CS 421: Design and Analysis of Algorithms

Chapter 2: Introduction to Design & Analysis of Algorithms

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Content of this Chapter

- > Algorithm: Insertion Sort
- Analyzing Algorithms
- Designing Algorithms

The problem of sorting

Input: sequence $\langle a_1, a_2, ..., a_n \rangle$ of numbers.

Output: permutation $\langle a'_1, a'_2, ..., a'_n \rangle$ such that $a'_1 \le a'_2 \le \cdots \le a'_n$.

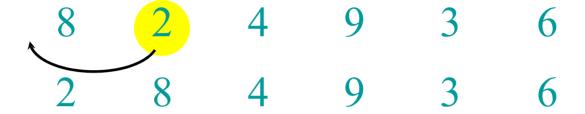
Example:

Input: 8 2 4 9 3 6

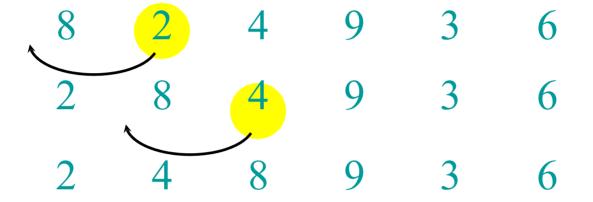
Output: 2 3 4 6 8 9

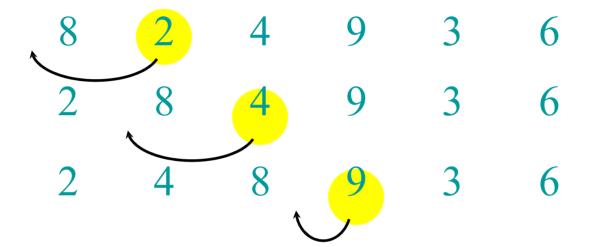
8 2 4 9 3 6

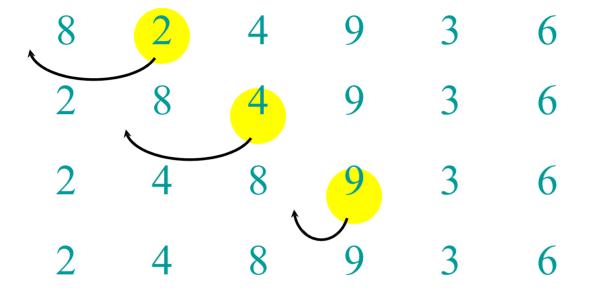


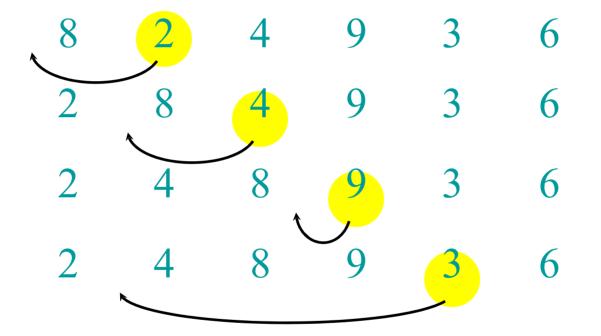


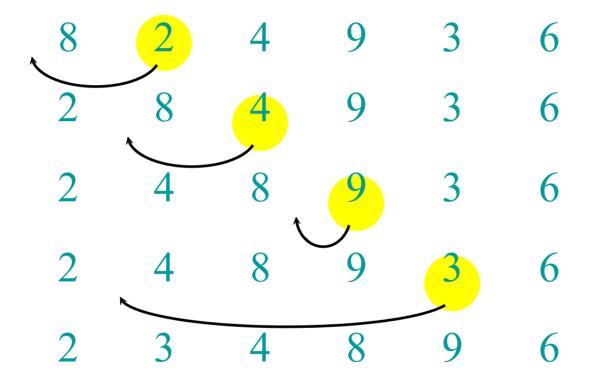


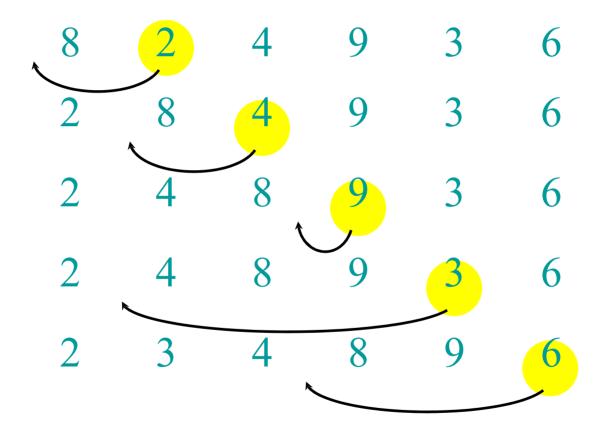


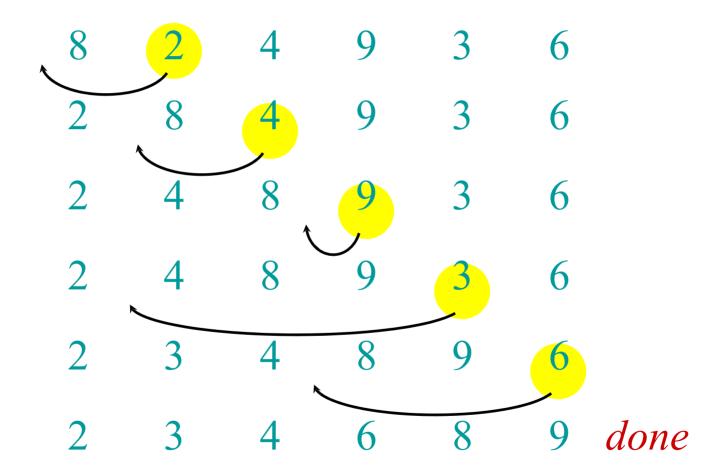












Insertion Sort

"pseudocode"

```
INSERTION-SORT (A, n) \triangleleft A[1 ... n]

for j \leftarrow 2 to n

do key \leftarrow A[j]

i \leftarrow j - 1

while i > 0 and A[i] > key

do A[i+1] \leftarrow A[i]

i \leftarrow i - 1

A[i+1] = key
```

Insertion Sort

 $\triangleleft A[1 \dots n]$ INSERTION-SORT (A, n)for $j \leftarrow 2$ to n**do** $key \leftarrow A[j]$ $i \leftarrow j - 1$ "pseudocode" while i > 0 and A[i] > key**do** $A[i+1] \leftarrow A[i]$ $i \leftarrow i - 1$ A[i+1] = keynA: sorted

Content of this Chapter

Algorithm: Insertion Sort

- > Analyzing Algorithms
- Designing Algorithms

Analysis of algorithms

The theoretical study of computer-program performance and resource usage.

What's more important than performance?

- modularity
- correctness
- maintainability
- functionality
- robustness

- user-friendliness
- programmer time
- simplicity
- extensibility
- reliability

Why study algorithms and performance?

- Algorithms help us to understand *scalability*.
