Chapter 1 Programming: A General Overview

This class is an introduction to the design, implementation, and analysis of algorithms.

- -examples:
 - -sorting large amounts of data
 - -organizing information for efficient search and retrieval
 - -finding the shortest path between nodes in a graph
 - -looking for matching substrings

- to be able to assess the <u>efficiency</u> of an algorithm, we need to be able to characterize (quantify) the amount of time it requires to execute
- -standard approach: construct a mathematical model of the amount of work as a function of the <u>size</u> of the problem
 - -allows us to study how much work is required by an algorithm as the size of the problem grows
 - -gives us a basis for <u>comparing</u> different algorithms to solve the same problem

suppose

- -our computer can perform 10⁹ operations per second
- -we have two algorithms that perform operation X on a set of n numbers
 - –Algorithm A requires $\underline{n^2}$ operations
 - -Algorithm B requires $n \log_2 n$ operations
- $-n = 10^{6}$
- -we need to compute *X* in less than a second

Algorithm A requires 10^{12} operations and runs in $10^{12}/10^9 = 10^3$ seconds

- -we would need a computer that runs 1000 times faster!
- -if processor speeds double roughly every 18 months, the hardware will catch up in

 $18 \times \log_2 1000 \approx 179$ months, or about 15 years

meanwhile, Algorithm B requires $10^6 \log_2 10^6 \approx 10^6$ or (20 × 10⁶) / 10⁹ = 20 × 10⁻³ seconds, or 20 ms

we can get by with a machine that runs at $1/50^{th}$ the speed!

Factors Affecting the Running Time of an Algorithm

Hardware

-what is the clock speed of the chip? what is the memory hierarchy? how many processors?

Compiler

-what code does the compiler generate?

Program

-how efficient is the use of instructions and <u>memory</u>?

Data

-what is the size of the <u>input</u>? how will it affect execution time?

Environment

-what is the operating system? what is the system load? how do they interact with the code?

Example: dot product

The dot product of two vectors (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) and (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) is $x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \dots + x_ny_n$

C code:

```
double dot (double *x, double *y, int n)
{
    double sum = 0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += x[i] * y[i];
    }
    return sum;
}</pre>
```

Let T(n) be the runtime of the dot product on vectors of length n.

We cannot give a good <u>prediction</u> of the total runtime of the algorithm by simply looking at the code.

Let's remove the distractions of

- -programming
- -code generation
- -computing environment

-etc.

We will focus instead on <u>operation counts</u> and generally ignore the speed/efficiency of <u>memory access</u>, though this has a major impact on performance. We will frequently use <u>pseudocode</u> to express algorithms in a way that is independent of any specific programming language:

human language + math + programming language constructs

dot product:

```
sum = 0
for i = 1 to n
    sum += x[i] * y[i];
end
```

```
double dot (double *x, double *y, int n)
{
    double sum = 0.0;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        sum += x[i] * y[i];
    }
    return sum;
}</pre>
```

pseudocode allows us to ignore the peculiarities of any given programming language and concentrate on the essential operations

it should be complete enough that it could be given to any (competent) programmer for implementation in any reasonable programming language

-pseudocode should specify all <u>initializations</u> and the <u>termination</u> conditions

Inside the loop there is <u>1</u> multiplication and <u>1</u> addition; and these loop operations are executed <u>n</u> times:

```
sum = 0
for i = 1 to n
    sum += x[i] * y[i];
end
```

It is reasonable to predict that the running time is proportional to n: $T(n) \approx cn$, where c is an (unknown) constant, regardless of the actual instructions being executed!

This tells us how the execution time grows: if n doubles, then T(n) should <u>double</u>.

On an Intel E5-4627v2 CPU:

Without -O3			With -O3		
n	T(n) (sec)		n	T(n) (sec)	
10^{3}	3.5e-06		10^{3}	1.6e-06	
10^{4}	2.6e-05		10^{4}	1.7e-05	
10^{5}	3.5e-04		10^{5}	1.6e-04	
10^{6}	2.6e-03		10^{6}	1.6e-03	
10^{7}	2.6e-02		10^{7}	1.5e-02	
10^{8}	2.7e-01		10^{8}	1.6e-01	
10^{9}	2.8e+00		10^{9}	2.0e+00	

When *n* increases by a factor of 10, $\underline{T(n)}$ increases (roughly) by a factor of 10.

Selection problem: suppose you have N numbers and would like to determine the k^{th} largest

-how would you try to solve this problem?

one straightforward solution:

- -read the *N* numbers into an array and sort them in decreasing order
- -return the element in position k

better algorithm:

- -read the first <u>k</u> elements into an array and sort them in decreasing order
- -as a new element is considered, <u>ignore</u> it if it is smaller than the k^{th} element in the array
- -otherwise, place it in its correct spot, bumping one element out of the array
- -when the algorithm ends, the element is in the k^{th} position

for N = 30,000,000 and k = 15,000,000:

- -both algorithms would take several days to run
- -later, we'll discuss an algorithm that gives the solution in about a second!

Just because an algorithm works, therefore, does not necessarily make it a good algorithm.

