

Chapter 1:

Introduction to Algorithms

Part I

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Algorithms

The word ‘Algorithm’ comes from the name of a Persian author, Abu Ja’ar Mohammed ibn Musa al Khwarizmi (c. 825 A.D.), Latinized Algoritmi.

He wrote an Arabic language treatise on the Hindu–Arabic numeral system, which was translated into Latin during the 12th century under the title *Algoritmi de numero Indorum* (meaning “Algoritmi on the numbers of the Indians”).

The Latin name *algoritmi* was altered to *algorismus*, *algorithmus*, *algorithme* (in French), and finally to *algorithm* (in English).

Algorithms

- Any well-defined computational procedure that takes some value, or set of values, as input and produces some value, or set of values, as output.
- All algorithms must satisfy the following criteria:
 1. **Input:** Zero or more externally supplied quantities
 2. **Output:** Produce at least one quantity
 3. **Definiteness:** Clear and unambiguous instructions
 4. **Finiteness:** Terminate after a finite number of steps
 5. **Effectiveness:** Feasible instructions
- Algorithm vs program:

Program = The expression of an algorithm in a programming language

Program does not need to satisfy criterion #4.

Algorithms

Study of algorithms includes

1. How to devise algorithms

- a. Different techniques/design strategies, e.g. divide and conquer, branch and bound, dynamic programming etc.

2. How to validate algorithms

- a. Show that the algorithm computes the correct answer for all possible legal inputs
- b. 2 phases:
 - i. Algorithm validation
 - ii. Program proving or program verification

Algorithms

3. How to analyse algorithms

- a. Performance analysis
- b. Determining the time and storage needs of an algorithm
- c. To make quantitative judgements about the value of one algorithm over another
- d. To predict whether the software will meet any efficiency constraints that exist

4. How to test a program

- a. Debugging: Executing programs on sample data to determine whether faulty results occur
- b. Profiling: Executing a correct program on data sets and measuring the time and space it takes to compute the results

Algorithm Specification

Algorithms can be described in many ways.

1. Using a natural language like English
2. Using flow charts
3. Using pseudocodes

Pseudo conventions

- `//` or `#` for comments
- Braces `{ }` for blocks such as a collection of simple statements
- Assignments of values to variables using `=`, `:=` or `←`
- Loops:

```
while <condition> do  
{  
    <statement 1>  
    ⋮  
    <statement 2>  
}
```


Pseudo conventions

- Loops:

```
for variable = value1 to valuen step <step> do  
{  
    <statement 1>  
    ⋮  
    <statement 2>  
}
```

Pseudo conventions

- Loops:

repeat

 <statement 1>

 ⋮

 <statement 2>

until <condition>

Example

```
1. Algorithm Max(A, n)
2. // A is an array of size n
3. {
4.     Result = A[0];
5.     for i = 1 to n - 1 do
6.         if A[i] > Result then Result = A[i];
7.     return Result;
8. }
```

Exercise

1. Devise an algorithm to add two matrices, A and B.

Why analyze an algorithm?

- Classify problems and algorithms by difficulty
- Predict performance, compare algorithms, tune parameters
- Better understand and improve implementations and algorithms
- Intellectual challenge

Performance analysis

Two main resources to consider when writing a program:

1. Memory
2. Time

Performance analysis focuses on obtaining machine-independent estimates of time and space

Performance analysis

1. **Space complexity**

The amount of memory the algorithm needs to run to completion

$$S(P) = c + S_p(I)$$

where, c is a constant representing the fixed space requirements

$S_p(I)$ is the variable space requirement of the program working on an instance I

2. **Time complexity**

The amount of computer time the algorithm needs to run to completion

= compile time + execution time

Time complexity

The more instructions the program contains, the more time it will take to complete.

Counting the number of operations the program performs, we can get a machine-independent estimate of its execution time.

Program step:

A syntactically or semantically meaningful program segment whose execution time is independent of the instance characteristics (i.e. the number, size, and values of inputs and outputs associated with a program instance)

Example

```
1. Algorithm Sum(A, B, m, n) {
2.   // Algorithm to add two matrices
   // A and B of size m x n.
3.   {
4.       C = A
5.       for i = 0 to m-1 do
6.           for j = 0 to n-1 do
7.               C[i,j] += B[i,j]
8.       return C
9.   }
```

Order of growth

Algorithm analysis is about understanding the growth in resource consumption as the amount of data increases

As the amount of data gets bigger, how much more resource will my algorithm require?