- Performance often draws the line between what is feasible and what is impossible.
- Algorithmic mathematics provides a *language* for talking about program behavior.
- Performance is the *currency* of computing.
- The lessons of program performance generalize to other computing resources.

Running time

- The running time depends on the *input*: an already sorted sequence is easier to sort.
- Parameterize the running time by the size of the input, since short sequences are easier to sort than long ones.
- Generally, we seek *upper bounds* on the running time, because everybody likes a guarantee.

Kinds of analyses

Worst-case: (usually)

• T(n) = maximum time of algorithm on any input of size n.

Average-case: (sometimes)

- T(n) = expected time of algorithm over all inputs of size n.
- Need assumption of statistical distribution of inputs.

Best-case: (bogus)

• Cheat with a slow algorithm that works fast on *some* input.

Machine-independent time

What is insertion sort's worst-case time?

- It depends on the speed of our computer:
 - relative speed (on the same machine),
 - absolute speed (on different machines).

BIG IDEA:

- Ignore machine-dependent constants.
- Look at *growth* of T(n) as $n \to \infty$.

"Asymptotic Analysis"

Θ-notation

Math:

```
\Theta(g(n)) = \{ f(n) : \text{there exist positive constants } c_1, c_2, \text{ and} 

n_0 \text{ such that } 0 \le c_1 g(n) \le f(n) \le c_2 g(n) 

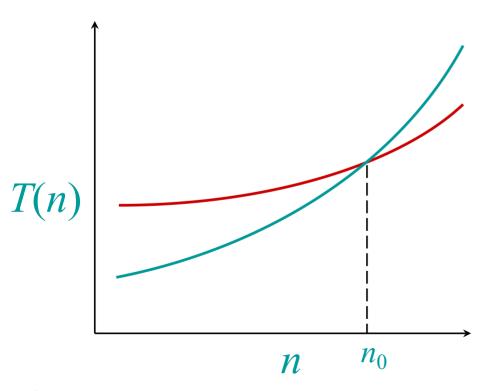
for all n \ge n_0 \}
```

Engineering:

- Drop low-order terms
- Ignore leading constants.
- Example: $3n^3 + 90n^2 5n + 6046 = \Theta(n^3)$

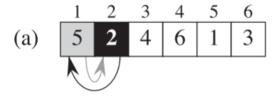
Asymptotic performance

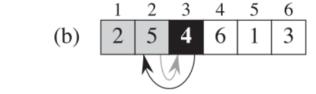
When *n* gets large enough, a $\Theta(n^2)$ algorithm *always* beats a $\Theta(n^3)$ algorithm.

