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Design and Analysis of Algorithms

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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

**Introduction to Algorithms,
Design Techniques and Analysis**

Slides courtesy of **Anany Levitin**

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Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Syllabus

-
- **UNIT I (12 Hours)**
 - Introduction
 - Analysis of Algorithm Efficiency,
 - Algebraic structures
 - **UNIT II (12 Hours)**
 - Brute Force,
 - Divide-and-Conquer
 - **UNIT III (10 Hours)**
 - Decrease-and-Conquer
 - Transform-and-Conquer
 - **UNIT IV (10 Hours)**
 - Space and Time Tradeoffs
 - Greedy Technique
 - **UNIT V (12 Hours)**
 - Limitations of Algorithm Power
 - Coping with the Limitations of Algorithm Power
 - Dynamic Programming

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Text Books

Book Type	Code	Title & Author	Publication Information		
			Edition	Publisher	Year
Text Book	T1	Introduction to The Design and Analysis of Algorithms Anany Levitin	2	Pearson	2012
Reference Book	R1	Introduction to Algorithms Thomas H. Cormen, Charles E. Leiserson, Ronald L. Rivest and Clifford Stein	3	Prentice-Hall India	2009
Reference Book	R2	Fundamentals of Computer Algorithms Horowitz, Sahni, Rajasekaran,	2	Universities Press	2007
Reference Book	R3	Algorithm Design Jon Kleinberg, Eva Tardos,	1	Pearson Education	2006

What is an algorithm?

An algorithm is a sequence of unambiguous instructions for solving a problem, i.e., for obtaining a required output for any legitimate input in a finite amount of time

Important Points about Algorithms

- The non-ambiguity requirement for each step of an algorithm cannot be compromised
- The range of inputs for which an algorithm works has to be specified carefully.
- The same algorithm can be implemented in several different ways
- There may exist several algorithms for solving the same problem.

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Characteristics of Algorithm



Input: Zero or more quantities are externally supplied

Definiteness: Each instruction is clear and unambiguous

Finiteness: The algorithm terminates in a finite number of steps.

Effectiveness: Each instruction must be primitive and feasible

Output: At least one quantity is produced

Why do we need Algorithms?

- It is a tool for solving well-specified Computational Problem.
- Problem statement specifies in general terms relation between input and output
- Algorithm describes computational procedure for achieving input/output relationship
This Procedure is irrespective of implementation details

Why do we need to study algorithms?

Exposure to different algorithms for solving various problems helps develop skills to design algorithms for the problems for which there are no published algorithms to solve it

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Basic Issues related to Algorithms



- How to design algorithms
- How to express algorithms
- Proving correctness of designed algorithm
- Efficiency
 - Theoretical analysis
 - Empirical analysis

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Basic Issues related to Algorithms



- How to design algorithms
- How to express algorithms
- Proving correctness of designed algorithm
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 - Theoretical analysis
 - Empirical analysis

What do you mean by Algorithm Design Techniques?

General Approach to solving problems algorithmically .

Applicable to a variety of problems from different areas of computing

Various Algorithm Design Techniques

- Brute Force
- Divide and Conquer
- Decrease and Conquer
- Transform and Conquer
- Dynamic Programming
- Greedy Technique
- Branch and Bound
- Backtracking

Importance Framework for designing and analyzing algorithms
for new problems

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Basic Issues related to Algorithms



- How to design algorithms
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Methods of Specifying an Algorithm

- **Natural language**
 - Ambiguous
- **Pseudocode**
 - A mixture of a natural language and programming language-like structures
 - Precise and succinct.
 - Pseudocode in this course
 - omits declarations of variables
 - use indentation to show the scope of such statements as for, if, and while.
 - use \leftarrow for assignment
- **Flowchart**
 - Method of expressing algorithm by collection of connected geometric shapes

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Methods of Specifying an Algorithm



➤ Euclid's Algorithm

Problem: Find $\text{gcd}(m,n)$, the greatest common divisor of two nonnegative, not both zero integers m and n

Examples: $\text{gcd}(60,24) = 12$, $\text{gcd}(60,0) = 60$, $\text{gcd}(0,0) = ?$

Euclid's algorithm is based on repeated application of equality

$$\text{gcd}(m,n) = \text{gcd}(n, m \bmod n)$$

until the second number becomes 0, which makes the problem trivial.

Example: $\text{gcd}(60,24) = \text{gcd}(24,12) = \text{gcd}(12,0) = 12$

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Methods of Specifying an Algorithm

Two descriptions of Euclid's algorithm

Euclid's algorithm for computing $\text{gcd}(m,n)$

Step 1 If $n = 0$, return m and stop; otherwise go to Step 2

Step 2 Divide m by n and assign the value of the remainder to r

Step 3 Assign the value of n to m and the value of r to n . Go to step 1.

ALGORITHM Euclid(m,n)

//computes $\text{gcd}(m,n)$ by Euclid's method

//Input: Two nonnegative,not both zero integers

//Output:Greatest common divisor of m and n

while $n \neq 0$ do

$r \leftarrow m \bmod n$

$m \leftarrow n$

$n \leftarrow r$

return m

ALGORITHM *SequentialSearch*($A[0..n - 1]$, K)

//Searches for a given value in a given array by sequential search

//Input: An array $A[0..n - 1]$ and a search key K

//Output: The index of the first element of A that matches K

// or -1 if there are no matching elements

$i \leftarrow 0$

while $i < n$ **and** $A[i] \neq K$ **do**

$i \leftarrow i + 1$

if $i < n$ **return** i

else return -1

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Basic Issues related to Algorithms



- How to design algorithms
- How to express algorithms
- Proving correctness of designed algorithm
- Efficiency
 - Theoretical analysis
 - Empirical analysis

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Basic Issues related to Algorithms



- How to design algorithms
- How to express algorithms
- Proving correctness of designed algorithm
- Efficiency
 - Theoretical analysis
 - Empirical analysis

- To determine resource consumption
 - CPU time
 - Memory space
- Compare different methods for solving the same problem before actually implementing them and running the programs.
- To find an efficient algorithm for solving the problem

- A measure of the performance of an algorithm
- An algorithm's performance is characterized by
 - Time complexity
 - How fast an algorithm maps input to output as a function of input
 - Space complexity
 - amount of memory units required by the algorithm in addition to the memory needed for its input and output

How to determine complexity of an algorithm?

- Experimental study(Performance Measurement)
- Theoretical Analysis (Performance Analysis)

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Limitations of Performance Measurement



- It is necessary to implement the algorithm, which may be difficult
- Results may not be indicative of the running time on other inputs not included in the experiment.
- In order to compare two algorithms, the same hardware and software environments must be used
- Experimental data though important is not sufficient

- Uses a high-level description of the algorithm instead of an implementation
- Characterizes running time as a function of the input size, n .
- Takes into account all possible inputs
- Allows us to evaluate the speed of an algorithm independent of the hardware/software environment



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Unit -4

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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Unit 4: Space and Time Tradeoffs

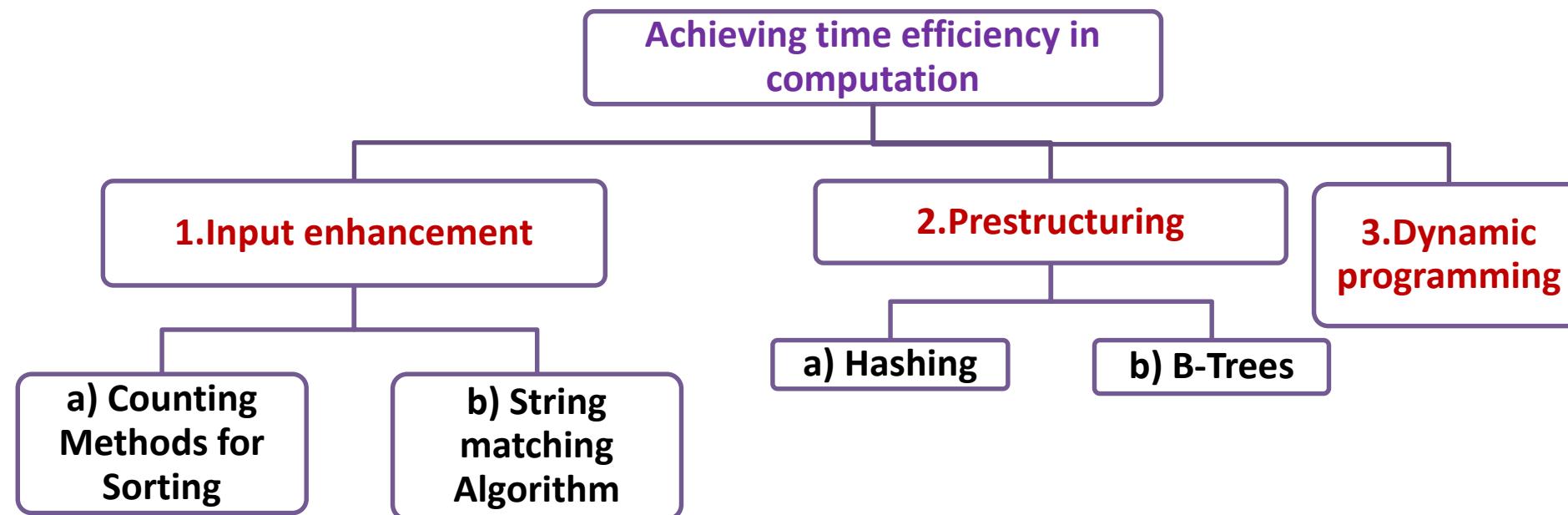
Space and Time Tradeoffs - Sorting by Counting

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- Space and time trade-offs in algorithm design are a well-known issue for both theoreticians and practitioners of computing.
- As an algorithm design technique, trading space for time is much more prevalent than trading time for space.

Principal Varieties for trading space for time in Algorithm design

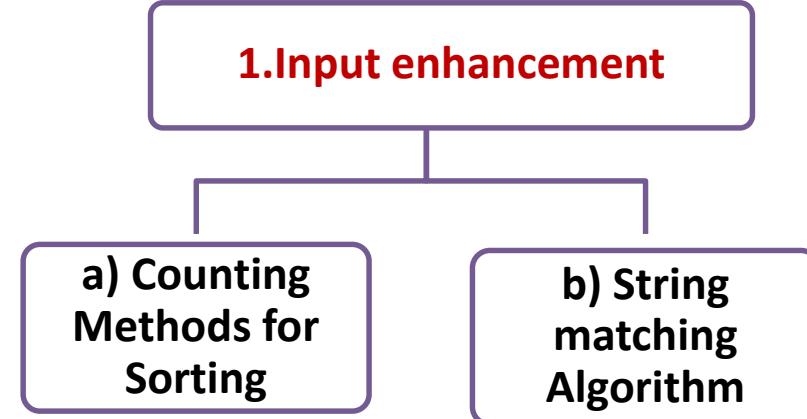


1. Input enhancement

- **Input Enhancement**

- Preprocess the problem's input, in whole or in part, and store the additional information obtained to accelerate solving the problem afterward.

- Eg:
 1. Comparison counting sort
 2. Distribution Counting,
 3. Horspool's algorithm,
 4. Boyer-Moore's algorithm



1. Input enhancement

a) Sorting by Counting

1. Comparison Counting Sorting

- I. For each element of the list, count the total number of elements smaller than this element.
- II. These numbers will indicate the positions of the elements in the sorted list.

2. Distribution Counting Sorting

- I. Suppose the elements of the list to be sorted belong to a finite set (aka domain).
- II. Count the frequency of each element of the set in the list to be sorted.
- III. Scan the set in order of sorting and print each element of the set according to its frequency, which will be the required sorted list.

1. Input Enhancement

→ Sorting by Counting

→→ Comparison Counting Sorting

1. Find the numbers that are less than $a[0]$ i.e, 62, by scanning the array from the index 1 to 5

$a[0] \quad a[1] \quad a[2] \quad a[3] \quad a[4] \quad a[5]$

Array a 62 31 84 96 19 47

2. Maintain another array called **Count** the elements that are **lesser than 62**

	$a[0]$	$a[1]$	$a[2]$	$a[3]$	$a[4]$	$a[5]$
Array a	62	31	84	96	19	47
Array $Count$	3					

Example of sorting by comparison counting

Array $A[0..5]$

62	31	84	96	19	47
----	----	----	----	----	----

Initially

After pass $i = 0$

After pass $i = 1$

After pass $i = 2$

After pass $i = 3$

After pass $i = 4$

Final state

$Count []$

0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	1	1	0	0
	1	2	2	0	1
		4	3	0	1
			5	0	1
				0	2
3	1	4	5	0	2

Array $S[0..5]$

19	31	47	62	84	96
----	----	----	----	----	----

Algorithm for Sorting by Counting

ALGORITHM *ComparisonCountingSort($A[0..n - 1]$)*

```
//Sorts an array by comparison counting
//Input: An array  $A[0..n - 1]$  of orderable elements
//Output: Array  $S[0..n - 1]$  of  $A$ 's elements sorted
for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n - 1$  do  $Count[i] \leftarrow 0$ 
for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n - 2$  do
    for  $j \leftarrow i + 1$  to  $n - 1$  do
        if  $A[i] < A[j]$ 
             $Count[j] \leftarrow Count[j] + 1$ 
        else  $Count[i] \leftarrow Count[i] + 1$ 
for  $i \leftarrow 0$  to  $n - 1$  do  $S[Count[i]] \leftarrow A[i]$ 
return  $S$ 
```

It should be quadratic because the algorithm considers all the different pairs of an n -element array

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n-1} 1$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} [(n - 1) - (i + 1) + 1] = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n - 1 - i) = \frac{n(n - 1)}{2}$$

1. Thus, the algorithm makes the same number of key comparisons as selection sort,
2. In addition it uses a linear amount of extra space.

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References

**“Introduction to the Design and Analysis of Algorithms”, Anany Levitin,
Pearson Education, Delhi (Indian Version), 3rd edition, 2012.**

Chapter- 7





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Fundamentals of Algorithmic Problem Solving

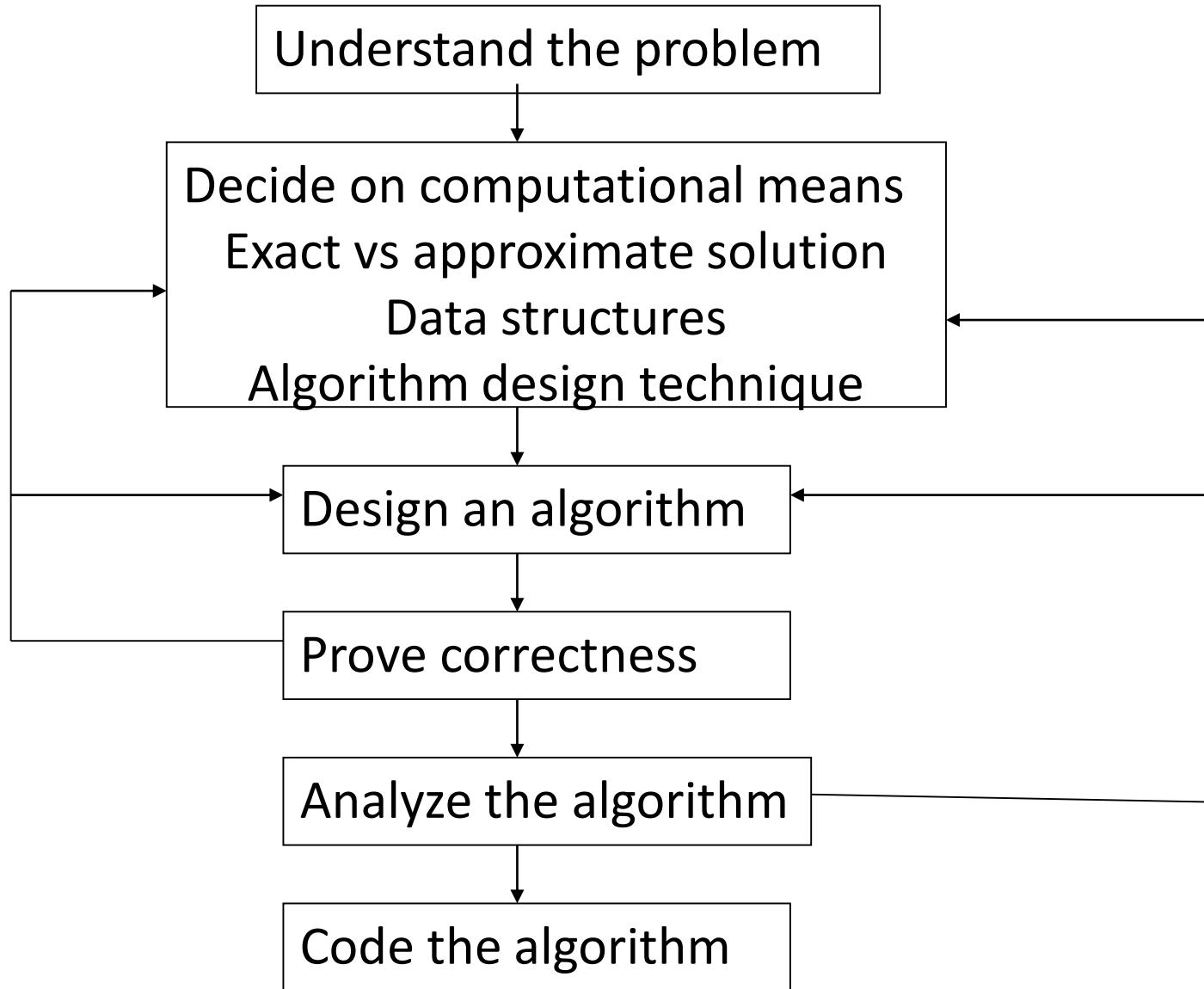
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Algorithm Design and Analysis Process



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Computational Means



Computational Device the algorithm is intended for

RAM Sequential Algorithms

PRAM Parallel Algorithms

Travelling Salesman Problem

NP complete!!!

Approximate algorithm can be used to solve it

- Linear
 - Linear list, Stack, Queues
- Non Linear
 - Trees, Graphs

Choice of Data structure for solving a problem using an algorithm may dramatically impact its time complexity

Dijkstra Algorithm

$O(V \log V + E)$ with Fibonacci heap

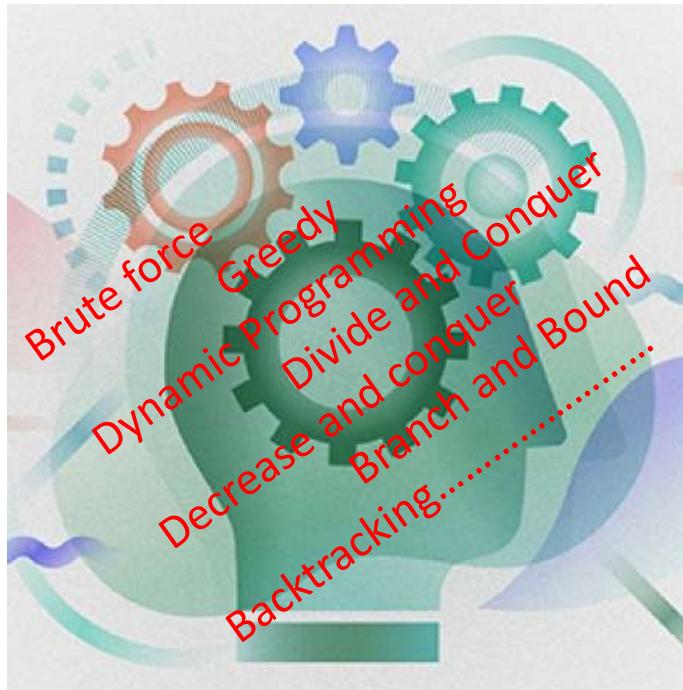
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Algorithm Design Technique

General approach to solving problems algorithmically that is applicable to variety of problems from different areas of computing

ADT serves as heuristic for designing algorithms for new problems for which no satisfactory algorithm exists!!!

Algorithm Designer's Toolkit



- Natural Language
- Pseudo Code
- Flowchart

- Natural Language
- Pseudo Code
- Flowchart

Exact algorithms

Proving that algorithm yields a correct result for legitimate input in finite amount of time

Approximation algorithms

Error produced by algorithm does not exceed a predefined limit

- Efficiency
 - Time efficiency
 - Space efficiency
- Simplicity
- Generality
 - Design an algorithm for the problem posed in more general terms
 - Design an algorithm that can handle a range of inputs that is natural for the problem at hand

- Efficient implementation
- Correctness of program
 - Mathematical Approach: Formal verification for small programs
 - Practical Methods: Testing and Debugging
- Code optimization



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Important Problem Types

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Important Problem Types

- sorting
- searching
- string processing
- graph problems
- combinatorial problems
- geometric problems
- numerical problems

- Rearrange the items of a given list in ascending order.
 - Input: A sequence of n numbers $\langle a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n \rangle$
 - Output: A reordering $\langle a'_1, a'_2, \dots, a'_n \rangle$ of the input sequence such that $a'_1 \leq a'_2 \leq \dots \leq a'_n$.
- Why sorting?
 - Help searching
 - Algorithms often use sorting as a key subroutine.
- Sorting key

A specially chosen piece of information used to guide sorting.
Example: sort student records by SRN.

- Rearrange the items of a given list in ascending order.
- Examples of sorting algorithms
 - Selection sort
 - Bubble sort
 - Insertion sort
 - Merge sort
 - Heap sort ...
- Evaluate sorting algorithm complexity: the number of key comparisons.
- Two properties
 - Stability: A sorting algorithm is called stable if it preserves the relative order of any two equal elements in its input.
 - In place : A sorting algorithm is in place if it does not require extra memory, except, possibly for a few memory units.

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Important Problem Types: Searching



Find a given value, called a **search key**, in a given set.

Examples of searching algorithms

- Sequential searching
- Binary searching...

A string is a sequence of characters from an alphabet.

Text strings: letters, numbers, and special characters.

String matching: searching for a given word/pattern in a text.

Text: I am a **computer** science graduate

Pattern: computer

Definition

Graph G is represented as a pair $G = (V, E)$,
where V is a finite set of vertices and E is a finite set of edges

Modeling real-life problems

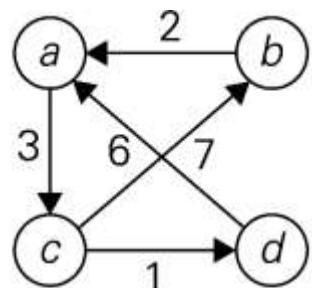
- Modeling WWW
- communication networks
- Project scheduling ...

Examples of graph algorithms

- Graph traversal algorithms
- Shortest-path algorithms
- Topological sorting

Shortest paths in a graph

To find the distances from each vertex to all other vertices.



(a)

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ a & 0 & \infty & 3 & \infty \\ b & 2 & 0 & \infty & \infty \\ c & \infty & 7 & 0 & 1 \\ d & 6 & \infty & \infty & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b)

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} a & b & c & d \\ a & 0 & 10 & 3 & 4 \\ b & 2 & 0 & 5 & 6 \\ c & 7 & 7 & 0 & 1 \\ d & 6 & 16 & 9 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(c)

FIGURE 8.5 (a) Digraph. (b) Its weight matrix. (c) Its distance matrix.

Minimum cost spanning tree

- A spanning tree of a connected graph is its connected acyclic sub graph (i.e. a tree).

