

Course: Data Structures and Algorithms

Algorithm Analysis and Problem Solving





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Why do we even need algorithms?





favorite app's

'loading' screen
has a story to tell...

I blame "the algorithm" behind this

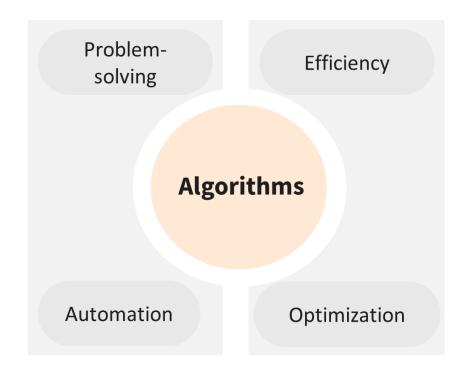
Algorithm Fundamentals

Importance of algorithms



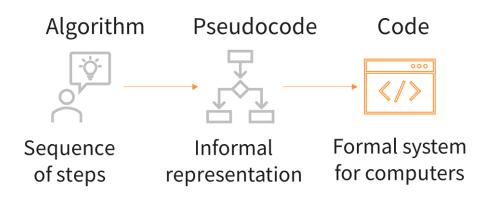


- Step-by-step instructions to solve tasks efficiently
- Definite: clear and unambiguous
- Termination: ends in finite steps



Programming the algorithms





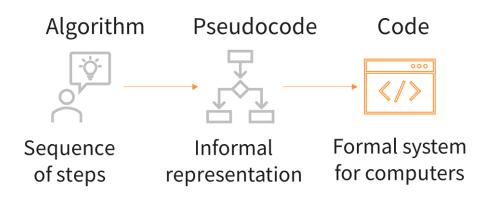
- Programming: convert algorithms to machine-readable instructions
- Language types: machine, assembly, low and high-level languages

How can we choose the most effective algorithm for a task?

- Consider time and space complexity
- Time concerns the number of algorithmic steps
- Space efficiency relates to memory usage

Programming the algorithms





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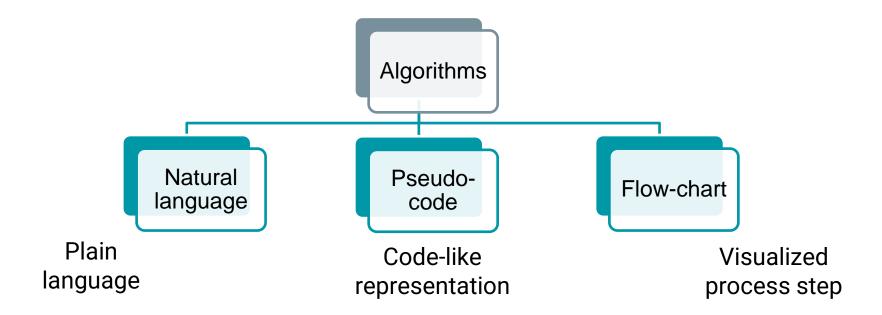
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Detailing and abstraction





Clear algorithm design increases programming efficiency



Example: finding greatest common divisor





Plain language

- 1. Input two numbers.
- 2. Determine the maximum (m) and minimum (n).
- 3. If n is zero, output m.
- 4. Otherwise, find the remainder (r) of m divided by n.
- 4. Set m = n and n = r.
- 5. Repeat from step 3.

Pseudocode

```
begin
    read a, b
    m ← maximum(a, b)
    n ← minimum(a, b)
    while (n ≠ 0)
        r ← m mod n
        m ← n
        n ← r
    endwhile
    return m
end
```

Flowchart begin No read m, n print m n > 0 $r \leftarrow m \mod n$ end $m \leftarrow n$

Problem solving and algorithm design





A clear, structured approach ensures correct and efficient solutions to problems

Understand the problem

Plan the solution

Solve the problem

Test and optimize

Clarify the problem, inputs, outputs, constraints, and requirements

Break the problem into smaller steps or subproblems

Design an algorithm using appropriate techniques

Validate the solution and improve efficiency

Evaluating algorithms





Algorithm selection is about balancing efficiency, not just optimizing one factor



- Analyze how algorithm runtime grows with input size (Big-O notation)
- Measure memory usage as input size increases (Big-O space complexity)
- Optimizing time may increase space usage, or vice versa

Select based on problem constraints: faster solution or lower memory usage?

