

# Introduction

1. Algorithms?
2. Order
3. Analysis of Algorithm
4. Some Mathematical Background

What is an **algorithm**?

Simple, unambiguous, mechanical procedure to carry out some task.

Why algorithm instead of program?

1. writing an algorithm is simpler (we don't need to worry about the detailed implementation, or the language syntax)
2. an algorithm is easier to read (if we write eg: an C program to solve a problem, then the other person cannot understand the idea of the problem solving unless he/she understands C).

## How to represent an algorithm?

1. Give a description in your own language, e.g. English, Spanish, ...
2. pseudo code
3. Graphical

## Example – multiplying two positive integers A and B

For example:  $45 * 19$

Usually:

$$\begin{array}{r} 45 \\ 19 \quad (x \\ \hline 405 \\ 45 \quad (+ \\ \hline 855 \end{array}$$

### A different algorithm:

Multiplier (A/2)	Multiplicand (B*2)	Result (pick numbers in column 2 when the corresponding number under the multiplier is odd)
45	19	19
22	38	
11	76	76
5	152	152
2	304	
1	608	608 (+)
		<hr/> 855

An instance of a problem is a specific assignment of values to the parameters. This algorithm can be used for multiplying any two positive integers, we say that (45, 19) is an **instance** of this problem. Most problems have infinite collection of instances. It's ok to define the **domain** (i.e. the set of instances) to be considered. And the algorithm should work for all instances in that domain. Although the above algorithm will not work if the first operand is negative, this does not invalidate the algorithm since (-45, 19) is not an instance of the problem being considered.

## Order:

Usually we use the **frequency count** to compare algorithms.  
Consider the following 3 programs:

(a)  
 $x \leftarrow x + y$

(b)  
for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do  
     $x \leftarrow x + y$   
end

(c)  
for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do  
    for  $j \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do  
         $x \leftarrow x + y$   
    end  
end

The frequency count of stmt  $x \leftarrow x + y$  is 1,  $n$ ,  $n^2$ .

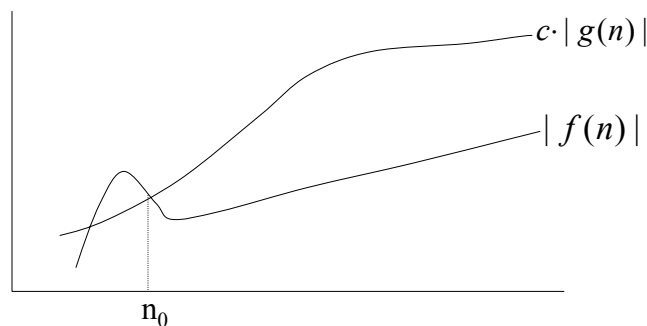
$\therefore$  no matter which machine we use to run these programs, we know that the execution time of (b) is  $n$  times the execution time of (a).

## Big-O Notation:

**Def**  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  if and only if  $\exists$  2 positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$ , such that

$$|f(n)| \leq c \cdot |g(n)| \quad \forall n \geq n_0.$$

So,  $g(n)$  actually is the upper bound of  $f(n)$ .

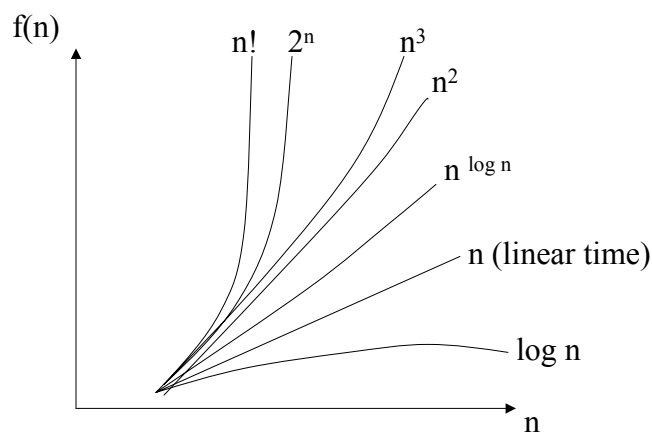


**Figure 1.** Illustrating “big O”

Examples:

- Is  $17n^2 - 5 = O(n^2)$ ?  
 $\therefore 17n^2 - 5 \leq 17n^2 \quad \forall n \geq 1$   
 $(c=17, n_0=1)$   
 $\therefore 17n^2 - 5 = O(n^2)$
- Is  $35n^3 + 100 = O(n^3)$ ?  
 $\therefore 35n^3 + 100 \leq 36n^3 \quad \forall n \geq 5$   
 $(c=36, n_0=5)$   
 $\therefore 35n^3 + 100 = O(n^3)$
- Is  $6 \cdot 2^n + n^2 = O(2^n)$ ?  
 $\therefore 6 \cdot 2^n + n^2 \leq 7 \cdot 2^n \quad \forall n \geq 5$   
 $(c=7, n_0=5)$   
 $\therefore 6 \cdot 2^n + n^2 = O(2^n)$

## Complexity classes



**Figure 2.** Growth rates of some important complexity classes

**Assume that we have a machine that can execute  
1,000,000 required operations per sec**

	Algorithm 1	Algorithm 2	Algorithm 3	Algorithm 4	Algorithm 5
<b>Frequency count</b>	$33n$	$6n \log n$	$13n^2$	$3.4n^3$	$2^n$
<b>n=10</b>	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec	< 1 sec
<b>n=10,000</b>	< 1 sec	6 sec	22 min	39 days	many many centuries

**Table 1.** Execution time for algorithms with the  
given time complexities

**Note:**

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \log n \\ n(\text{linear}) \\ n \log n \\ n^2 \\ n^3 \end{array} \right\}$  polynomial time (easy or tractable)

$\left. \begin{array}{l} 2n \\ n! \end{array} \right\}$  exponential time (hard or intractable)

How do we know a given problem is easy?

Give a polynomial time algorithm for the problem

- ♥ Need to be good in [design of algorithms \(CS530\)](#)
- ♥ Need to be good in [analysis of algorithms \(CS530\)](#)

How do we know a given problem is hard?

Show that it is as hard as those well-known “hard” problems.

- ♥ Need help from the [theory of NP Completeness \(CS530\)](#)

Whether your program is the best or not?  
(Comparing algorithms)

The problem: Counting the number of 1's in a n-bit string  
algorithms:

1.  $c \leftarrow 0$ ;  
   for  $i \leftarrow 1$  to  $n$  do  
      if  $b_i = 1$  then  $c \leftarrow c+1$ ;

Complexity:  $T(n) = O(n)$

2. Assume  $B = b_n b_{n-1} \dots b_2 b_1$

$c \leftarrow 0$ ;

while  $B \neq 0$  do

$c \leftarrow c+1$ ;

$B \leftarrow B \wedge (B-1)$ ;      (Note that  $\wedge$  is “logical and”)

Complexity:  $T(n) = O(\text{\# of 1's})$

eg:  $B = 100011$

$c \leftarrow 1$	100011	← B
	$\wedge$ ) 100010	← B-1
$c \leftarrow 2$	100010	← B'
	$\wedge$ ) 100001	← B'-1
$c \leftarrow 3$	100000	← B''
	$\wedge$ ) 011111	← B''-1
	000000	← B'''

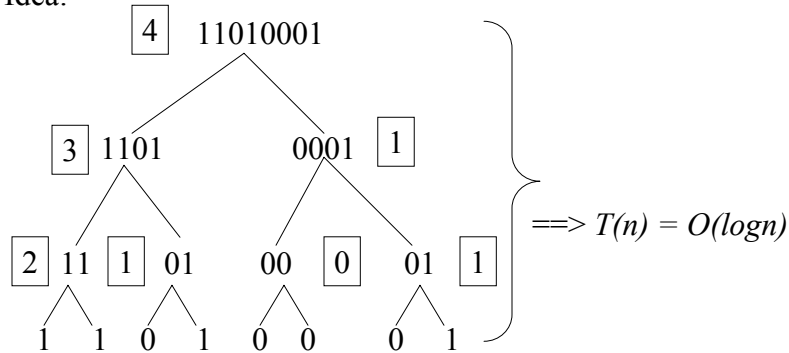
3. Can we do it in  $\log n$  time?