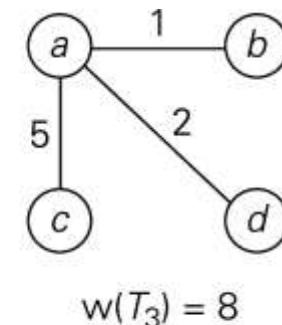
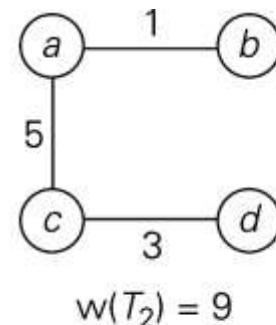
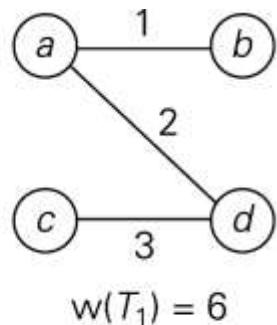
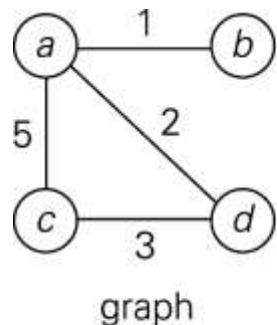
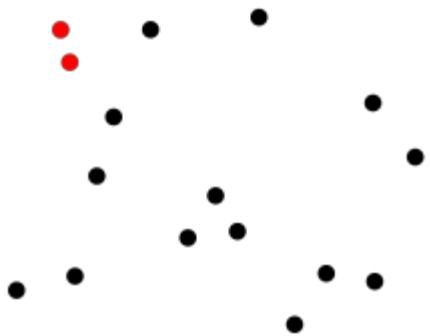
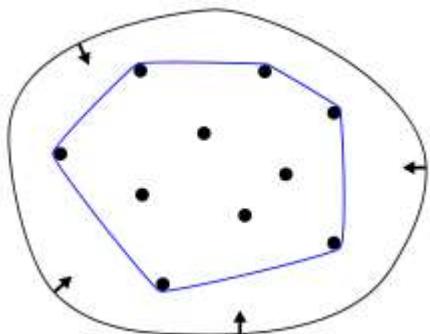


FIGURE 9.1 Graph and its spanning trees; T_1 is the minimum spanning tree

Closest Pair problem



Convex Hull Problem



- Solving Equations
- Computing definite integrals
- Evaluating functions



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Analysis Framework

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What do you mean by analysing an algorithm?

Investigation of Algorithm's efficiency with respect to two resources

- Time
- Space

What is the need for Analysing an algorithm?

- To determine resource consumption
 - CPU time
 - Memory space
- Compare different methods for solving the same problem before actually implementing them and running the programs.
- To find an efficient algorithm

- A measure of the performance of an algorithm
- An algorithm's performance depends on
 - *internal factors*
 - Time required to run
 - Space (memory storage) required to run
 - *external factors*
 - Speed of the computer on which it is run
 - Quality of the compiler
 - Size of the input to the algorithm

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Performance of Algorithm



important Criteria for performance:

- Space efficiency - the memory required, also called, space complexity
- Time efficiency - the time required, also called time complexity

$$S(P) = C + SP(I)$$

- Fixed Space Requirements (C)
Independent of the characteristics of the inputs and outputs
 - instruction space
 - space for simple variables, fixed-size structured variable, constants
- Variable Space Requirements (SP(I))
dependent on the instance characteristic I
 - number, size, values of inputs and outputs associated with I
 - recursive stack space, formal parameters, local variables, return address

$$S(P)=C+S_P(I)$$

```
float rsum(float list[ ], int n)
{
    if (n)
        return rsum(list, n-1) + list[n-1]
    return 0
}
```

$$S_{\text{sum}}(I)=S_{\text{sum}}(n)=6n$$

Type	Name	Number of bytes
parameter: float	list []	2
parameter: integer	n	2
return address:(used internally)		2
TOTAL per recursive call		6

$$T(P) = C + T_P(I)$$

- Compile time (C)
independent of instance characteristics

- run (execution) time T_P

How to measure time complexity?

- Theoretical Analysis
- Experimental study

Experimental study

- Write a program implementing the algorithm
- Run the program with inputs of varying size and composition
- Get an accurate measure of the actual running time
- Use a method like `System.currentTimeMillis()`
- Plot the results

- It is necessary to implement the algorithm, which may be difficult
- Results may not be indicative of the running time on other inputs not included in the experiment.
- In order to compare two algorithms, the same hardware and software environments must be used
- Experimental data though important is not sufficient

- Uses a high-level description of the algorithm instead of an implementation
- Characterizes running time as a function of the input size, n .
- Takes into account all possible inputs
- Allows us to evaluate the speed of an algorithm independent of the hardware/software environment

Two approaches:

1. Order of magnitude/asymptotic categorization –

This uses coarse categories and gives a general idea of performance.

If algorithms fall into the same category, if data size is small, or if performance is critical, use method 2

2. Estimation of running time -

1. *operation counts* - select operation(s) that are executed most frequently and determine how many times each is executed.
2. *step counts* - determine the total number of steps, possibly lines of code, executed by the program.

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Analysis Framework



- Measuring an input's size
- Measuring running time
- Orders of growth (of the algorithm's efficiency function)
- Worst-base, best-case and average efficiency

Efficiency is defined as a function of input size.

Input size depends on the problem.

Example 1, what is the input size of the problem of sorting n numbers?

Example 2, what is the input size of adding two n by n matrices?

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Units for Measuring Running Time

- Measure the running time using standard unit of time measurements, such as seconds, minutes?
Depends on the speed of the computer.

- count the number of times each of an algorithm's operations is executed.
(step count method)
Difficult and unnecessary

- count the number of times an algorithm's basic operation is executed.

Basic operation: the most important operation of the algorithm, the operation contributing the most to the total running time.

For example, the basic operation is usually the most time-consuming operation in the algorithm's innermost loop.

Analysis in the RAM Model

SmartFibonacci(n)	<i>cost</i>	<i>times</i> ($n > 1$)
1 if $n = 0$	c_1	1
2 then return 0	c_2	0
3 elseif $n = 1$	c_3	1
4 then return 1	c_4	0
5 else $p\text{prev} \leftarrow 0$	c_5	1
6 $\text{prev} \leftarrow 1$	c_6	1
7 for $i \leftarrow 2$ to n	c_7	n
8 do $f \leftarrow \text{prev} + p\text{prev}$	c_8	$n - 1$
9 $p\text{prev} \leftarrow \text{prev}$	c_9	$n - 1$
10 $\text{prev} \leftarrow f$	c_{10}	$n - 1$
11 return f	c_{11}	1

$$T(n) = c_1 + c_3 + c_5 + c_6 + c_{11} + nc_7 + (n - 1)(c_8 + c_9 + c_{10})$$

$T(n) = nC_1 + C_2 \Rightarrow T(n)$ is a *linear function* of n

Input Size and Basic Operation Examples

<i>Problem</i>	<i>Input size measure</i>	<i>Basic operation</i>
Search for a key in a list of n items	Number of items in list, n	Key comparison
Add two n by n matrices	Dimensions of matrices, n	addition
multiply two matrices	Dimensions of matrices, n	multiplication

Time efficiency is analyzed by determining the number of repetitions of the basic operation as a function of input size.

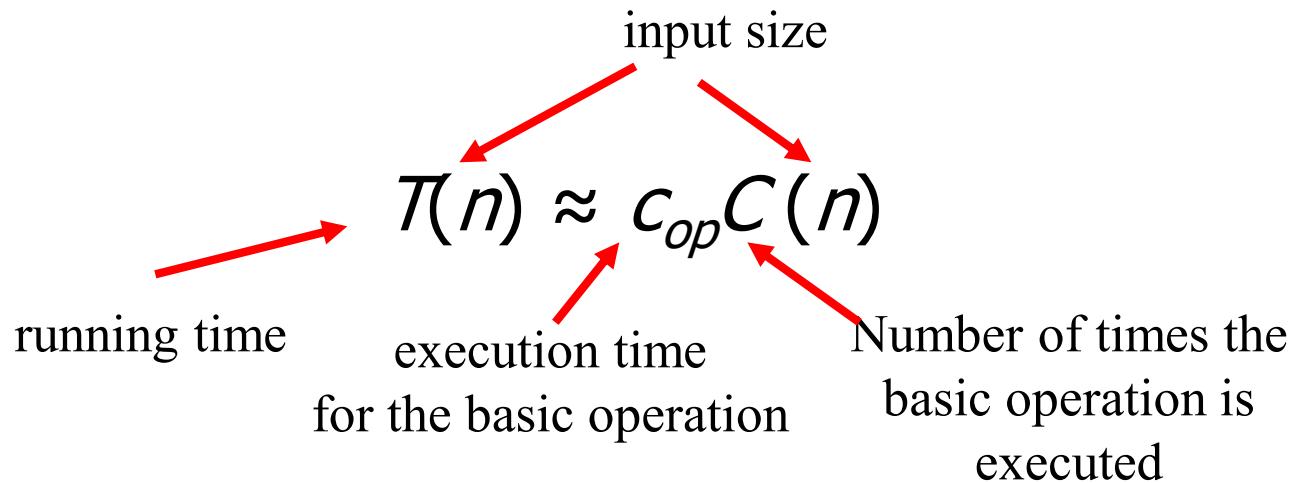
$$T(n) \approx c_{op} C(n)$$

input size

running time

execution time for the basic operation

Number of times the basic operation is executed



C(n) Basic Operation Count

- The efficiency analysis framework ignores the multiplicative constants of C(n) and focuses on the orders of growth of the C(n).

- Simple characterization of the algorithm's efficiency by identifying relatively significant term in the C(n).

Why do we care about the order of growth of an algorithm's efficiency function, i.e., the total number of basic operations?

- Because, for smaller inputs, it is difficult to distinguish inefficient algorithms vs. efficient ones.
- For example, if the number of basic operations of two algorithms to solve a particular problem are n and n^2 respectively, then
 - if $n = 2$, Basic operation will be executed 2 and 4 times respectively for algorithm1 and 2.
Not much difference!!!
 - On the other hand, if $n = 10000$, then it does makes a difference whether the number of times the basic operation is executed is n or n^2 .

n	$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	n^3	2^n	$n!$
10	3.3	10^1	$3.3 \cdot 10^1$	10^2	10^3	10^3	$3.6 \cdot 10^6$
10^2	6.6	10^2	$6.6 \cdot 10^2$	10^4	10^6	$1.3 \cdot 10^{30}$	$9.3 \cdot 10^{157}$
10^3	10	10^3	$1.0 \cdot 10^4$	10^6	10^9		
10^4	13	10^4	$1.3 \cdot 10^5$	10^8	10^{12}		
10^5	17	10^5	$1.7 \cdot 10^6$	10^{10}	10^{15}		
10^6	20	10^6	$2.0 \cdot 10^7$	10^{12}	10^{18}		

Exponential-growth functions

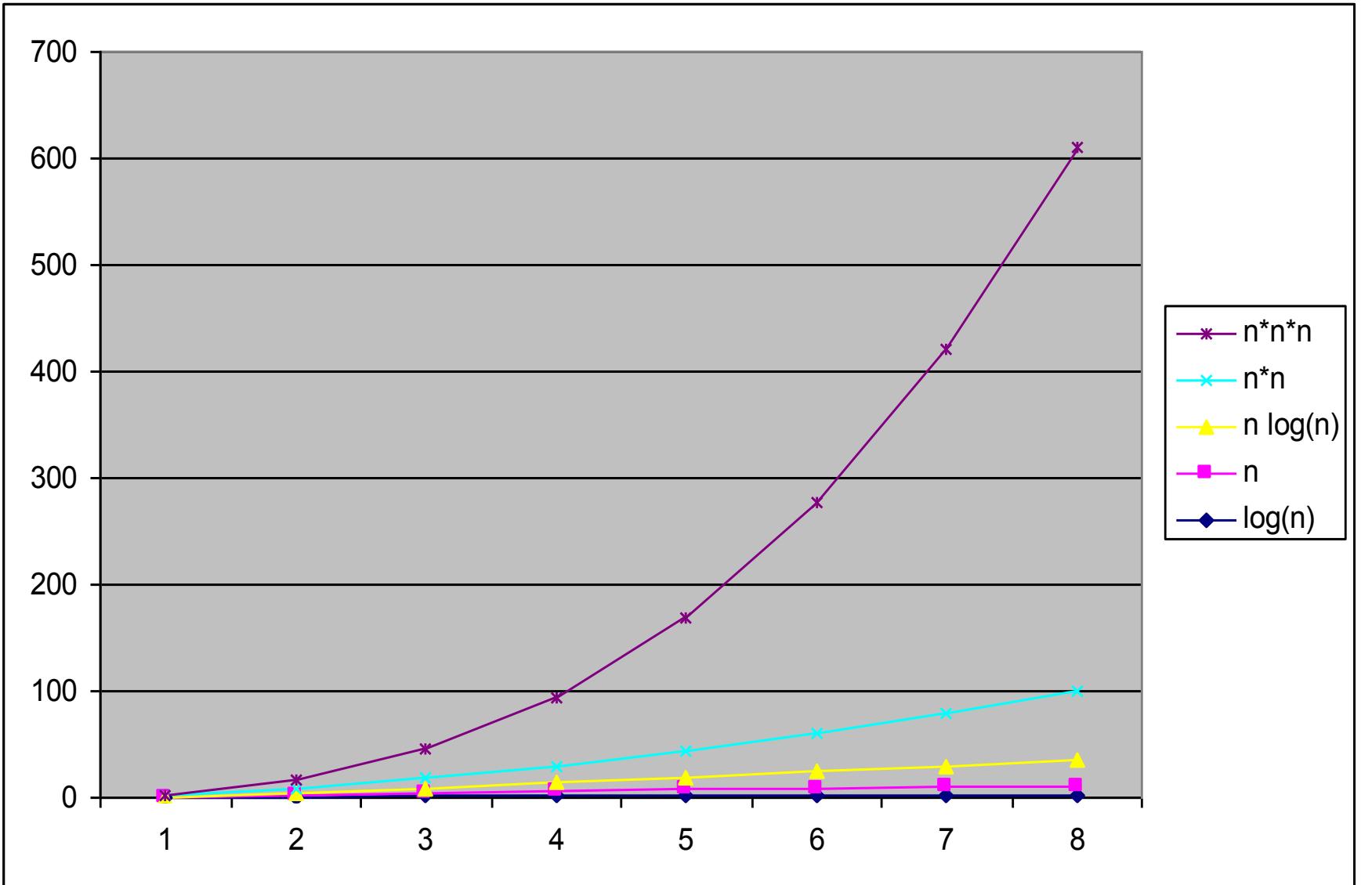
Table 2.1 Values (some approximate) of several functions important for analysis of algorithms

Orders of growth:

- consider only the leading term of a formula
- ignore the constant coefficient.

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Order of Growth



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Basic Efficiency Classes

1	constant
$\log n$	logarithmic
n	linear
$n \log n$	$n\text{-log-}n$
n^2	quadratic
n^3	cubic
2^n	exponential
$n!$	factorial

- Algorithm efficiency depends on the input size n
- For some algorithms efficiency depends on type of input.

Example: Sequential Search

Problem: Given a list of n elements and a search key K , find an element equal to K , if any.

Algorithm: Scan the list and compare its successive elements with K until either a matching element is found (successful search) or the list is exhausted (unsuccessful search)

Given a sequential search problem of an input size of n ,
what kind of input would make the running time the longest?
How many key comparisons?

➤ Worst case Efficiency

- Efficiency (# of times the basic operation will be executed) for the worst case input of size n.
- The algorithm runs the longest among all possible inputs of size n.

➤ Best case

- Efficiency (# of times the basic operation will be executed) for the best case input of size n.
- The algorithm runs the fastest among all possible inputs of size n.

➤ Average case:

- Efficiency (#of times the basic operation will be executed) for a typical/random input of size n.
- NOT the average of worst and best case

➤ How to find the average case efficiency?

ALGORITHM SequentialSearch(A[0..n-1], K)

//Searches for a given value in a given array by sequential search

//Input: An array A[0..n-1] and a search key K

//Output: Returns the index of the first element of A that matches K or -1 if there are no matching elements

i \leftarrow 0

while i < n and A[i] \neq K do

 i \leftarrow i + 1

if i < n //A[i] = K

 return i

else

 return -1

- Worst-Case: $C_{worst}(n) = n$
- Best-Case: $C_{best}(n) = 1$
- Average-Case
 - from $(n+1)/2$ to $(n+1)$

Let 'p' be the probability that key is found in the list

Assumption: All positions are equally probable

Case1: key is found in the list

$$C_{\text{avg,case1}}(n) = p * (1 + 2 + \dots + n) / n = p * (n + 1) / 2$$

Case2: key is not found in the list

$$C_{\text{avg, case2}}(n) = (1-p) * (n)$$

$$C_{\text{avg}}(n) = p(n + 1) / 2 + (1 - p)(n)$$



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Asymptotic Notations

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Order of growth of an algorithm's basic operation count is important

How do we compare order of growth??

Using Asymptotic Notations

A way of comparing functions that ignores constant factors and small input sizes

$O(g(n))$: class of functions $f(n)$ that grow no faster than $g(n)$

$\Omega(g(n))$: class of functions $f(n)$ that grow at least as fast as $g(n)$

$\Theta(g(n))$: class of functions $f(n)$ that grow at same rate as $g(n)$

$o(g(n))$: class of functions $f(n)$ that grow at slower rate than $g(n)$

$\omega(g(n))$: class of functions $f(n)$ that grow at faster rate than $g(n)$

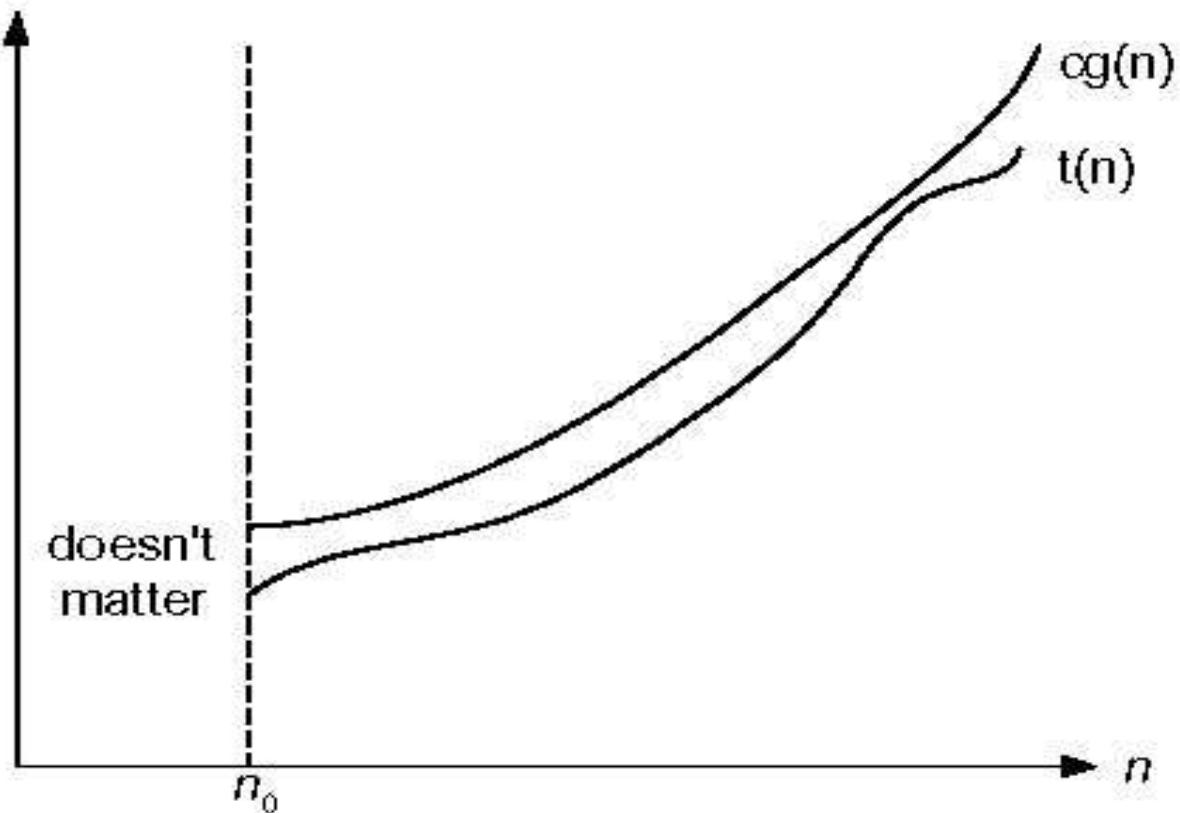


Figure 2.1 Big-oh notation: $t(n) \in O(g(n))$

Formal definition

A function $t(n)$ is said to be in $O(g(n))$, denoted $t(n) \in O(g(n))$, if $t(n)$ is bounded above by some constant multiple of $g(n)$ for all large n ,
i.e., if there exist some positive constant c and some nonnegative integer n_0 such that

$$t(n) \leq cg(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

Example: $100n+5 \in O(n)$

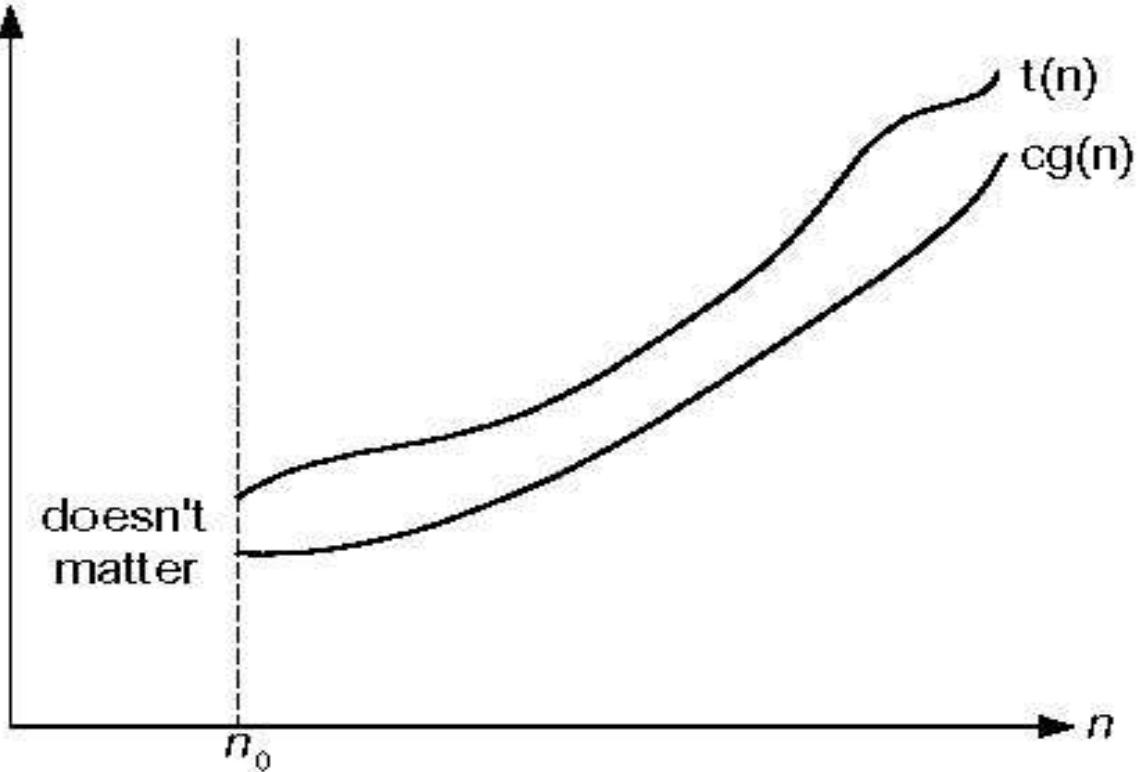


Fig. 2.2 Big-omega notation: $t(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$

