

Algorithms

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The Concept of an Algorithm

- Formal Definition: An algorithm is an **ordered** set of **unambiguous**, **executable** steps that defines a **terminating** process
- Problem = motivation for algorithm
- Algorithm = procedure to solve the problem
 - Often one of many possibilities
- Program a formal and executable representation of an algorithm
- Process activity of executing a program

Algorithm Criteria

- ■Input
 - Zero/more quantities are externally supplied
- Output
 - At least one quantity is produced
- Definiteness
 - Each instruction is clear and unambiguous
- **■**Finiteness
 - Terminate after a finite number of steps
- **■**Effectiveness:
 - Every instruction must be basic and easy to be computed

Representation

- ■Description of algorithm sufficient to communicate it to the desired audience
 - Natural languages
 - English, Chinese, ...etc.
 - A lot of sentences...
 - Graphic representation
 - Flowchart.
 - Feasible only if the algorithm is small and simple
 - Programming language + few English
 - C++
 - Concise and effective!

Algorithm Representation

- ■Primitives— a well-defined set of building blocks from which algorithm representations can be constructed.
 - syntax: symbolic representation
 - semantics: concept represented

Algorithm Discovery

- ■The development of a program consists:
 - Discovering the underlying algorithm
 - Representing that algorithm as a program
- ■Theory of problem solving
 - The algorithm to generate an algorithm for any particular problem is purely imaginary
 - There are certain problems that are **unsolvable**!!
 - The ability to solve problems is more like an artistic skill to be developed

Problem Solving Phases

- 1. Understand the problem
- 2. Get an idea how an algorithmic procedure might solve the problem.
- 3. Formulate the algorithm and represent it as a program
- Evaluate the program for accuracy and its potential as a tool for solving other problems

Incubation Periods

- ■Between conscious work and the sudden inspiration
 - Reflect a process
 - A subconscious part of the mind appears to continue working
 - Forces the solution into the conscious mind

Techniques For "Getting A Foot In The Door"

- ■Work the problem backwards
- ■Solve an easier related problem
 - Relax some of the problem constraints
 - Solve pieces of the problem first = bottom up methodology
- ■Stepwise refinement = top-down methodology
 - Popular technique because it produces modular programs

Logical Thinking

- ■Break down the big problem (logically)
 - Divide
- ■Combine the smaller puzzles (logically)
 - Conquer

Pseudocode

- A formal programming language in favor of a less formal, more intuitive notational system
- A notational system in which ideas can be expressed informally during the algorithm development process
 - Focus more on the numerous interrelated concepts and criteria
 - Researches show that human minds is capable of manipulating only about 7 details at a time
 - Flowcharts and graphical representation techniques are two other useful tools

Pseudocode Primitives

Assignment

■Conditional selection

■Repeated execution

■Procedure

name ← expression

if condition then action

while condition do activity

procedure name (generic names)

Conditional Branch

■if (condition) then (activity 1) else (activity 2)

- Divide the total by 366 or 365 dependent on the year is a leap year or not
- E.g., **if** (year is leap year) **then** (divide total by 366) **else** (divide total by 365)
- E.g.,

```
if (year is leap year)then (divide total by 366)else (divide total by 365)
```

Conditional Loop

■while (condition) do (activity)

- While there are tickets to sell, keep selling tickets
- E.g.,while (tickets remain to be sold) do (sell tickets)

Procedure

■ The set of activities to be used later

- procedure name
- E.g.,

 procedure Greetings (var)

 assign Count the value var+ 6;

 while Count > 0 do
 - (print the message "Hello" and
 - assign Count the value Count -1)

Algorithm Primitives and Structures

■Primitives

■ Assignment name ← expression

Conditional selection if condition then action

Repeated execution while condition do activity

■ Procedure procedure name (generic names)

- Repetitive structures used in describing algorithmic processes
 - Iterative structures
 - Recursive structures

Iterative Structures

- ■Repeat collections of instructions in a looping manner
- ■Four kinds of code blocks:
 - Initialize: establish an initial state to be modified
 - Test: compare the current state with the termination condition
 - Statement: the block repeated in each iteration
 - Modify: change the state toward the termination condition.