$B = 11010001$

	$b_8$	$b_7$	$b_6$	$b_5$	$b_4$	$b_3$	$b_2$	$b_1$
<b>B</b>	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
<b>Odd</b>		1		1		0		1
<b>Shift even to right</b>		<u>1</u>		<u>0</u>		<u>0</u>		<u>0</u>
<b><math>B^1 = B_{\text{odd}} + B_{\text{even}}</math></b>		10		01		00		01
<b>Odd</b>				01				01
<b>Shift even to right</b>				<u>10</u>				<u>00</u>
<b><math>B^2 = B_{\text{odd}} + B_{\text{even}}</math></b>				0011				0001
<b>Odd</b>								0001
<b>Shift even to right</b>								<u>0011</u>
<b><math>B^3 = B_{\text{odd}} + B_{\text{even}}</math></b>								0100



Idea:



Note:

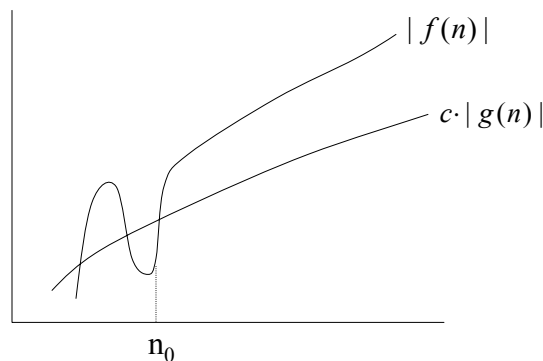
- The familiar machine that we used can only execute one operation in each step  $\Rightarrow$  sequential machine.
- This stated algorithm requires the machine to have more than one operation done in each step  $\Rightarrow$  parallel machine

### $\Omega$ Notation

**Def**  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$  iff  $\exists$  two positive constants  $c$  and  $n_0$ , such that

$$|f(n)| \geq c \cdot |g(n)| \quad \forall n \geq n_0$$

So,  $g(n)$  is the lower bound of  $f(n)$ .



**Figure 3.** Illustrating  $\Omega$

Examples:

• Is  $3n + 2 = \Omega(n)$  ?

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore 3n + 2 &\geq 3 \cdot n \quad \forall n \geq 1 \\ &\quad (c = 3, n_0 = 1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore 3n + 2 = \Omega(n)$$

• Is  $3n + 2 = \Omega(1)$  ?

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore 3n + 2 &\geq 1 \cdot 1 \quad \forall n \geq 1 \\ &\quad (c = 1, n_0 = 1) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore 3n + 2 = \Omega(1)$$

• Is  $6 \cdot 2^n + n^2 = \Omega(n^{100})$ ?

$$\therefore 6 \cdot 2^n + n^2 \geq ? n^{100} \quad \forall n \geq ?$$

value of  $n_0$   
↓

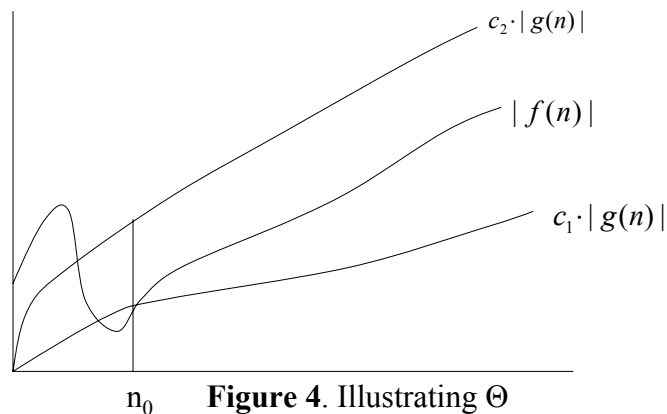
When  $n$  is bigger,  $2^n$  will grow faster than  $n^{100}$ . ( Yes, you can find  $n_0$  )

