

Analysis of Algorithm Continue

Computing the Complexity Function of an Algorithm

- ▶ We do not need to count all basic operations performed by the algorithm
- ▶ For example, if a loop executes N times and each loop iteration executes a constant number of basic operations, the entire loop executes N basic operations
- ▶ For most algorithms, we can pick one type of basic operation and count just that to determine the complexity of the algorithm.

Selecting the Basic Operations to Count

- ▶ For most algorithms we can count just one or two types of basic operations.
- ▶ Select operations that are germane to the problem: for example, sorting and searching algorithms should count comparisons between array entries.
- ▶ Select at least one operation in every loop.

Analysis of Bubble Sort

To sort an array $A[0..N-1]$:

```
for (int last = N - 1; last >= 1; last --)
{
    // Move the largest entry in A[0...last] to A[last]
    for (int index = 0; index <= last-1; index++)
    {
        //swap adjacent elements if necessary
        if (A[index] > A[index+1])
        {
            int temp = A[index];
            A[index] = A[index+1];
            A[index + 1] = temp;
        }
    }
}
```

Bubble Sort (One Pass)

Bubble sort uses an index to keep track of which pair of adjacent elements should be swapped during a sweep through $A[0..last]$.

15 35 20 10 25	// index = 0, Compare A[0], A[1]
15 35 20 10 25	// index = 1, Compare A[1], A[2], swap
15 20 35 10 25	
15 20 35 10 25	// index = 2, Compare A[2], A[3], swap
15 20 10 35 25	
15 20 10 35 25	// index = 3, Compare A[3], A[4], swap
15 20 10 25 35	// Largest is at A[4]

4 Comparisons and 3 swaps for 1 pass

Analysis of Bubble Sort with 3 printlns

```
for (lastPos = array.length - 1; lastPos >= 0; lastPos--)  
{  
    for (index = 0; index <= lastPos - 1; index++)  
    {  
        // Compare an element with its neighbor.  
        System.out.println("Before comparing");  
        if (array[index] > array[index+1])  
        {  
            // Swap the two elements.  
            System.out.println("Swapping");  
            temp = array[index];  
            array[index] = array[index + 1];  
            array[index + 1] = temp;  
        }  
    }  
    System.out.println("-----");  
}
```

3 println's Result

```
----jGRASP exec: java ObjectBubbleSortTest
```

```
Original order:
```

```
15 35 20 10 25
```

```
Before comparing
```

```
Before comparing
```

```
Swapping
```

```
Before comparing
```

```
Swapping
```

```
Before comparing
```

```
Swapping
```

```
-----
```

```
Before comparing
```

```
Before comparing
```

```
Swapping
```

```
Before comparing
```

```
-----
```

```
Before comparing
```

```
Swapping
```

```
Before comparing
```

```
-----
```

```
Before comparing
```

```
-----
```

```
-----
```

```
Sorted order:
```

```
10 15 20 25 35
```

```
----jGRASP: operation complete.
```

```
▶ L
```

4 compares

3 compares

2 compares

1 compare

Bubble Sort's Analysis

Let the number of comparisons for bubble sort, C , is given by:

$$C = (n - 1) + (n - 2) + \dots + 2 + 1 \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Ex: } C = 4 + 3 + 2 + 1$$

Writing the terms in reverse order, we also have

$$C(n) = 1 + 2 + \dots + (n - 2) + (n - 1) \quad (2)$$

Adding the 2 equations (1) and (2):

$$2C(n) = (n + n + n + n + \dots + n)$$

$$C(n) = n(n - 1) / 2 \quad (3) \text{ (NOTE that there are } (n - 1) \text{ terms dividing by 2)}$$

$$C(n) = n^2/2 - n/2$$

$C(n) = O(n^2/2)$ -- Term $n^2/2$ dominated $n/2$ when n get large

$$C(n) = O(n^2) - \text{Constant } 1/2 \text{ absorbed into the Big O}$$

Analysis of Insertion Sort



Insertion Sort

- ▶ Note that for any array $A[0..N-1]$, the portion $A[0..0]$ consisting of the single entry $A[0]$ is already sorted.
- ▶ Insertion Sort works by extending the length of the sorted portion one step at a time:
 - ▶ $A[0]$ is sorted
 - ▶ $A[0..1]$ is sorted
 - ▶ $A[0..2]$ is sorted
 - ▶ $A[0..3]$ is sorted, and so on, until $A[0..N-1]$ is sorted.

