Lesson 2. Foundation of Algorithms: Importance of Analysis I111E – Algorithms and Data Structures

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All material is available at www.jaist.ac.jp/~uehara/couse/2019/i111e

Question:

What if I am not at ease with C? Can I still take this course? Am I required to write projects or exams in C? Can I use Python/Java/C# instead?

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Answer:

This course is <u>not</u> about programming: it is about <u>algorithms</u>. So, you are not required to write *any* code in this course. You can describe an algorithm in any language you want: either a computer language of your choice, or in English (or Japanese), or even in a pseudo-code that you invented! If you can understand the C code in the slides and the mathematics behind it, you are good to go. :)

- Understand the importance of designing efficient algorithms
- Familiarize with big-O notation, e.g., $5n^2 + 3n + 6 = O(n^2)$
- Learn how to analyze the complexity of an algorithm

The word "algorithm" comes from the Latinization of the Persian mathematician Al-Khwarizmi.

An algorithm is an abstract description of how to solve a problem:

- it halts on every input,
- it returns the correct answer on every input,
- its description is not ambiguous (operations are well defined).

A <u>program</u> is the description of an algorithm in some computer language: the same algorithm can be *implemented* in many languages.



Approach for designing a good algorithm:

- There are some general *design methods* (divide and conquer, greedy, dynamic programming, ...)
- Estimate the <u>time complexity</u> (running time) and the space complexity (amount of memory used) of the algorithm
- Verify and prove the correctness of the algorithm

Bad algorithm:

- Instant idea: no design method
- Just made it: no analysis of complexity and/or correctness

Recall from Lesson 1...

```
void collatz(int n) {
    printf("%d\n", n);
    if (n == 1) return;
    if (n%2 == 0) collatz(n/2);
    else collatz(3*n + 1);
}
```

Recall from Lesson 1...

```
void collatz(int n) {
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}
```

collatz(5) calls collatz(16), which calls collatz(8), which calls collatz(4), which calls collatz(2), which calls collatz(1), which returns.

The factorial function

Let's compute the <u>factorial</u> function:

$$n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-1) \cdot n$$

Equivalently,

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0\\ (n-1)! \cdot n & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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```
int fact(int n) {
    if (n == 0) return 1;
    return fact(n-1) * n;
}
```

 $0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, 89, \ldots$

$$F_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0\\ 1 & \text{if } n = 1\\ F_{n-1} + F_{n-2} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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$$F_n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0\\ 1 & \text{if } n = 1\\ F_{n-1} + F_{n-2} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

```
int fib(int n) {
    if (n == 0) return 0;
    if (n == 1) return 1;
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}
```

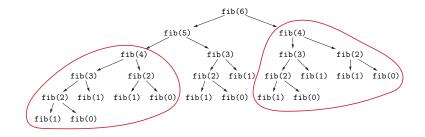
```
int fib(int n) {
    if (n == 0) return 0;
    if (n == 1) return 1;
    return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}
```

Problem: on my computer, fib(50) takes more than a minute... And fib(100) would take more than 30,000 years on today's fastest computer!

But a human can easily compute F_{100} by hand in a few hours!

Weren't computers supposed to be faster than people??

It turns out that we used a very inefficient algorithm: each call to fib calls fib again, twice.



This algorithm re-computes the same numbers over and over!

The Fibonacci sequence: a better version

What would a human do instead?

Start from the bottom: write down F_0 , F_1 , F_2 , F_3 , and compute the next Fibonacci number by looking up the last two.

This way, each Fibonacci number is computed just once!

The Fibonacci sequence: a better version

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```
int fib2(int n) {
    int f[n+1];
    f[0] = 0;
    f[1] = 1;
    for (int i = 2; i <= n; i++)
        f[i] = f[i-1] + f[i-2];
    return f[n];
}</pre>
```

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        f[i] = f[i-1] + f[i-2];
    return f[n];
}</pre>
```

Problem: fib2(100000) gives a "stack overflow" error! We are using too much memory to store the Fibonacci numbers. What can we do to use less memory?

We only ever need the <u>last two</u> Fibonacci numbers to compute the next one, so we do not have to store them all!

```
int fib3(int n) {
    int last1 = 0;
    int last2 = 1;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        int next = last1 + last2;
        last1 = last2;
        last2 = next;
    }
    return last1;
}</pre>
```

When we reason about the efficiency of an algorithm, we want to <u>abstract</u> from the actual implementation details, programming language, and machine on which it is executed.

All these elements introduce speedups or slowdowns by <u>constant factors</u> only (e.g., accessing a C++ array on a PC is 1.3 times faster than accessing a Java array on a smartphone).

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So, we will "identify" all functions that differ only by additive and multiplicative constants.

For example, 5n + 3 is "the same" as 8n + 100:

we say that both these functions are O(n), because they are "the same" as n up to constant factors.

From smaller to larger, we have:

- Constant: O(1) (e.g., 10)
- Logarithmic: $O(\log n)$
- Linear: O(n) (e.g., 6n + 8)
- Quasi-linear: $O(n \log n)$
- Quadratic: $O(n^2)$ (e.g., $3n^2 + 8n 2$)
- Cubic: $O(n^3)$
- Polynomial: $O(n^c)$ (e.g., $n^{37} + 5n^{10} + 8$)
- Exponential: $O(c^n)$ (e.g., 2^{n+7})

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An algorithm with a <u>quasi-linear</u> running time is *practical*. An algorithm with a <u>polynomial</u> running time is *feasible*. Otherwise, it is *unfeasible*. **Note:** we do not have to specify the base of logarithms, because logarithms in different bases only differ by a <u>constant factor</u>:

$$\log_a n = \log_a b \cdot \log_b n$$

So, $\log_a n = O(\log_b n)$.

For logarithms, we just write $O(\log n)$ without the base.

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int fib(int n) {
 if (n == 0) return 0;
 if (n == 1) return 1;
 return fib(n-1) + fib(n-2);
}

Let T(n) be the running time of fib(n):

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0\\ 2 & \text{if } n = 1\\ T(n-1) + T(n-2) + 5 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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It is now easy to show that $T(n) > F_n$.

But $F_n = O(1.62^n)$, so the running time of fib is exponential!

