Algorithms

And data structures

When we analyse an algorithm we want to know

* Execution time
* Memory use

Typically we want to know how space and time requirements increase with the size of the input. Ideally we would like our algorithm’s space requirements to be a constant factor of the input size and the execution time to be independend of the input size.

When we analyze the execution time of an algorithm we can determine the total time requirements by considering two factors

* Time taken to execute each statement
* Frequence of execution of each statement.

By multiplying the two items together for each statement and summing we get the total cost of executing a given piece of code. While the former is determined by the compiler, the OS and the machine the latter is a function of the code or algorithm itself. By focussing on the latter we can determine the general execution time characteristic of an algoriothm irrespective of the language it is implements in or the machine it runs on. In cases where the frequency of execution give us a complex expression such as While it possible to calculate such an expression in many practical situations it is not worh the effort. The multiplicative constants and lower order terms are insignificant compared to the input size. If the input size is sufficiently large we can focus on the **order of growth** of therunning time. When we study the aymptotic efficiency of an algorithm we are looking at how the running time increases with the input size in the limit as the input size increases.

is an asymototically tight bound for

we ignore the lower order terms using the following notation

Which means

We talk about the order of growth of the algorithm as the input size N grows. The following table shows some of the most important order of growth functions.

Order Of Growth Examples

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Name | Function | Code | Descrip | Example |
| Constant |  | int a =10; | *statement* | *assignment* |
| Logarithmic |  |  | *halfing* | *binary search* |
| Linear |  | for (int i = 0; i < 10; i++)  a+=i; | *loop* | *summing* |
| Linearithmic |  |  | *divide and conquer* | *sorting* |
| Quadratic |  |  | *double loop* | *pair checking* |
| Cubic |  |  | *Triple loop* | *triple checking* |
| Exponential |  |  |  |  |

All of these functions, except for the exponential case can be described by the following expression

Where a,b,c are constants. Typically we do not state the base of the logarithm as a logarithm in one base can be converted to a logarithm in another base using a constant. So we can absorb this with the constant a in our previous expression,

## Analysying Algorithms

## Iterative Algorithm (Insertion Sort)

}

}

public override void Sort<T>(T[] a)

{

if (a == null || a.Length == 1) return;

for (int j = 1; j < a.Length; j++)

{

T key = a[j];

int i = j - 1;

while (i >= 0 && Less(key, a[i]))

{

a[i + 1] = a[i];



}

a[i + 1] = key;

}

}

A general expression for the running time is then given by as follows. Note that the test conditions on the loops execute one more time than the body of the loop as they will execute on one iteration when the test fails.

+

In the worst case scenario and our expression becomes

+

From the properties of series we know that

## Recursive Algorithm (Merge Sort)

## We will consider Sorting

different sorting algorithms in turn. Before we do the following table shows when we might want to use each one

Appropriate Sorting Algorithm

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Description | Algorithm |
| Small number of elements | Insertion Sort |
| The collection is already mainly sorted | Insertion sort |
| Easy to code | Insertion sort / Selection sort |
| Want very good average case behaviour | Quick sort |
| The algorithm must be stable | Merge sort |
| Need good performance in worst case | Heap sort |
|  |  |

Stable Sort

A stable sort keeps elements with the same key in the same order relative to each other in the sorted output

### Insertion Sort

Insertion sort works much like one would sort ones hand in bridge.

public override void Sort<T>(T[] a)

{

if (a == null || a.Length == 1) return;

for (int i = 1; i < a.Length; i++)

{

for (int j = i; j > 0 && Less(a[j], a[j - 1]); j--)

{

Switch(a, j - 1, j);

}

}

}

public override void Sort<T>(T[] a)

{

if (a == null || a.Length == 1) return;

for (int i = 1; i < a.Length; i++)

{

for (int j = i; j > 0 && Less(a[j], a[j - 1]); j--)

{

Switch(a, j - 1, j);

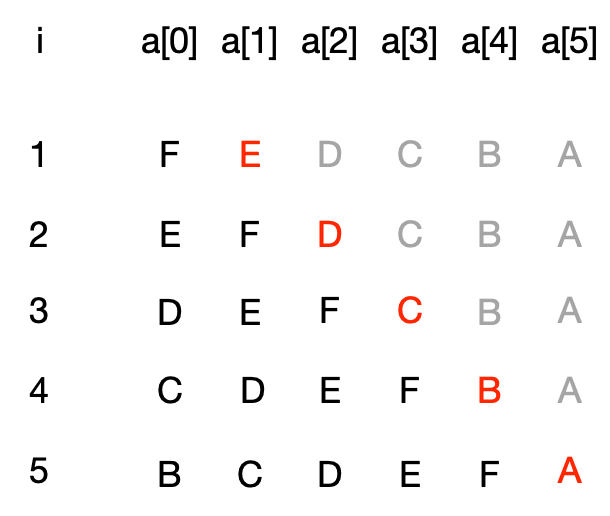
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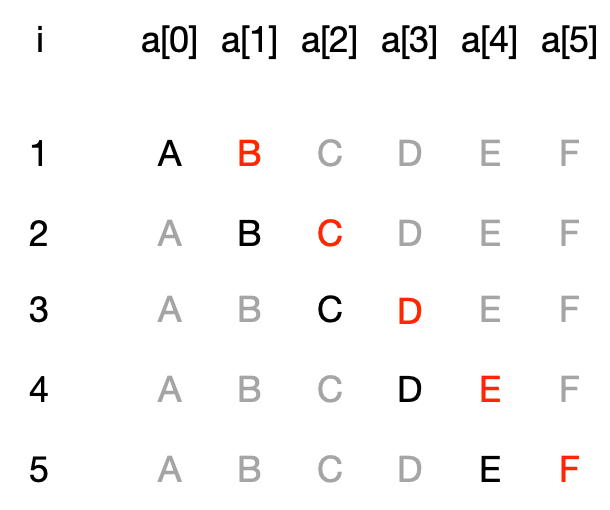
#### Worst Case

In the worst case the number of comparisons is given by The following diagram shows why. We have



#### Best Case

In the best case we have comparisons



#### Average Case

On the average case we will need to do

In the worst case insertion requires the following number of comparisons. First we remind ourselves of the result that the sum of the first n integers is given by

#### Sum of First N INtegers

**Base Case**

Show the hypothesis hold for n = 0

**Inductive hypothesis**

Asuume P(k) hold for some unspecified value of k

Show that if the hypothesis holds for k it holds for k+1. We need to show that

Using the inductive hypothesis the left hand side can be written as

Re-arraging this we get

Factoring out on the numerator

#### Sum of First N-1 INtegers

Let

Proof by induction

### Selection Sort

### Merge Sort

### Quick Sort