Insertion Sort

The strategy for Insertion Sort:

```
//A[0..0] is sorted
for (index = 1; index <= N -1; index ++)
{
    // A[0..index-1] is sorted
    insert A[index] at the right place in A[0..index]
    // Now A[0..index] is sorted
}
// Now A[0..N -1] is sorted, so entire array is
sorted
```

How Insertion Sort Works

15 10 55 35 30 20 index = 1, Insert $A[1] = 10$ into $A[0..1]$:

10 15 55 35 30 20

10 15 55 35 30 20 index = 2, Insert $A[2] = 55$ into $A[0..2]$:

10 15 55 35 30 20

10 15 55 35 30 20 index = 3, Insert $A[3] = 35$ into $A[0..3]$:

10 15 35 55 30 20

10 15 35 55 30 20 index = 4, Insert $A[4] = 30$ into $A[0..4]$:

10 15 30 35 55 20

10 15 30 35 55 20 index = 5, Insert $A[5] = 20$ into $A[0..5]$:

10 15 20 30 35 55

10 15 20 30 35 55 Array is now sorted

The portion of $A[0..last]$ already examined

The entry to be inserted is in bright blue.

A Closer Look at the Logic of the Insertion Step

$A[0..4]$ is already sorted, insert $A[5]$ into $A[0..5]$:

10 15 30 35 55 20 index = 5, Insert $A[5] = 20$ into $A[0..5]$

unsortedValue = 20, will scan for the right place to put it.

Use a variable scan to find the place where $A[\text{scan}-1]$ is less or equal to unsortedValue:

10 15 30 35 55 ____ // scan = 5

10 15 30 35 ____ 55 // scan = 4

10 15 30 ____ 35 55 // scan = 3

10 15 ____ 30 35 55 // scan = 2

Drop in the unsorted value:

10 15 20 30 35 55 // $A[\text{scan}] = \text{unSortedValue}$

Insertion Sort:

insert $A[\text{index}]$ at the right place in $A[0..\text{index}]$

// $A[0..\text{index}-1]$ is already sorted

```
int unSortedValue = A[index];
```

```
scan = index;
```

```
while (scan > 0 && A[scan-1] > unSortedValue)
```

```
{
```

```
    A[scan] = A[scan-1];
```

```
    scan --;
```

```
}
```

```
// Drop in the unsorted value
```

```
A[scan] = unSortedValue;
```

Insertion Sort

```
//A[0..0] is sorted
```

```
for (index = 1; index <= N -1; index ++)
```

**outer
loop**

```
{
```

```
    // A[0..index-1] is sorted
```

```
    // insert A[index] at the right place in A[0..index]
```

```
    int unSortedValue = A[index];
```

**outer
times**

```
    scan = index;
```

```
    while (scan > 0 && A[scan-1] > unSortedValue)
```

```
    {
```

**inner
loop**

```
        A[scan] = A[scan-1];
```

```
        scan --;
```

**inner
times**

```
    }
```

```
    // Drop in the unsorted value
```

```
    A[scan] = unSortedValue;
```

```
    // Now A[0..index] is sorted
```

```
}
```

```
// Now A[0..N -1] is sorted, so entire array is sorted
```

Insertion Sort: Number of Comparisons

# of Sorted Elements	Best case	Worst case
0	0	0
1	1	1
2	1	2
...
n-1	1	n-1
	<hr/>	<hr/>
	n-1	$n(n-1)/2$
	<hr/>	<hr/>

Remark: we only count comparisons of elements in the array.