While-loop vs. Repeat-loop

- While-loop: initialize; while(test) { activity; modify; }
- Repeat-loop: initialize; repeat (activity; modify;) until (test)

■ For-loop: for(initialize; test; modify) { statement; }

Recursive Structures

- Another loop paradigm for repetitive structures (by invoking itself)
- Divide-and-Conquer
 - The execution creates multiple instances (children)
 - Each child is born to conquer revised smaller problems and return the results back to the parent
 - Only one instance is actively progressing

The Sequential Search Algorithm In Pseudocode

Binary Search Algorithm

```
procedure Search (List, TargetValue)
if (List empty)
 then
     (Report that the search failed.)
  else
     [Select the "middle" entry in List to be the TestEntry;
      Execute the block of instructions below that is
         associated with the appropriate case.
            case 1: TargetValue = TestEntry
                     (Report that the search succeeded.)
            case 2: TargetValue < TestEntry
                     (Apply the procedure Search to see if TargetValue
                          is in the portion of the List preceding TestEntry,
                          and report the result of that search.)
            case 3: TargetValue > TestEntry
                    (Apply the procedure Search to see if TargetValue
                         is in the portion of List following TestEntry,
                         and report the result of that search.)
     ] end if
```



Efficiency and Correctness

- ■One problem can have a variety of algorithms
- ■The choice between efficient and inefficient algorithms can make the difference
 - Time and storage complexity of the algorithm

Von Neumann Architecture

- Central Processing Unit (CPU)
 - Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU)
 - Control Unit (CU)
 - Registers
- Memory Unit
- Buses

Performance Evaluation

- ■Two criteria:
 - Space Complexity
 - How much memory space is used?
 - Time Complexity
 - How many running time is needed?
- ■Two approaches:
 - Performance Analysis
 - Machine independent
 - A prior estimate
 - Performance Measurement
 - Machine dependent
 - A posterior testing

Space Complexity

- $\blacksquare S(P) = C + S_P(I)$
- ■C is a **fixed** part:
 - Independent of the inputs and outputs.
 - Including: Instruction space, space for simple variables, fixed-size structured variables, constants
- ■S_P(I) is a **variable** part:
 - Depends on the particular problem instance
 - Space of referenced variable and recursion stack space (Instance Characteristics)
 - Include the number and magnitude of the input and output

Space Complexity: Simple Function

```
float Abc(float a, b, c)
{
   return a+b+b*c+(a+b-c)/(a+b)+4.00;
}
```

- | = a,b,c
- C = space for the program + space for variables a, b, c, Abc = constant
- $\blacksquare S_{Abc}(I) = 0$
- \blacksquare S(Abc) = C + $S_{Abc}(I)$ = constant

Space Complexity: Iterative Summing

```
float Sum(float *A, const int n)
{ float s = 0;
  for(int i=0; i<n; i++)
     s += A[i];
  return s;
}</pre>
```

- = I = n (number of elements to be summed)
- **■**C = constant
- $S_{Sum}(I) = 0$ (a stores only the address of array)
- \blacksquare S(Sum) = C + S_{Sum}(I) = constant.

Space Complexity: Recursive Summing

```
float Rsum(float *A, const int n)
{
  if (n<=0) return 0;
  else return (Rsum(A, n-1) + A[n-1]);
}</pre>
```

- ■C = constant
- = n (number of elements to be summed)
- \blacksquare S(Rsum) = \square + \square S_{Rsum}(n) =

Time Complexity

- $\blacksquare T(P) = C + T_P(I)$
- ■C is a **constant** part:
 - Compile time
- ■T_P(I) is a **variable** part:
 - Running time
 - Use "program step" to estimate T_P(I)
 - "program step" = a statement whose execution time is independent of instance characteristics(I).