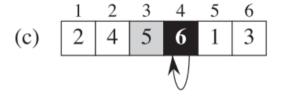


- We shouldn't ignore asymptotically slower algorithms, however.
- Real-world design situations often call for a careful balancing of engineering objectives.
- Asymptotic analysis is a useful tool to help to structure our thinking.

Insertion Sort: another example







```
INSERTION-SORT(A)
                                                times
                                         cost
   for i = 2 to A. length
                                         C_1
                                                n
                                         c_2 n-1
  key = A[j]
   // Insert A[j] into the sorted
          sequence A[1..j-1].
                                         0 	 n-1
                                         c_4 n-1
4 	 i = j - 1
                                        c_5 \qquad \sum_{j=2}^n t_j
 while i > 0 and A[i] > key
                                         c_6 \qquad \sum_{i=2}^{n} (t_i - 1)
6
         A[i + 1] = A[i]
                                         c_7 \qquad \sum_{i=2}^{n} (t_i - 1)
  i = i - 1
     A[i+1] = key
                                              n-1
                                         C_8
```

$$T(n) = c_1 n + c_2 (n-1) + c_4 (n-1) + c_5 \sum_{j=2}^{n} t_j + c_6 \sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_j - 1) + c_7 \sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_j - 1) + c_8 (n-1)$$

$$T(n) = c_1 n + c_2(n-1) + c_4(n-1) + c_5 \sum_{j=2}^{n} t_j + c_6 \sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_j - 1) + c_7 \sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_j - 1) + c_8(n-1)$$

Best case: Input already sorted.

$$\rightarrow t_j = 1$$

$$T(n) = (c_1 + c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8)n - (c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8)$$

$$\rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n)$$

$$T(n) = c_1 n + c_2 (n-1) + c_4 (n-1) + c_5 \sum_{j=2}^{n} t_j + c_6 \sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_j - 1) + c_7 \sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_j - 1) + c_8 (n-1)$$

Worst case: Input reverse sorted.

$$\rightarrow t_j = j$$

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

$$T(n) = \left(\frac{c_5}{2} + \frac{c_6}{2} + \frac{c_7}{2}\right)n^2 + \left(c_1 + c_2 + c_4 + \frac{c_5}{2} - \frac{c_6}{2} - \frac{c_7}{2} + c_8\right)n - (c_2 + c_4 + c_5 + c_8)$$

$$\rightarrow T(n) = \Theta(n^2)$$

$$T(n) = c_1 n + c_2 (n-1) + c_4 (n-1) + c_5 \sum_{j=2}^{n} t_j + c_6 \sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_j - 1) + c_7 \sum_{j=2}^{n} (t_j - 1) + c_8 (n-1)$$

Average case: All permutations equally likely.

$$t_j = j/2$$

$$T(n) = \sum_{j=2}^{n} \Theta(j/2) = \Theta(n^2)$$

Loop Invariant

- □ Loop invariant is a statement that helps show an algorithm is correct.
- ☐ Three things must be shown about a loop invariant:
 - **Initialization**: It is true prior to the *first* iteration of the loop.
 - **Maintenance**: If it is true before <u>an</u> iteration of the loop, it remains true after *the* iteration and before the next iteration.
 - **Termination**: When the loop terminates, the invariant gives us a useful property that helps show that the algorithm is correct.

Correctness of Insertion Sort

Loop Invariant:

At the start of each iteration of the **for** loop of lines 1–8, the subarray A[1, ..., j-1] consists of the elements originally in A[1, ..., j-1] but in sorted order.

> Proof:

- Initialization. Since the first iteration of the loop starts at j=2, we are concerned with subarray A[1, j-1] = A[1,1]:
 - Subarray A[1, 1] consists of just the single element A[1], which is the original element in A[1, 1].
 - Subarray A[1,1] is already sorted (A[1] is the only element in the subarray).

Correctness of Insertion Sort (continue)

- Maintenance. When the next iteration of the for loop is j = k, where $2 \le k \le n$, then the while loop (lines 4–7) keeps moving A[k] one position to the left until it finds the proper position for it, at which point it inserts the value of A[k] (line 8). At the start of iteration k+1 of the for loop:
 - The subarray A[1, k] consists of the elements originally in A[1, k], and
 - The elements in the subarray A[1, k] are already sorted.
- **Termination.** The **for** loop terminates when j = n+1. After iteration n completes and before we start evaluating the condition for iteration n+1:
 - The subarray A[1, n] consists of the elements originally in A[1, n], and
 - The elements in the subarray A[1, n] are already sorted.

Since the subarray A[1, n] is the entire array, we conclude that the entire array is sorted.

