

# CISC 1100: Structures of Computer Science

## Chapter 8 Algorithms

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  - a set of well-defined instructions for completing a task with a finite amount of effort in a finite amount of time
  - a set of instructions that can be mechanically performed in order to solve a problem

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  - Since we assume no programming background, we will use English but will try hard to be clear and precise
- An algorithm operates on input and generates output
- An algorithm completes in a finite number of steps
  - This is a non-trivial requirement since certain methods may sometimes run forever!

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- Algorithms can also used to implement mathematical processes/entities. Most mathematical functions are implemented using computer algorithms

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- The RSA encryption algorithm makes e-commerce possible by allowing for secure transactions over the Web

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  - Many algorithms are only feasible when implemented on computers
- But even with today's fast computers, some problems still cannot be solved using existing algorithms
  - The search for better and more efficient algorithms continues
- Interestingly enough, some problems have been shown to have no algorithmic solution (e.g., the “halting problem”)



# Searching and Sorting Algorithms

- Two of the most studied classes of algorithms in CS are searching and sorting algorithms
  - Search algorithms are important because quickly locating information is central to many tasks
  - Sorting algorithms are important because information can be located much more quickly if it is first sorted
- Searching and sorting algorithms are often used to introduce the topic of algorithms and we follow this convention

# Search Algorithms

- Problem: determine if an element  $x$  is in a list  $L$
- We will look at two simple search algorithms
  - Linear search
  - Binary search
- The elements in  $L$  have some ordering, so that there is a first element, second element, etc.
- These algorithms can easily be applied to sets since we do not exploit this ordering (i.e., we do not assume the elements are sorted).

# Linear Search Algorithm

The algorithm below will search for an element  $x$  in List  $L$  and will return “FOUND” if  $x$  is in the list and “NOT FOUND” otherwise.  $L$  has  $n$  items and  $L[i]$  refers to the  $i^{\text{th}}$  element in  $L$ .

## Linear Search Algorithm

- ➊ **repeat** as  $i$  varies from 1 to  $n$
- ➋     if  $L[i] = x$  then return “FOUND” and stop
- ➌ return “NOT FOUND”

Note: The repeat loop spans lines 1 and 2.

# Efficiency of Linear Search Algorithm

- If  $x$  appears once in  $L$ , on average how many comparisons (line 2) would you expect the algorithm to make on average?

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  - No, it would require scanning through the entire phone book (phone books are sorted for a reason)!
  - What if we had to check 1,000 people to see if they are in the phone book?
    - Then it would be even worse!

# Binary Search Algorithm Overview

- The binary search algorithm assumes that  $L$  is sorted
- This algorithm need not explicitly examine each element
- at any given time it maintains a “window” in which element  $x$  may reside
  - The window is defined by the indices  $min$  and  $max$  which specify the leftmost and rightmost boundaries in  $L$
- At each iteration of the algorithm the window is cut in half

## Binary Search Algorithm

- 1 Initialize  $min \leftarrow 1$  and  $max \leftarrow n$
- 2 **Repeat** until  $min > max$
- 3      $midpoint = \frac{1}{2}(min + max)$
- 4     compare  $x$  to  $L[midpoint]$ 
  - (a) if  $x = L[midpoint]$  then return "FOUND"
  - (b) if  $x > L[midpoint]$  then  $min \leftarrow midpoint + 1$
  - (c) if  $x < L[midpoint]$  then  $min \leftarrow midpoint - 1$
- 5 return "NOT FOUND"

Note: the repeat loop spans lines 2 - 4.

# Binary Search Example

Use binary search to find the element “4” in the sorted list (1 3 4 5 6 7 8 9). List the values of *min*, *max* and *midpoint* after each iteration of step 4. How many values are compared to “4”?

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- ② Now  $min = 1$ ,  $max = 3$  and  $midpoint = \frac{1}{2}(1 + 3) = 2$ . Since  $L[2] = 3$  and  $4 > 3$ , we execute step 4b and  $min = midpoint + 1 = 3$ .



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- 3 Now *min* = 3, *max* = 3 and *midpoint* =  $\frac{1}{2}(3 + 3) = 3$ . Since  $L[3] = 4$  and  $4 = 4$ , we execute step 4a and return “FOUND.”

During execution of the algorithm we check three values: 3, 4, and 5. Since we cut the list in half each iteration, it will shrink very quickly (the search will require about  $\log_2 n$  comparisons).