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Ω -notation



Formal definition

A function $t(n)$ is said to be in $\Omega(g(n))$, denoted $t(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$, if $t(n)$ is bounded below by some constant multiple of $g(n)$ for all large n ,

i.e., if there exist some positive constant c and some nonnegative integer n_0 such that

$$t(n) \geq cg(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

Example: $10n^2 \in \Omega(n^2)$

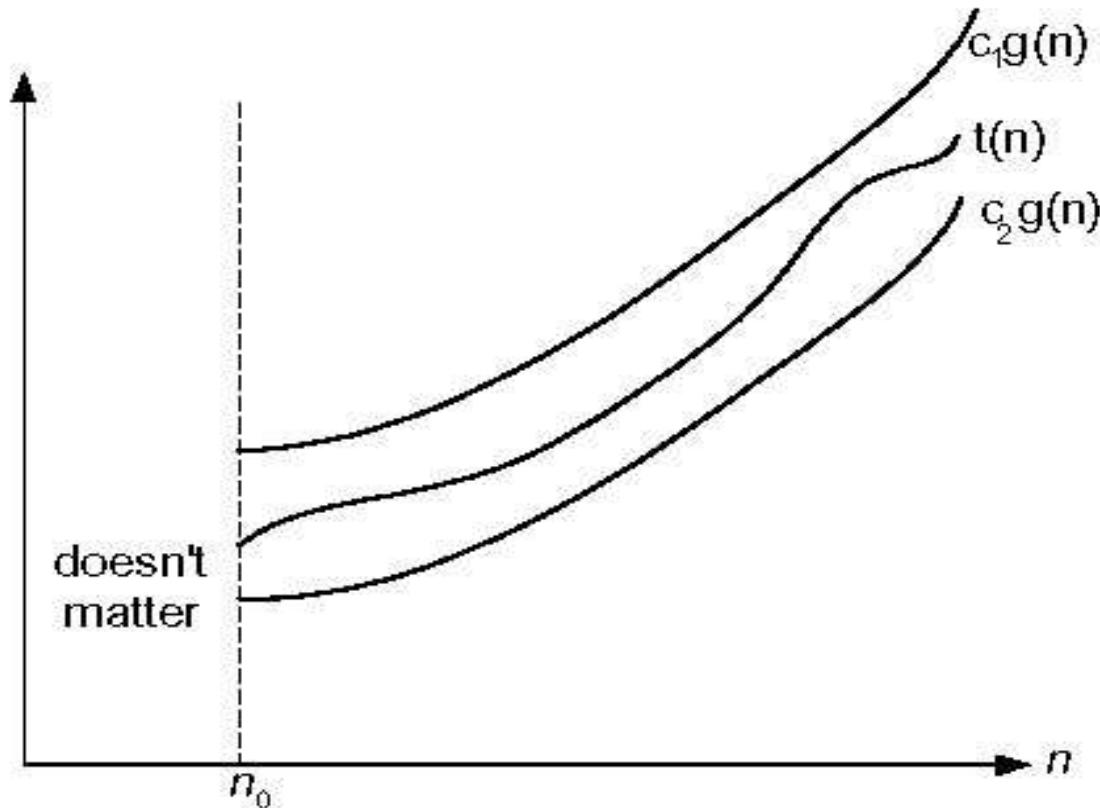


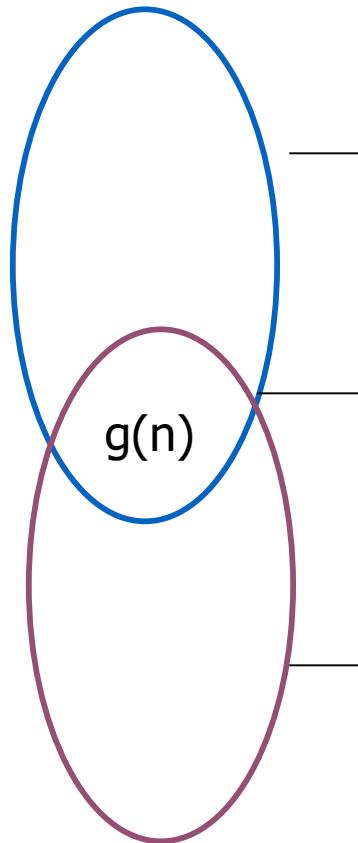
Figure 2.3 Big-theta notation: $t(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$

Formal definition

A function $t(n)$ is said to be in $\Theta(g(n))$, denoted $t(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$, if $t(n)$ is bounded both above and below by some positive constant multiples of $g(n)$ for all large n ,
i.e., if there exist some positive constants c_1 and c_2 and some nonnegative integer n_0 such that

$$c_2 g(n) \leq t(n) \leq c_1 g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

Example: $(1/2)n(n-1) \in \Theta(n^2)$



\geq

$\Omega(g(n))$, functions that grow at least as fast as $g(n)$

$=$

$\Theta(g(n))$, functions that grow at the same rate as $g(n)$

\leq

$O(g(n))$, functions that grow no faster than $g(n)$

Little-o Notation

Formal Definition:

A function $t(n)$ is said to be in Little-o($g(n)$), denoted $t(n) \in o(g(n))$,
if for any positive constant c and some nonnegative integer n_0

$$0 \leq t(n) < cg(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

Example: $n \in o(n^2)$

Little Omega Notation

Formal Definition:

A function $t(n)$ is said to be in Little- $\omega(g(n))$, denoted $t(n) \in \omega(g(n))$, if for any positive constant c and some nonnegative integer n_0

$$t(n) > cg(n) \geq 0 \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

Example: $3n^2 + 2 \in \omega(n)$

➤ If $t_1(n) \in O(g_1(n))$ and $t_2(n) \in O(g_2(n))$, then

$$t_1(n) + t_2(n) \in O(\max\{g_1(n), g_2(n)\}).$$

For example,

$$5n^2 + 3n\log n \in O(n^2)$$

➤ If $t_1(n) \in \Theta(g_1(n))$ and $t_2(n) \in \Theta(g_2(n))$, then

$$t_1(n) + t_2(n) \in \Theta(\max\{g_1(n), g_2(n)\})$$

➤ $t_1(n) \in \Omega(g_1(n))$ and $t_2(n) \in \Omega(g_2(n))$, then

$$t_1(n) + t_2(n) \in \Omega(\max\{g_1(n), g_2(n)\})$$

Implication: The algorithm's overall efficiency will be determined by the part with a larger order of growth, i.e., its least efficient part.



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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Basic Efficiency Classes

Problems based on Asymptotic notations

Slides courtesy of **Anany Levitin**

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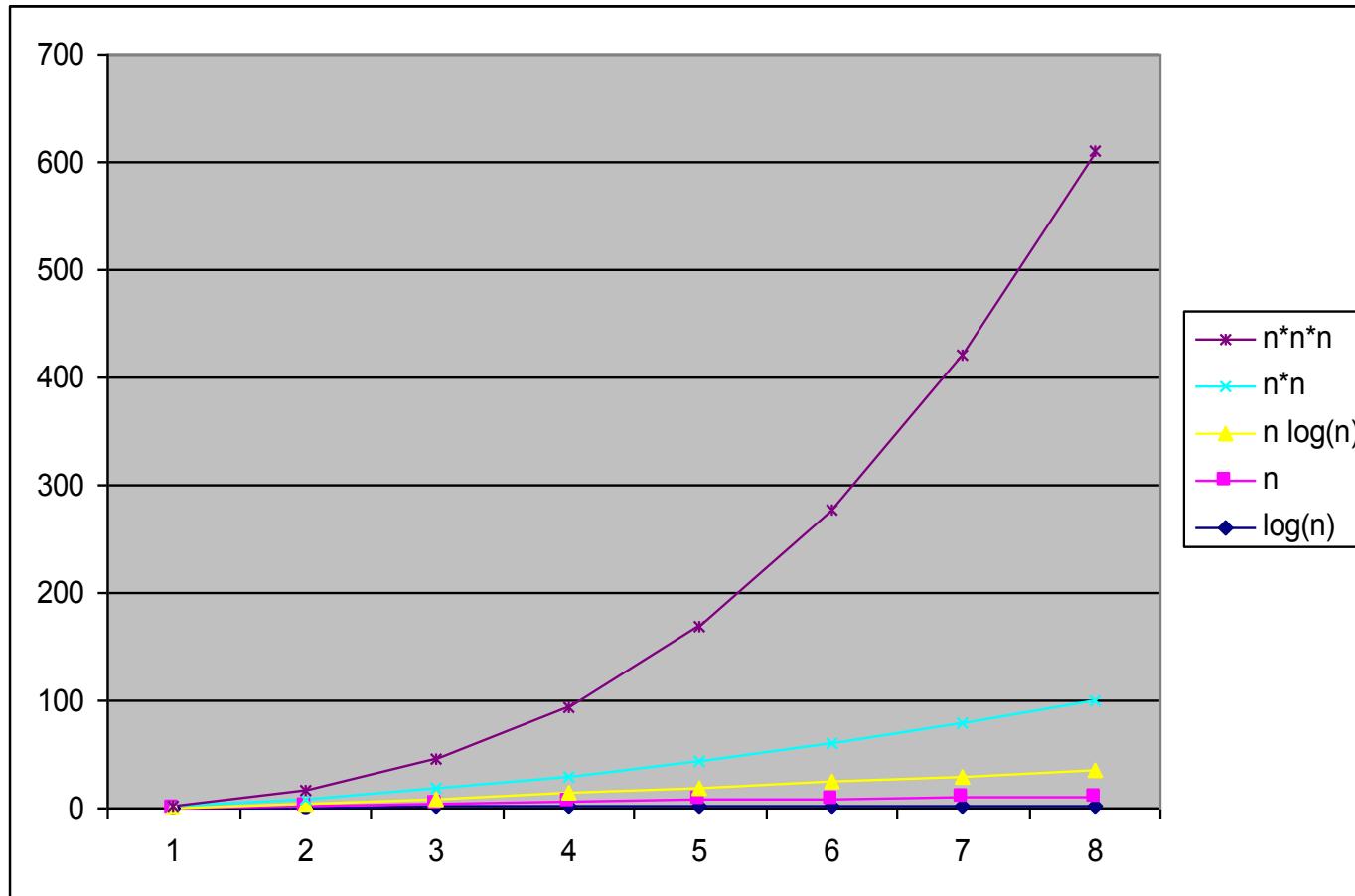
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Basic Efficiency Classes

Class	Name	Example
1	constant	Best case for sequential search
$\log n$	logarithmic	Binary Search
n	linear	Worst case for sequential search
$n \log n$	$n\text{-log-}n$	Mergesort
n^2	quadratic	Bubble Sort
n^3	cubic	Matrix Multiplication
2^n	exponential	Subset generation
$n!$	factorial	TSP using exhaustive search

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Basic Efficiency Classes



n	$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	n^3	2^n	$n!$
10	3.3	10^1	$3.3 \cdot 10^1$	10^2	10^3	10^3	$3.6 \cdot 10^6$
10^2	6.6	10^2	$6.6 \cdot 10^2$	10^4	10^6	$1.3 \cdot 10^{30}$	$9.3 \cdot 10^{157}$
10^3	10	10^3	$1.0 \cdot 10^4$	10^6	10^9		
10^4	13	10^4	$1.3 \cdot 10^5$	10^8	10^{12}		
10^5	17	10^5	$1.7 \cdot 10^6$	10^{10}	10^{15}		
10^6	20	10^6	$2.0 \cdot 10^7$	10^{12}	10^{18}		

Table 2.1 Values (some approximate) of several functions important for analysis of algorithms

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Asymptotic notations



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O

$$f(n) = 3n+2 \quad g(n) = n$$
$$3n+2 \in O(n)$$

$f(n) \leq c_1 g(n)$ for some
+ve c
 $\forall n \geq n_0$

$\Rightarrow f(n) \in O(g(n))$

$$3n+2 \leq cn$$

Let $c=4$

$$3n+2 \leq 4n$$

$$n=1 \quad n=1$$

$$n=3$$

$$5 \leq 4 \quad 9 \leq 8 \quad 11 < 12$$
$$\quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad n_0$$
$$3n+2 \leq 4n \quad \forall n \geq 2$$

$\Rightarrow 3n+2 \in O(n)$

L

$$3n+2 \in \Omega(n)$$

$f(n) \geq c_1 g(n)$ for some
+ve c
 $\forall n \geq n_0$

$$f(n) \in \Omega(n)$$

$$3n+2 \geq cn$$

$$\text{Let } c=1$$

$$3n+2 \geq n$$

$$n=1 \quad n=2 \quad n=3$$

$$5 \geq 4 \quad 9 \geq 8 \quad 11 > 3$$

$$3n+2 \geq n \quad n \geq 1$$

$$3n+2 \in \Omega(n)$$

O

$$3n+2 \in \Theta(n)$$

$$c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n)$$

$$\forall n \geq n_0$$

$$c_1 = 1$$

$$n_{o_1} = 1$$

$$c_2 = 4$$

$$n_{o_2} = 2$$

$$n_0 = \max(n_{o_1}, n_{o_2}) = 2$$

$$c_1 = 1 \quad c_2 = 4 \quad n_0 = 2$$

$$3n+2 \in \Theta(n)$$

$$f(n) \in Dg(n)$$

$$\in \Omega(n)$$

$\Rightarrow f(n) \in \Theta(n)$



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Method of Limits for comparing order of Growth

Slides courtesy of Anany Levitin

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Using Limits to Compare Order of Growth

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t(n)}{g(n)} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{implies that } t(n) \text{ has a smaller order of growth than } g(n), \\ c & \text{implies that } t(n) \text{ has the same order of growth as } g(n), \\ \infty & \text{implies that } t(n) \text{ has a larger order of growth than } g(n). \end{cases}$$

Case1: $t(n) \in O(g(n))$

Case2: $t(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$

Case3: $g(n) \in O(t(n))$

$t'(n)$ and $g'(n)$ are first-order derivatives of $t(n)$ and $g(n)$

L'Hopital's Rule $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t(n)}{g(n)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t'(n)}{g'(n)}$

Stirling's Formula $n! \approx \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$ for large values of n

Compare the order of growth of $f(n)$ and $g(n)$ using method of limits

$$t(n) = 5n^3 + 6n + 2, \quad g(n) = n^4$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t(n)}{g(n)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{5n^3 + 6n + 2}{n^4} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{5}{n} + \frac{6}{n^3} + \frac{2}{n^4} \right) = 0$$

As per case1

$$t(n) = O(g(n))$$

$$5n^3 + 6n + 2 = O(n^4)$$

Using Limits to Compare Order of Growth: Example 2

$$t(n) = \sqrt{5n^2 + 4n + 2}$$

using the Limits approach determine $g(n)$ such that $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$

Leading term in square root n^2

$$g(n) = \sqrt{n^2} = n$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t(n)}{g(n)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{5n^2 + 4n + 2}}{\sqrt{n^2}}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{5n^2 + 4n + 2}{n^2}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{5 + \frac{4}{n} + \frac{2}{n^2}} = \sqrt{5}$$

non-zero constant

Hence, $t(n) = \Theta(g(n)) = \Theta(n)$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t(n)/g(n) \neq 0, \infty \Rightarrow t(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t(n)/g(n) \neq \infty \Rightarrow t(n) \in O(g(n))$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t(n)/g(n) \neq 0 \Rightarrow t(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t(n)/g(n) = 0 \Rightarrow t(n) \in o(g(n))$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t(n)/g(n) = \infty \Rightarrow t(n) \in \omega(g(n))$$

Using Limits to Compare Order of Growth: Example 3

Compare the order of growth of $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ using method of limits

$$t(n) = \log_2 n, g(n) = \sqrt{n}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log_2 n}{\sqrt{n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(\log_2 n)'}{(\sqrt{n})'} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(\log_2 e) \frac{1}{n}}{\frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}}} = 2 \log_2 e \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = 0$$

$$\log_2 n \in o(\sqrt{n})$$

➤ All logarithmic functions $\log_a n$ belong to the same class

$\Theta(\log n)$ no matter what the logarithm's base $a > 1$ is

$$\log_{10} n \in \Theta(\log_2 n)$$

➤ All polynomials of the same degree k belong to the same class:

$$a_k n^k + a_{k-1} n^{k-1} + \dots + a_0 \in \Theta(n^k)$$

➤ Exponential functions have different orders of growth for different a's

$$3^n \notin \Theta(2^n)$$

➤ order $\log n < \text{order } n^\alpha$ ($\alpha > 0$) $< \text{order } a^n < \text{order } n! < \text{order } n^n$

Summary

- Method 1: Using limits.
 - L' Hôpital's rule
- Method 2: Using the theorem.
- Method 3: Using the definitions of O-, Ω -, and Θ -notation.



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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Mathematical Analysis of Non-recursive Algorithms

Slides courtesy of Anany Levitin

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Steps in mathematical analysis of non-recursive algorithms:

- Decide on parameter n indicating input size
- Identify algorithm's basic operation
- Check whether the number of times the basic operation is executed depends only on the input size n . If it also depends on the type of input, investigate worst, average, and best case efficiency separately.
- Set up summation for $C(n)$ reflecting the number of times the algorithm's basic operation is executed.
- Simplify summation using standard formulas

Useful Summation Formulas and Rules

$$\sum_{l \leq i \leq u} 1 = 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 = u - l + 1$$

$$\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} i = 1 + 2 + \dots + n = n(n+1)/2$$

$$\sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} i^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 = n(n+1)(2n+1)/6$$

$$\sum_{0 \leq i \leq n} a^i = 1 + a + \dots + a^n = (a^{n+1} - 1)/(a - 1) \text{ for any } a \neq 1$$

$$\sum (a_i \pm b_i) = \sum a_i \pm \sum b_i \quad \sum c a_i = c \sum a_i$$

$$\sum_{l \leq i \leq u} a_i = \sum_{l \leq i \leq m} a_i + \sum_{m+1 \leq i \leq u} a_i$$

$$\sum_{i=l}^u 1 = (u - l + 1)$$

Example 1: Finding Max Element in a list

Algorithm *MaxElement (A[0..n-1])*

```
//Determines the value of the largest element  
in a given array  
//Input: An array A[0..n-1] of real numbers  
//Output: The value of the largest element in A  
maxval ← A[0]  
for i ← 1 to n-1 do  
    if A[i] > maxval  
        maxval ← A[i]  
return maxval
```

- The basic operation- comparison
- Number of comparisons is the same for all arrays of size n.
- Number of comparisons

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 1 = n - 1 \in \Theta(n)$$

Example 2: Element Uniqueness Problem

Algorithm UniqueElements ($A[0..n-1]$)

//Checks whether all the elements in a given array are distinct

//Input: An array $A[0..n-1]$

//Output: Returns true if all the elements in A are distinct and false otherwise

for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $n - 2$ do

 for $j \leftarrow i + 1$ to $n - 1$ do

 if $A[i] = A[j]$ return false

return true

Best-case:

If the two first elements of the array are the same

No of comparisons in Best case = 1 comparison

Worst-case:

- Arrays with no equal elements
- Arrays in which only the last two elements are the pair of equal elements

Example 2: Element Uniqueness Problem

$$\begin{aligned}C_{worst}(n) &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n-1} 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} [(n-1) - (i+1) + 1] = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1-i) \\&= \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1) - \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} i = (n-1) \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} 1 - \frac{(n-2)(n-1)}{2} \\&= (n-1)^2 - \frac{(n-2)(n-1)}{2} = \frac{(n-1)n}{2} \approx \frac{1}{2}n^2\end{aligned}$$

Best-case: 1 comparison

Worst-case: $n^2/2$ comparisons

$$T(n)_{\text{worst case}} = O(n^2)$$

Example 3:Matrix Multiplication

Algorithm MatrixMultiplication($A[0..n-1, 0..n-1]$, $B[0..n-1, 0..n-1]$)

//Multiplies two square matrices of order n by the definition-based algorithm

//Input: two n-by-n matrices A and B

//Output: Matrix C = AB

for i \leftarrow 0 to n - 1 do

 for j \leftarrow 0 to n - 1 do

 C[i, j] \leftarrow 0.0

 for k \leftarrow 0 to n - 1 do

 C[i, j] \leftarrow C[i, j] + A[i, k] * B[k, j]

return C

$M(n) \in \Theta(n^3)$



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Mathematical Analysis of Recursive Algorithms

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- Decide on parameter n indicating input size
- Identify algorithm's basic operation
- If the number of times the basic operation is executed varies with different inputs of same sizes , investigate worst, average, and best case efficiency separately
- Set up a recurrence relation and initial condition(s) for $C(n)$ -the number of times the basic operation will be executed for an input of size n
- Solve the recurrence or estimate the order of magnitude of the solution

➤ Decrease-by-one recurrences

A decrease-by-one algorithm solves a problem by exploiting a relationship between a given instance of size n and a smaller size $n - 1$.

Example: $n!$

The recurrence equation has the form

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + f(n)$$

➤ Decrease-by-a-constant-factor recurrences

A decrease-by-a-constant algorithm solves a problem by dividing its given instance of size n into several smaller instances of size n/b , solving each of them recursively, and then, if necessary, combining the solutions to the smaller instances into a solution to the given instance.

Example: binary search.

The recurrence has the form

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n)$$

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Decrease-by-one Recurrences



- One (constant) operation reduces problem size by one.

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + c \quad T(1) = d$$

Solution: $T(n) = (n-1)c + d$ *linear*

- A pass through input reduces problem size by one.

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + c n \quad T(1) = d$$

Solution: $T(n) = [n(n+1)/2 - 1] c + d$ *quadratic*

- Substitution Method
 - Mathematical Induction
 - Backward substitution
- Recursion Tree Method
- Master Method (Decrease by constant factor recurrences)

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Recursive Evaluation of $n!$

$$n! = 1 * 2 * \dots * (n-1) * n \quad \text{for } n \geq 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 0! = 1$$

Recursive definition of $n!$:

$$F(n) = F(n-1) * n \quad \text{for } n \geq 1 \quad \text{input size?}$$

$$F(0) = 1$$

ALGORITHM $F(n)$

//Computes $n!$ recursively

//Input: A nonnegative integer n

//Output: The value of $n!$

if $n = 0$ **return** 1

else return $F(n - 1) * n$

basic operation?

Best/Worst/Average Case?

$$M(n) = M(n - 1) + 1 \quad \text{for } n > 0,$$

$$M(0) = 0.$$

$$M(n-1) = M(n-2) + 1; \quad M(n-2) = M(n-3)+1$$

$$M(n) = n$$

Overall time Complexity: $\Theta(n)$

Counting number of binary digits in binary representation of a number

ALGORITHM *BinRec(n)*

```
//Input: A positive decimal integer  $n$ 
//Output: The number of binary digits in  $n$ 's binary representation
if  $n = 1$  return 1
else return BinRec( $\lfloor n/2 \rfloor$ ) + 1
```

input size?

basic operation?