Practical aspects on evaluating algorithms





Time measurement helps to understand algorithm performance under different conditions

- Measure the time before execution
- Run the algorithm
- Measure the time after execution

```
START
  startTime = GetCurrentTime()
  result = RunAlgorithm(inputData)
  endTime = GetCurrentTime()
  elapsedTime = endTime - startTime
END
```

 Run multiple tests with varying input sizes and conditions to gather meaningful results. Average time over multiple runs for more reliable data

Basic algorithm example: linear search



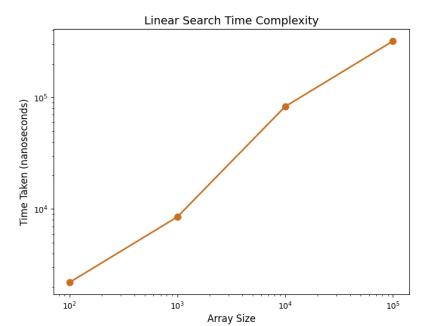


Search for an element in a list by checking each element sequentially

```
public static int linearSearch(int[] arr, int target) {
   for (int i = 0; i < arr.length; i++) {
      if (arr[i] == target) {
        return i;
      }
   }
   return -1;
}</pre>
```

Linear Search



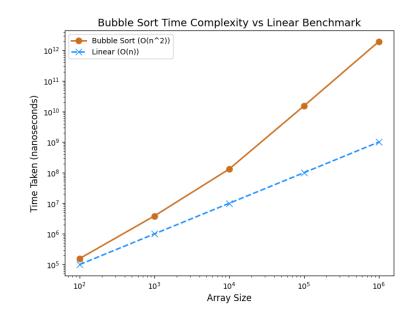


Basic algorithm example: bubble sort



Bubble Sort repeatedly swaps adjacent elements until the array is sorted

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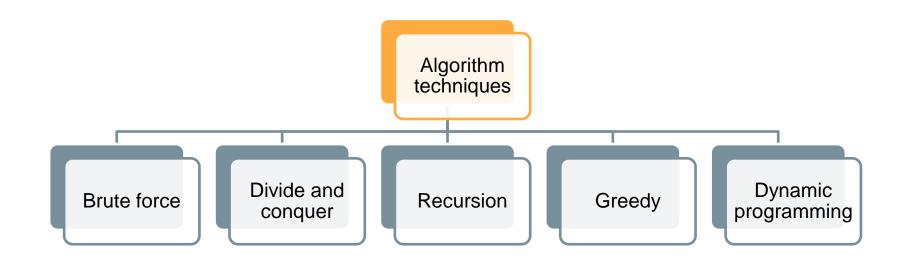
Algorithm Design Techniques

Fundamental algorithm design techniques





Multiple techniques exist to tackle diverse problem types and ensure optimal solutions



Brute force approach

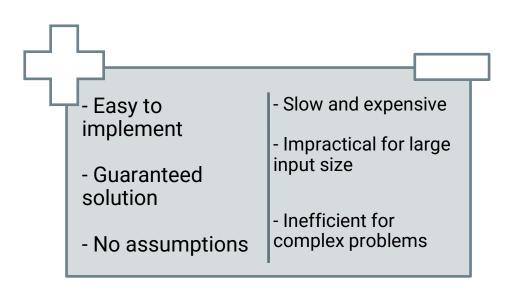




A straightforward problem-solving method that involves trying all possible solutions to find the correct one

When to apply

- Small problem size
- Solution space is manageable
- Sophisticated algorithms non available or necessary



Brute force approach example: linear search



```
function linearSearch(arr, target):
   for i = 0 to length(arr) - 1:
        if arr[i] == target:
            return i
   return -1
```

- Best case: *0*(1)
- Worst and average case: O(n)

- Exhaustive search: checks every element
- **Simple & direct**: no optimizations or shortcuts
- Guaranteed solution: finds the target if it exists
- Inefficient: slow for large datasets