Time Complexity: Iterative Summing

```
float Sum(float *A, const int n)
{ float s = 0;
  for(int i=0; i<n; i++)
    s += A[i];
  return s;
}</pre>
```

- = | = n (number of elements to be summed)
- $T_{Sum}(I) =$
- $\blacksquare T(Sum) = C + T_{Sum}(n) =$

Time Complexity: Recursive Summing

```
float Rsum(float *A, const int n)
{
  if (n<=0)
    return 0;
  else return (Rsum(A, n-1) + A[n-1]);
}</pre>
```

= | = n (number of elements to be summed)

$$\blacksquare T_{Rsum}(n) = ?$$

Time Complexity: Recursive Summing

```
float Rsum(float *A, const int n)
{
  if (n<=0)
    return 0;
  else return (Rsum(A, n-1) + A[n-1]);
}</pre>
```

- = | = n (number of elements to be summed)
- Relation for $T_{Rsum}(n)$:

Observation on Step Counts

■In the previous examples:

$$T_{Sum}(n) = T_{Rsum}(n) = T_{Rsum}(n) = T_{Rsum}(n)$$

- ■Can we say that Rsum is faster than Sum?
- ■Instead, we are interesting in "Growth Rate" of the program
 - "How the running time changes with changes in the instance characteristics?"

Program Growth Rate

- $T_{Sum}(n) = 2n + 3 \text{ means}$
 - When n is tenfold(10X)
 - The running time $T_{Sum}(n)$ is tenfold(10X).
 - Runs in **linear** time.
- $T_{Rsum}(n) = 2n + 2$
 - Runs in **linear** time.
- $\blacksquare T_{Sum}(n)$ and $T_{Rsum}(n)$
 - The same growth rate

Asymptotic Notation

- Predict the growth rate
 - Scenario 1: c1 =1, c2 =2, and c3 =100
 - P1:
 - P2:
 - Scenario 2: c1 =1, c2 =2, and c3 =1000
 - P1:
 - P2:

Notation: Big-O (O)

- ■Definition:
 - Let f(n) = O(g(n))
 - iff there exist c, $n_0>0$ such that $f(n) \le c g(n)$ for all $n \ge n_0$
- ■Examples
 - 3n + 2 =
 - 100n + 6 =
 - \blacksquare 10n² + 4n + 2 =

Theorem 1.2

■Theorem 1.2:

If
$$f(n) = a_m n^m + ... + a_1 n + a_0$$
, then $f(n) = O(n^m)$

■ Proof:

$$f(n) = a_m n^m + ... + a_1 n + a_0$$

 $\leq |a_m|n^m + ... + |a_1|n + |a_0|$
 $\leq n^m (|a_m| + ... + |a_1|+|a_0|)$
 $\leq n^m c \text{ for } n \geq 1$
So, $f(n) = O(n^m)$

■ Leading constants and lower-order terms do not matter

Practices

$$n^2 - 10n - 6 =$$

$$n^2 + \log n =$$

$$2^n + n^{10000} =$$

$$n^4 + 1000 \, n^3 + n^2 = O(n^4)$$
, True or False?

$$n^4 + 1000 \, n^3 + n^2 = O(n^5)$$
, True or False?

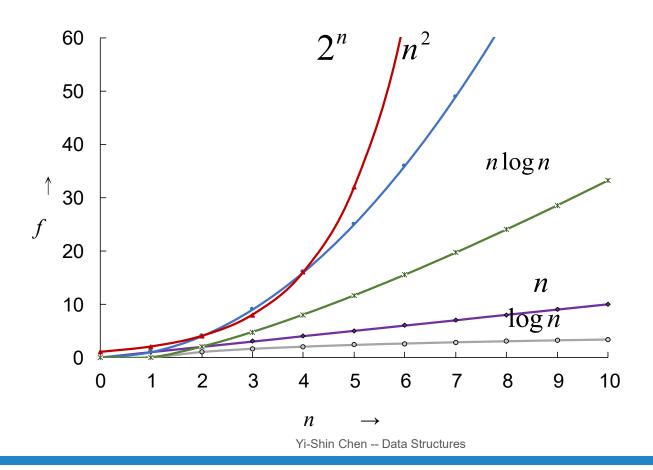
Properties of Big-O

- $\bullet f(n) = O(g(n))$
 - \blacksquare g(n) is an upper bound of f(n).
 - $n = O(n) = O(n^{2.5}) = O(n^3)$
 - However, we want g(n) as small as possible
- ■Big-O: worst-case running time of a program
 - **■** f(n) =

Naming Common Functions

| Complexity | Naming |
|----------------------|------------------------------|
| O(1) | Constant time |
| O(log n) | Logarithmic time |
| O(n log n) | $O(\log n) \le . \le O(n^2)$ |
| $O(n^2)$ | Quadratic time |
| $O(n^3)$ | Cubic time |
| O(n ¹⁰⁰) | Polynomial time |
| O(2 ⁿ) | Exponential time |