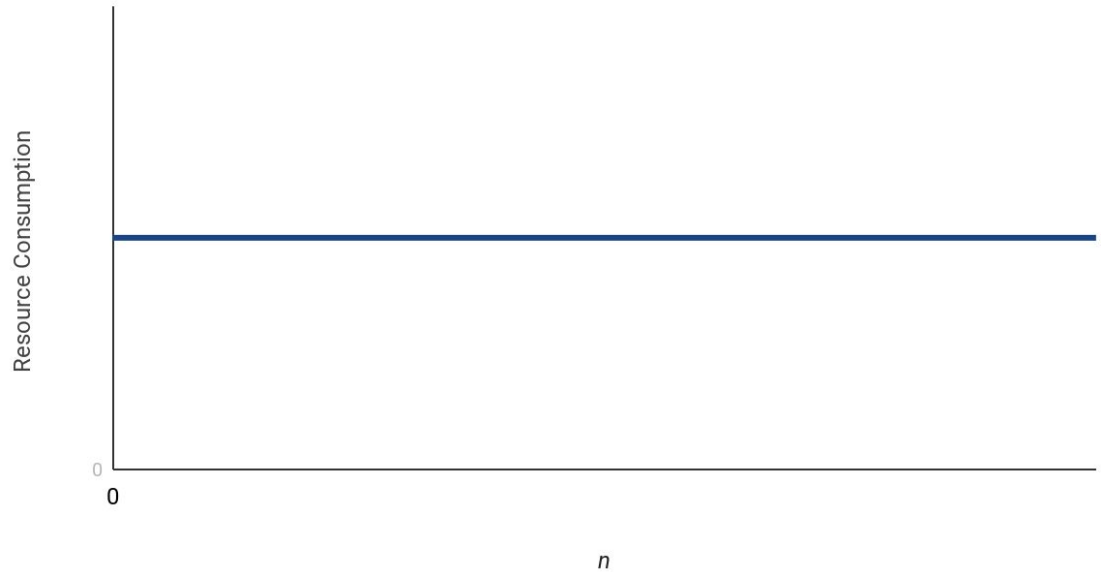
The order of growth of the running time of an algorithm

1. Gives a simple characterization of the **algorithm's efficiency**
2. Allows us to **compare the relative performance** of alternative algorithms

Constant growth rate

The resource need does not grow

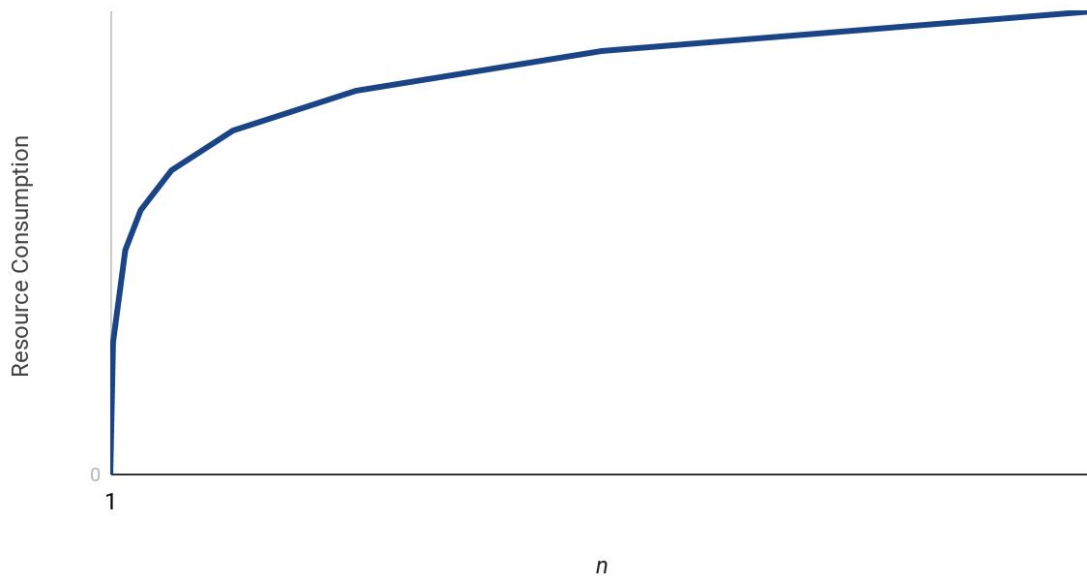
Constant growth rate



Logarithmic growth rate

The resource needs grow by one unit each time the data is doubled.