```
int fib2(int n) {
    int f[n+1];
    f[0] = 0;
    f[1] = 1;
    for (int i = 2; i <= n; i++)
        f[i] = f[i-1] + f[i-2];
    return f[n];
}</pre>
```

We have 3 initial operations, plus a loop that is executed n-1 times, and each time it performs 6 elementary instructions: test for $i \leq n$, i + +, i - 1, i - 2, addition, assignment.

The total running time is therefore T(n) = 6(n-1) + 3 = O(n).

We use an array of size n + 1 plus the variable i, hence the total space is n + 2 = O(n).

Time and space are both linear.

```
int fib3(int n) {
    int last1 = 0;
    int last2 = 1;
    for (int i = 0; i < n; i++) {
        int next = last1 + last2;
        last1 = last2;
        last2 = next;
    }
    return last1;
}</pre>
```

We have 2 initial operations, plus a loop that is executed n times, each time performing 6 operations: T(n) = 6n + 2 = O(n). This time we only use 4 variables: O(1) space. fib3 runs in <u>linear</u> time and <u>constant</u> space. *Moore's law*: the speed of computers doubles every 18 months. Since the speed of computers increases exponentially, maybe in a couple of years we will be able to run fib in a reasonable time (?) Moore's law: the speed of computers doubles every 18 months.

Since the speed of computers increases exponentially, maybe in a couple of years we will be able to run fib in a reasonable time (?) Unfortunately not:

Suppose today we can execute fib(100) in a reasonable time.

In 12 months, computers will be about 1.6 times faster.

But fib(101) takes about 1.6 times more than fib(100)!

So, next year we will only be able to execute fib(101).

In 2 years, we will only be able to execute fib(102).

In 3 years, we will only be able to execute fib (103) ...

Only one Fibonacci number per year: this is the "curse" of exponential running times! :(Let us compute the function a^n . Naive approach:

```
int expon(int a, int n) {
    int res = 1;
    for (int i = 1; i <= n; i++)
        res = res * a;
    return res;
}</pre>
```

This algorithm performs n multiplications and runs in time O(n). Can we do better? What would we do if we had to compute a^{16} ?

int a2 = a * a; int a4 = a2 * a2; int a8 = a4 * a4; int a16 = a8 * a8; return a16;

This performs only 4 multiplications:

much better than the 16 multiplications of the previous algorithm!

Can we generalize this observation?

To compute a^{20} , do this (observe that $a^{20} = a^4 \cdot a^{16}$):

int a2 = a * a; int a4 = a2 * a2; int a8 = a4 * a4; int a16 = a8 * a8; return a4 * a16;

Only 5 multiplications instead of 20! What about a^n ?

We have to look at the binary digits of n...

Binary digits

Every positive integer has a unique binary representation:

 $37 = 32 + 4 + 1 = \mathbf{1} \cdot 2^5 + \mathbf{0} \cdot 2^4 + \mathbf{0} \cdot 2^3 + \mathbf{1} \cdot 2^2 + \mathbf{0} \cdot 2^1 + \mathbf{1} \cdot 2^0$ $37_{(10)} = 100101_{(2)}$

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 $37_{(10)} = 100101_{(2)}$

How do we compute the binary digits of a number?

Repeatedly check if the number is even or odd, and divide it by 2: this gives its binary digits in <u>reverse order</u>.

```
do {
    printf("%d", n % 2);
    n = n / 2;
} while (n > 0);
```

Since $n = 2^{\log_2 n}$, the loop is repeated $O(\log n)$ times.

int a2 = a * a; int a4 = a2 * a2; int a8 = a4 * a4; int a16 = a8 * a8; return a4 * a16;

If $n = 20 = 2^2 + 2^4$, we have $n = 10100_{(2)}$.

The 1-digits of n correspond to 2^2 and 2^4 ...

And we multiplied a^{2^2} and a^{2^4} .

In general, if the *i*th binary digit of n is 1, multiply the result by a^{2^i}

```
int expon2(int a, int n) {
    int res = 1;
    int pow = a;
    do {
        if (n%2 == 1) res = res * pow;
        pow = pow * pow;
        n = n / 2;
    } while (n > 0);
    return res;
}
```

The loop is repeated $O(\log n)$ times,

so the total running time is $O(\log n)$.

A big improvement over the previous O(n)!