Recursive Binary Search

- ▶ The logic of binary search has a natural recursive implementation:
- ▶ If $\text{lower} > \text{upper}$, then return -1 (base case).
- ▶ Compare X to $A[\text{middle}]$, where middle is the midpoint between lower and upper:

$$\text{middle} = (\text{lower} + \text{upper}) / 2$$

- ▶ If $X == A[\text{middle}]$, return middle (we found it!)
- ▶ If $X < A[\text{middle}]$, then continue search in $A[\text{lower}..\text{middle}-1]$
- ▶ If $X > A[\text{middle}]$, then continue search in $A[\text{middle}+1..\text{upper}]$

Analysis Of Recursive Binary Search

Without loss of generality, assume n , the problem size, is a multiple of 2, i.e., $n = 2^k$

Expanding:

$$T(1) = a \quad (1)$$

$$T(n) = T(n / 2) + b \quad (2)$$

And we know $T(n / 2) = T(n/4) + b$

$$= [T(n / 2^2) + b] + b = T(n / 2^2) + 2b$$

by substituting $T(n/2)$ in (2)

$$= [T(n / 2^3) + b] + 2b = T(n / 2^3) + 3b$$

by substituting $T(n/2^2)$ in (2)

$$= \dots\dots$$

$$= T(n / 2^k) + kb$$

The base case is reached when $n / 2^k = 1 \rightarrow n = 2^k \rightarrow k = \log_2 n$, we then have:

$$T(n) = T(1) + b \log_2 n$$

$$= a + b \log_2 n$$

Therefore, Recursive Binary Search is $O(\log n)$

In Summary: Recurrence Relations to Remember

- Recognizing Common Recurrences
- Below are some algorithms and recurrence relation encountered
- Solve once, re-use in new contexts

Recurrence	Algorithm	Big-O Solution
$T(n) = T(n/2) + O(1)$	Binary Search	$O(\log n)$
$T(n) = T(n-1) + O(1)$	Sequential Search	$O(n)$
$T(n) = 2 T(n/2) + O(1)$	tree traversal	$O(n)$
$T(n) = T(n-1) + O(n)$	Selection Sort (other n^2 sorts)	$O(n^2)$

Orders of common functions

Notation	Name	Example
$O(1)$	constant	Determining if a number is even or odd; using a constant-size lookup table or hash table
$O(\log n)$	logarithmic	Finding an item in a sorted array with a binary search or a balanced search tree as well as all operations in a Binomial heap .
$O(n^c)$, $0 < c < 1$	fractional power	Searching in a kd-tree
$O(n)$	linear	Finding an item in an unsorted list or a malformed tree (worst case) or in an unsorted array; Adding two n -bit integers.
$O(n \log n) = O(\log n!)$	linearithmic, loglinear, or quasilinear	Performing a Fast Fourier transform ; heapsort , quicksort (best and average case), or merge sort
$O(n^2)$	quadratic	Multiplying two n -digit numbers by a simple algorithm; bubble sort (worst case or naive implementation), shell sort , quicksort (worst case), selection sort or insertion sort
$O(n^c)$, $c > 1$	polynomial or algebraic	Tree-adjoining grammar parsing; maximum matching for bipartite graphs
$L_n[\alpha, c]$, $0 < \alpha < 1 = e^{(c+o(1))(\ln n)^\alpha (\ln \ln n)^{1-\alpha}}$	L-notation or sub-exponential	Factoring a number using the quadratic sieve or number field sieve
$O(c^n)$, $c > 1$	exponential	Finding the (exact) solution to the traveling salesman problem using dynamic programming ; determining if two logical statements are equivalent using brute-force search
$O(n!)$	factorial	Solving the traveling salesman problem via brute-force search; finding the determinant with expansion by minors .

Classes of functions that are commonly encountered when analyzing the running time of an algorithm. In each case, c is a constant and n increases without bound. The slower-growing functions are generally listed first. (Source: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Big_O_notation)