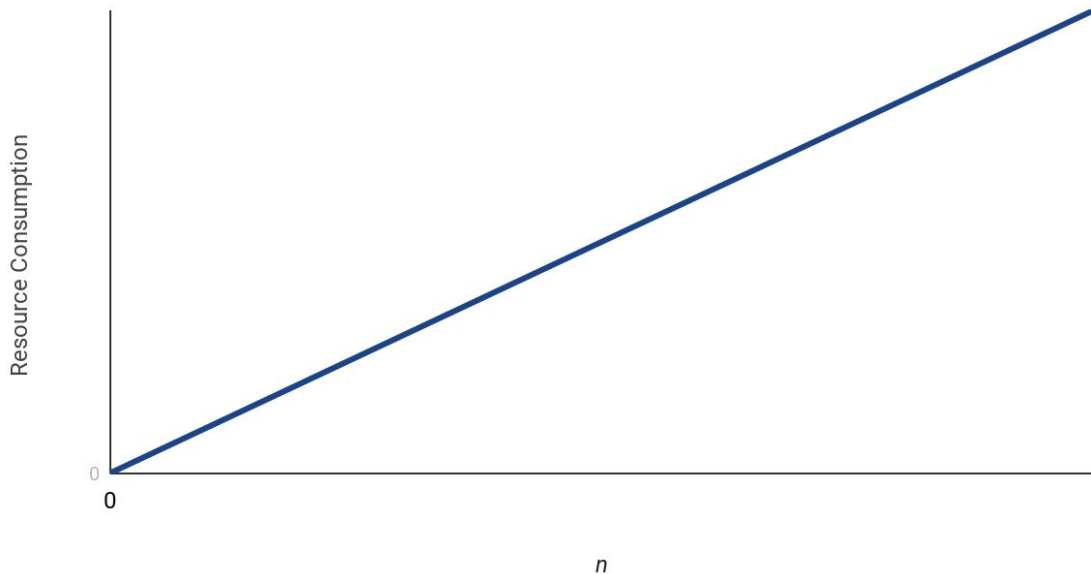
Logarithmic growth rate



Linear growth rate

The resource needs and the amount of data is directly proportional to each other.

