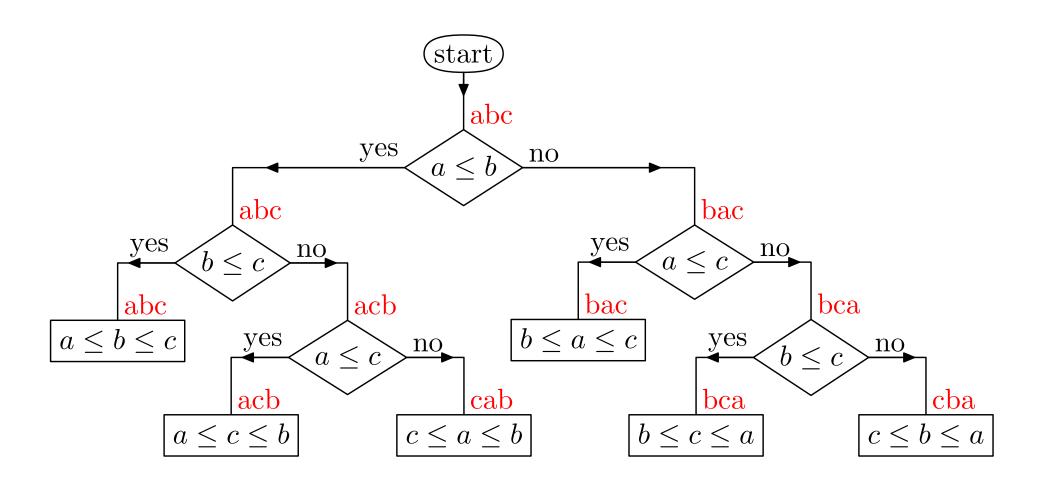
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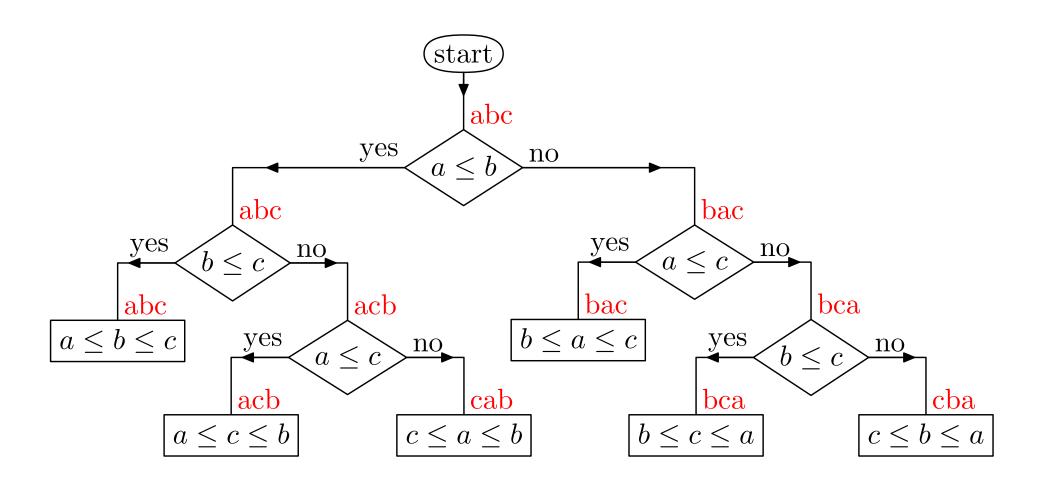
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Decision Tree for Insertion Sort



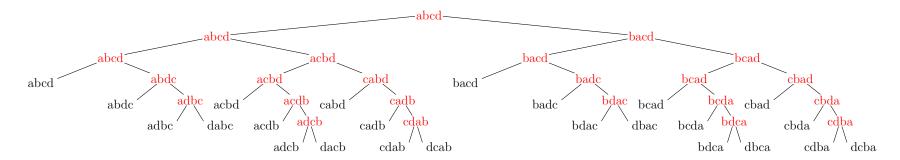
Note there is one leaf for every possible way of sorting the list

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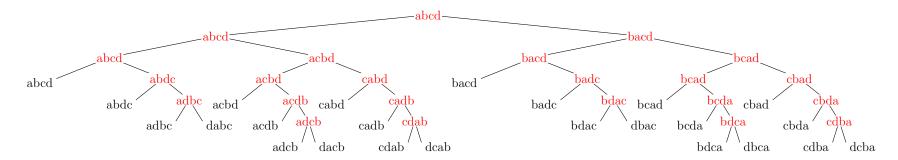


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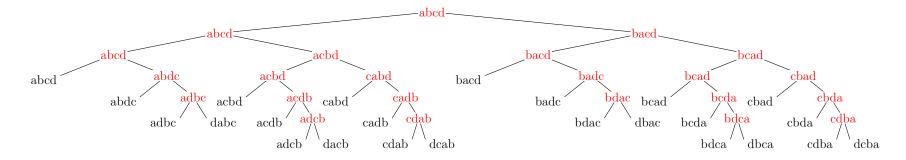
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 - ★ worst case time: depth of the deepest of leaf
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- Different sort strategies will have different decision trees
- Decision trees are usually far too large to write out ②