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- Binary search is much more efficient
  - If  $n = 1K$  we have 1,024 vs. 10 comparisons
  - If  $n = 1M$  we have ~1,000,000 vs. 100 comparisons
  - If  $n = 1G$  we have ~1,000,000,000 vs 1000 comparisons

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  - If  $n = 1M$  we have  $\sim 1,000,000$  vs. 100 comparisons
  - If  $n = 1G$  we have  $\sim 1,000,000,000$  vs 1000 comparisons
- The drawback is that binary search requires sorting, and this requires a decent amount of work
  - But sorting only has to be done once and this will be worthwhile if we need to search the list many times

# Sorting Algorithms

- Sorting algorithms are one of the most heavily studied topics in Computer Science
- Sorting is critical if information is to be found efficiently (as we saw binary search exploits the fact that a list is sorted)
- There are many well known sorting algorithms in Computer Science
- We will study 2 sorting algorithms
  - Bubblesort: a very simple but inefficient sorting algorithm
  - Mergesort: a slightly more complex but efficient sorting algorithm

# Bubblesort Algorithm Overview

- Bubblesort works by repeatedly scanning the list and in each iteration “bubbles” the largest element in the unsorted part of the list to the end
  - After 1 iteration largest element in last position
  - After 2 iterations largest element in last position and second largest element in second to last position
  - ...
- requires  $n - 1$  iterations since at last iteration the only item left must already be in proper position (i.e., the smallest must be in the leftmost position)

# Bubblesort Algorithm

Bubblesort will sort the  $n$ -element list  $L = (l_1, l_2, \dots, l_n)$

## Bubblesort Algorithm

- ① **Repeat** as  $i$  varies from  $n$  down to 2
  - ②     **Repeat** as  $j$  varies from 1 to  $i - 1$
  - ③         If  $l_j > l_{j+1}$  swap  $l_j$  with  $l_{j+1}$
- The outer loop controls how much of the list is checked each iteration. Only the unsorted part is checked. In the first iteration we check everything.
  - The inner loop allows us to bubble up the largest element in the unsorted part of the list



# Bubblesort Example

Use Bubblesort to sort the list of number (9 2 8 4 1 3) into increasing order. Note that corresponds to example 8.3 in the text.

Try it and compare your solution to the solution in the text.

- How many comparisons did you do each iteration?
- Can you find a pattern?
- This will be useful later when we analyze the performance of the algorithm.

# Mergesort Algorithm Overview

- Mergesort is a *divide-and-conquer* algorithm
  - this means it divides the sorting problem into smaller problems
  - solves the smaller problems
  - then combines the solutions to the smaller problems to solve the original problem
- this deceptively simple algorithm is nonetheless much more efficient than the bubblesort algorithm
- It exploits the fact that combining two sorted lists is very easy
  - How would you sort (1 4 7 8) and (2 5 9)?

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- It exploits the fact that combining two sorted lists is very easy
  - How would you sort (1 4 7 8) and (2 5 9)?
  - You would place your finger at the start of each list, copy over the smaller element under each finger, then advance that one finger.

## Mergesort Algorithm

**function** mergesort( $L$ )

- ① if  $L$  has one element then return( $L$ ); otherwise continue
- ②  $l_1 \leftarrow \text{mergesort}(\text{left half of } L)$
- ③  $l_2 \leftarrow \text{mergesort}(\text{right half of } L)$
- ④  $L \leftarrow \text{merge}(l_1, l_2)$
- ⑤ return( $L$ )

# Description of Mergesort Algorithm

- Mergesort is a recursive function
  - That means it calls itself
- If the input list contains one element it is trivially sorted so mergesort is done
- Otherwise mergesort calls itself on the left and right half of the list and then merges the two lists
- Each of these two calls to itself may lead to additional calls to itself
- Note that mergesort will completely sort the left side of the original list before it actually starts sorting the right side

# Example of Mergesort Algorithm

How would mergesort sort the list (9 2 8 4 1 3) into increasing order?

To help show what is going on, the sorted lists that are about to be merged are shown in bold.

9 2 8 4 1 3 → 9 2 8 4 1 3 → 9 2 8 4 1 3

**9** **2** **8** 4 1 3 → **2 9** **8** 4 1 3 → 2 8 9 4 1 3

2 8 9 4 1 3 → 2 8 9 4 1 3 → 2 8 9 4 1 3

2 8 9 **1 4** **3** → **2 8 9** **1 3 4** → 1 2 3 4 8 9

# Analysis of Algorithms

- An algorithm is a set of instructions that solves a problem for all input instances
- But there may be many algorithms that can solve a problem and all of these are not equally good
- One criteria for evaluating an algorithm is *efficiency*
- The task of determining the efficiency of an algorithm is referred to as the *analysis of algorithms*
- Here we will learn to analyze only simple algorithms
  - There are entire courses on analysis of algorithms

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  - Most of us are pretty concerned with *time* and time is actually the main concern in evaluating the efficiency of algorithms
  - Space is also a concern, which, for algorithms, means what is the maximum amount of memory the algorithm will require at any one time
  - We will focus on time, although for some problems, space can actually be the main concern.