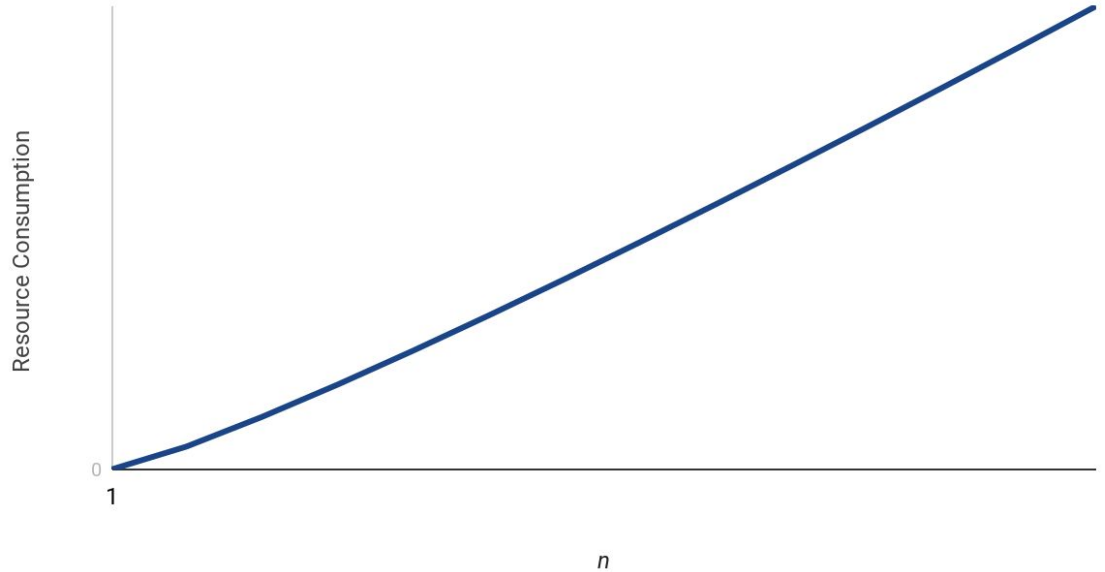
Linear Growth Rate



Log linear growth rate

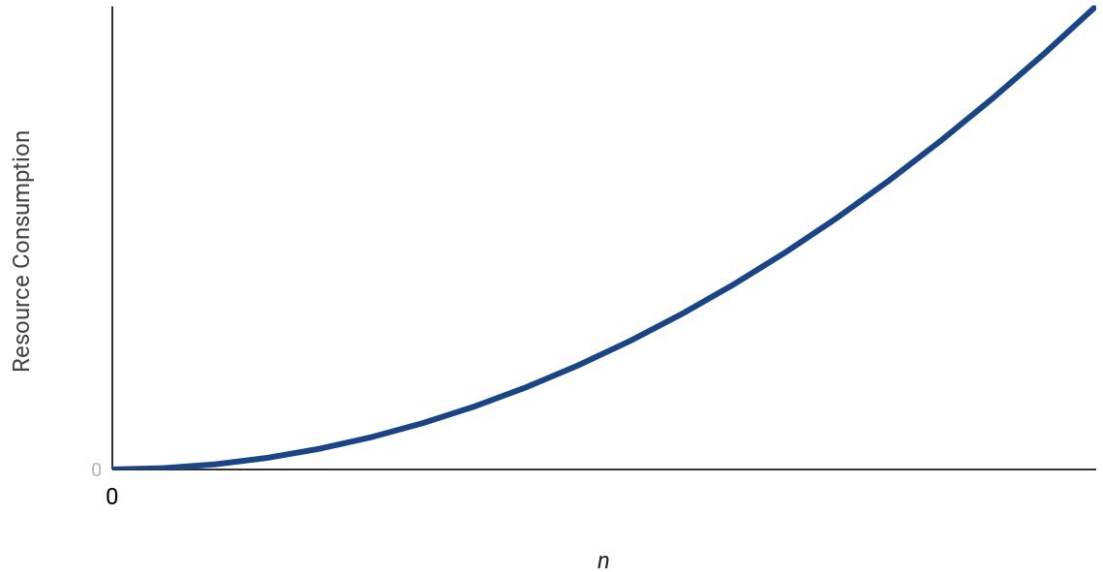
Slightly curved line.