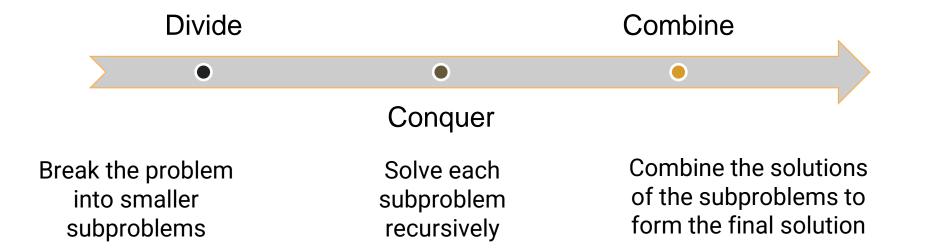
Divide and conquer strategy





Break problem into subproblems, solve independently, combine results

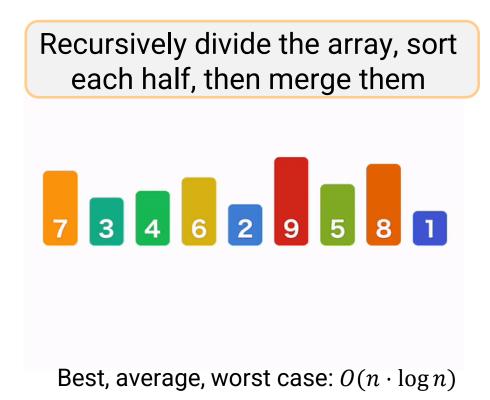




Divide and conquer example: merge sort

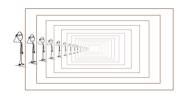


- Divide: split the array into two halves
- Conquer: recursively sort each half
- Combine: merge the sorted halves into a single sorted array



Recursion





Technique where a function calls itself to solve smaller instances of the same problem

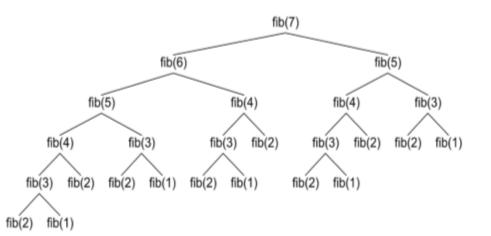
- Base case: simple, direct solution for smallest problem
- Recursive step: break problem into smaller subproblems
- Self-call: function calls itself with smaller input

Recursion is a key
technique used in Divide
and Conquer to solve
subproblems recursively

Recursion example: Fibonacci numbers



```
function fibonacci(n):
    if n <= 1:
        return n
    return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2)</pre>
```



- Fibonacci series: each number is the sum of the two preceding ones
- Time Complexity: $O(2^n)$ due to redundant recursive calls

Recursive functions can be elegant but may lead to high time complexity and inefficiency

Greedy algorithms





Approach where locally optimal choices lead to a globally optimal solution

- Greedy property: making the best choice at each step ensures an optimal solution
- A problem can be broken into subproblems, and optimal solutions to subproblems lead to an overall optimal solution

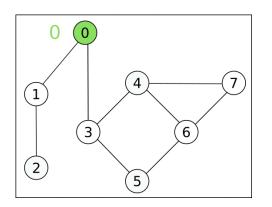
Use for optimization problems where local choices lead to global solutions, like scheduling and networking

Greedy algorithms typical use cases



Graph problems

Finds the shortest path from a single source to all other nodes



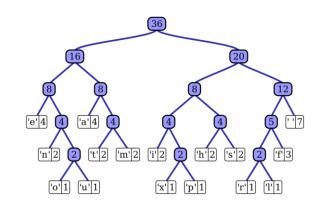
Scheduling and optimization

Choose the maximum number of non-overlapping activities

ACTIVITY	START TIME	END TIME
A1	1	3
A2	2	5
А3	3	4
A4	4	7
A5	7	10
A6	8	9

Resource allocation

Huffman coding: creates optimal prefix-free encoding for data compression



Greedy algorithm example: activity selection





Select the maximum number of non-overlapping activities given their start and end times

- **Greedy Choice:** always pick the activity that finishes the earliest
- Time Complexity: $O(n \log n)$ due to sorting, followed by O(n) selection
- Real-World Applications: scheduling tasks, meeting room allocation, interview scheduling

```
FUNCTION MaxActivities(activities):

SORT activities by end time in ascending order count ← 1

lastEnd ← activities[0].end

FOR i FROM 1 TO length(activities) - 1:

IF activities[i].start ≥ lastEnd:

count ← count + 1

lastEnd ← activities[i].end

RETURN count
```

Dynamic programming





Solve problems by breaking them into subproblems and reusing results

- Optimal solution is built from optimal subproblem solutions
- Overlapping subproblems:
 subproblems are solved multiple
 times, so store results.

