MIT Art Design and Technology University MIT School of Computing, Pune



18BTCS601- Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Class - T.Y. (SEM-II), Core

Unit – I Fundamentals of Algorithms

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AY 2022-2023 SEM-II



Unit I - Syllabus



Unit – Fundamentals of Algorithms

09 hours

- Problem solving principles: Classification of problem, problem solving strategies: Brute force Approach
- Classification of time complexities (linear, logarithmic etc.), asymptotic notations, Lower bound and upper bound: Best case, worst case, average case analysis
- Amortized analysis
- Recurrences: Formulation and solving recurrence equations using Master Theorem



Unit 1 - Outline

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INTRODUCTION TO ALGORITHMS

- Def: An algorithm is a procedure that takes any of the possible input instances and produces desired output.
- In other words, 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.
- An algorithm is a finite set of instructions that accomplishes a particular task.



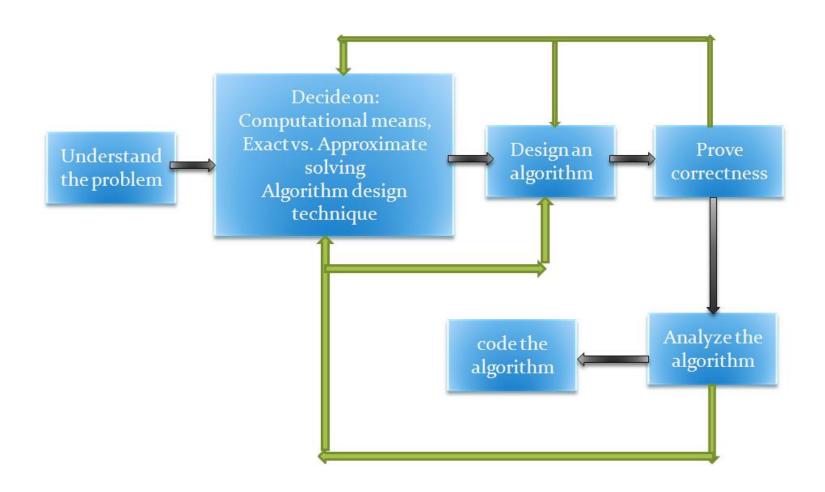
PROPERTIES OF ALGORITHMS

- Finiteness
- Correctness
- Robustness



- Input: Must take an input, i.e., zero or more quantities are externally supplied
- Output: Must give some output, i.e., at least one quantity is produced.
- Definiteness: Each instruction is clear and unambiguous
- Finiteness: Finite number of steps
- Effectiveness: Simple instructions, i.e., instruction is basic enough to be carried out

FUNDAMENTALS OF ALGORITHMIC PROBLEMING SOLVING



FUNDAMENTALS OF ALGORITHMIC PROBLEM PUNIC SOLVING

Steps in designing and analysing an algorithm

- 1. Understanding the Problem
- 2. Ascertaining the Capabilities of the Computational Device
- 3. Choosing between Exact and Approximate Problem Solving
- 4. Deciding on appropriate Data Structures
- 5. Algorithm Design Techniques
- 6. Methods of Specifying an Algorithm
- 7. Proving an Algorithm's Correctness
 Once an algorithm has been specified, you have to prove its correctness.
- 8. Analyzing an Algorithm

Time efficiency
Space efficiency

9. Coding an algorithm



FUNDAMENTALS OF ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

The Analysis Framework

- >Time efficiency, also called time complexity, indicates how fast an algorithm in question runs.
- ➤ Space efficiency, also called space complexity, refers to the amount of memory units required by the algorithm in addition to the space needed for its input and output.

Measuring an Input's Size

"The choice of an appropriate size metric can be influenced by operations of the algorithm in question."

 An input to an algorithm specifies an instance of the problem to be solved



FUNDAMENTALS OF ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

Units for Measuring Running Time

- ➤We can use standard unit of time measurement—a second, or millisecond, and so on
- > Drawbacks:
 - dependence on the speed of a particular computer,
 - dependence on the quality of a program implementing the algorithm and
 - the compiler used in generating the machine code
- We need to identify most important operation of the algorithm, called the basic operation
- The operation contributing the most to the total running time, and compute the number of times the basic operation is executed

INTRODUCTION TO BRUTE FORCE APPROACH

- Def: This algorithm simply tries all possibilities until a satisfactory solution is found.
- Such an algorithm can be:
 - Optimizing: Find the best solution.
 - Satisficing: Stop as soon as a solution is found that is good enough.