Best/Worst/Average Case?

$$A(2^k) = A(2^{k-1}) + 1 \quad \text{for } k > 0,$$

$$A(2^0) = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} A(2^k) &= A(2^{k-1}) + 1 && \text{substitute } A(2^{k-1}) = A(2^{k-2}) + 1 \\ &= [A(2^{k-2}) + 1] + 1 = A(2^{k-2}) + 2 && \text{substitute } A(2^{k-2}) = A(2^{k-3}) + 1 \\ &= [A(2^{k-3}) + 1] + 2 = A(2^{k-3}) + 3 && \dots \\ &\quad \dots && \\ &= A(2^{k-i}) + i && \\ &\quad \dots && \\ &= A(2^{k-k}) + k. && \end{aligned}$$

$$A(n) = \log_2 n \in \Theta(\log n).$$

Tower of Hanoi

Algorithm TowerOfHanoi(n, Src, Aux, Dst)

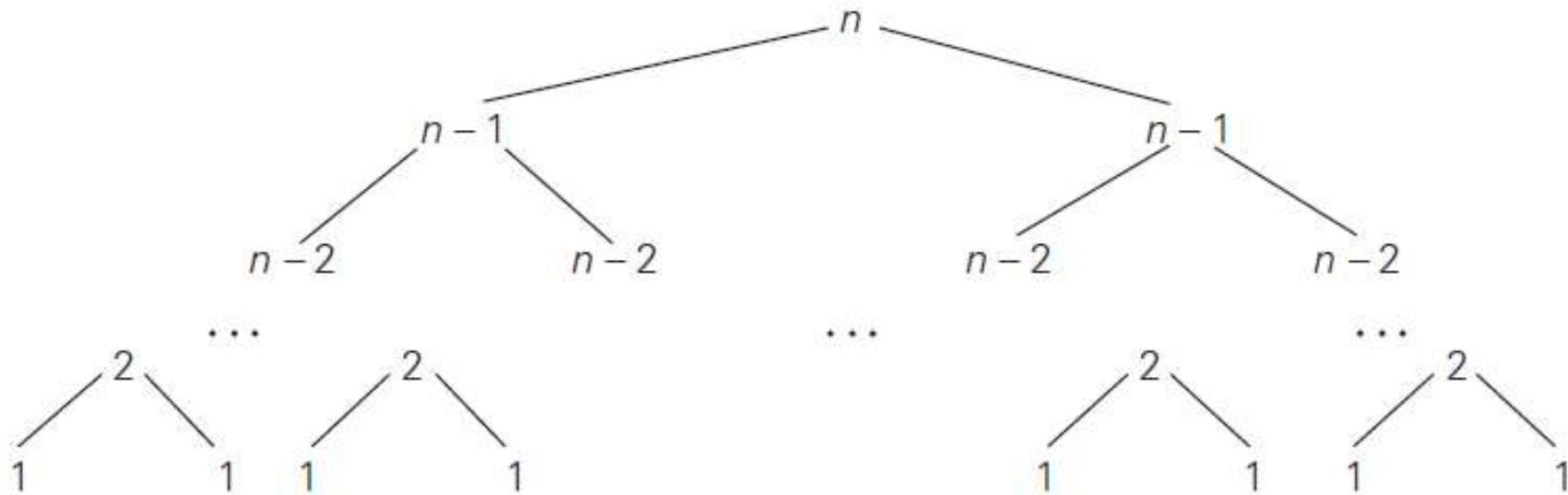
```
if (n = 0)
    return
    TowerOfHanoi(n-1, Src, Dst, Aux)
    Move disk n from Src to Dst
    TowerOfHanoi(n-1, Aux, Src, Dst)
```

Input Size: **n**

Basic Operation : **Move disk n from Src to Dst**

$C(n) = 2C(n-1) + 1$ for $n > 0$ and $C(0)=0$
 $= 2^n - 1 \in \Theta(2^n)$

Tower of Hanoi : Tree of Recursive calls



$$C(n) = \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} 2^l = 2^n - 1$$



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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Solving Recurrences

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$$T(n) = T(n-1) + 1 \quad n > 0 \quad T(0) = 1$$

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + 1$$

$$= T(n-2) + 1 + 1 = T(n-2) + 2$$

$$= T(n-3) + 1 + 2 = T(n-3) + 3$$

...

$$= T(n-i) + i$$

...

$$= T(n-n) + n = n = O(n)$$

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Solving Recurrences: Example2

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= T(n-1) + 2n - 1 & T(0) = 0 \\ &= [T(n-2) + 2(n-1) - 1] + 2n - 1 \\ &= T(n-2) + 2(n-1) + 2n - 2 \\ &= [T(n-3) + 2(n-2) - 1] + 2(n-1) + 2n - 2 \\ &= T(n-3) + 2(n-2) + 2(n-1) + 2n - 3 \\ &\quad \dots \\ &= T(n-i) + 2(n-i+1) + \dots + 2n - i \\ &\quad \dots \\ &= T(n-n) + 2(n-n+1) + \dots + 2n - n \\ &= 0 + 2 + 4 + \dots + 2n - n \\ &= 2 + 4 + \dots + 2n - n \\ &= 2 * n * (n+1) / 2 - n \end{aligned}$$

// arithmetic progression formula $1 + \dots + n = n(n+1)/2$ //
 $= O(n^2)$

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Solving Recurrences: Example3



$$T(n) = T(n/2) + 1 \quad n > 1$$

$$T(1) = 1$$

$$T(n) = T(n/2) + 1$$

$$= T(n/2^2) + 1 + 1$$

$$= T(n/2^3) + 1 + 1 + 1$$

.....

$$= T(n/2^i) + i$$

.....

$$= T(n/2^k) + k \quad (k = \log n)$$

$$= 1 + \log n$$

$$= O(\log n)$$

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Solving Recurrences: Example4



$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn \quad n > 1 \quad T(1) = c$$

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= 2T(n/2) + cn \\ &= 2(2T(n/2^2) + c(n/2)) + cn = 2^2T(n/2^2) + cn + cn \\ &= 2^2(2T(n/2^3) + c(n/2^2)) + cn + cn = 2^3T(n/2^3) + 3cn \\ &\dots\dots \\ &= 2^i T(n/2^i) + icn \\ &\dots\dots \\ &= 2^k T(n/2^k) + kcn \quad (k = \log n) \\ &= nT(1) + cn \log n = cn + cn \log n \\ &= O(n \log n) \end{aligned}$$



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Design and Analysis of Algorithms

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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Performance Analysis Vs Performance Measurement

Slides courtesy of Anany Levitin

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Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Performance Evaluation of Algorithm



- Performance Analysis
 - Machine Independent
 - Prior Evaluation

- Performance Measurement
 - Machine Dependent
 - Posterior Evaluation

Performance Analysis of Sequential search :Worst Case

ALGORITHM SequentialSearch(A[0..n-1], K)

//Searches for a given value in a given array by sequential search

//Input: An array A[0..n-1] and a search key K

//Output: Returns the index of the first element of A that matches K or -1 if there are no matching elements

i \leftarrow 0

while i < n and A[i] \neq K do

 i \leftarrow i + 1

if i < n //A[i] = K

 return i

else

 return -1

Basic operation: A[i] \neq K

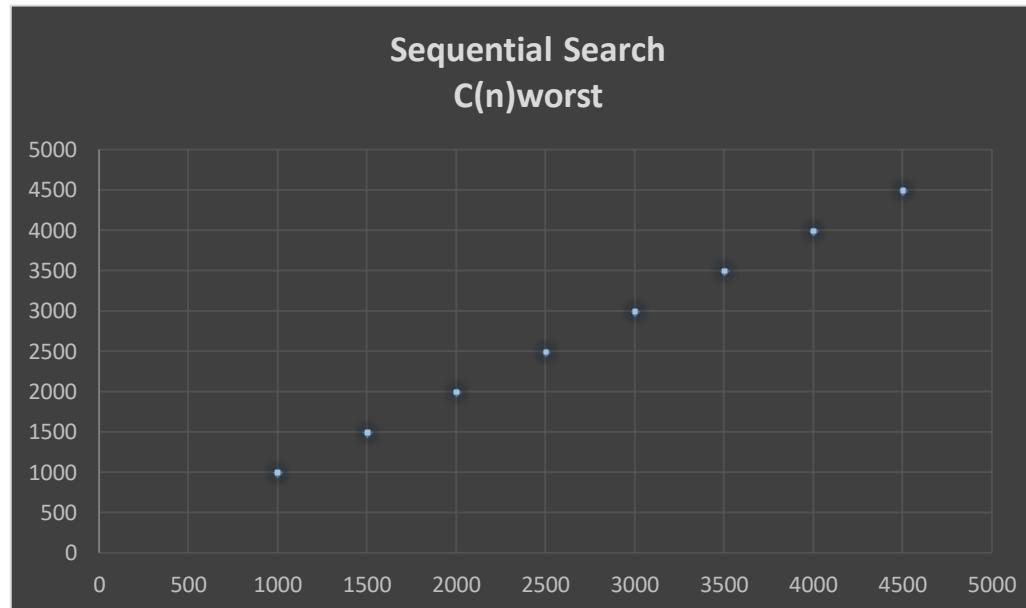
Basic operation count: n

Time Complexity: T(n) \in O(n)

Design and Analysis of Algorithms

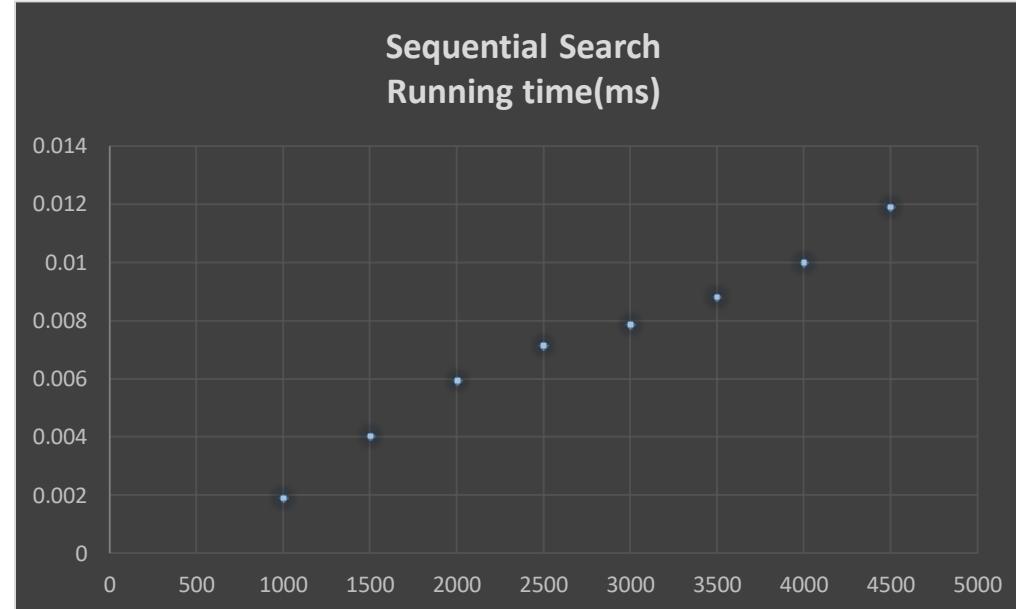
Performance Analysis of Sequential Search

Input Size	Sequential Search $C(n)$ worst
1000	1000
1500	1500
2000	2000
2500	2500
3000	3000
3500	3500
4000	4000
4500	4500



Performance Measurement of Sequential Search

Input Size	Sequential Search Actual Running Time(ms)
1000	0.001907
1500	0.004053
2000	0.00596
2500	0.007153
3000	0.007868
3500	0.008821
4000	0.010014
4500	0.011921





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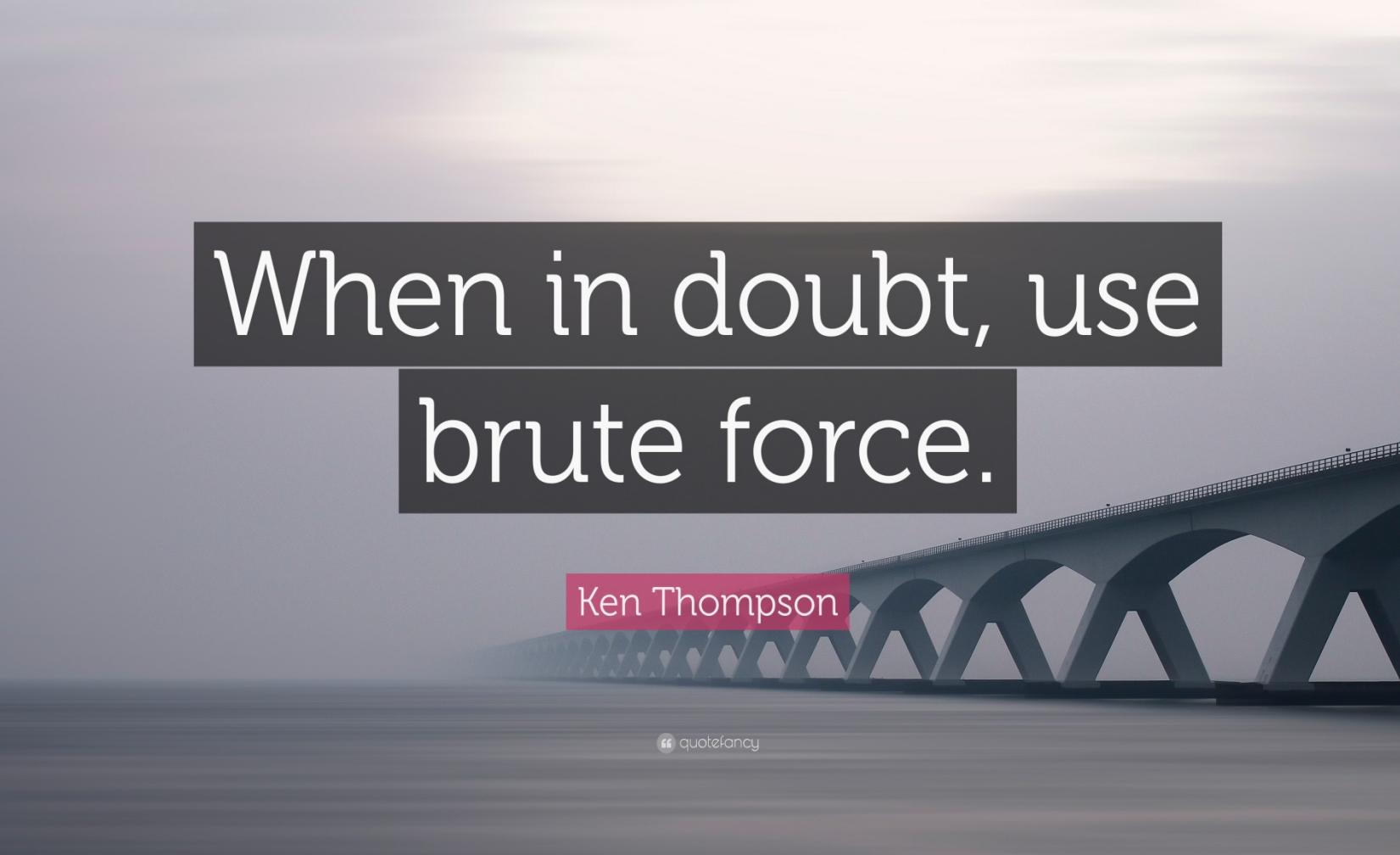
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Brute Force: Selection Sort

Major Slides Content: Anany Levitin

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When in doubt, use
brute force.

Ken Thompson

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Brute Force

- Brute Force is a straightforward approach to solving a problem, usually directly based on the problem statement and definitions of the concepts involved



DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Brute Force

- In computer science, **brute-force search** or **exhaustive search**, also known as **generate and test**, is a very general problem-solving technique and algorithmic paradigm that consists of:
 - systematically enumerating all possible candidates for the solution
 - checking whether each candidate satisfies the problem's statement



Brute Force

- A brute-force algorithm to find the divisors of a natural number n would
 - enumerate all integers from 1 to n
 - check whether each of them divides n without remainder
- A brute-force approach for the eight queens puzzle would
 - examine all possible arrangements of 8 pieces on the 64-square chessboard
 - check whether each (queen) piece can attack any other, for each arrangement
- The brute-force method for finding an item in a table (linear search)
 - checks all entries of the table, sequentially, with the item

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Brute Force

- A brute-force search is simple to implement, and will always find a solution if it exists
- But, its cost is proportional to the number of candidate solutions – which in many practical problems tends to grow very quickly as the size of the problem increases (Combinatorial explosion)
- Brute-force search is typically used
 - when the problem size is limited
 - when there are problem-specific heuristics that can be used to reduce the set of candidate solutions to a manageable size
 - when the simplicity of implementation is more important than speed

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Brute Force Sorting Algorithms

- Selection Sort
- Bubble Sort



DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort

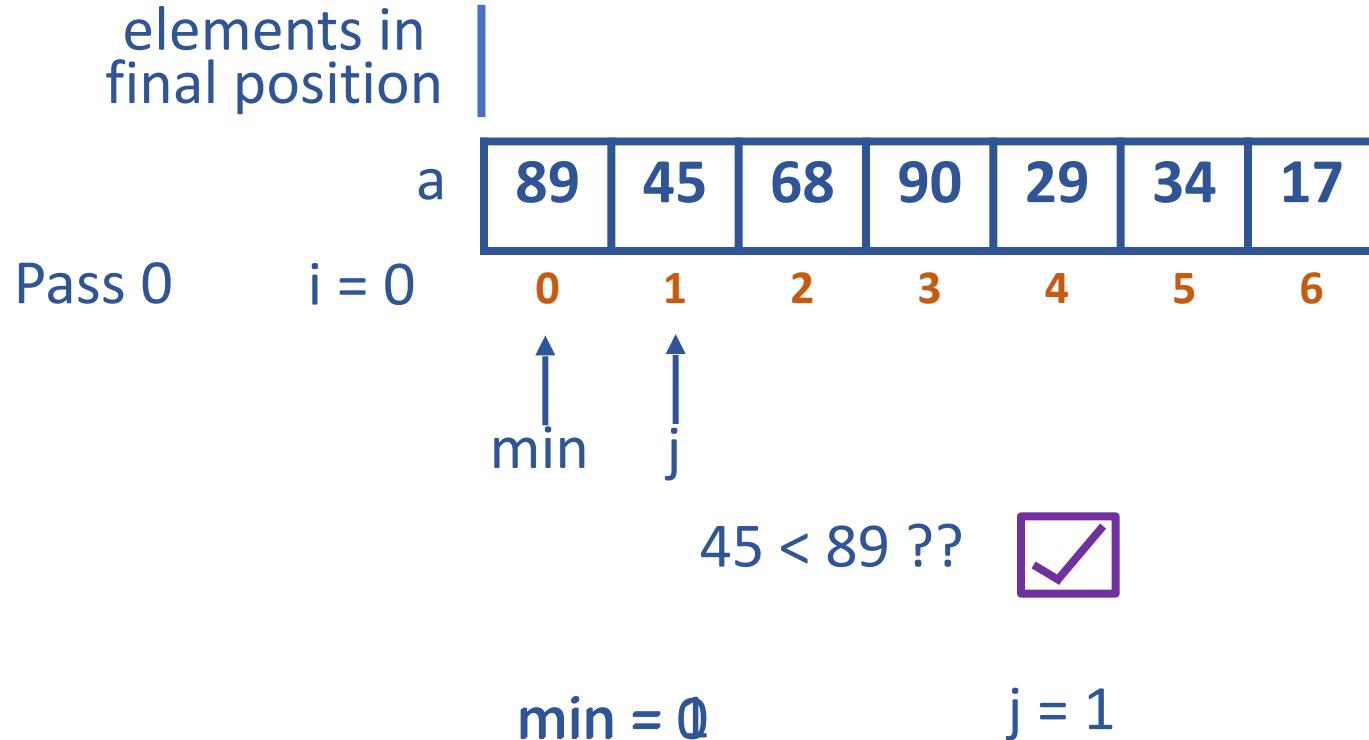


- Scan the array to find its smallest element and swap it with the first element, putting the smallest element in its final position in the sorted list
 - Then, starting with the second element, scan the elements to the right of it to find the smallest among them and swap it with the second element, putting the second smallest element in its final position
 - Generally, on pass i ($0 \leq i \leq n-2$), find the smallest element in $A[i..n-1]$ and swap it with $A[i]$

- $A[0] \leq A[1] \leq A[2] \dots \leq A[i-1] \mid A[i], \dots, A[m \downarrow n], \dots, A[n-1]$
 - in their final positions the last $n - i$ elements

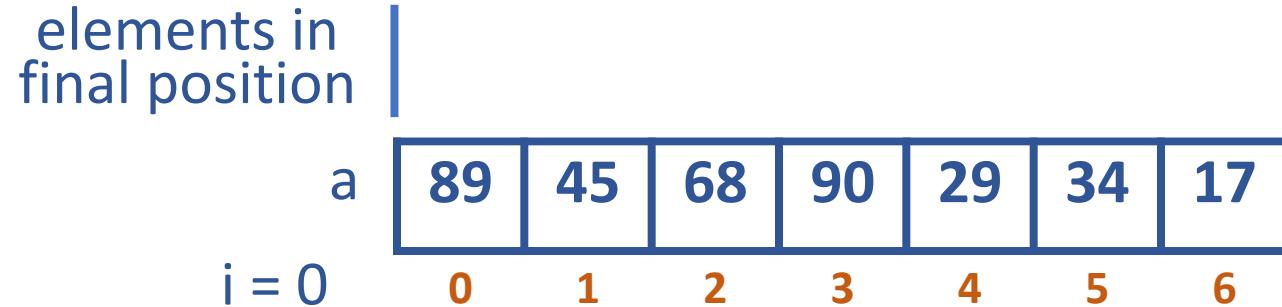
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



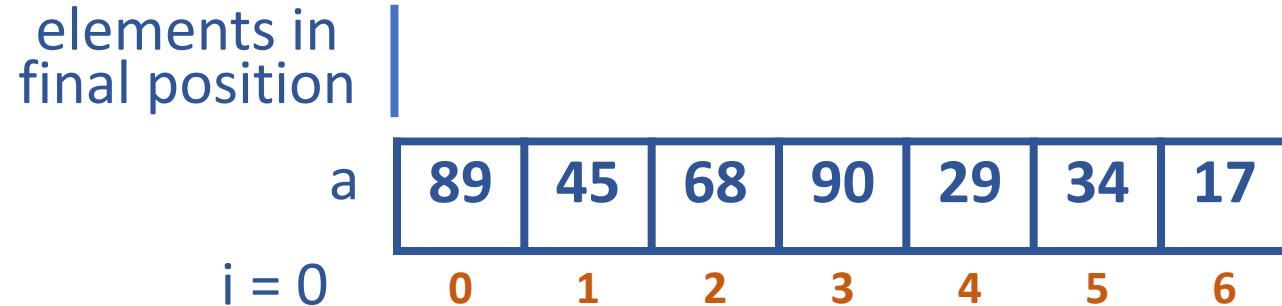
68 < 45 ?? 

min = 1

j = 2

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



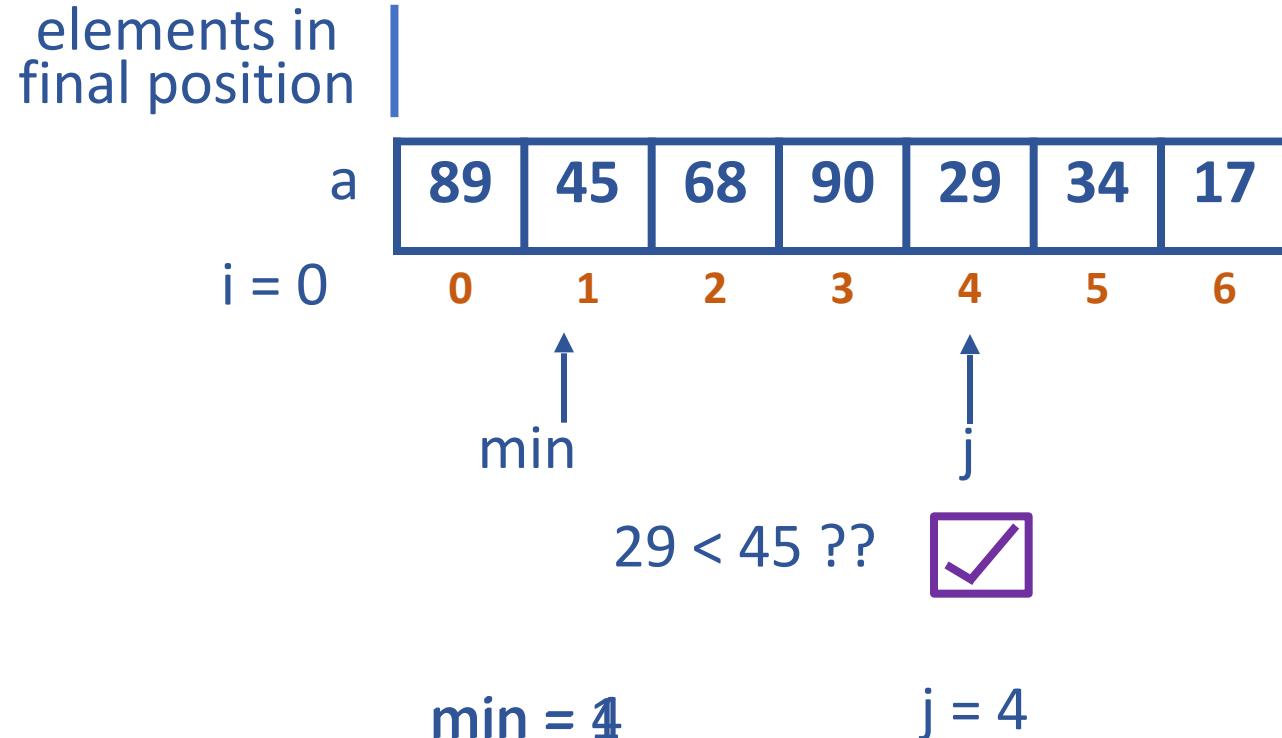
min ↑ j ↑
90 < 45 ?? 