$$\therefore 6 \cdot 2^n + n^2 = \Omega(n^{100})$$

### $\Theta$ notation

**Def**  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  iff  $\exists$  three positive constants,  $c_1, c_2, n_0$ ,

such that  $c_1 \cdot |g(n)| \leq |f(n)| \leq c_2 \cdot |g(n)| \quad \forall n \geq n_0$ .



**Figure 4.** Illustrating  $\Theta$

### Examples:

- Is  $3n + 2 = \Theta(n)$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \quad 3n &\leq 3n + 2 \leq 4n & \forall n \geq 2 \\ & (c_1 = 3, c_2 = 4, n_0 = 2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \quad 3n + 2 = \Theta(n)$$

- Is  $3n + 2 = \Theta(n^2)$ ?

$$\therefore \quad 3n + 2 \neq \Omega(n^2)$$

$$\therefore \quad 3n + 2 \neq \Theta(n^2)$$

- Is  $6 \cdot 2^n + n^2 = \Theta(2^n)$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \quad 6 \cdot 2^n &\leq 6 \cdot 2^n + n^2 \leq 7 \cdot 2^n & \forall n \geq 4 \\ & (c_1 = 6, c_2 = 7, n_0 = 4) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \quad 6 \cdot 2^n + n^2 = \Theta(2^n)$$

- Is  $4n^3 + 3n^2 = \Theta(n^2)$  ?

$$\therefore \quad 4n^3 + 3n^2 \neq O(n^2)$$

$$\therefore \quad 4n^3 + 3n^2 \neq \Theta(n^2)$$

## Property of Order

### 1) Transitive:

If  $f(n) = O(g(n))$  and  $g(n) = O(h(n))$  then  $f(n) = O(h(n))$

If  $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$  and  $g(n) = \Omega(h(n))$  then  $f(n) = \Omega(h(n))$

If  $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$  and  $g(n) = \Theta(h(n))$  then  $f(n) = \Theta(h(n))$

### 2) Reflexive:

$$f(n) = O(f(n))$$

$$f(n) = \Omega(f(n))$$

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

### 3) Symmetric:

$$f(n) = \Theta(g(n)) \text{ iff } g(n) = \Theta(f(n))$$

$$f(n) = O(g(n)) \text{ iff } g(n) = \Omega(f(n))$$

## Analysis of Algorithms

### a) Best Case, Worse Case Analysis

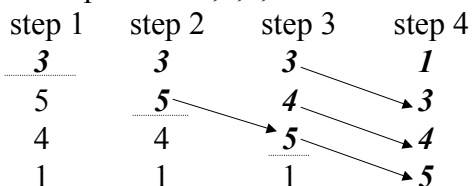
*The problem:*

Sort  $n$  keys in nondecreasing sequence.

*Solving strategy:*

Insertion sort – insert the  $i^{\text{th}}$  item into a sorted list of length  $(i - 1)$  by looking at numbers one at a time,  $\forall i > 1$ .

Example: sort 3,5,4,1



*Algorithm:*

$A(0) \leftarrow -\text{maxint};$  // for efficient to stop the loop  
for  $i \leftarrow 2$  to  $n$  do

$\left( \begin{array}{l} \text{target} \leftarrow A(i); \\ j \leftarrow i - 1; \\ \text{while } (\text{target} < A(j)) \\ \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} A(j + 1) \leftarrow A(j); \\ j \leftarrow j - 1; \end{array} \right. \\ A(j + 1) \leftarrow \text{target}; \end{array} \right.$

*Analysis:*

Best Case performance is  $\Theta(n)$  or  $\Omega(n)$ , but not  $\Omega(n^2)$  since insertion sort runs in  $\Theta(n)$  when the input is sorted.