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Insertion sort efficiency

Is insertion sort a fast sorting algorithm?

- Moderately so, for small *n*.
- Not at all, for large *n*.

In *insertion sort*, we used *incremental* algorithm design technique.

Divide-and-conquer Technique

Why divide-and-conquer?

- Many useful algorithms are *recursive* in structure.
- Recursive algorithms typically follow a <u>divide-and-conquer</u> approach: they (1) <u>break</u> the problem into several *subproblems* that are *similar* to the original problem but *smaller* in size, (2) <u>solve</u> the subproblems *recursively*, and (3) <u>combine</u> these solutions to create a solution to the original problem.

Divide-and-conquer Technique

The divide-and-conquer approach involves *three* steps at each level of the recursion:

- **Divide** the problem into a number of subproblems.
- Conquer the subproblems by solving them recursively.
- Combine the solutions to the subproblems into the solution for the original problem.

Analyzing divide-and-conquer algorithms

- We can often describe the runtime of a recursive function by a *recurrence equation*.
- A recurrence for the running time of a divideand-conquer algorithm falls out from the three steps of the basic paradigm: <u>divide</u>, <u>conquer</u>, and <u>combine</u>.

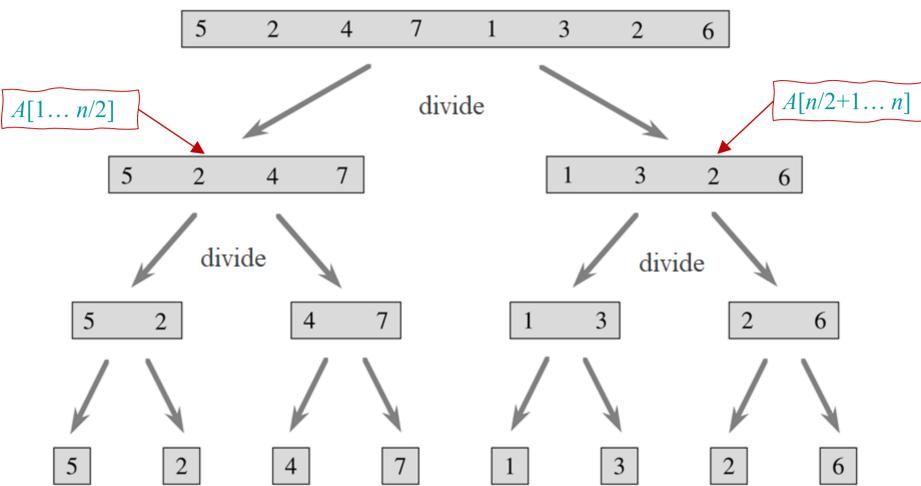
$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) & \text{if } n \leq c \text{ ,} & \text{Base case} \\ aT(n/b) + D(n) + C(n) & \text{otherwise .} \end{cases}$$
 Recursive case

Divide-and-conquer Algorithm: Merge sort

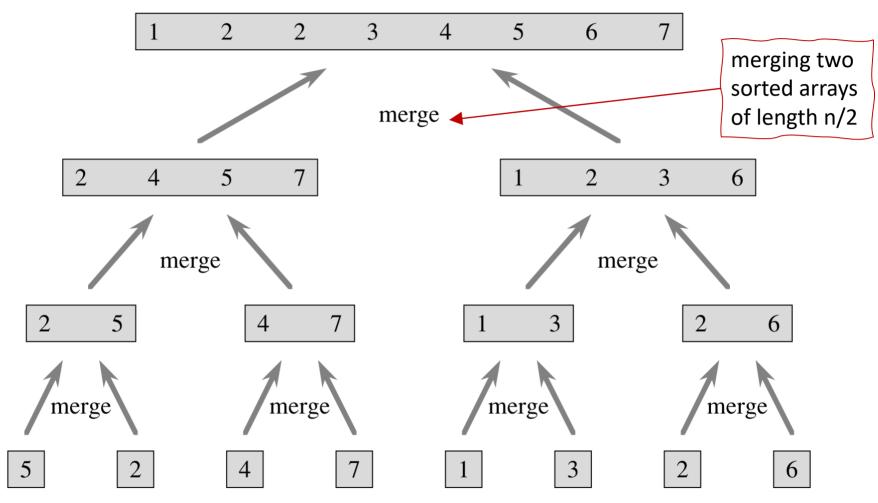
MERGE-SORT $A[1 \dots n]$

- 1. If n = 1, done.
- 2. Recursively sort $A[1 \dots n/2]$ and $A[n/2+1 \dots n]$.
- 3. "Merge" the 2 sorted lists.

initial sequence (input)



sorted sequence (output)



Merge sort

MERGE-SORT $A[1 \dots n]$

- 1. If n = 1, done.
- 2. Recursively sort $A[1 \dots n/2]$ and $A[n/2+1 \dots n]$.
- 3. "Merge" the 2 sorted lists.