min = 1

j = 3

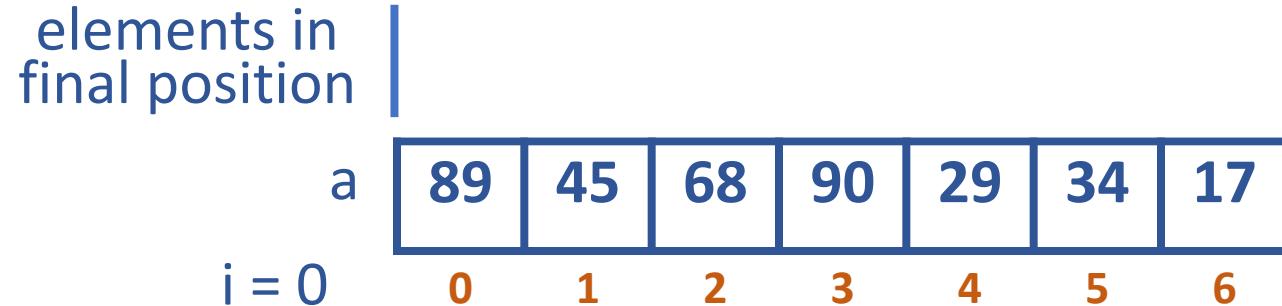
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



min ↑
j ↑

34 < 29 ?? 

min = 4

j = 5

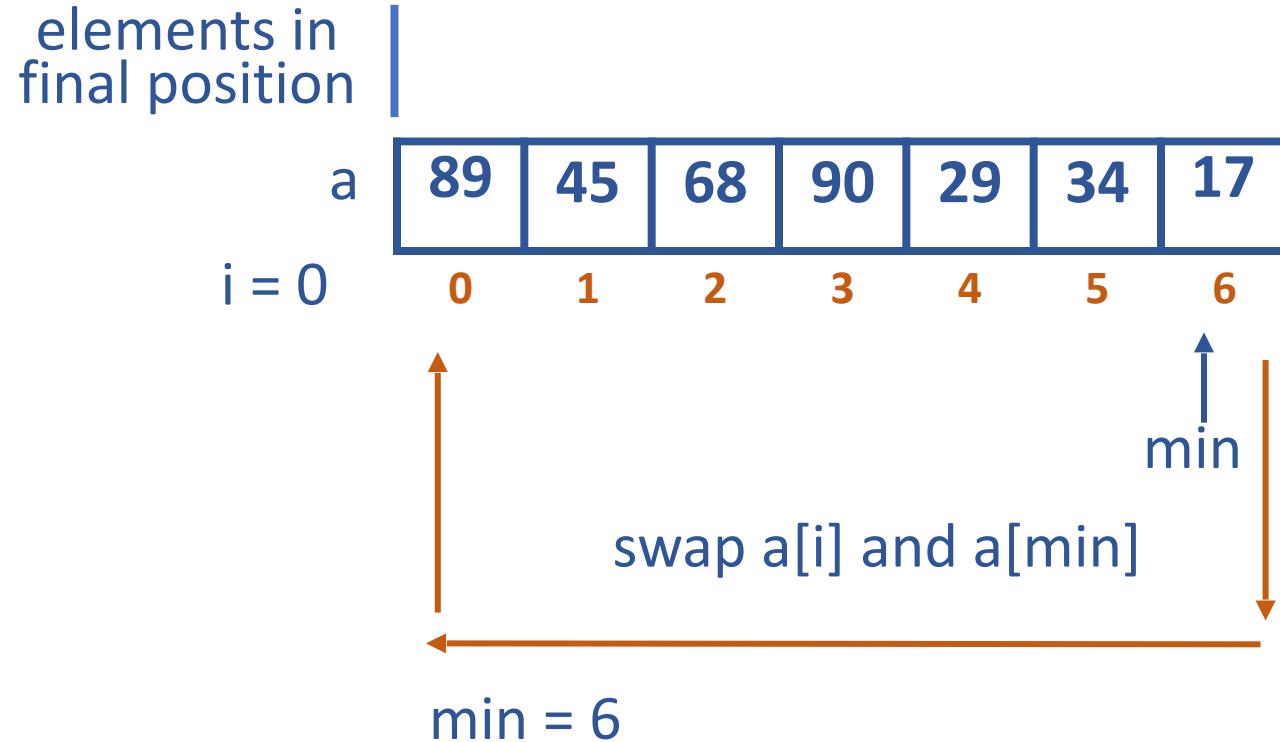
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



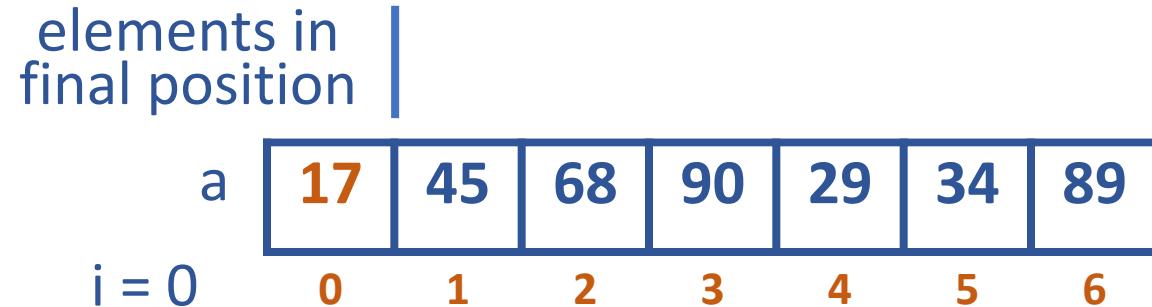
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



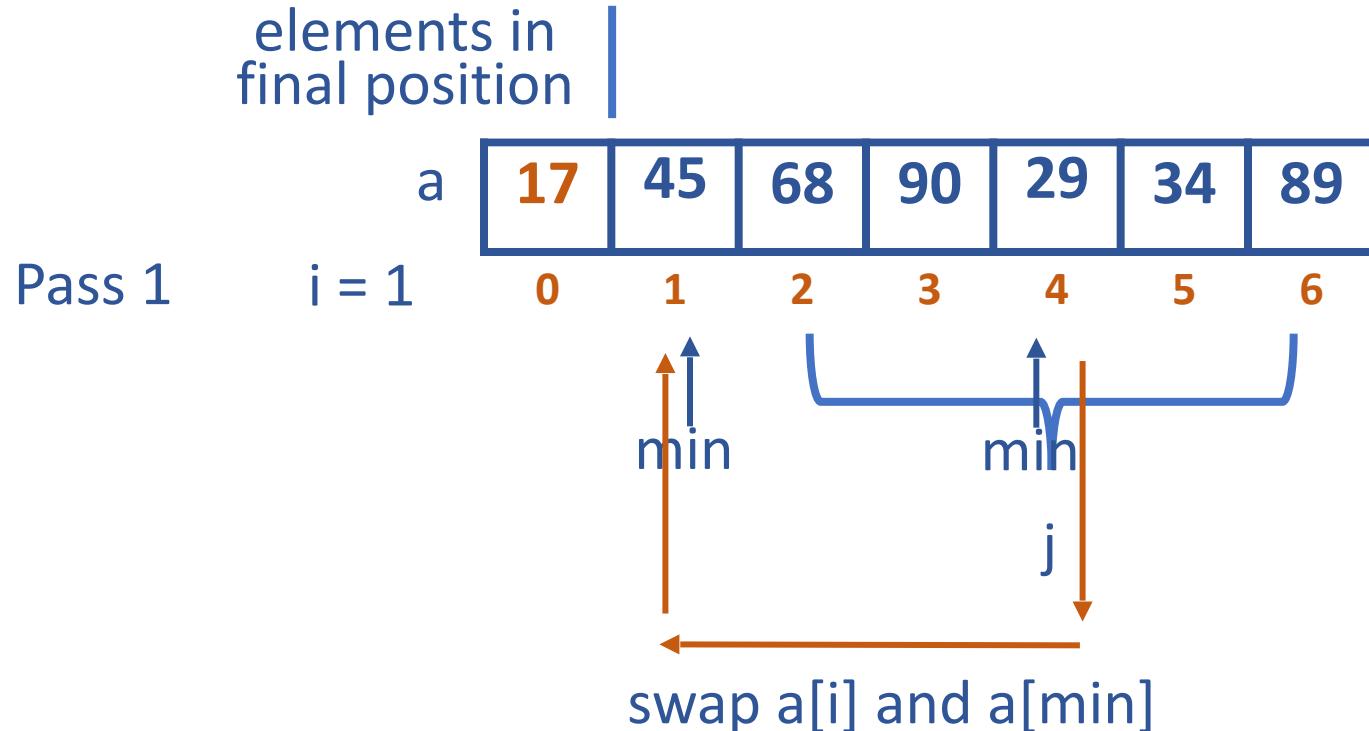
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Selection Sort



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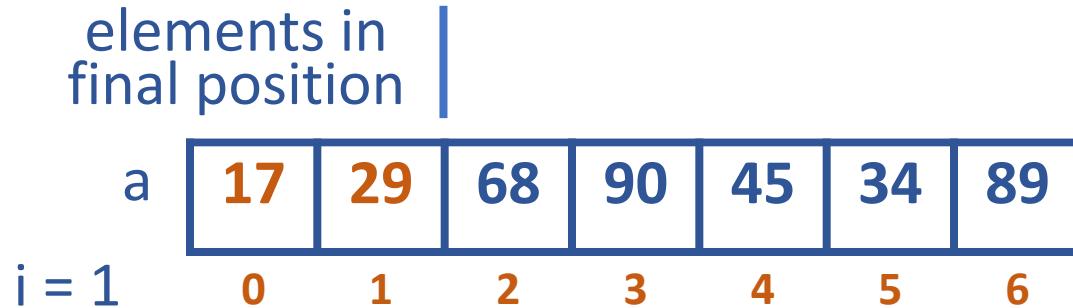
Selection Sort



$$\min = 4$$

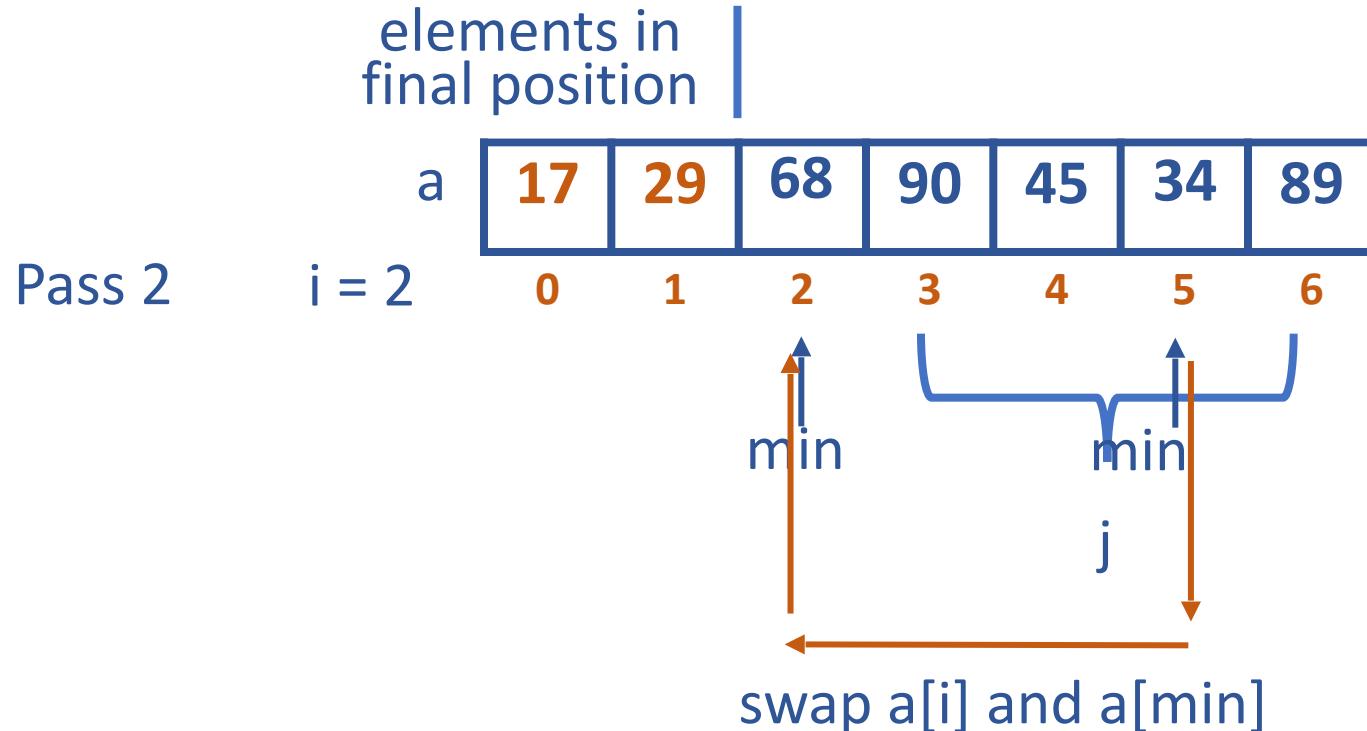
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



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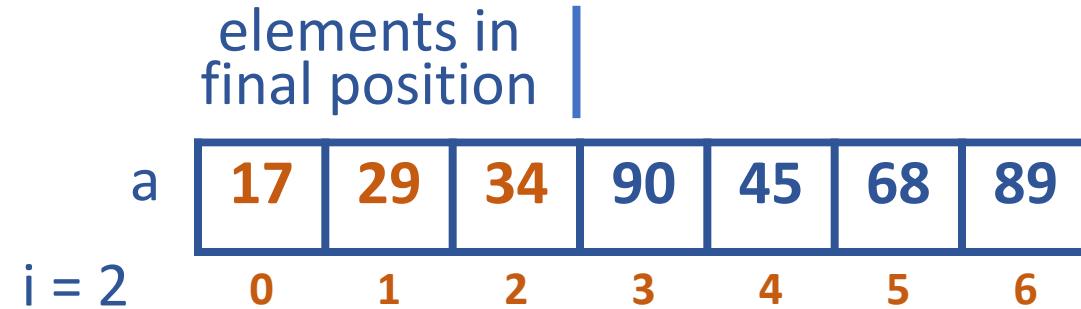
Selection Sort



$\min = 5$

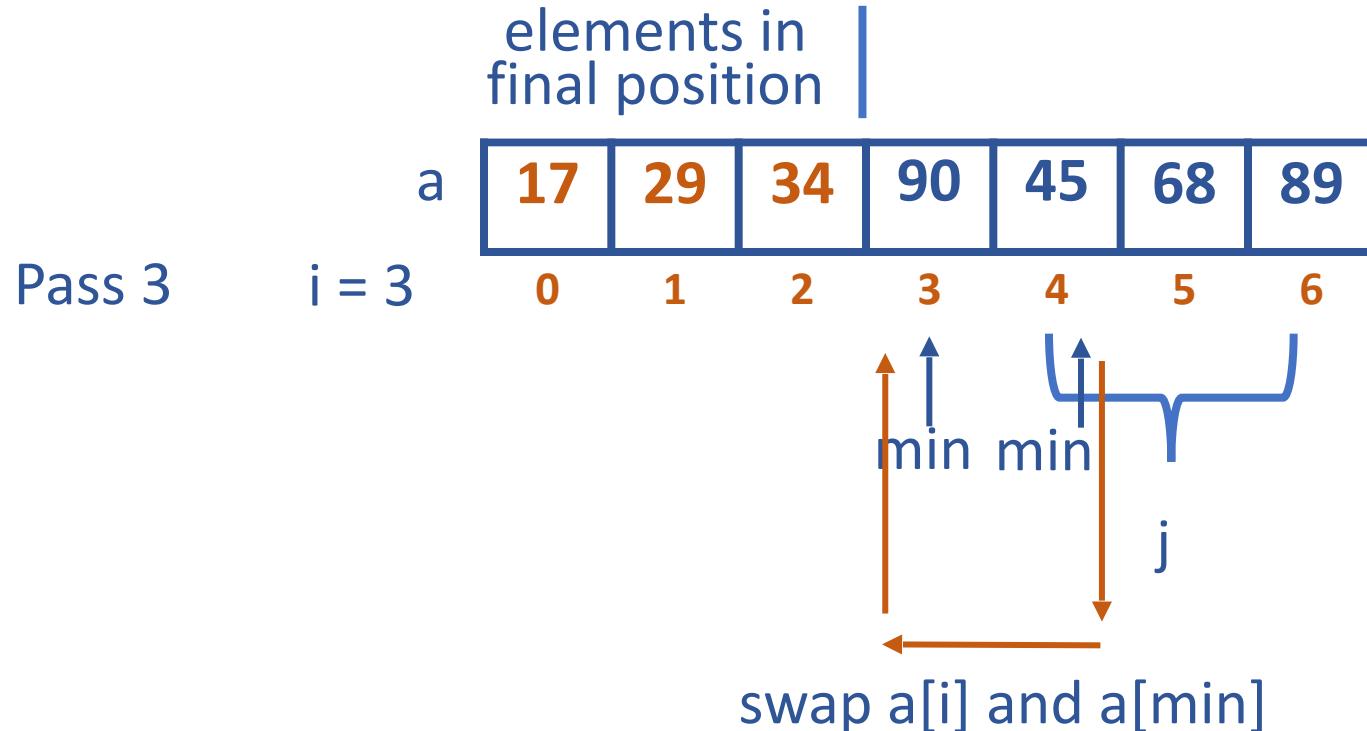
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Selection Sort



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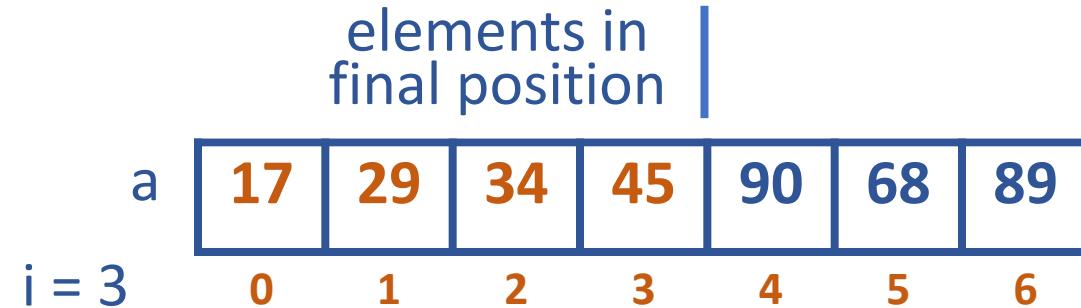
Selection Sort



$\min = 4$

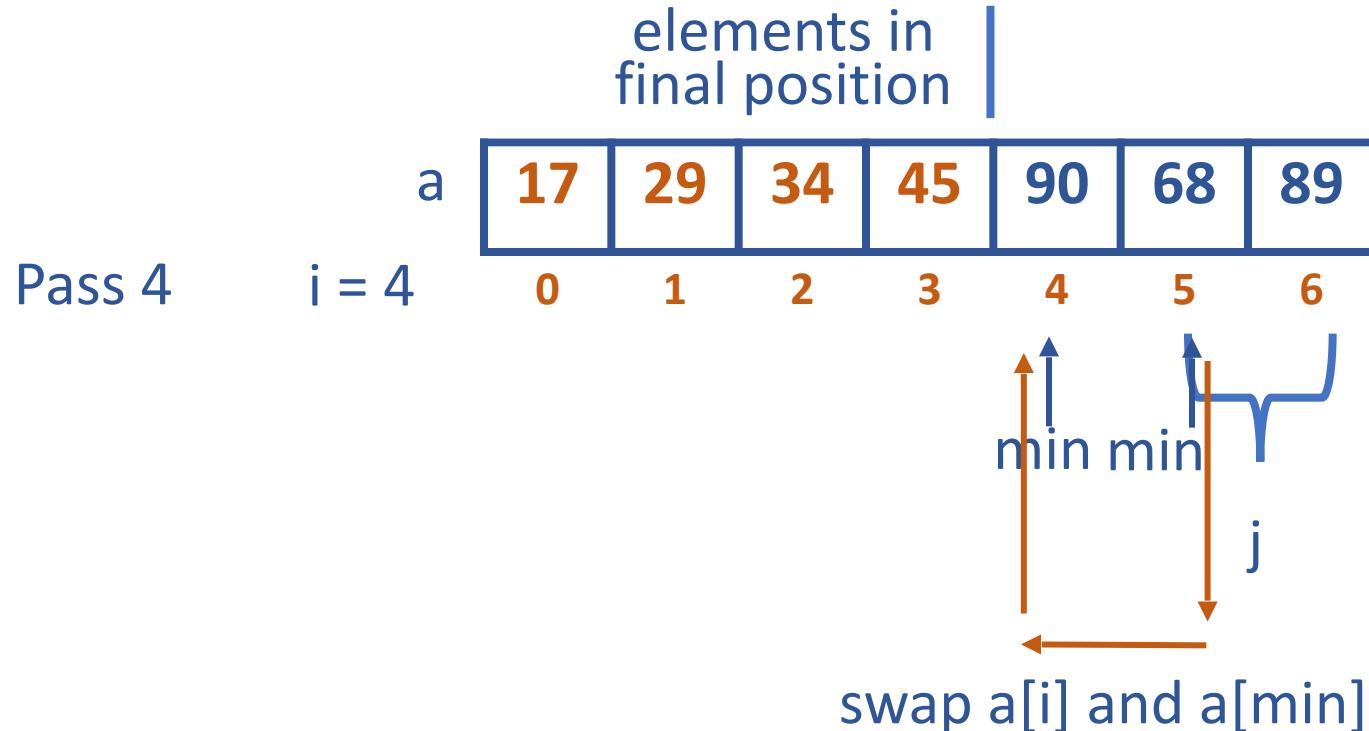
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



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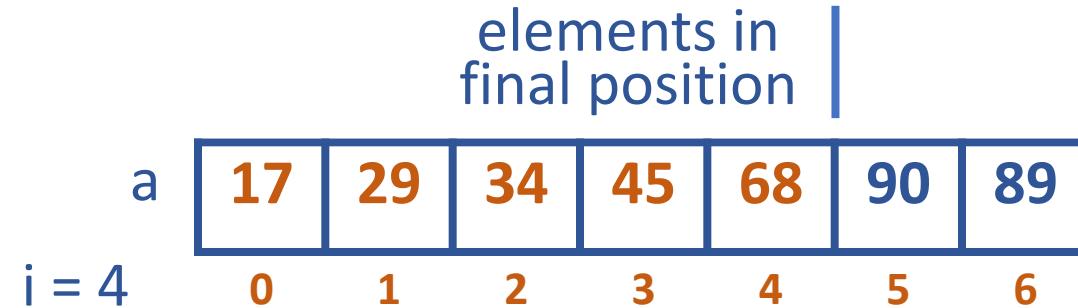
Selection Sort