Worst Case performance is  $\Theta(n^2)$  or  $O(n^2)$

The running time of insertion sort is between  $\Omega(n)$  to  $O(n^2)$

The running time is bound to  $O(n^2)$

**b) Average Case Analysis**

*The problem:*

Is the key  $x$  in the array  $S$  of  $n$  keys?

*Solving strategy:*

Sequential search

*Algorithm:*

*Procedure search ( n, S, x, location) // n is total # of keys,  
S is an array,  
x is the key,  
location is output  
parameter*

```
begin
    location ← 1;
    while (location ≤ n) and (S(location) ≠ x)
        location ++;
    if location > n location ← 0;
end;
```

*Average Case Analysis:*

Assume Probability  $\text{prob}(x = k^{\text{th}}) = \frac{1}{n} \quad \forall 1 \leq k \leq n$

1) When  $x = k^{\text{th}}$ , # of key comparisons =  $k$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore A(n) &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{n} \cdot 2 + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \cdot n = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left( \sum_{k=1}^n k \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{n+1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

about half array is searched.

2) When  $x$  may not be in the array

Assume  $\text{prob}(x \text{ in array}) = p$ ,  $\therefore \text{prob}(x = k^{\text{th}}) = p \cdot \frac{1}{n}$

$\text{prob}(x \text{ not in array}) = 1 - p$ , and it takes  
 $n$  comparisons to know that  $x$  is not in the array

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore A(n) &= \frac{p}{n} \cdot \sum_{k=1}^n k + (1 - p) \cdot n \\ &= \frac{p}{n} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + (1 - p) \cdot n \\ &= n \cdot \left(1 - \frac{p}{2}\right) + \frac{p}{2}\end{aligned}$$

If  $p = 1$ ,  $A(n) = \frac{n+1}{2}$  (as calculated in case (1))

If  $p = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $A(n) = \frac{3}{4}n + \frac{1}{4}$  (about  $\frac{3}{4}$  of the array is searched)



## Design of Algorithms

- a) Divide-and-Conquer
- b) Greedy
- c) Dynamic Programming
- d) Backtracking & Branch-and-Bound

## Some mathematical background

Definition.  $\log_b x = y$  if  $b^y = x$   $b > 1$

- 1)  $\log_b$  is a strictly increasing function,  
 $\therefore$  if  $x_1 < x_2$  then  $\log_b x_1 < \log_b x_2$ .
- 2)  $\log_b$  is a one-to-one function,  
if  $\log_b x_1 = \log_b x_2$  then  $x_1 = x_2$ .
- 3)  $\log_b 1 = 0 \quad \forall b$
- 4)  $\log_b x^a = a \bullet \log_b x$
- 5)  $\log_b(x_1 \bullet x_2) = \log_b x_1 + \log_b x_2$

6)  $x_1^{\text{Log}_b x_2} = x_2^{\text{Log}_b x_1}$

7) to convert from one base to another,  $\text{Log}_{b_1} x = \frac{\text{Log}_{b_2} x}{\text{Log}_{b_2} b_1}$

8) sum of consecutive integers  $\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

9) geometric sums  $\sum_{i=0}^k a^i = \frac{a^{k+1} - 1}{a - 1}$

10) Suppose  $f$  is a continuous, decreasing function,  $a, b$  are integers,

$$\text{then } \int_a^{b+1} f(x) dx \leq \sum_{i=a}^b f(i) \leq \int_{a-1}^b f(x) dx$$

11) Suppose  $f$  is a continuous, decreasing function,  $a, b$  are integers,

$$\text{then } \int_{a-1}^b f(x) dx \leq \sum_{i=a}^b f(i) \leq \int_a^{b+1} f(x) dx$$

12)  $\int_a^b \frac{1}{x} dx = \text{Log}_e b - \text{Log}_e a$

Note:

$$\text{Log}_2 = \text{Lg}$$

$$\text{Log}_e = \text{Ln}$$