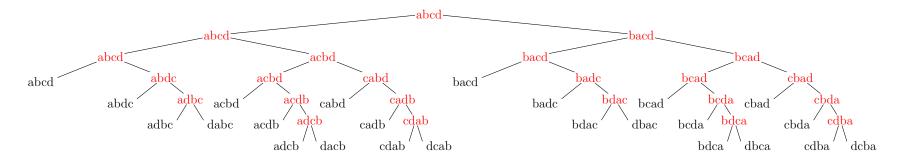
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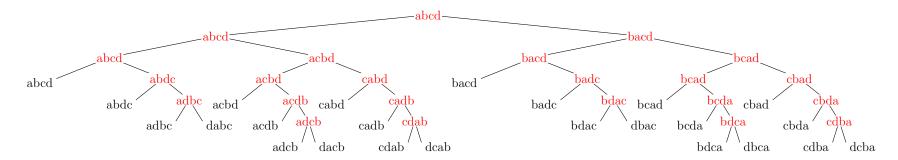
- The time taken to complete the task is the depth of the tree at which we finish (i.e. the leaf nodes)
- We can thus read of the time complexity
 - * worst case time: depth of the deepest of leaf
 - * best case time: depth of the shallowest of leaf
 - ★ average case time: average depth of leaves
- Different sort strategies will have different decision trees
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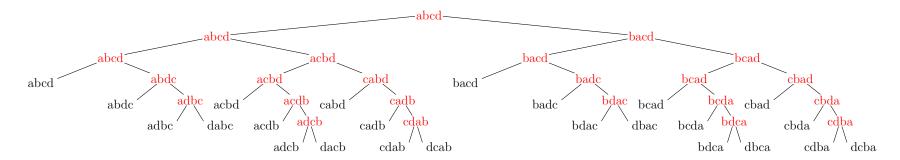
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- Any sort based on binary comparisons must have a leaf of the tree for every possible way of sorting the list
- The array [a, b, c] must be arranged differently for all combinations

$$[1, 2, 3], [1, 3, 2], [2, 1, 3], [2, 3, 1], [3, 1, 2], [3, 2, 1]$$

- That is they must go through a different path of the decision tree
- If not sort won't work

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- There must be, at least, one leaf node of the decision tree for each possible permutation of the list
- How many permutations are there of a list of size n?
- Start with a sequence (a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n)
- To create a new permutation we can choose any member of the list as the first element
- ullet We can choose any of the remaining n-1 elements of the list as the second element of the permutation
- The total number of permutation is $n \times (n-1) \times (n-2) \times \cdots \times 2 \times 1 = n!$

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- This will be a binary tree with some depth d
- ullet The number of leaves at depth d is 2^d
- Thus the smallest depth tree must have a depth d such that $2^d \ge n!$
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- It is not too difficult to show that asymptotically (i.e. as $n \to \infty$) that n! approaches $\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$ —this is known as **Stirling's** approximation
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- This is true for any sort using binary comparisons
- We will see in the next lecture there exists algorithms with time complexity $O(n \log(n))$
- This means our lower bound is tight—i.e. it is the true cost of the best algorithm
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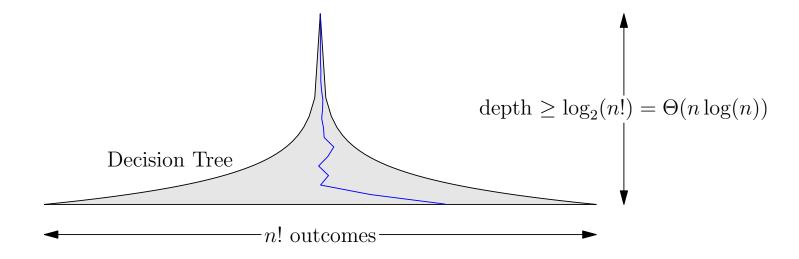
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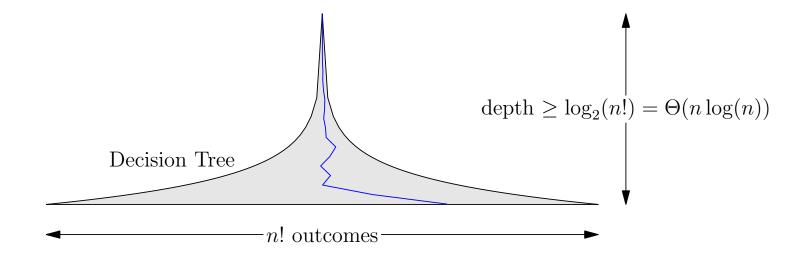
Lessons

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- Analysis is important: without it we don't know if we have a good algorithm or whether we should try to find a more efficient one
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