$\min = 5$

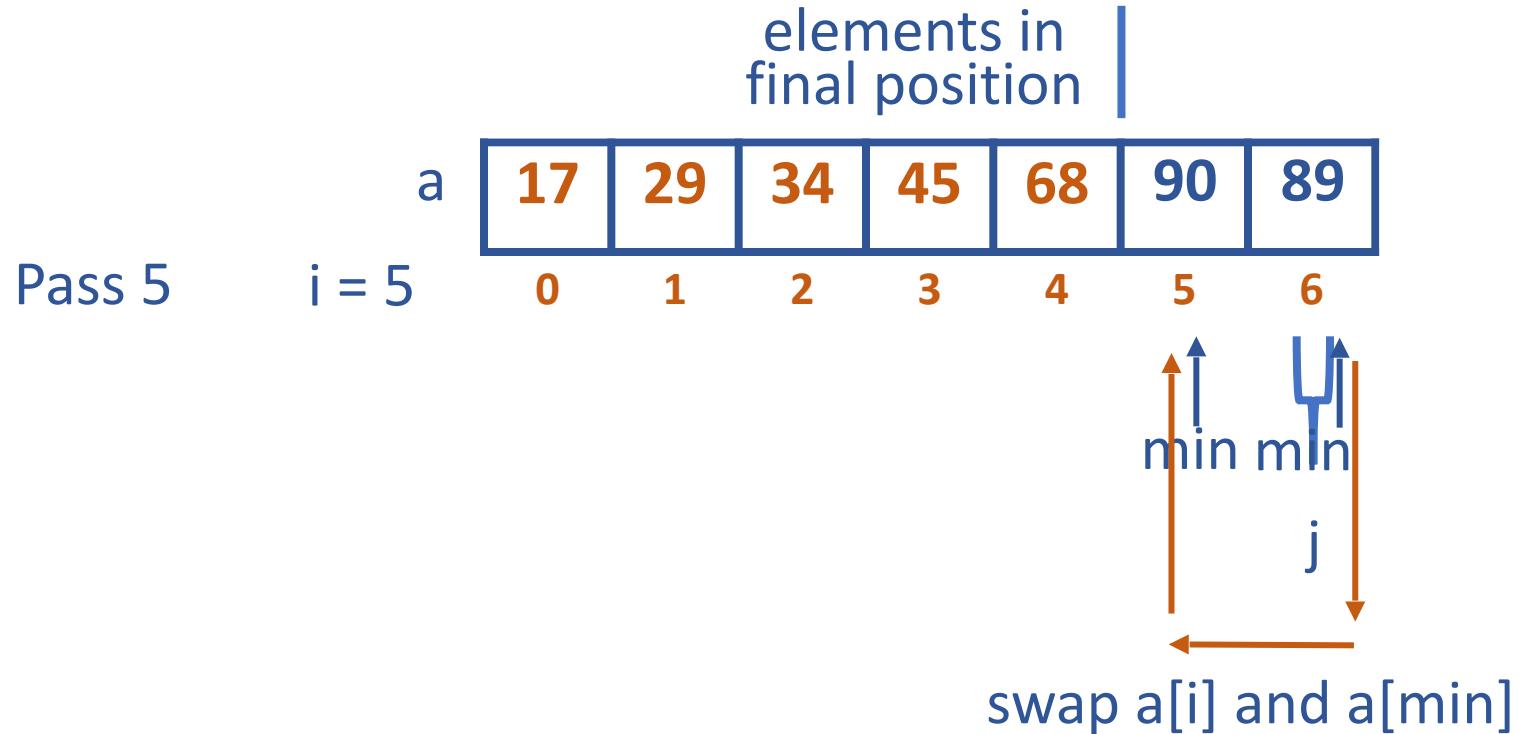
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

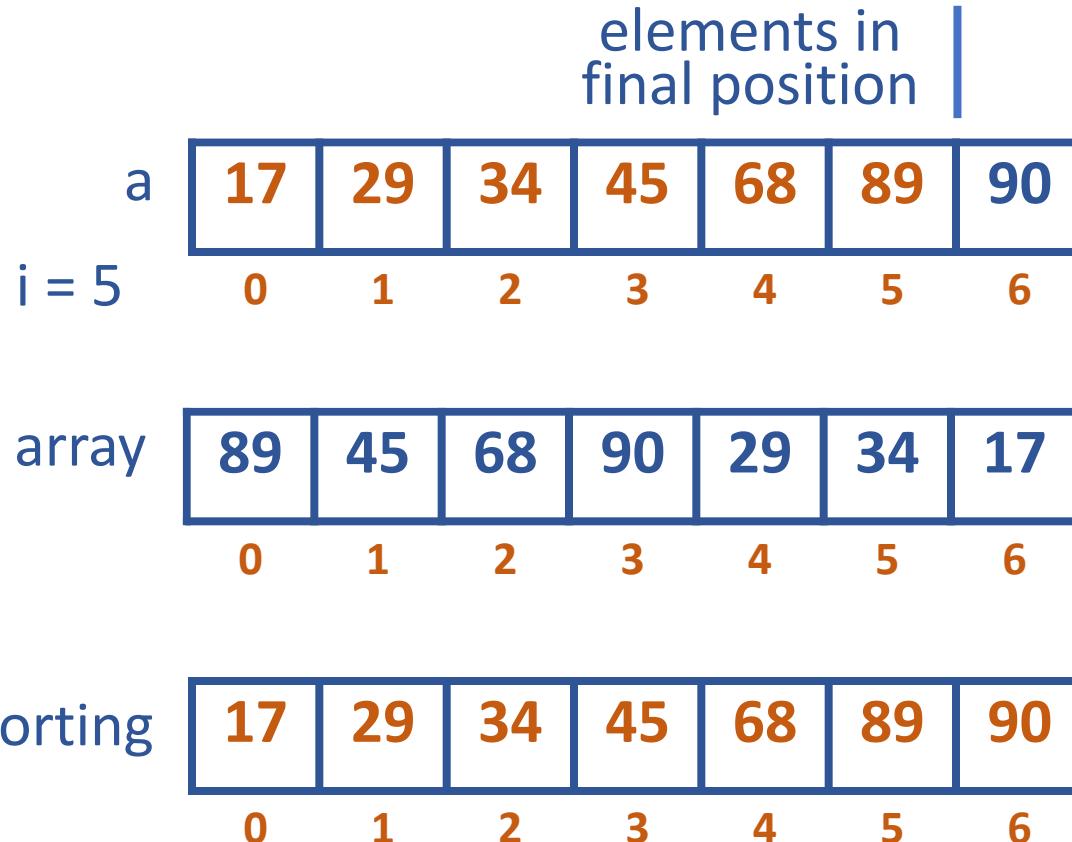
Selection Sort



$\min = 6$

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Selection Sort



Selection Sort

ALGORITHM SelectionSort(A[0 .. n -1])

//Sorts a given array by selection sort

//Input: An array A[0 .. n - 1] of orderable elements

//Output: Array A[0 .. n - 1] sorted in ascending order

for i <- 0 to n - 2 do

 min <- i

 for j <- i+1 to n-1 do

 if A[j] < A[min] min <- j

 swap A[i] and A[min]

Selection Sort Analysis

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n-1} 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n - 1 - i) = \frac{(n - 1)n}{2}$$

Selection Sort is a $\Theta(n^2)$ algorithm



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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort

Major Slides Content: Anany Levitin

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Bubble Sort

- Compare adjacent elements of the list and exchange them if they are out of order
- By doing it repeatedly, we end up bubbling the largest element to the last position on the list
- The next pass bubbles up the second largest element and so on and after $n - 1$ passes, the list is sorted
- Pass i ($0 \leq i \leq n - 2$) can be represented as follows:

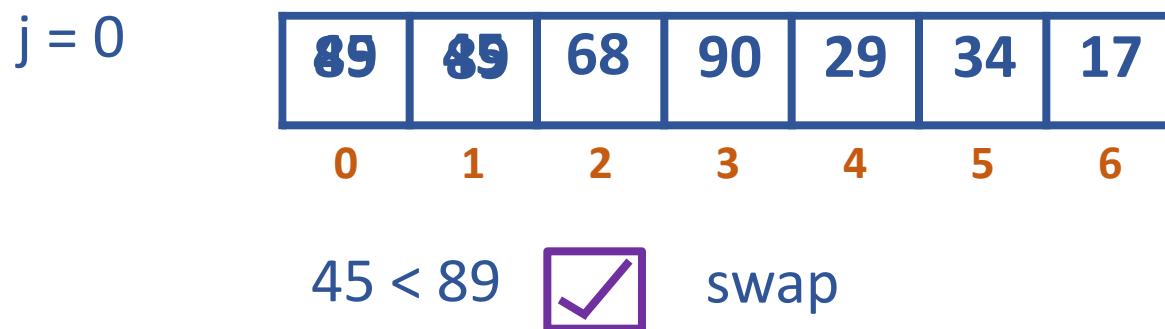
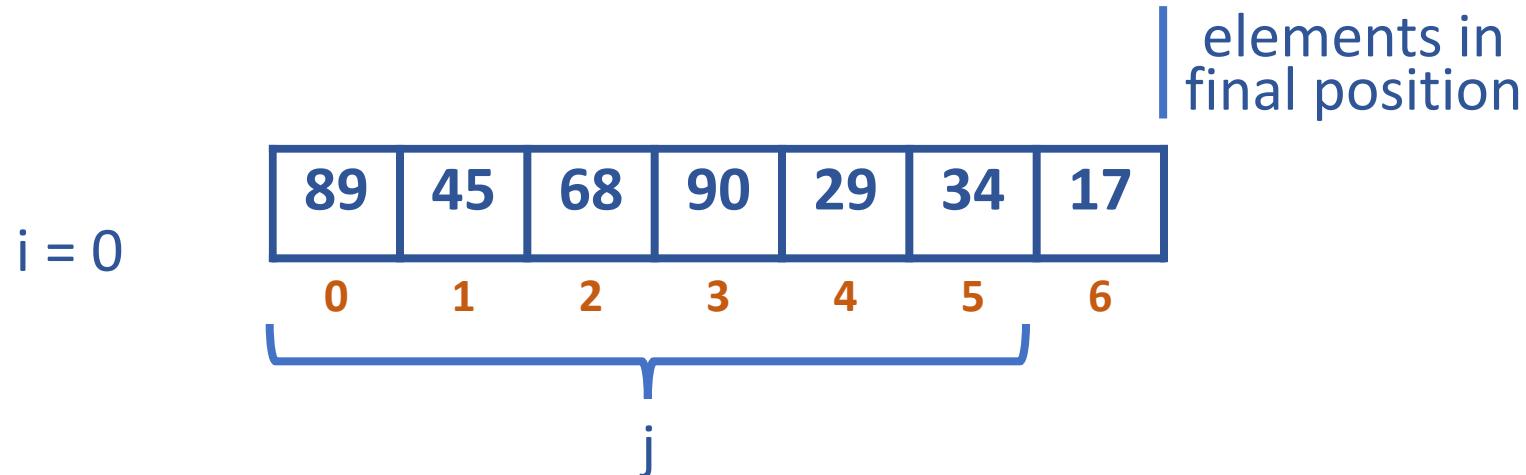
$A[0], A[1], A[2], \dots, A[j] \quad ? \quad A[j+1], \dots, A[n-i-1] \mid A[n-i] \leq \dots \leq A[n-1]$

\longleftrightarrow

in their final positions

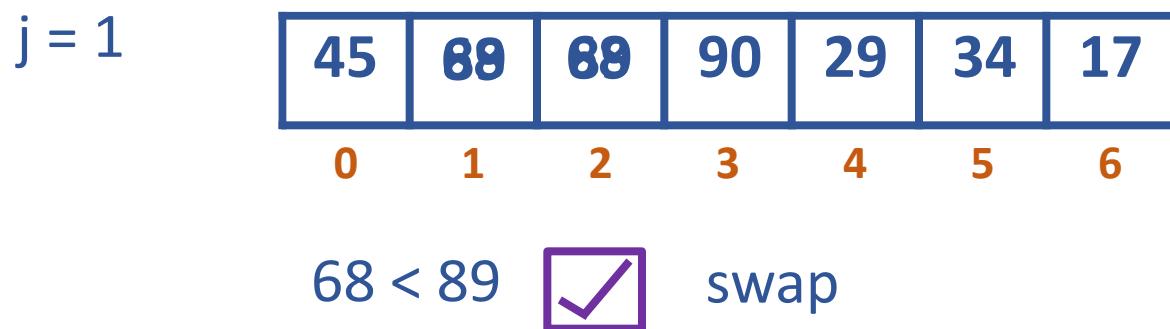
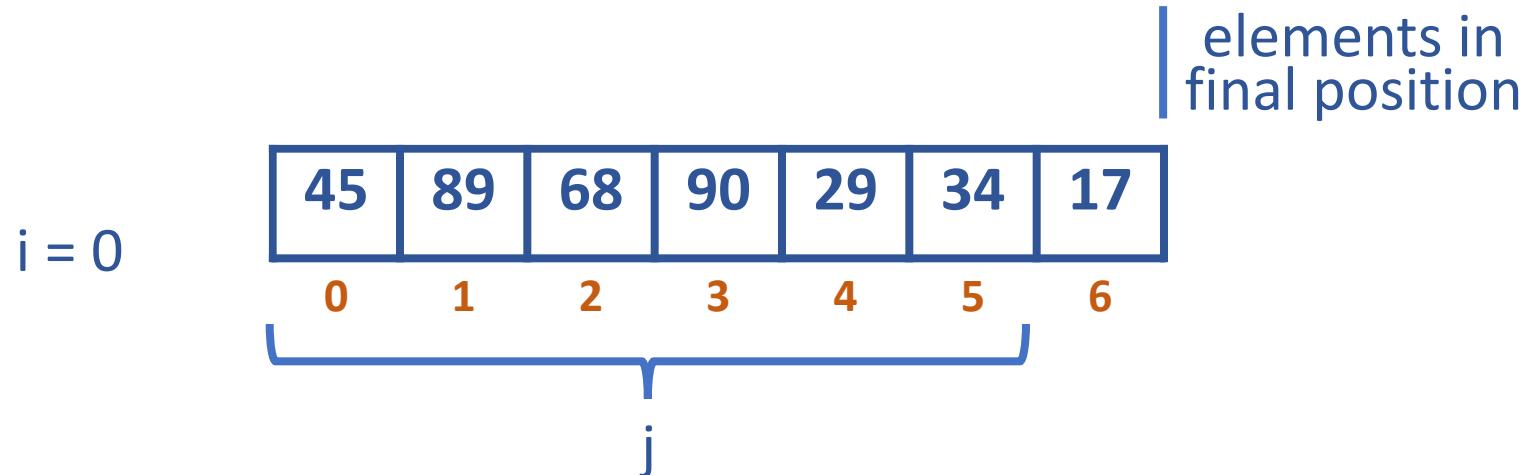
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort



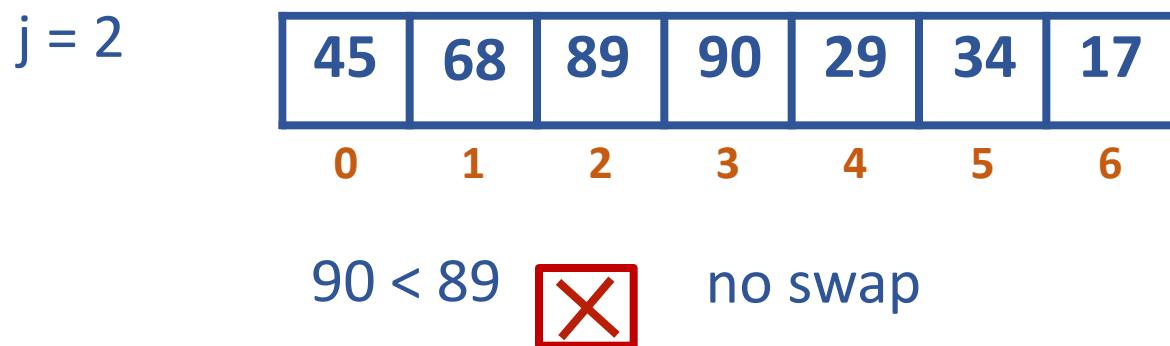
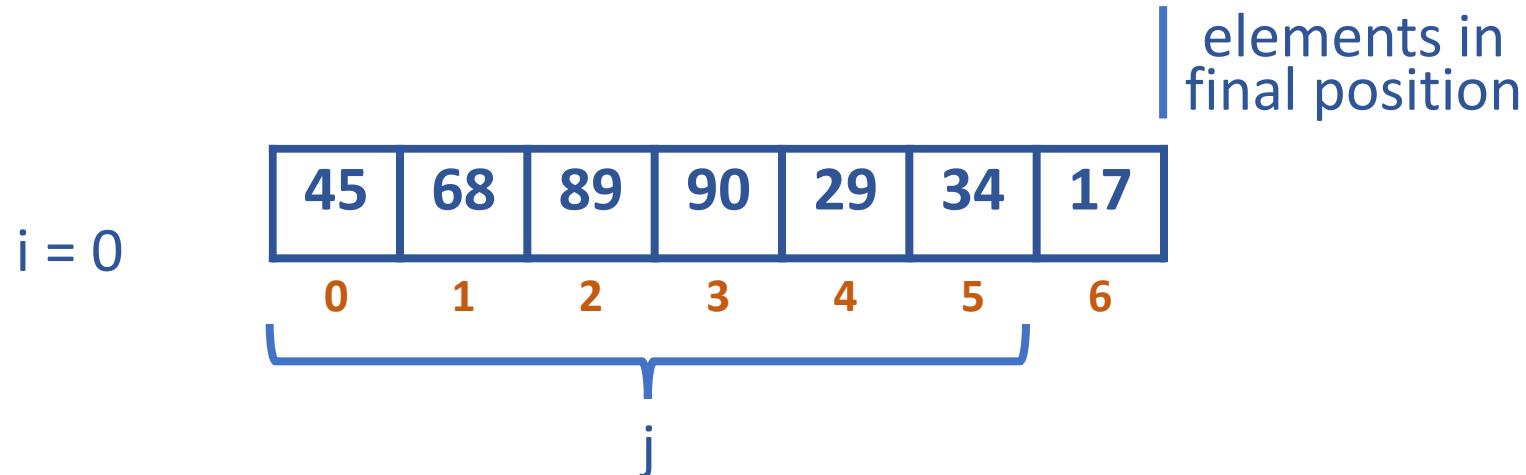
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort



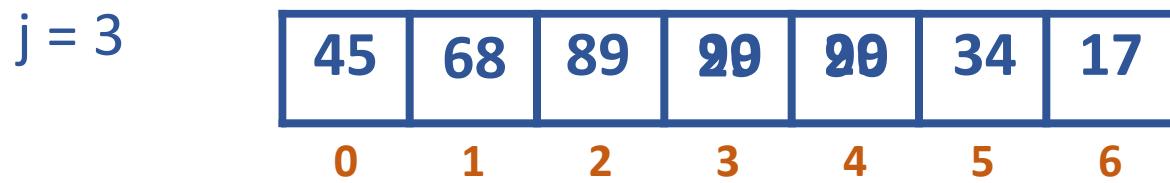
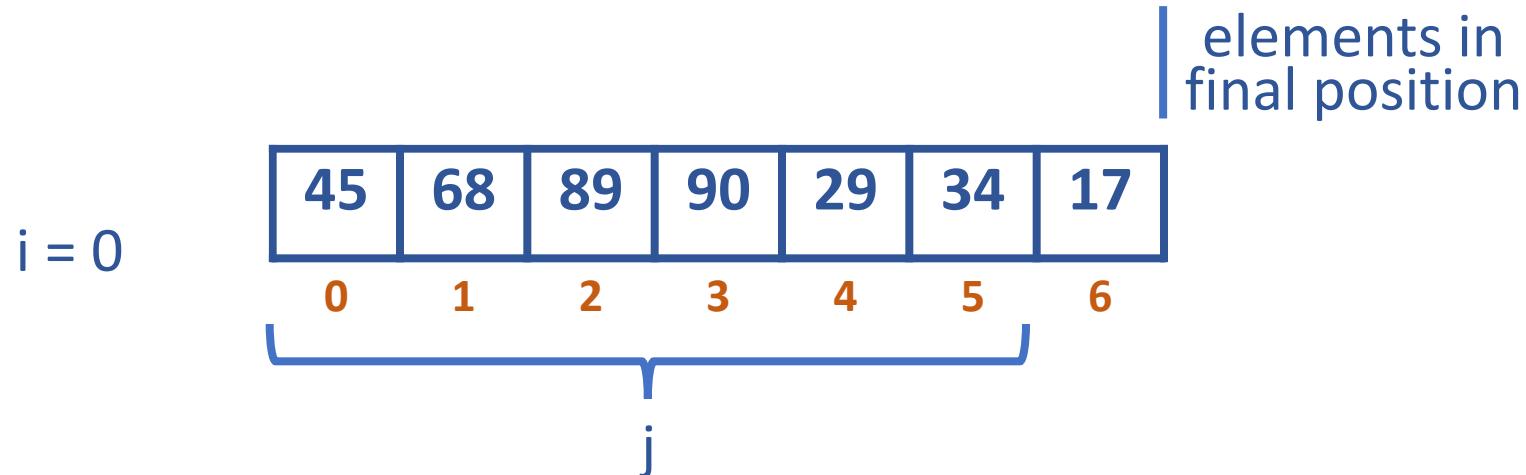
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort



DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

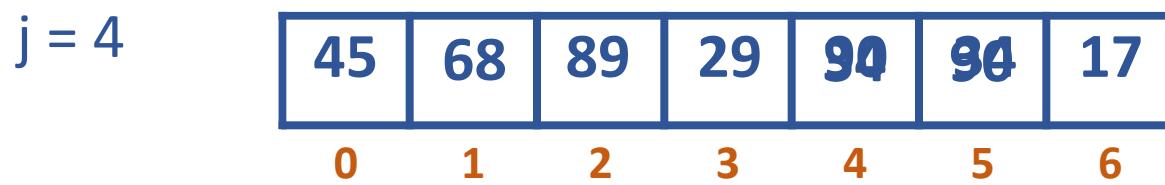
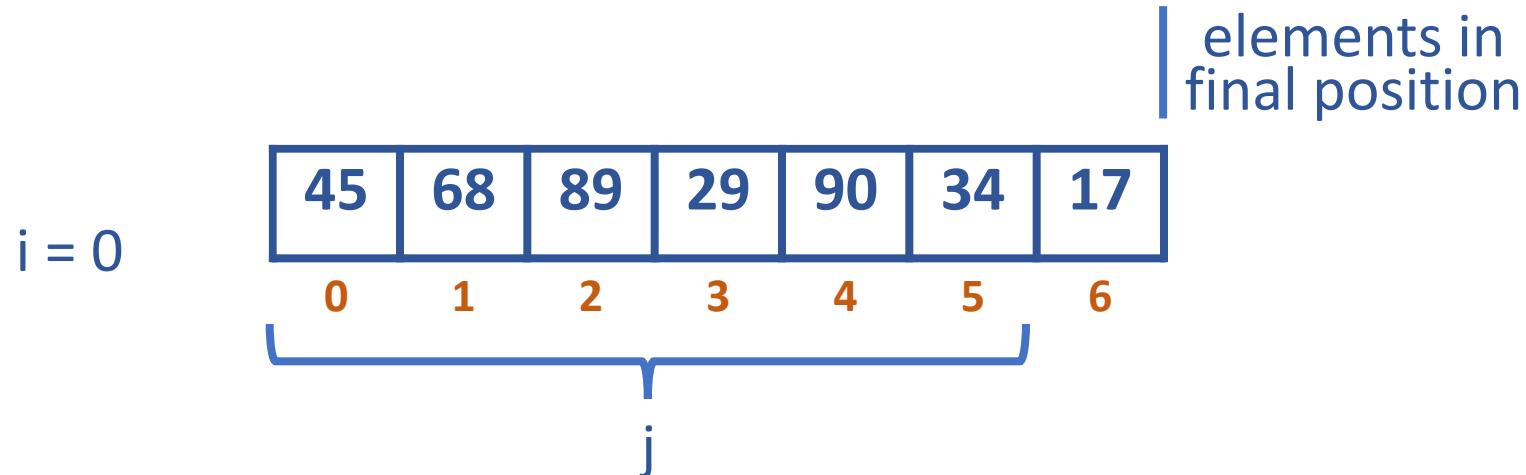
Bubble Sort