Key function: Merge

Merge function

```
MERGE(A, p, q, r)
 1 \quad n_1 = q - p + 1
 2 n_2 = r - q
 3 let L[1..n_1 + 1] and R[1..n_2 + 1] be new arrays
 4 for i = 1 to n_1
 5 	 L[i] = A[p+i-1]
 6 for j = 1 to n_2
  R[j] = A[q+j]
                                        8 L[n_1 + 1] = \infty
 9 R[n_2 + 1] = \infty
                                                      (a)
10 i = 1
11 \quad j = 1
   for k = p to r
12
       if L[i] \leq R[j]
13
           A[k] = L[i]
14
15
           i = i + 1
16 else A[k] = R[j]
                                                       (b)
           j = j + 1
17
```

20 12

13 11

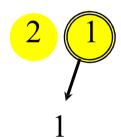
7 9

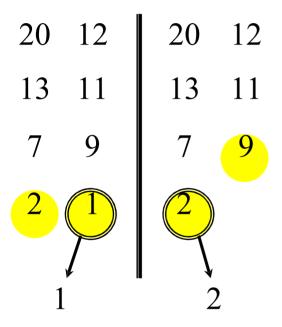
2 1

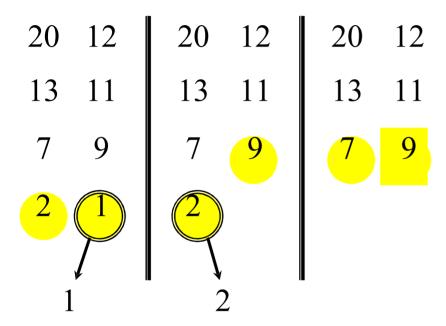