BRUTE FORCE APPROACH



A Padlock



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TYPES OF TIME COMPLEXITY

• O(1)

• O(2n)

• O(log n)

• O(3n)

• O(n)

• O(n2)

• O(nⁿ)

• O(n3)



ORDERS OF GROWTH

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

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

| 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} | | |

Algorithms that require an exponential number of operations are practical for solving only problems of very small sizes.



ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

- We established that it is reasonable to measure an algorithm's efficiency as a function of a parameter indicating the size of the algorithm's input.
- But there are many algorithms for which running time depends not only on an input size but also on the specifics of a particular input.
- Worst-Case, Best-Case, and Average-Case Efficiencies



ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

- The *worst-case efficiency* of an algorithm is its efficiency for the worst-case input of size *n*, which is an input (or inputs) of size *n* for which the algorithm runs the longest among all possible inputs of that size.
- The **best-case efficiency** of an algorithm is its efficiency for the best-case input of size *n*, which is an input (or inputs) of size *n* for which the algorithm runs the fastest among all possible inputs of that size.
- The *average-case efficiency* cannot be obtained by taking the average of the worst-case and the best-case efficiencies.



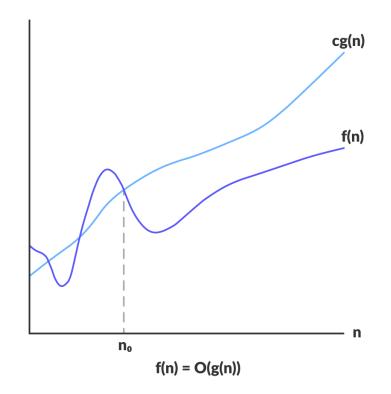
ASYMPTOTIC NOTATIONS

- The efficiency analysis framework concentrates on the order of growth of an **algorithm's basic operation** count as the principal indicator of the algorithm's efficiency.
- Time Complexity is expressed with the help of some notations, known as Asymptotic notations. These include:
 - Big-Oh Notation
 - Big Omega Notation
 - Theta Notation



ASYMPTOTIC NOTATIONS: Big-oh (O) Notation

f(n) = O(g(n)) if $0 \le f(n) \le a*g(n)$; $\forall n \ge b$ where a and b are constants





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Ex: Prove that $\log n! = O(n \log n)$



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Ex: Prove that $\log n! = O(n \log n)$

Solution:
$$n! = 1.2.3....n \le n.n.n...n = n^n$$

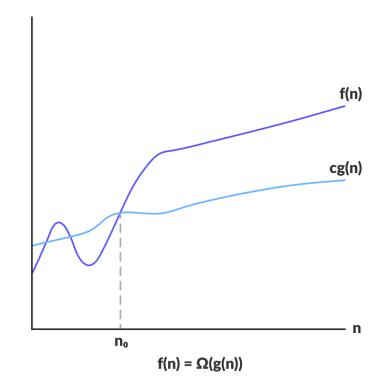
$$n! \le n^n \Rightarrow log n! \le nlog n$$

$$\Rightarrow log n! = O(nlog n)$$

ASYMPTOTIC NOTATIONS: $Big ext{-}Omega$ (Ω) Notation

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 $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ if $0 \le a*g(n) \le f(n)$; $\forall n \ge b$ where a and b are positive constants



ASYMPTOTIC NOTATIONS: Big-Omega (Ω) Notation

 $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ if $0 \le a*g(n) \le f(n)$; $\forall n \ge b$ where a and b are positive constants

Ex: Prove that $7n^2 = \Omega$ (n)

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Solution:
$$\frac{1}{n+n} = \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{n+n} = \frac{1}{n+n$$

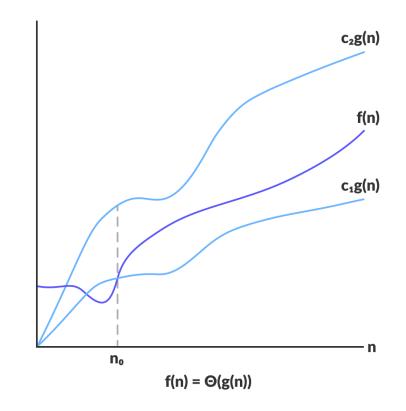
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ASYMPTOTIC NOTATIONS: Theta (Θ) Notation