$29 < 90$  swap

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

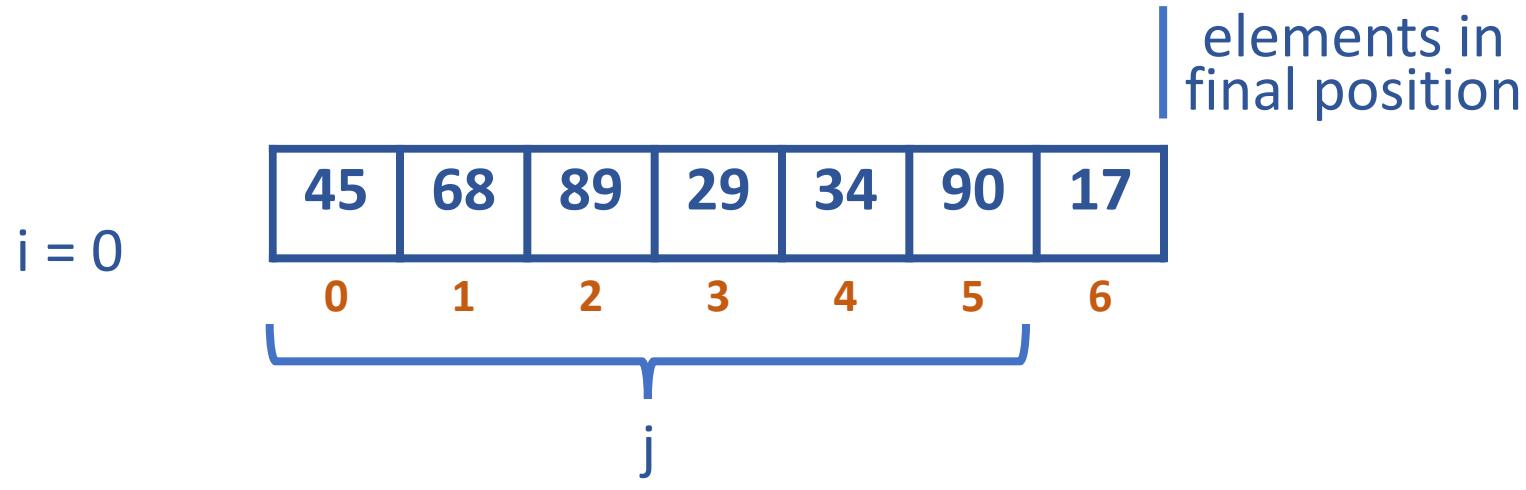
Bubble Sort



$34 < 90$  swap

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

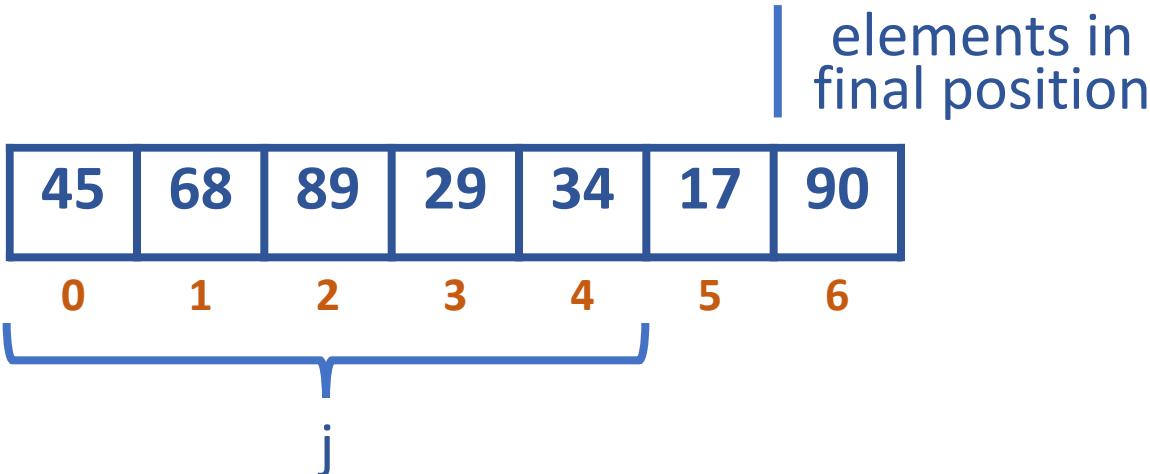
Bubble Sort



DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort

After
first
iteration
 $i = 1$



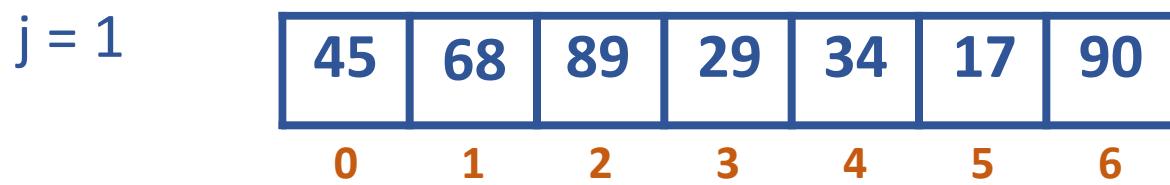
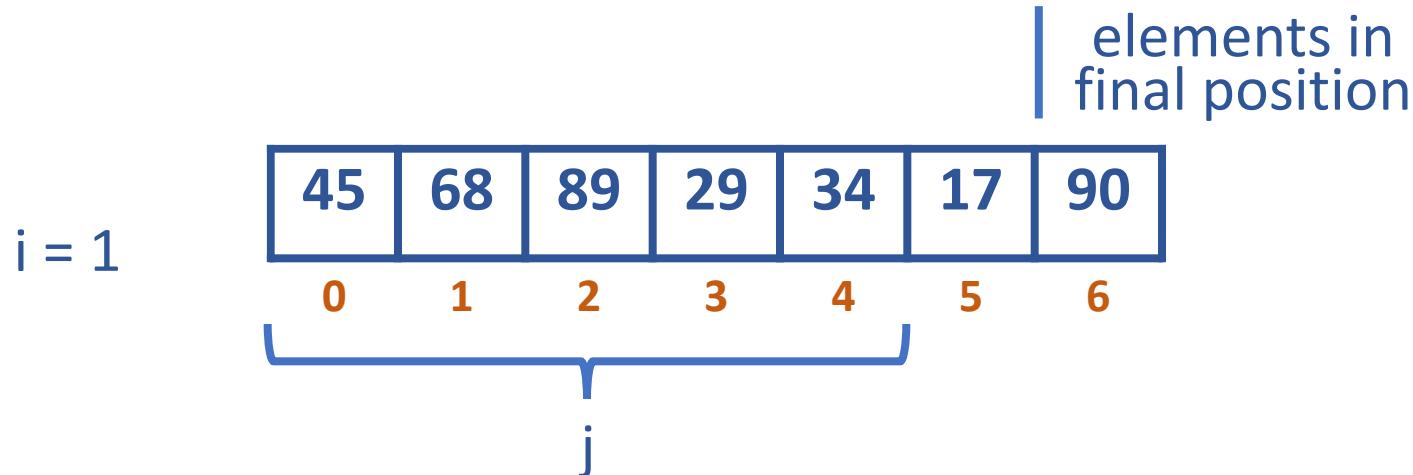
$j = 0$



$68 < 45$  no swap

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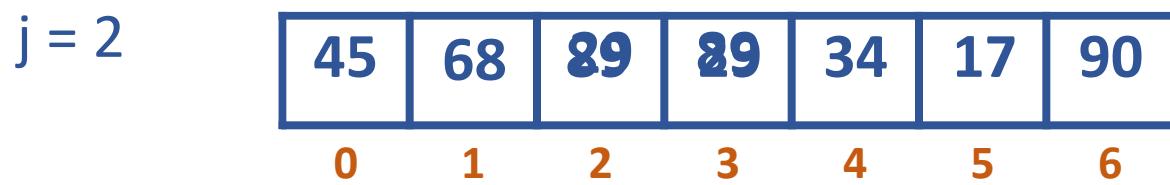
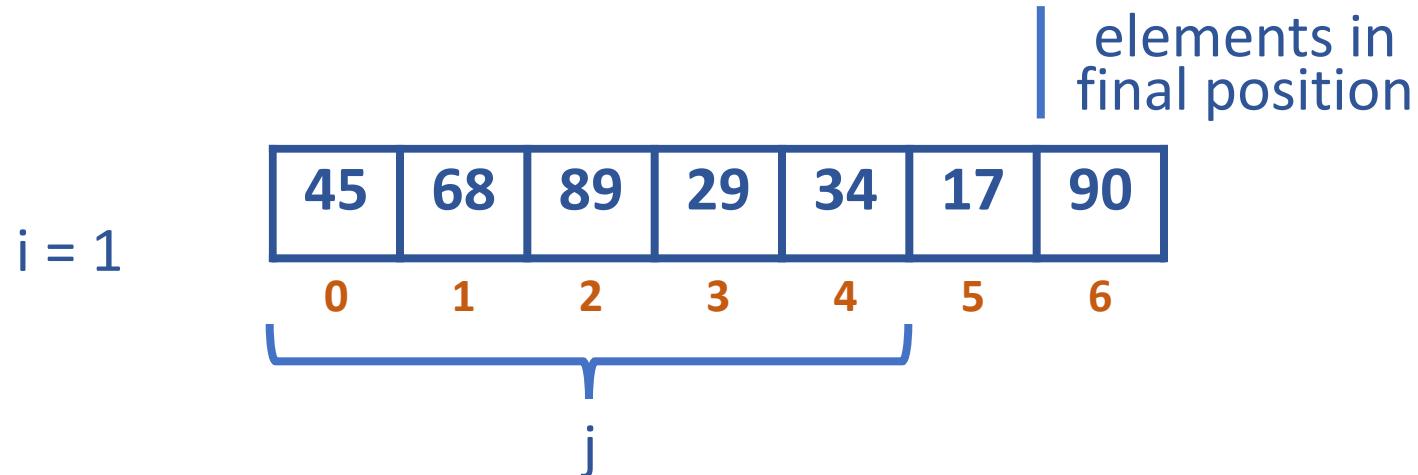
Bubble Sort



$89 < 68$  no swap

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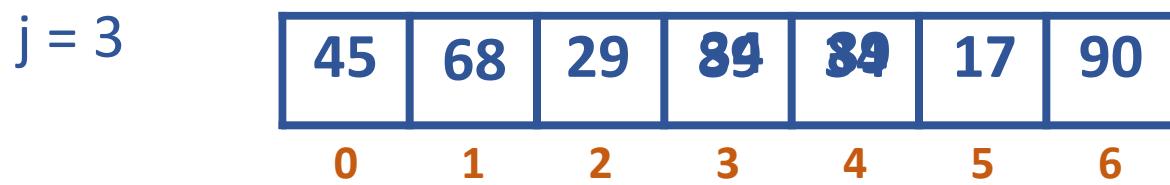
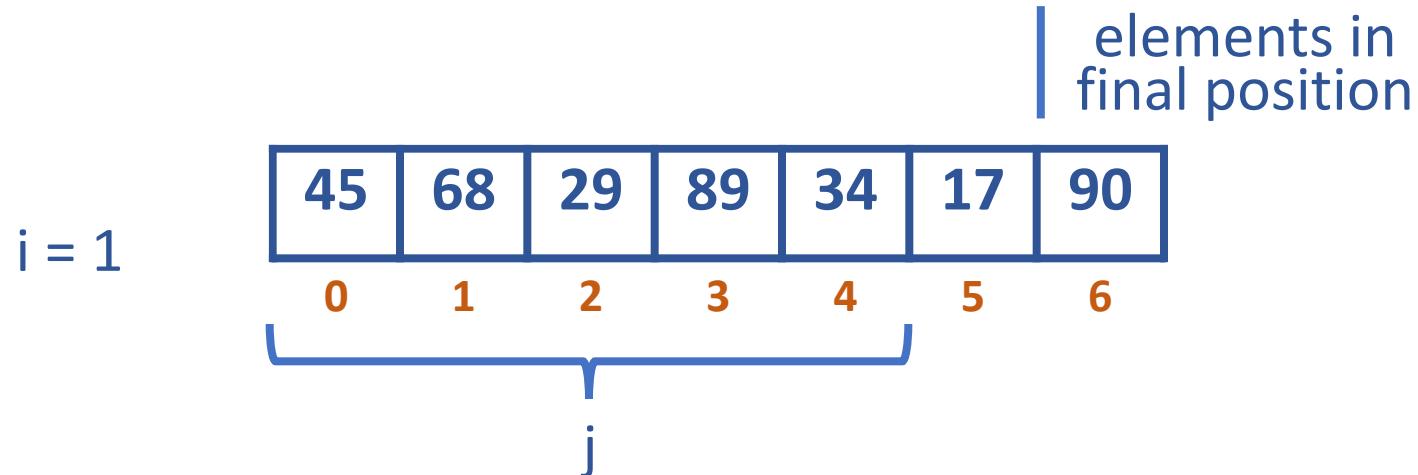
Bubble Sort



$29 < 89$  swap

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

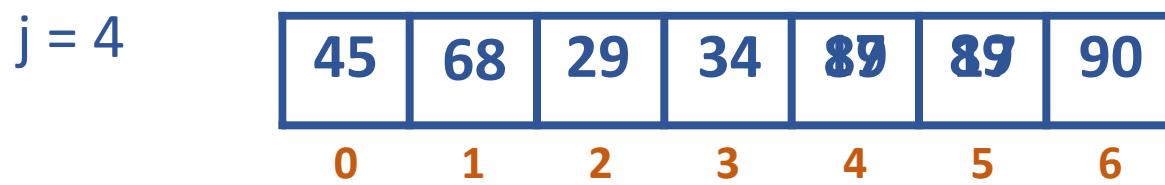
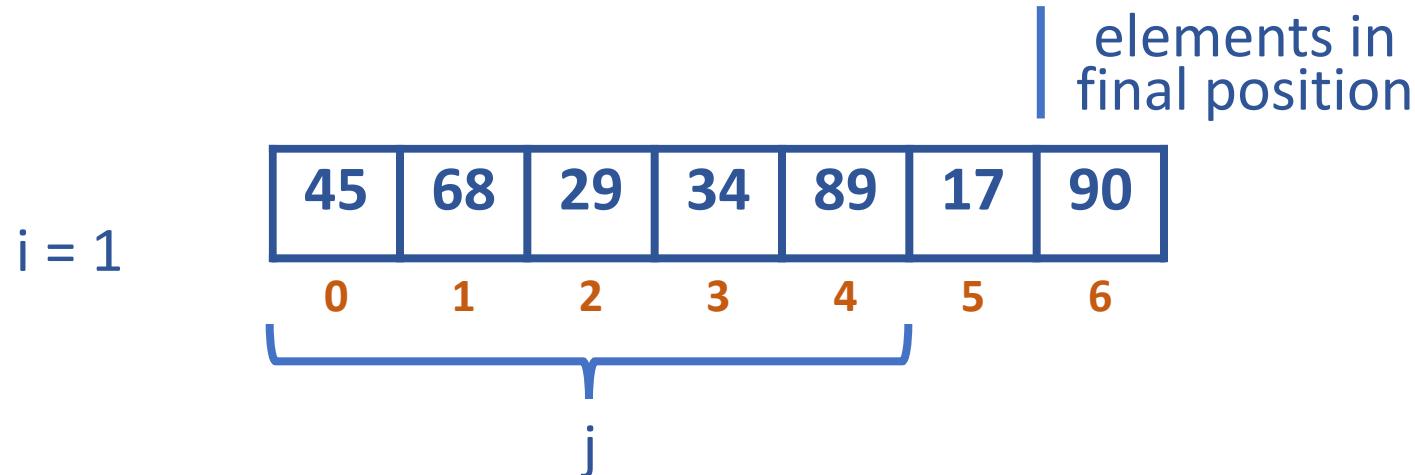
Bubble Sort



$34 < 89$  swap

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort

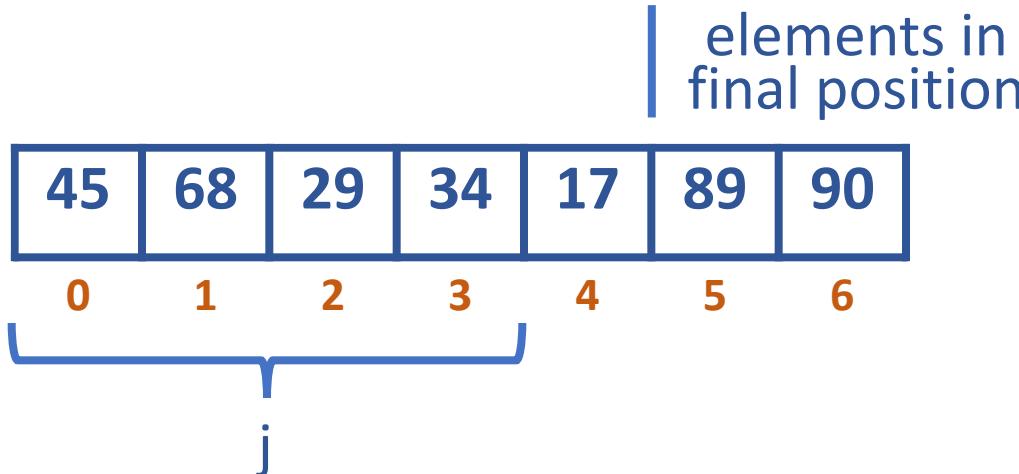


$17 < 89$  swap

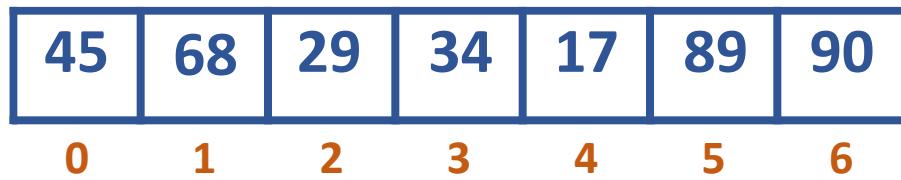
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort

After
second
iteration
 $i = 2$



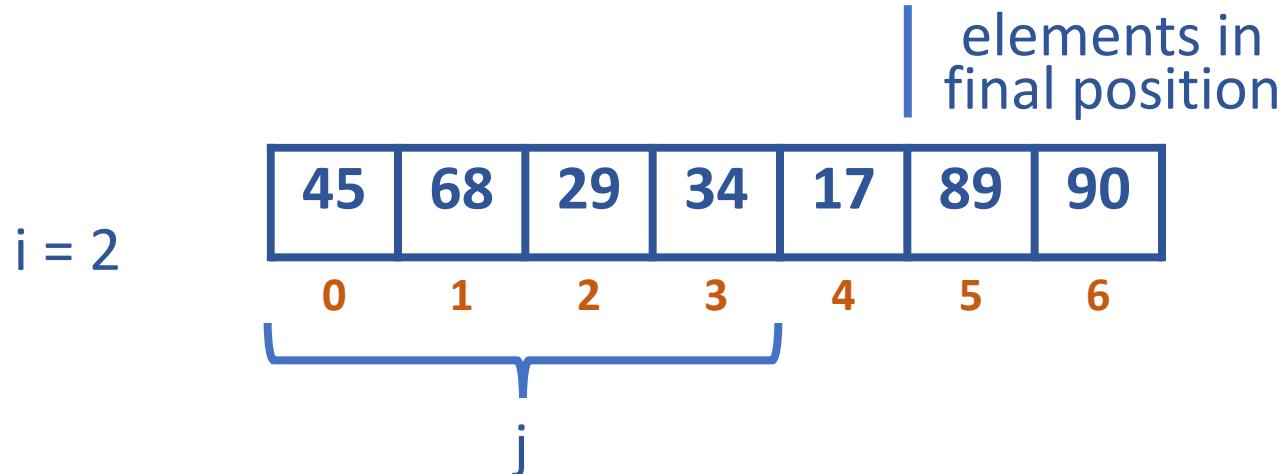
$j = 0$



$68 < 45$  no swap

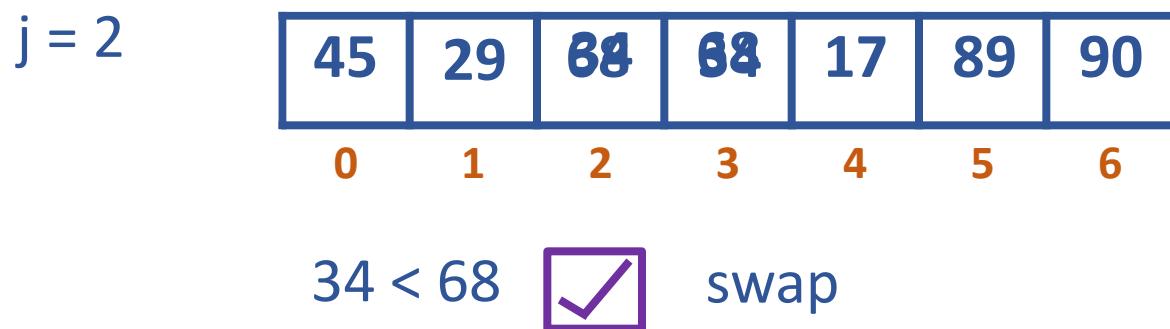
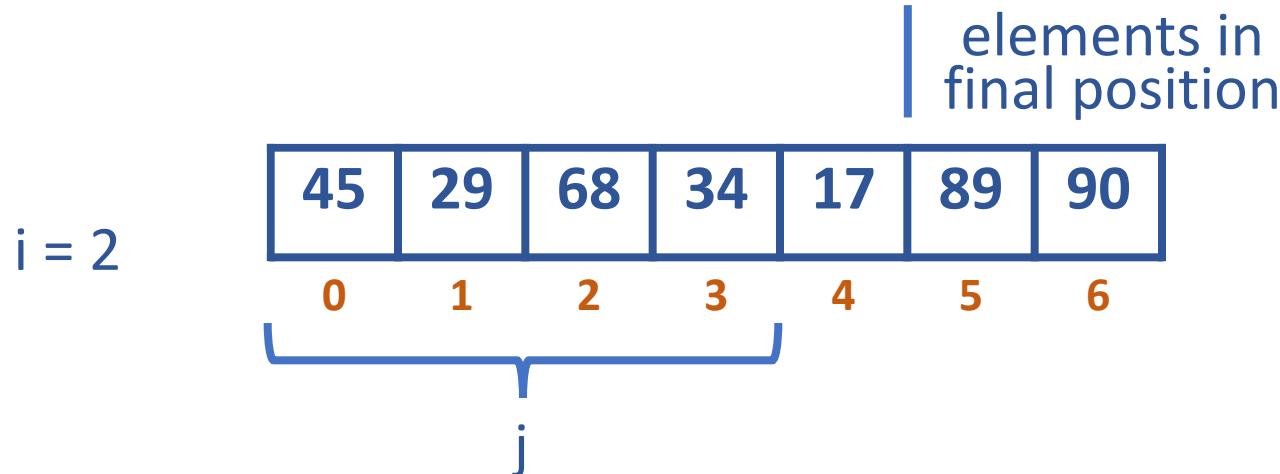
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort



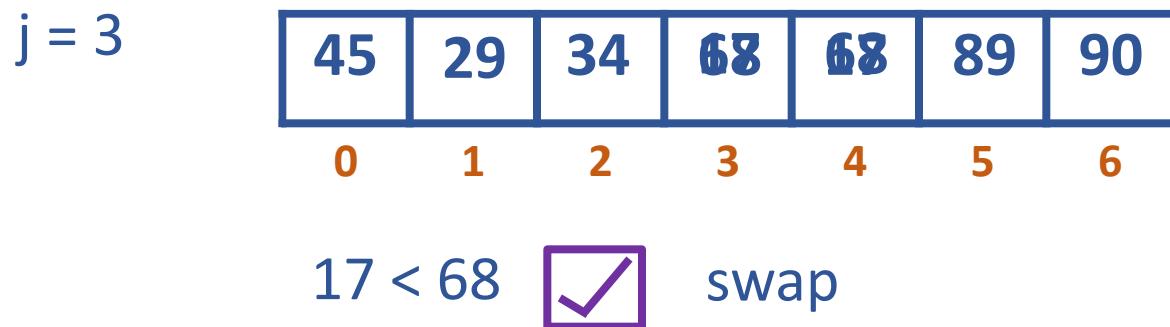
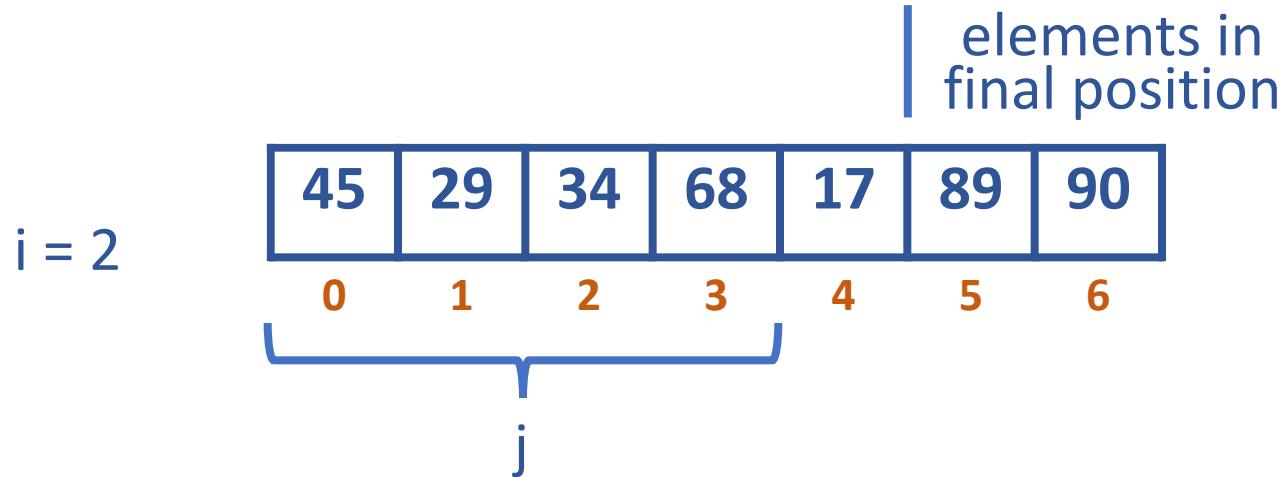
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort



DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

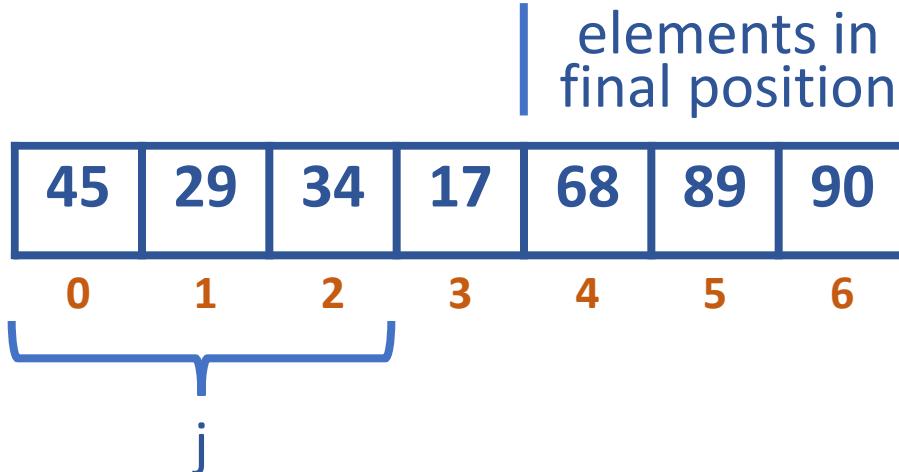
Bubble Sort



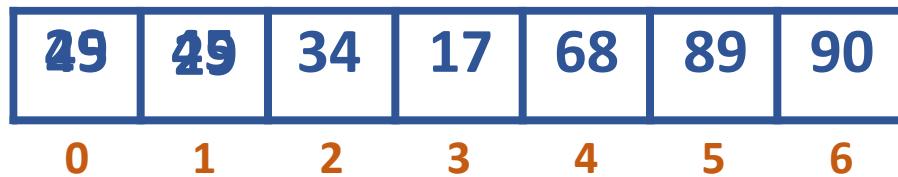
DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort

After
third
iteration
 $i = 3$



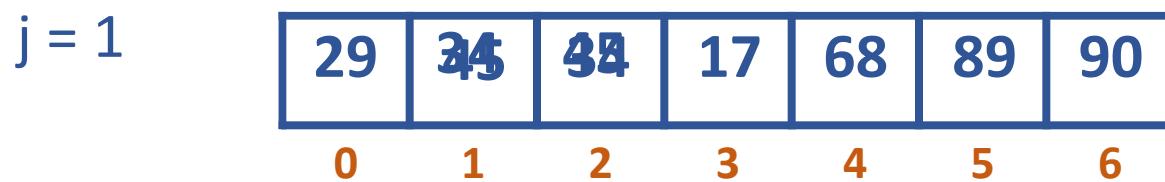
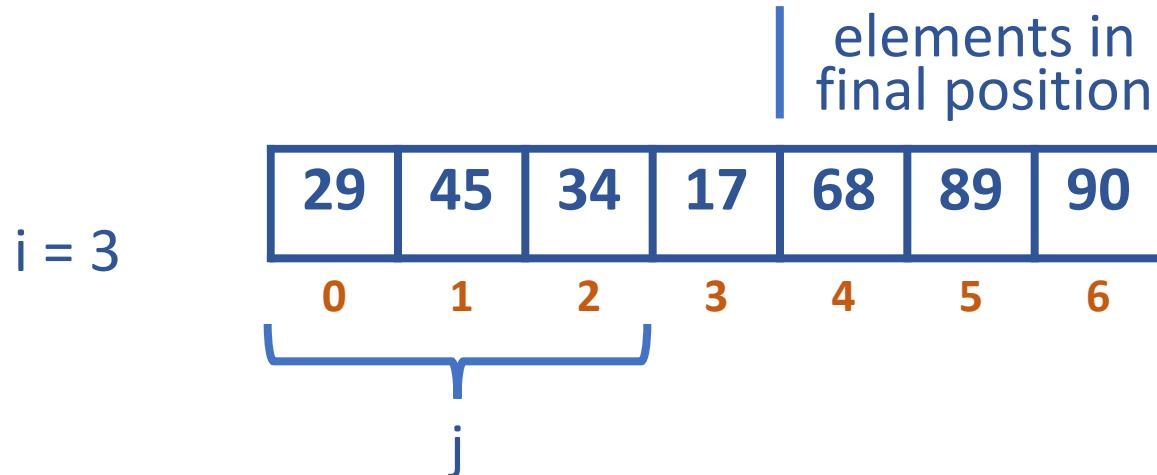
$j = 0$



$29 < 45$  swap

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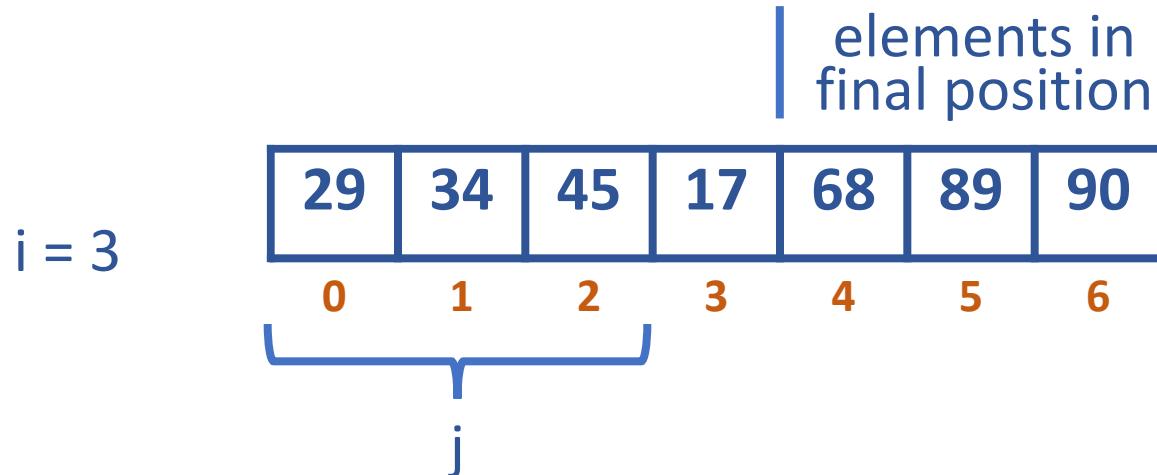
Bubble Sort



$34 < 45$  swap

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort

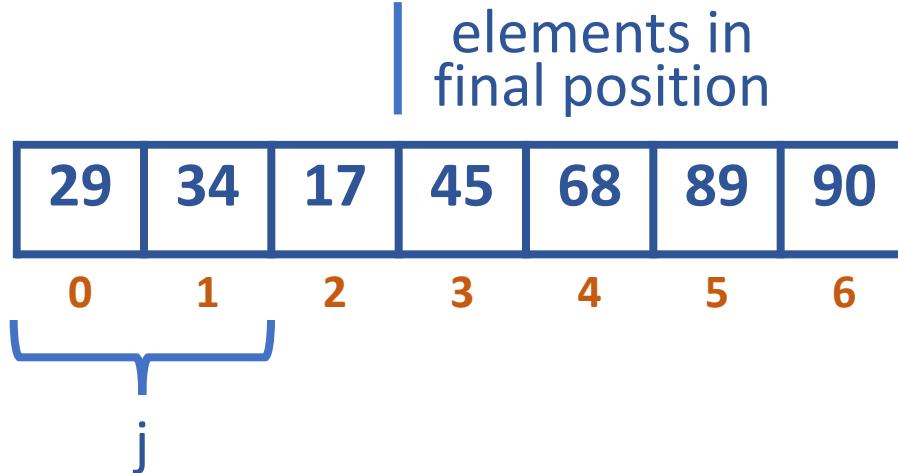


$17 < 45$  swap

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort

After
fourth
iteration
 $i = 4$



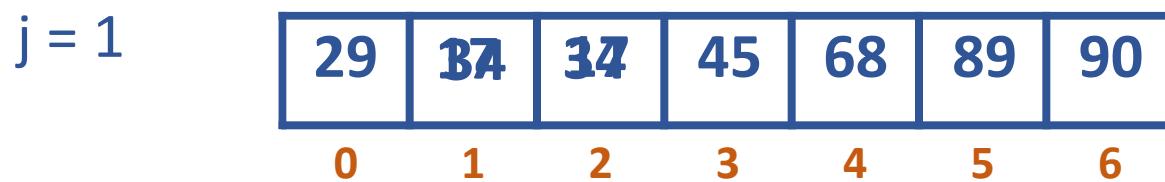
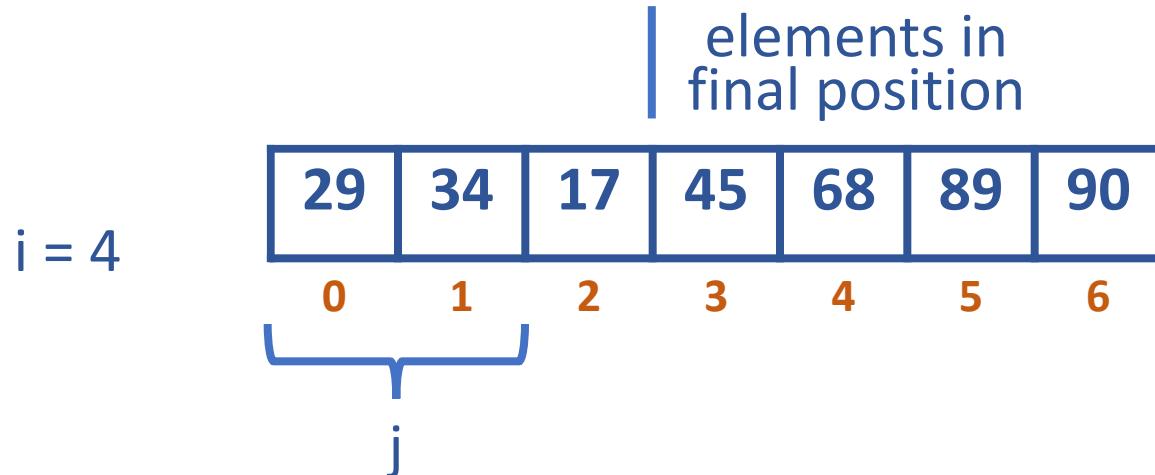
$j = 0$

29	34	17	45	68	89	90
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

$34 < 29$  no swap

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Bubble Sort

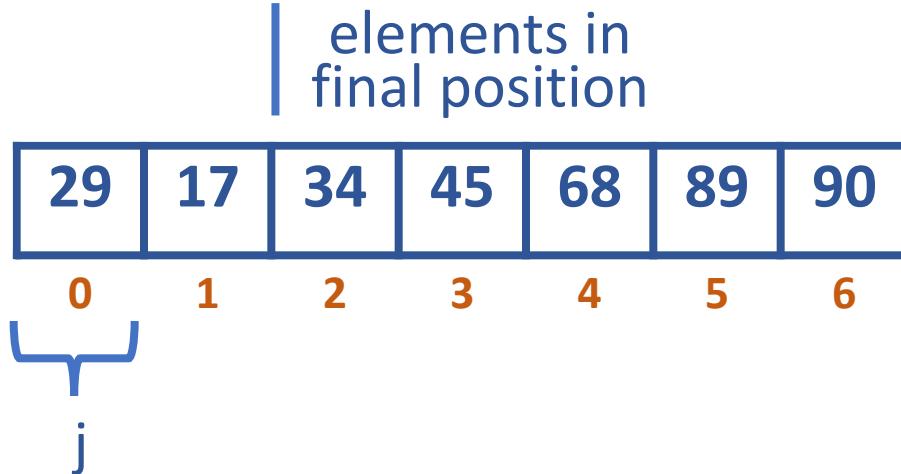


$17 < 34$  swap

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort

After
fifth
iteration
 $i = 5$



$j = 0$

29	29	34	45	68	89	90
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

$17 < 29$  swap

DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Bubble Sort

After sixth iteration	elements in final position	17	29	34	45	68	89	90
		0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Bubble Sort

ALGORITHM BubbleSort(A[0 .. n - 1])

//Sorts a given array by bubble sort in their final positions

//Input: An array A[0 .. n - 1] of orderable elements

//Output: Array A[0 .. n- 1] sorted in ascending order

for i <-- 0 to n - 2 do

 for j <-- 0 to n - 2 - i do

 if A[j + 1] < A[j] swap A[j] and A[j + 1]

Bubble Sort Analysis

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \sum_{j=0}^{n-2-i} 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} [(n - 2 - i) - 0 + 1]$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n - 1 - i) = \frac{(n - 1)n}{2} \in \Theta(n^2)$$

Bubble Sort is a $\Theta(n^2)$ algorithm



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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Sequential Search

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Sequential Search

- Compares successive elements of a given list with a given search key until:
 - A match is encountered (Successful Search)
 - List is exhausted without finding a match (Unsuccessful Search)
- An improvisation to the algorithm is to append the key to the end of the list
- This means the search has to be successful always and we can eliminate the end of list check

Sequential Search

- Sequential / Linear Search



- For key = 33, 6 is returned
- For key = 50, -1 is returned

Sequential Search

ALGORITHM SequentialSearch2(A[0 .. n], K)

//Implements sequential search with a search key as a sentinel

//Input: An array A of n elements and a search key K

//Output: The index of the first element in A[0 .. n -1] whose value is

// equal to K or -1 if no such element is found

A[n]<---K

i<---0

while A[i] ≠ K do

 i<--- i + 1

if i < n return i

else return -1

Sequential Search Analysis

- Sequential Search is a $\Theta(n)$ algorithm



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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

String Matching

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Brute – Force String Matching

String Matching - Terms

- pattern:
a string of m characters to search for
- text:
a (longer) string of n characters to search in
- problem:
find a substring in the text that matches the pattern

String Matching Idea

Step 1: Align pattern at beginning of text

Step 2: Moving from left to right, compare each character of pattern to the corresponding character in text until:

- all characters are found to match (successful search); or
- a mismatch is detected

Step 3: While pattern is not found and the text is not yet exhausted, realign pattern one position to the right and repeat Step 2

```
ALGORITHM BruteForceStringMatch(T[0 .. n -1], P[0 .. m -1])
//Implements brute-force string matching
//Input: An array T[0 .. n - 1] of n characters representing a text
// and an array P[0 .. m - 1] of m characters representing a pattern
//Output: The index of the first character in the text that starts a
//matching substring or -1 if the search is unsuccessful
for i ← 0 to n-m do
    j ← 0
    while j < m and P[j] = T[i + j] do
        j ←j+1
    if j = m return i
return -1
```

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String Matching Example



Worst Case:

- The algorithm might have to make all the 'm' comparisons for each of the $(n-m+1)$ tries
- Therefore, the algorithm makes $m(n-m+1)$ comparisons
- Brute Force String Matching is a $O(nm)$ algorithm



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Travelling Salesman Problem

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- Exhaustive Search is a brute – force problem solving technique
- It suggests generating each and every element of the problem domain, selecting those of them that satisfy all the constraints and then finding a desired element
- The desired element might be one which minimizes or maximizes a certain characteristic
- Typically the problem domain involves combinatorial objects such as permutations, combinations and subsets of a given set

Exhaustive Search - Method

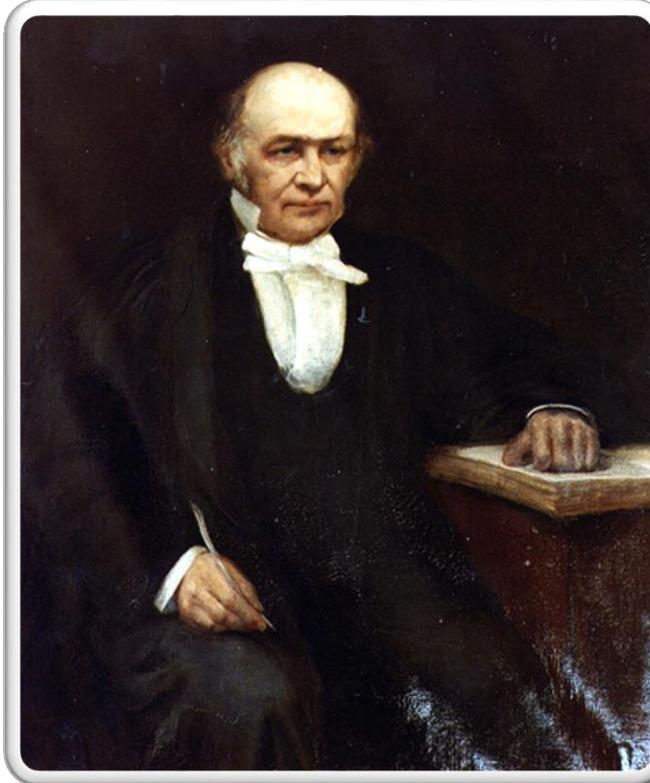
- Generate a list of all potential solutions to the problem in a systematic manner
- Evaluate potential solutions one by one, disqualifying infeasible ones and, for an optimization problem, keeping track of the best one found so far
- When search ends, announce the solution(s) found

- Given a list of cities and the distances between each pair of cities, what is the shortest possible route that visits each city and returns to the origin city?

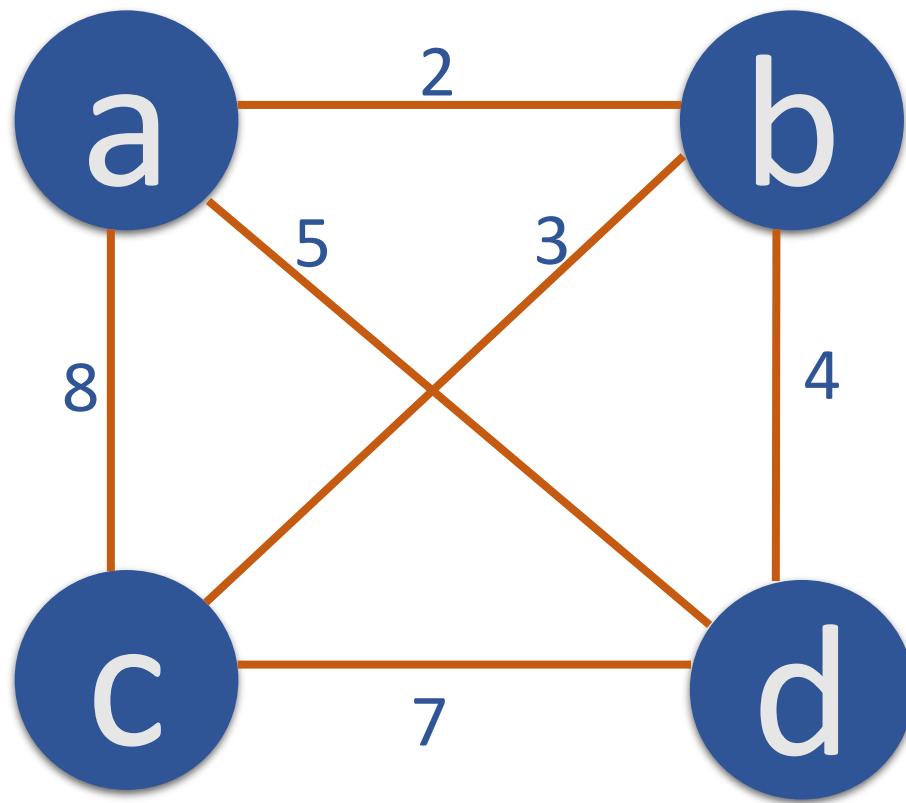
Alternative way to state the problem:

- Find the shortest Hamiltonian Circuit in a weighted connected graph

- The Travelling Salesman Problem was mathematically formulated by Irish Mathematician Sir William Rowan Hamilton
- It is one of the most intensively studied problems in optimization
- It has applications in logistics and planning



Example



Tour	Length
a → b → c → d → a	$2+3+7+5 = 17$
a → b → d → c → a	$2+4+7+8 = 21$
a → c → b → d → a	$8+3+4+5 = 20$
a → c → d → b → a	$8+7+4+2 = 21$
a → d → b → c → a	$5+4+3+8 = 20$
a → d → c → b → a	$5+7+3+2 = 17$

Efficiency

- The Exhaustive Search solution to the Travelling Salesman problem can be obtained by keeping the origin city constant and generating permutations of all the other $n - 1$ cities
- Thus, the total number of permutations needed will be $(n - 1)!$



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DESIGN AND ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Knapsack Problem

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Given n items:

- weights: $w_1 \ w_2 \dots \ w_n$
- values: $v_1 \ v_2 \dots \ v_n$
- a knapsack of capacity W

Find the most valuable subset of items that fit into the knapsack

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Knapsack Problem

Example

Knapsack Capacity $W = 16$

Item	Weight	Value
1	2	20
2	5	30
3	10	50
4	5	10

Knapsack Problem

Subset	Total Weight	Total Value
{1}	2	20
{2}	5	30
{3}	10	50
{4}	5	10
{1, 2}	7	50
{1, 3}	12	70
{1, 4}	7	30
{2, 3}	15	80
{2, 4}	10	40
{3, 4}	15	60
{1, 2, 3}	17	Not Feasible
{1, 2, 4}	12	60
{1, 3, 4}	17	Not Feasible
{2, 3, 4}	20	Not Feasible
{1, 2, 3, 4}	22	Not Feasible

Knapsack Problem by
Exhaustive Search

- The Exhaustive Search solution to the Knapsack Problem is obtained by generating all subsets of the set of n items given and computing the total weight of each subset in order to identify the feasible subsets
- The number of subsets for a set of n elements is 2^n
- The Exhaustive Search solution to the Knapsack Problem belongs to $\Omega(2^n)$



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Assignment Problem

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The Assignment Problem

- There are n people who need to be assigned to n jobs, one person per job. The cost of assigning person i to job j is $C[i, j]$.
Find an assignment that minimizes the total cost

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The Assignment Problem

Example

	Job 1	Job 2	Job 3	Job 4
Person 1	9	2	7	8
Person 2	6	4	3	7
Person 3	5	8	1	8
Person 4	7	6	9	4

Algorithmic Plan

1. Generate all legitimate assignments
2. Compute their costs
3. Select the cheapest one

The Assignment Problem

The Assignment Problem by Exhaustive Search

Assignment	Cost
1, 2, 3, 4	$9 + 4 + 1 + 4 = 18$
1, 3, 4, 2	$9 + 8 + 9 + 7 = 33$
1, 4, 3, 2	$9 + 6 + 1 + 7 = 23$
1, 4, 2, 3	$9 + 6 + 3 + 8 = 26$
1, 3, 2, 4	$9 + 8 + 3 + 4 = 24$
1, 2, 4, 3	$9 + 4 + 9 + 8 = 30$

etc.,

Efficiency

- The Assignment Problem is solved by generating all permutations of n
- The number of permutations for a given number n is $n!$
- Therefore, the exhaustive search is impractical for all but very small instances of the problem



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