20 12

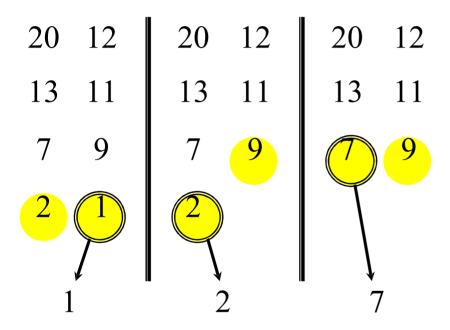
13 11

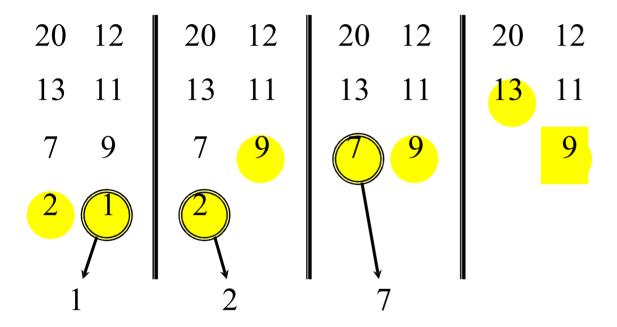
7 9

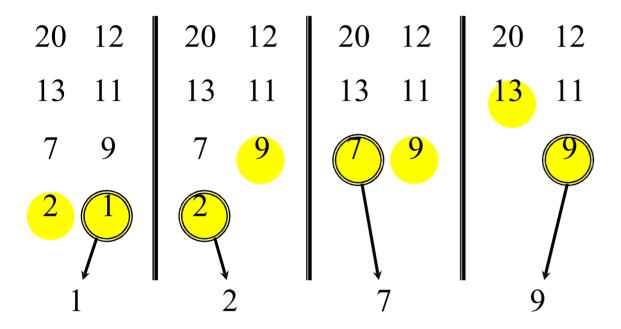


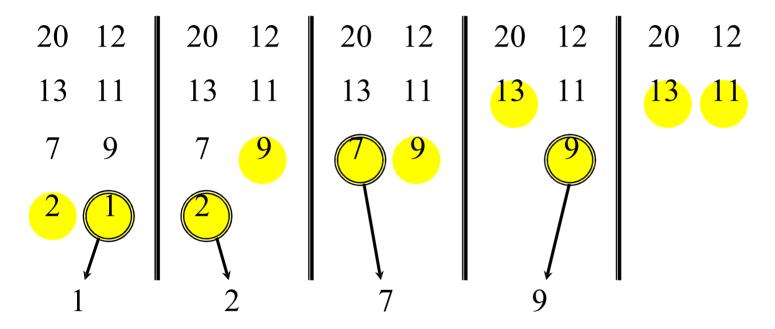


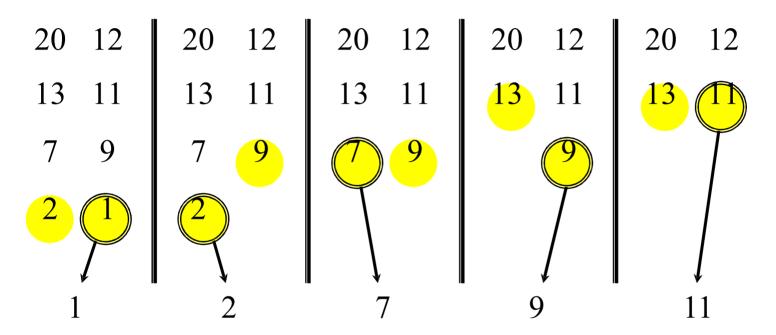


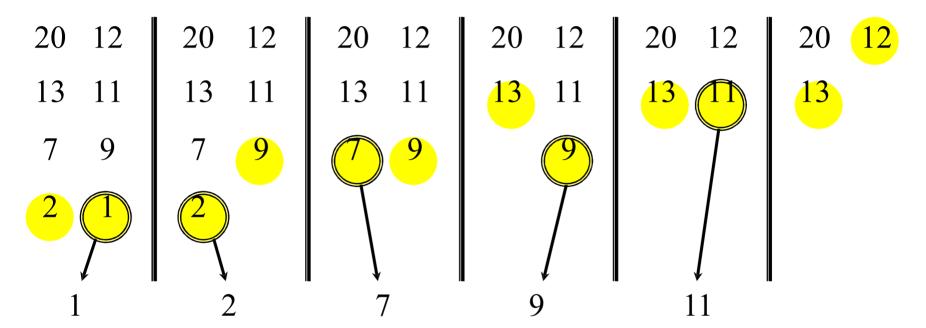


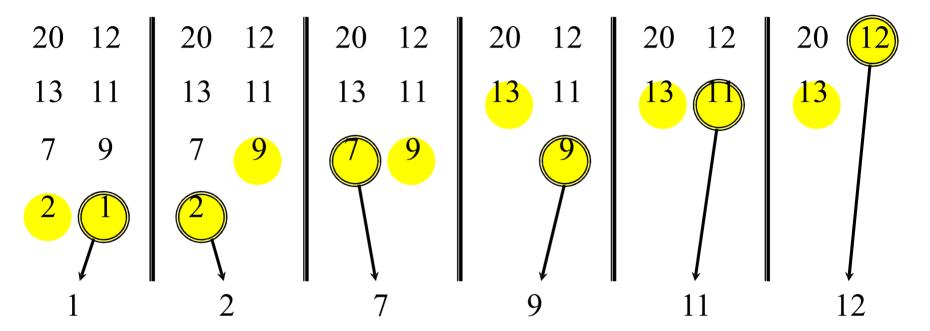


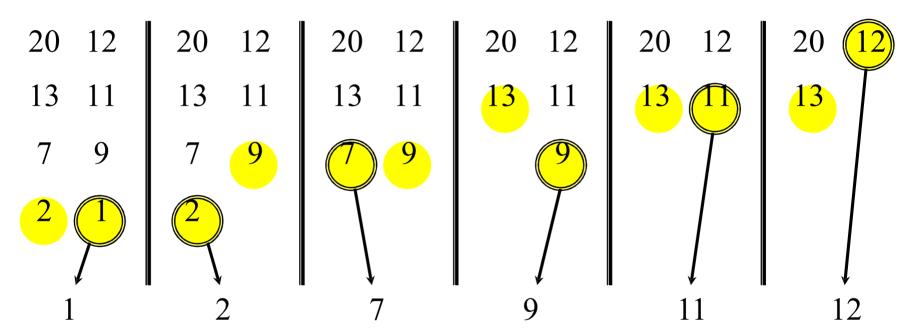












Time = $\Theta(n)$ to merge a total of n elements (linear time).

Analyzing Merge sort

```
T(n)MERGE-SORT A[1 ... n]\Theta(1)1. If n = 1, done.2T(n/2)2. Recursively sort A[1 ... n/2]<br/>and A[n/2+1 ... n].\Theta(n)3. "Merge" the 2 sorted lists
```

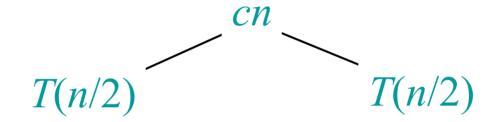
Sloppiness: Should be T(n/2) + T(n/2), but it turns out not to matter asymptotically.