Mathematics Review: Exponents

$$X^A X^B = X^{A+B}$$

$$\frac{X^A}{X^B} = X^{A-B}$$

$$(X^A)^B = X^{AB}$$

$$X^N + X^N = 2X^N \neq \underline{X^{2N}}$$

$$2^N + 2^N = 2^{N+1}$$

All logarithms are base 2 unless specified otherwise.

$$X^A = B$$
 if and only if $\log_X B = A$

$$\log_A B = \frac{\log_C B}{\log_C A} \quad A, B, C > 0, A \neq 1$$

 $\log AB = \log A + \log B \quad A, B > 0$

$$\log \frac{A}{B} = \log A - \log B$$

 $\log(A^B) = B \log A$

 $\log X < X$ for all X > 0

use lg to represent \log_2 lg 1 = <u>0</u> lg 2 = <u>1</u> lg 1024 = <u>10</u> lg 1,048,576 = 20

Mathematics Review: Series

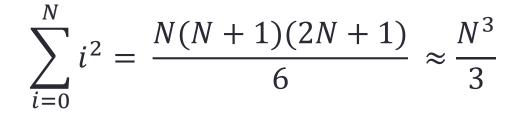
$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} 2^{i} = 2^{N+1} - 1$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} A^{i} = \frac{A^{N+1} - 1}{A - 1}$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} A^{i} \le \frac{1}{1-A} \quad if \ 0 < A < 1$$

Mathematics Review: Series

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} i = \frac{N(N+1)}{2} \approx \frac{N^2}{2}$$



A is congruent to B modulo N

 $A \equiv B \pmod{N}$ if N divides A - B

i.e., the <u>remainder</u> is the same when A or B is divided by N

if $A \equiv B \pmod{N}$ then $A + C \equiv B + C \pmod{N}$

if $A \equiv B \pmod{N}$ then $AD \equiv BD \pmod{N}$

most common proofs in algorithm analysis:

- -proof by counterexample
- -proof by contradiction
- -proof by induction

Proof by Counterexample

Prove or disprove: All prime numbers are odd.

Proof: Since 2 is prime and is not odd, then the original premise is false.

Proofs

Proof by Contradiction

Prove or disprove: The sum of two odd numbers is odd.

Proof: Let x and y both be odd numbers

therefore,
$$\underline{x = 2i + 1}$$
 and $\underline{y = 2j + 1}$
if $z = x + y$ then
 $z = 2i + 1 + 2j + 1 = 2i + 2j + 2 = 2(i + j + 1)$,
which is even

this contradicts the original statement, which is therefore false

Proofs

Proof by Mathematical Induction

- -very useful in studying algorithms
- -must include three parts:
 - -base case (almost always trivial)
 - -state the value of n
 - -compute lhs and rhs independently
 - -inductive hypothesis
 - -state in terms of k
 - -assume true for some k
 - -inductive step (show true for *k*+1)
 - -must list explicitly what you're trying to show!
 - -must use the inductive hypothesis

Proofs

Inductive Proof exercises $\sum_{i} i^{2} = \frac{N(N+1)(2N+1)}{6} \ for N \ge 1$ Base: N=1 $\frac{2hs}{2}i^2 = 0^2 + 1^2 = 1$ $\frac{hs}{1(1+1)(2\cdot 1+1)} = \frac{1\cdot 2\cdot 3}{5} = 1/5$ J.H.: Assume: Ziz = k(k+1)(2k+1) for some K I.S.: Show: Ziz = (k+1)(k+2)(2k+3) $= \frac{k(k+i)(2k+1) + b(k+1)^{2}}{k(k+1)^{2}}$ = (k+1) (k(2k+1) + 6(k+1)) $\sum_{i=0}^{k+1} i^2 = \sum_{i=0}^{k} i^2 + (k+i)^2$ (K+1) (2K2+K+6K+6) = $k(k+1)(2k+1) + (k+1)^2$ by I.H. = (k+1) (2k2+7k+6) = (k+1)(k+2)(2k+3)



Inductive Proof exercises

$$\sum_{i=0}^{N} 2^{i} = 2^{N+1} - 1$$

Fibonacci numbers:

$$F_i = F_{i-1} + F_{i-2}$$
 where $F_1 = 1, F_2 = 2$
Show: $F_i < \left(\frac{5}{3}\right)^i$ for $i \ge 1$

We will study both recursive functions and <u>recurrence</u> relations in this course. We often use <u>inductive</u> proofs to show various properties about these recursive problems.

recursive function:

```
int f(int x)
{
    if (x == 0)
        return 0;
    else
        return 2 * f(x-1) + x*x;
}
```

Recursion

```
int f(int x)
{
    if (x == 0)
        return 0;
    else
        return 2 * f(x-1) + x*x;
}
```

Note that the first part of the function establishes the <u>base</u> <u>case</u>, that is, the value for which the function is directly known without resorting to recursion.

This is not circular logic since we use terms that progressively get to the base case.

Four rules of recursion:

- Base cases a base case must always exist, which can be solved without <u>recursion</u>
- Making progress for cases solved recursively, the recursive call must always be to a case that makes progress toward the base case
- -Design rule assume that all recursive calls work
- -Compound interest rule never duplicate work by solving the same instance of a problem in separate <u>recursive calls</u>

example: looking up words in a dictionary

Recursion

```
void printOut (int n)
{
    if (n >= 10)
        printOut (n / 10);
        printDigit (n % 10);
}
```

Prove the above program works using induction for $n \ge 0$.