Log Linear Growth Rate



Quadratic growth rate

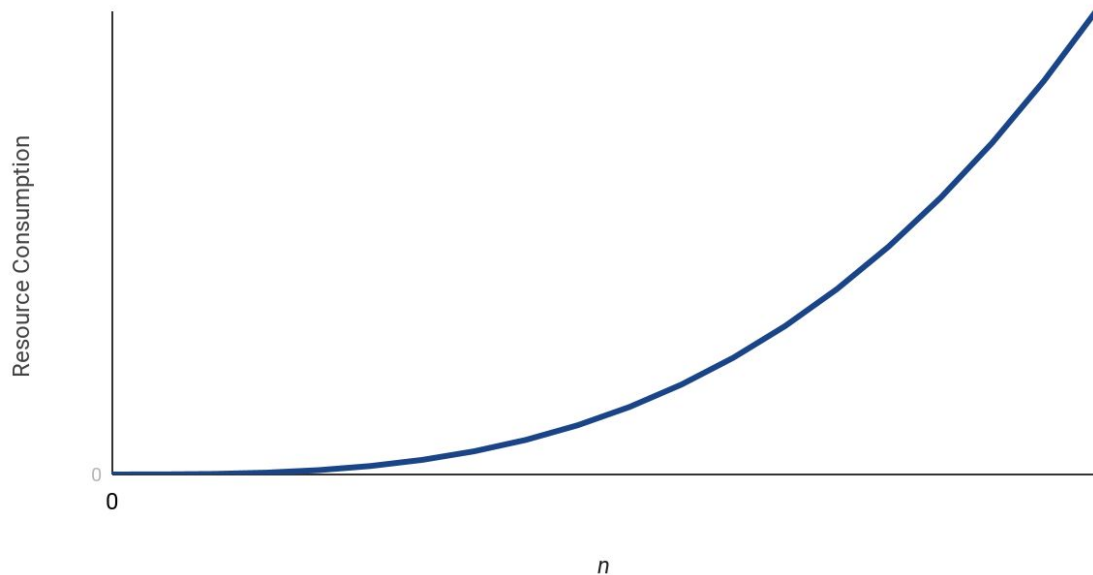
Quadratic growth rate



Cubic growth rate

Similar to quadratic but
grows significantly faster

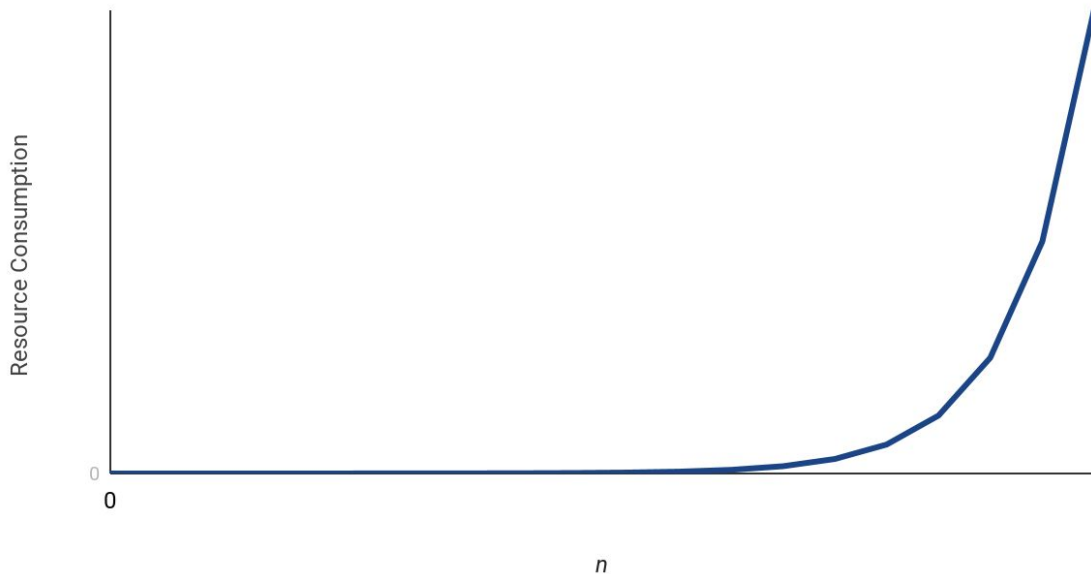
Cubic growth rate



Exponential growth rate

Each extra unit of data requires a doubling of resources

Exponential growth rate



Asymptotic analysis

“How does the running time scale with the size of the input?”

The idea is that we ignore low-order terms and constant factors, focusing instead on the shape of the running time curve.

Typical notation:

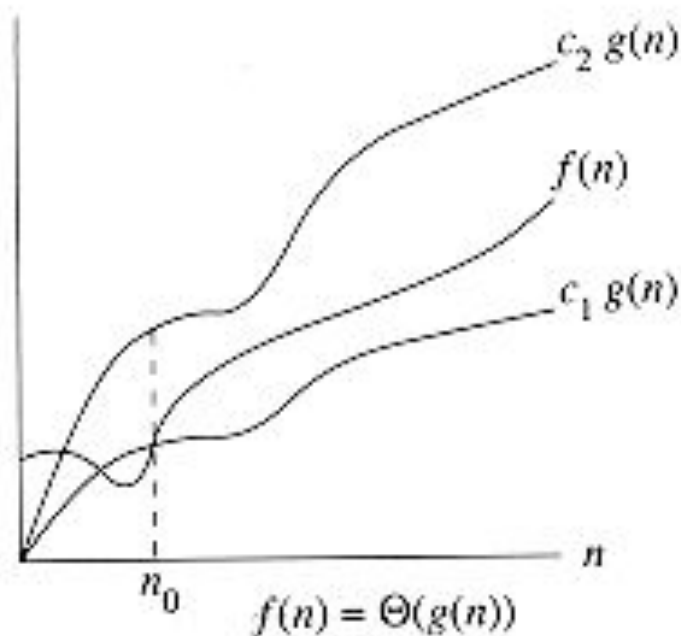
- n = The size of the input
- $T(n)$ = The running time of our algorithm on an input of size n .