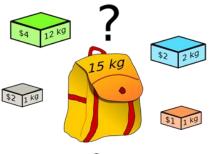
Dynamic programming is used for optimization, decision-making, resource allocation, problem decomposition

Dynamic programming major use cases



Optimization

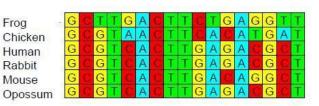
Knapsack problem by maximizing profit within constraints





Sequence alignment

Finding the best match between two sequences (e.g., DNA, text)



Shortest path

Computing the shortest path in weighted graphs (e.g., Dijkstra's algorithm)



Backtracking





A general algorithm for finding solutions to problems incrementally, by exploring all possibilities

- Build solutions step by step, abandoning partial solutions that fail constraints (backtrack)
- Use cases: solving combinatorial problems like puzzles, pathfinding, and constraint satisfaction

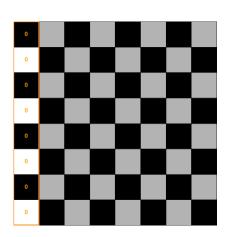
Backtracking tries all possibilities step by step, undoing choices when they don't work

Backtracking major use cases



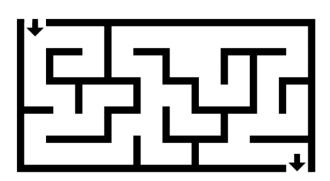
Solving puzzles

Exploring all possible moves in puzzles like Sudoku and N-Queens to find a solution



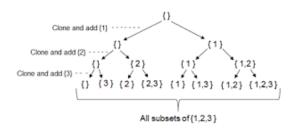
Pathfinding

Finding possible paths in mazes or graphs by trying different routes and backtracking



Subset generation

Generating all possible subsets or combinations, like in the subset sum problem



Summary of algorithm design techniques



Optimization and problem solving

- Greedy: fast solutions by making local optimal choices
- Dynamic programming:

 optimizes by breaking
 problems into overlapping
 subproblems

Divide and conquer

- Divide and conquer: divides problems into smaller subproblems, solving them independently
- Recursion: break problems into smaller, similar subproblems

Exhaustive search

- **Brute force:** tries all solutions without optimization, best for small problems
- Backtracking: explore all solutions, backtrack when constraints are violated

Algorithm Complexity Classes

What are complexity classes





Categories of problems based on how their time/space requirements grow

- P: Problems solvable in polynomial time (efficient)
- NP: Problems whose solutions can be verified in polynomial time
- NP-Complete: Hardest problems in NP, no known fast solution
- NP-Hard: Problems at least as hard as NP problems, may not be in NP

Helps determine if a problem can be solved efficiently

Class P





Problems that can be solved in time proportional to a polynomial function of input size

- Sorting: arranging data in a specific order (e.g., Merge Sort, Quick Sort)
- Searching: finding an element in a list (e.g., Binary Search, Linear Search)
- Shortest Path: finding the shortest path in a graph (e.g., Dijkstra's Algorithm)

Easy to solve.

Feasible even with

large inputs

crucial for real-world applications and scalability

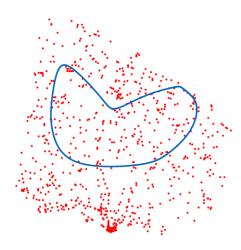
Class NP





Problems where, if given a solution, we can verify its correctness in polynomial time

- Significance: solutions may be hard to find, but easy to check
- Example: **knapsack problem**(finding the most valuable combination of items without exceeding weight limit)



Traveling Salesman Problem: finding the shortest possible route that visits each city once

The NP-hard and NP-complete problems



NP - hard

- Problems at least as hard as
 NP but may not be in NP
- No known polynomial-time solution; may not even have verifiable solutions in polynomial time

NP - complete

- Problems that are both in NP and NP-Hard
- If one NP-Complete problem is solved in polynomial time, all NP problems can be solved in polynomial time

$$P \subseteq NP \subseteq NP \text{ hard } \subseteq NP \text{ complete}$$

Understanding these classes helps in determining problem feasibility

Many real-world optimization problems fall into these categories

Key Takeaways



- Algorithm design strategies: Brute Force, Divide & Conquer, Recursion, Greedy,
 Dynamic Programming, and Backtracking solve different types of problems
- Efficiency matters: Polynomial-time (P) problems are feasible; NP and NP-Hard problems are much harder to solve
- NP vs. P: P problems can be solved efficiently; NP problems can be verified quickly but may not be solvable efficiently
- Computational Limits: NP-Complete problems connect NP and NP-Hard;
 solving one efficiently could solve all NP problems

Helpful Resources on Algorithms & Complexity



- GeekForGeeks Algorithm design techniques
 Concise explanations and examples
- <u>P versus NP</u> in simple plain English
- Example of divide and conquer strategy

Quote of the Week



The right algorithm can save hours of computing... or years of waiting



