

Lecture 1: Introduction

Computational Problems and Algorithms

Definition: A computational problem is a **specification** of the desired input-output relationship.

Definition: An instance of a problem is **all the inputs** needed to compute a solution to the problem.

Definition: An algorithm is a well defined **computational procedure** that transforms inputs into outputs, achieving the desired input-output relationship.

Definition: A correct algorithm **halts** with the correct output for every input instance. We can then say that the algorithm solves the problem.

Example of Problems and Instances

Computational Problem: Sorting

- **Input:** Sequence of n numbers $\langle a_1, \dots, a_n \rangle$.

- **Output:** Permutation (reordering)

$$\langle a'_1, a'_2, \dots, a'_n \rangle$$

such that $a'_1 \leq a'_2 \leq \dots \leq a'_n$.

Instance of Problem:

- **Input:** Permutation

$$\langle 8, 3, 6, 7, 1, 2, 9 \rangle$$

- **Output:** Permutation (reordering)

$$\langle 1, 2, 3, 6, 7, 8, 9 \rangle$$

Example of Algorithm: Insertion Sort

In-Place Sort: uses only a fixed amount of storage beyond that needed for the data.

Pseudocode: A is an array of numbers

```
for  $j = 2$  to  $\text{length}(A)$ 
{
  key =  $A[j]$ ;
   $i = j - 1$ ;
  while ( $i \geq 1$  and  $A[i] > \text{key}$ )
  {
     $A[i + 1] = A[i]$ ;
     $i = i - 1$ ;
  }
   $A[i + 1] = \text{key}$ ;
}
```

Pause: How does it work?

Insertion Sort: an Incremental Approach

To sort a given array of length n , at the i th step it sorts the array of the first i items by making use of the sorted array of the first $i - 1$ items in the $(i - 1)$ th Step.

Example: Sort $A = \langle 6, 3, 2, 4 \rangle$ with Insertion Sort.

Step 1: $\langle 6, 3, 2, 4 \rangle$

Step 2: $\langle 3, 6, 2, 4 \rangle$

Step 3: $\langle 2, 3, 6, 4 \rangle$

Step 4: $\langle 2, 3, 4, 6 \rangle$

Analyzing Algorithms

Predict resource utilization

1. Memory (space complexity)
2. Running time (time complexity)

Remark: Really depends on the model of computation, e.g.,

sequential vs. parallel or

internal memory vs. external memory.

In this class we usually assume

sequential and *internal memory.*

Analyzing Algorithms – Continued

Running time: the number of **primitive operations** used to solve the problem.

Primitive operations:

e.g., addition, multiplication, comparisons.

In more advanced models could be page faults or Map/Reduce calls

Running time: depends on problem instance, often we find an upper bound: $F(\text{input size})$

Input size: rigorous definition given later.

1. **Sorting:** number of items to be sorted
2. **Multiplication:** number of bits, number of digits.
3. **Graphs:** number of vertices and edges.

Three Cases of Analysis

Best Case: constraints on the input, other than size, resulting in the fastest possible running time.

Worst Case: constraints on the input, other than size, resulting in the slowest possible running time.

Example. In the worst case *Quicksort* runs in $\Theta(n^2)$ time on an input of n keys.

Average Case: average running time over every possible type of input (usually involve probabilities of different types of input).

Example. In the average case *Quicksort* runs in $\Theta(n \log n)$ time on an input of n keys. All $n!$ inputs of n keys are considered equally likely.

Remark: All cases are relative to the algorithm under consideration.

Three Analyses of Insertion Sorting

Best Case: $A[1] \leq A[2] \leq A[3] \leq \dots \leq A[n]$.

The number of comparisons needed is equal to

$$\underbrace{1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1}_{n-1} = n - 1 = \Theta(n).$$

Worst Case: $A[1] \geq A[2] \geq A[3] \geq \dots \geq A[n]$.

The number of comparisons needed is equal to

$$1 + 2 + \dots + (n - 1) = \frac{n(n - 1)}{2} = \Theta(n^2).$$

Average Case: $\Theta(n^2)$ assuming that each of the $n!$ instances are equally likely.

Some thoughts on Algorithm Design

- *Algorithm Design*, as taught in this class, is mainly about designing algorithms that have small big $O()$ running times.
- **“All other things being equal”**,
 $O(n \log n)$ algorithms will run more quickly than $O(n^2)$ ones and
 $O(n)$ algorithms will beat $O(n \log n)$ ones.
- Being able to do good algorithm design lets you identify the *hard parts* of your problem and deal with them effectively.
- Too often, programmers try to solve problems using brute force techniques and end up with slow complicated code! A few hours of abstract thought devoted to algorithm design could have speeded up the solution substantially *and* simplified it.

Note: After algorithm design one can continue on to *Algorithm tuning* which would further concentrate on improving algorithms by cutting cut down on the *constants* in the big $O()$ bounds. This needs a good understanding of both algorithm design principles and efficient use of data structures. In this course we will not go further into algorithm tuning. For a good introduction, see Chapter 9 in *Programming Pearls, 2nd ed* by Jon Bentley.