Θ -notation

For a given function $g(n)$, we denote by $\Theta(g(n))$ the set of functions

$\Theta(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{there exist positive constants } c_1, c_2, \text{ and } n_0 \text{ such that}$
 $0 \leq c_1 g(n) \leq f(n) \leq c_2 g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}$

Informally, " $T(n)$ is $\Theta(f(n))$ " basically means that the function $f(n)$ describes the exact **(asymptotically tight)** bound for $T(n)$.

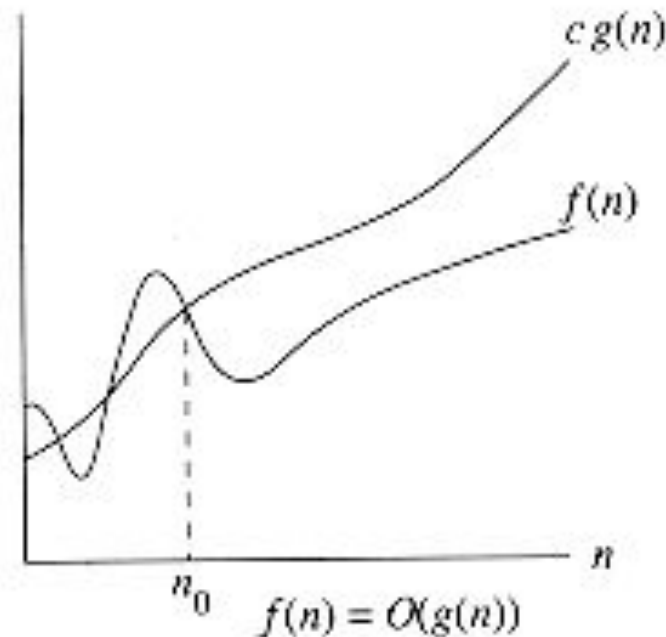


O-notation

Provides an **asymptotic upper bound** on a function.

For a given function $g(n)$, we denote by $O(g(n))$ the set of functions

$O(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{there exist positive constants } c \text{ and } n_0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq f(n) \leq c \cdot g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}.$

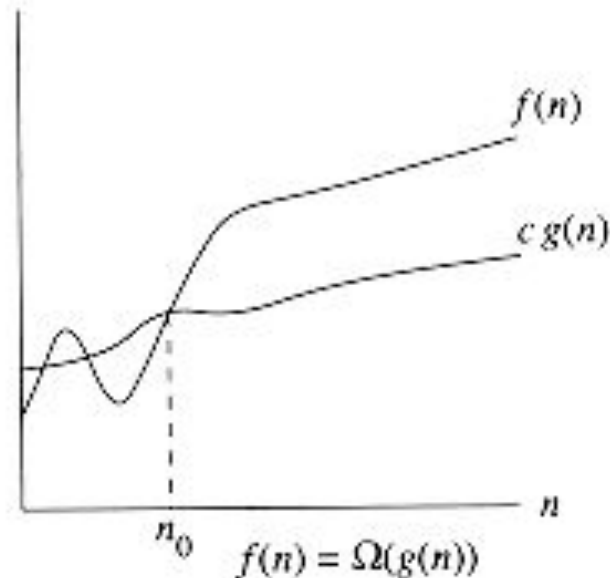


Ω -notation

Provides an **asymptotic lower bound** on a function.

For a given function $g(n)$, we denote by $\Omega(g(n))$ the set of functions

$\Omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{there exist positive constants } c \text{ and } n_0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq c \cdot g(n) \leq f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}.$



o-notation and ω -notation

o-notation provides an upper bound that is **not** asymptotically tight.

$o(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{there exist positive constants } c \text{ and } n_0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq f(n) < c \cdot g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}.$

ω -notation provides a lower bound that is **not** asymptotically tight.

$\omega(g(n)) = \{f(n) : \text{there exist positive constants } c \text{ and } n_0 \text{ such that } 0 \leq c \cdot g(n) < f(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0\}.$

Readings

Chapter 1 - 4, Appendix A from Cormen et al., 3rd edition

Chapter 1 from Horowitz et al.