# How do we Measure the Time of an Algorithm?

- We could run the algorithm on a computer and measure the time it takes to complete
  - But what computer do we run it on? Different computers have different speeds.
  - We could pick one benchmark computer, but it would not stick around forever
  - Worse yet, the time taken by the algorithm is usually impacted by the specific input, so how do we handle that?

# The Run Time Complexity of an Algorithm

- The standard solution is to focus on the *run-time complexity* of an algorithm
- We determine how the number of operations involved in the algorithms grows relative to the length of the input
- Since inputs of the same length may still take different numbers of operations, we usually focus on the worst-case performance
  - We assume that the input is the hardest input possible

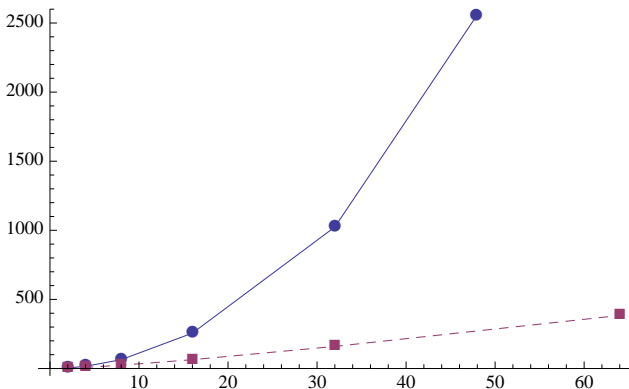
# The Running Time of BubbleSort and MergeSort

- We can implement BubbleSort and MergeSort as a computer program
  - Then we can run them on various length lists and record the number of operations performed
  - Let  $\text{bubblesortOps}(n)$  and  $\text{mergesortOps}(n)$  represent the number of operations performed when the list has  $n$  elements
- The results might look like those below

$n$	2	4	8	16	32	64
$\text{bubblesortOps}(n)$	4	16	64	256	1024	4096
$\text{mergesortOps}(n)$	2	8	24	64	160	384

# The Running Time of BubbleSort and MergeSort

- We can plot the data from the previous table to get a better visual picture of the growth rate for these functions





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- Normally one does not determine the run time complexity this way, but rather by analyzing the algorithm.
- We will show how to do this for some simple algorithms

## Linear Search Algorithm

- ① **repeat** as  $i$  varies from 1 to  $n$
  - ②     if  $L[i] = x$  then return “FOUND” and stop
  - ③ return “NOT FOUND”
- 
- How many operations will the linear search algorithm require?

## Linear Search Algorithm

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  - What is the best-case complexity of the algorithm?
    - 1, which occurs when  $x$  is the first item on the list

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  - The average case complexity of the algorithm should be  $n/2$ , since on average you should have to search half of the list
- At least for introductory courses on algorithms, the worst-case complexity is what is reported, since it is generally much easier to compute than the average case complexity.

# Analysis of Binary Search Algorithm

- The binary search algorithm, which assumes a sorted list, repeatedly cuts the list to be searched in half
  - If there is 1 element, it will require 1 comparison
  - If there are 2 elements, it may require 2 comparisons
  - If there are 4 elements, it may require 3 comparisons
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- If  $n$  is not a power of 2, you will need to round up the number of comparisons
  - Thus if there are 3 elements it may require 3 comparisons



# Comparison of Linear and Binary Search Algorithms

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  - This is the case with dictionaries, phone books, etc.
  - This is not the case with airline reservation systems!

# Analysis of the Bubblesort Algorithm

- Analyzing the Bubblesort algorithm means determining the number of comparisons required to sort a list
- Recall that Bubblesort works by repeatedly bubbling up the largest element in the unsorted part of the list
- We can determine the number of comparisons by carefully analyzing the Bubblesort example we worked through earlier, when we sorted (9 2 8 4 1 3)
  - But we need to generalize from this example, so our analysis holds for all examples

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  - Number of comparisons =  $5 + 4 + 3 + 2 + 1 = 15$
- So how many comparisons for a list with  $n$  items?
  - $n - 1 + n - 2 \dots + 2 + 1$ , or

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} i$$

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  - Number Bubblesort comparisons =  $\frac{1}{2}(n-1)n = \frac{1}{2}(n^2 - n)$

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- Bubblesort can have problems if the list is very long
- Analysis of mergesort is beyond the scope of this book, but the number of comparisons grows proportional to  $n \log_2 n$ 
  - As we saw earlier,  $n \log_2 n$  grows much more slowly than  $n^2$ , so no one would ever use bubblesort unless the lengths of the lists are guaranteed to be small

The Big-O notation material is sufficiently advanced that most instructors will not cover this material in an introductory course and for this reason slides for this material are not provided at this time.