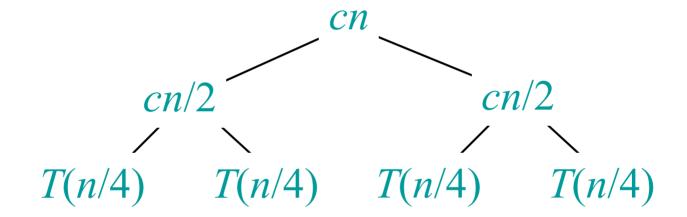
Recurrence for Merge sort

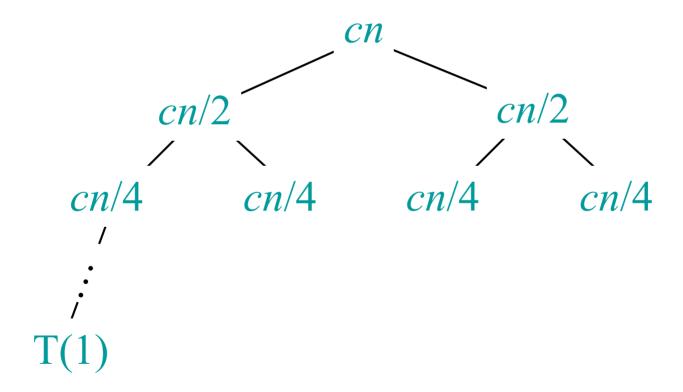
$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(1) \text{ if } n = 1; \\ 2T(n/2) + \Theta(n) \text{ if } n > 1. \end{cases}$$

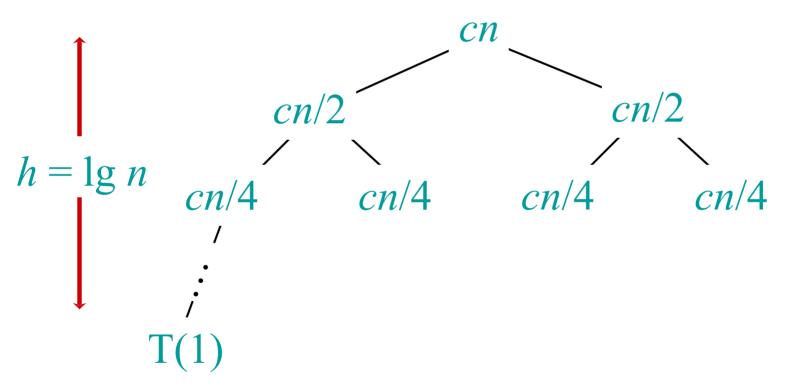
- We shall usually omit stating the base case when $T(n) = \Theta(1)$ for sufficiently small n, but only when it has no effect on the asymptotic solution to the recurrence.
- In coming lectures, we will explore several ways for finding a good upper bound (worst-case) on T(n).

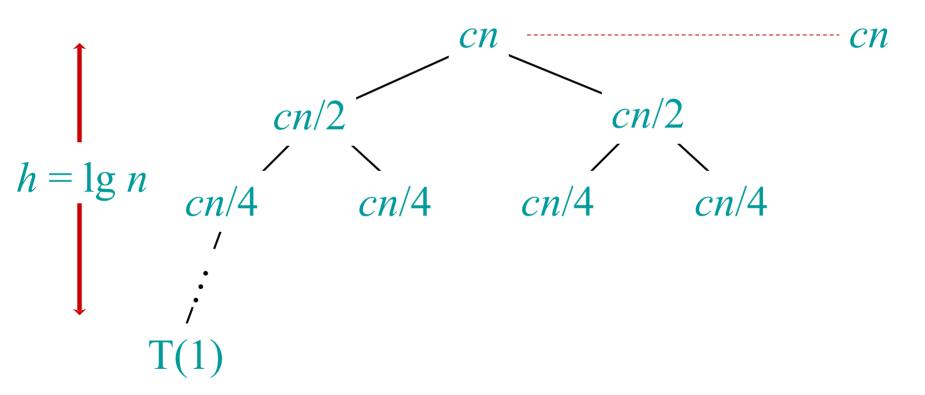
Solve
$$T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn$$
, where $c > 0$ is constant.
$$T(n)$$