Plot of Common Function Values



Running Times on Computers

| | f (n) | | | | | | | |
|-----------------|--------|----------------------|--------|--------|------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|--|
| n | n | n log ₂ n | n² | n³ | n ⁴ | n ¹⁰ | 2 ⁿ | |
| 10 | .01 μs | .03 μs | .1 μs | 1 μs | 10 μs | 10s | 1μs | |
| 20 | .02 μs | .09 μs | .4 μs | 8 μs | 160 μs | 2.84h | 1ms | |
| 30 | .03 μs | .15 μs | .9 μs | 27 μs | 810 μs | 6.83d | 1s | |
| 40 | .04 μs | .21 μs | 1.6 μs | 64 μs | 2.56ms | 121d | 18m | |
| 50 | .05 μs | .28 μs | 2.5 μs | 125 μs | 6.25ms | 3.1y | 13d | |
| 100 | .10 μs | .66 μs | 10 μs | 1ms | 100ms | 3171y | 4*10 ¹³ y | |
| 10 ³ | 1 μs | 9.96 μs | 1 ms | 1s | 16.67m | 3.17*10 ¹³ y | 32*10 ²⁸³ y | |
| 104 | 10 μs | 130 μs | 100 ms | 16.67m | 115.7d | 3.17*10 ²³ y | | |
| 10 ⁵ | 100 μs | 1.66 ms | 10s | 11.57d | 3171y | 3.17*10 ³³ y | | |
| 10 ⁶ | 1ms | 19.92ms | 16.67m | 31.71y | 3.17*10 ⁷ y | 3.17*10 ⁴³ y | | |

 μ s = microsecond = 10⁻⁶second; ms =milliseconds = 10⁻³seconds s = seconds; m = minutes; h = hours; d = days; y = years;

Rule of Sum

■To compute the sequential statements in a program

$$\bullet f_1(n) = O(g_1(n)), f_2(n) = O(g_2(n))$$

$$f_1(n) + f_2(n) = O(\max(g_1(n), g_2(n))$$

■Examples:

$$f_1(n) = O(n), f_2(n) = O(n^2)$$

$$f_1(n) + f_2(n) =$$

•
$$f_1(n) = O(n), f_2(n) = O(n)$$

$$f_1(n) + f_2(n) =$$

Rule of Product

- ■Used in time analysis of **nested loops**
- $\bullet f_1(n) = O(g_1(n)), f_2(n) = O(g_2(n))$
 - $f_1(n) \times f_2(n) = O(g_1(n) \times g_2(n))$
- **■**Examples:
 - $f_1(n) = O(n), f_2(n) = O(n)$
 - $f_1(n) \times f_2(n) = O(n^2)$.

Complexity of Binary Search

- Analysis of the while loop:
 - Iteration 1: n values to be searched
 - Iteration 2: n/2 left for searching
 - Iteration 3: n/4 left for searching
 - **...**
 - Iteraton k+1: n/(2^k) left for searching
 - When $n/(2^k) = 1$, searching must finish.
 - $n = 2^k$
 - \bullet k = $\log_2 n$
 - Hence, worst-case running time of binary search is

Notation: Omega (Ω)

- Definition
 - $\bullet f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$
 - iff there exist c, $n_0>0$ such that $f(n) \ge c g(n)$ for all all $n \ge n_0$
- **■**Examples:
 - $3n + 2 = \Omega(n)$
 - 3n+2 ≥
 - $100n + 6 = \Omega(n)$
 - 100n+6 ≥
 - $\blacksquare 10n^2 + 4n + 2 = \Omega(n^2)$
 - \blacksquare 10n² + 4n + 2 ≥

Notation: Theta(Θ)

- Definition
 - \bullet f(n) = Θ (g(n))
 - iff f(n) = O(g(n)) and $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$
- Examples
 - 3n + 2 =
 - 100n + 6 =
 - $-10n^2 + 4n + 2 =$

Performance Measurement

- ■Obtain actual space and time requirement when running a program.
- ■How to do time measurement in codes?
 - Method 1: Use clock(), measured in clock ticks
 - Method 2: Use time(), measured in seconds
- ■To time a short program
 - Repeat it many times
 - Take the average.