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$$
 if

- f(n) = O(g(n))
- $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$





ASYMPTOTIC NOTATIONS: Theta (Θ) Notation

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$$
 if

Ex: Prove that $t(n) = 10n^4 - 50n^3 + 200n^2 - 1000n = \Theta(n^4)$

- f(n) = O(g(n))
- $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$



ASYMPTOTIC NOTATIONS: Theta (Θ) Notation

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$$
 if

•
$$f(n) = O(g(n))$$

•
$$f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$$

Ex: Prove that
$$t(n) = 10n^4 - 50n^3 + 200n^2 - 1000n = \Theta(n^4)$$

Solution: first we prove $t(n) = O(n^4)$ thun prove $t(n) = \Omega(n^4)$
 N_{DD} , $t(n) \leq 10n^4 + 200n^2 \leq n^4(10 + \frac{200}{n^2}) \leq n^4(10 + \frac{200}{100n^2})$
 $t(n) = \Omega(g(n))$
 $t(n) = \frac{1000}{100} + \frac{1000}{100} = \frac{1000}{100}$
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- Amortized Analysis is used for algorithms where an <u>occasional</u> operation is very slow, but most of the other operations are faster.
- In Amortized Analysis, we analyze a sequence of operations and guarantee a worst case average time which is lower than the worst case time of a particular expensive operation.
- For example, data structures whose operations are analyzed using Amortized Analysis are Hash Tables, Disjoint Sets and Splay Trees.



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MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS OF RECURSIVALGORITHMS

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• Example 1: Compute the factorial function F(n) = n! for an arbitrary non-negative integer n. since,

$$n! = 1 \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-1) \cdot n = (n-1)! \cdot n$$
 for $n \ge 1$

• And *O!=1* by definition, we can compute F(n)=F(n-1).n with the following recursive algorithm

```
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
```

GENERAL PLAN FOR ANALYZING THE TIME EFFICIENCY OF RECURSIVE ALGORITHMS

- Decide on a parameter (or parameters) indicating an input's size.
- Identify the algorithm's basic operation.
- Check whether the number of times the basic operation is executed can vary on different inputs of the same size; if it can, the worst-case, average-case, and best-case efficiencies must be investigated separately.
- Set up a recurrence relation, with an appropriate initial condition, for the number of times the basic operation is executed.
- Solve the recurrence



TIME COMPLEXITY OF RECURSIVE ALGORITHMS

- Recurrence relation can be solved by different methods like:
 - Method of Substitution
 - Master's Theorem
 - Recursion Tree
 - Change of Variable



SUBSTITUTION ALGORITHMS

- The substitution method is a condensed way of proving an asymptotic bound on a recurrence by induction.
- Instead of trying to find an exact closed-form solution, we can only try
 to find a closed-form bound on the recurrence.
- It is an algebraic method to solve simultaneous linear equations.
- As the word says, in this method, the value of one variable from one equation is substituted in the other equation.



MASTER'S THEOREM

 The master's method is a formula for solving recurrence relations of the form:

$$T(n) = aT(n/b) + f(n) , where:$$

- n = size of input
- a = number of subproblems in the recursion
- n/b = size of each subproblem.
- All subproblems are assumed to have the same size.



MASTER'S THEOREM

Example 1:

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$



Example 2:

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$$



Example 3:

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$$



Example 4:

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



Example 5:

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



Example 6:

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



Example 7:

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



Example 8:

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n$$



Example 9:

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^2$$



Example 10:

$$T(n) = 4T(n/2) + n^3$$



Example 11:

$$T(n) = T(9n/10) + n$$



Example 12:

$$T(n) = T(9n/10) + n^2$$



Example 13:

$$T(n) = T(9n/10) + n^3$$



Example 14:

$$T(n) = 8T(n/4) + n$$



Example 15:

$$T(n) = 8T(n/4) + n^2$$



Example 16:

$$T(n) = 8T(n/4) + n^3$$



Example 17:

$$T(n) = 3T(2n/6) + n$$



Example 18:

$$T(n) = 3T(2n/6) + n^2$$



Example 19:

$$T(n) = 3T(2n/6) + n^3$$



Example 20:

$$T(n) = 16T(n/8) + n$$



Example 21:

$$T(n) = 16T(n/8) + n^2$$



Example 22:

$$T(n) = 16T(n/8) + n^3$$



Example 23:

$$T(n) = 16T(n/8) + n^4$$