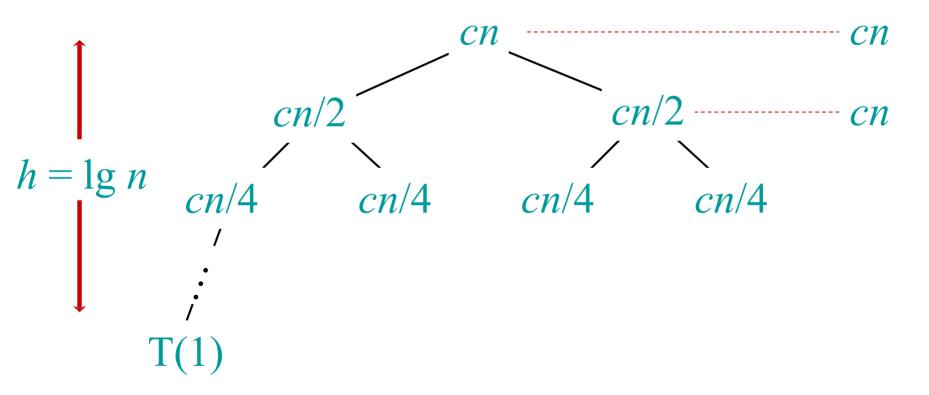


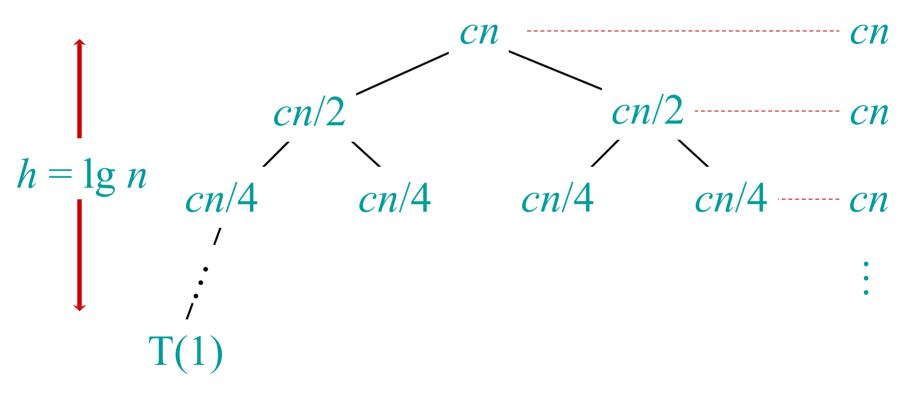




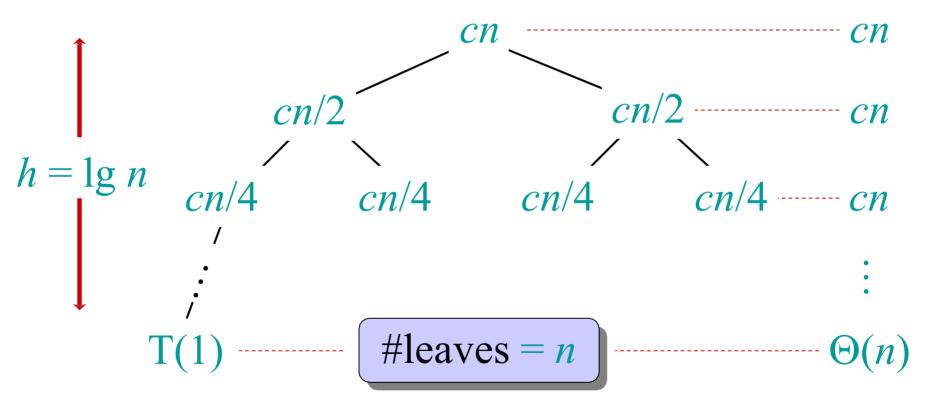




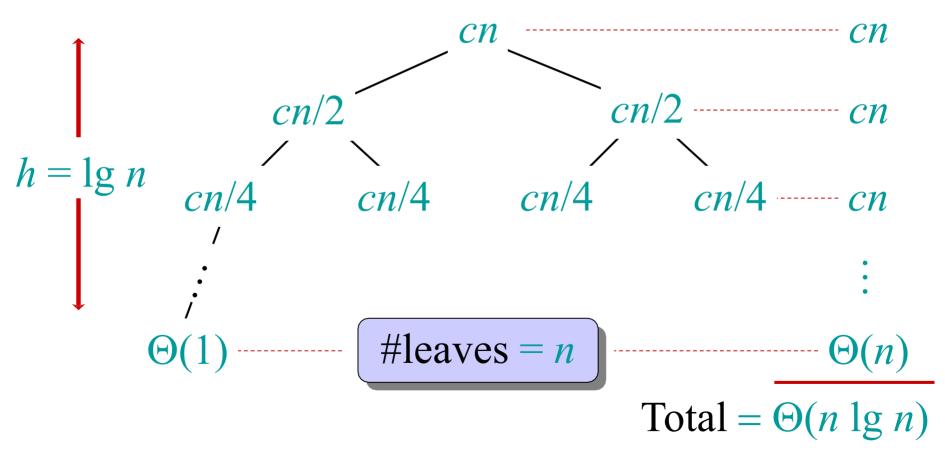




Solve T(n) = 2T(n/2) + cn, where c > 0 is constant.



Recall that: $T(1) = \Theta(1)$ if n = 1



Conclusions

• $\Theta(n \lg n)$ (merge sort) grows more slowly than $\Theta(n^2)$ (insertion sort).

• Therefore, merge sort asymptotically beats insertion sort in the worst case.

• In practice, merge sort beats insertion sort for n > 30 or so.