



Course Name

ANALYSIS AND DESIGN OF ALGORITHM

Course Code

BCS401

Course Coordinator

Contact Hours

50

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CIE Marks

50

SEE Marks

50



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Course Learning Objectives

CLO 1. To learn the methods for analyzing algorithms and evaluating their performance.

CLO 2. To demonstrate the efficiency of algorithms using asymptotic notations.

CLO 3. To solve problems using various algorithm design methods, including brute force, greedy, divide and conquer, decrease and conquer, transform and conquer, dynamic programming, backtracking, and branch and bound.

CLO 4. To learn the concepts of P and NP complexity classes.



Course Outcomes

CO 1: Apply asymptotic notational method to analyze the performance of the algorithms in terms of time complexity.

CO 2: Demonstrate divide & conquer approaches and decrease & conquer approaches to solve computational problems.

CO 3: Make use of transform & conquer and dynamic programming design approaches to solve the given real world or complex computational problems.

CO 4 : Apply greedy and input enhancement methods to solve graph & string based computational problems.

CO 5 : Analyse various classes (P, NP and NP Complete) of problems

CO 6 : Illustrate backtracking, branch & bound and approximation methods.



Text Book

Introduction to the Design and Analysis of Algorithms, By Anany Levitin, 3rd Edition (Indian), 2017, Pearson.

Reference Books

Computer Algorithms/C++, Ellis Horowitz, SatrajSahni and Rajasekaran, 2nd Edition, 2014, Universities Press.

Introduction to Algorithms, Thomas H. Cormen, Charles E. Leiserson, Ronal L. Rivest, Clifford Stein, 3rd Edition, PHI.

Design and Analysis of Algorithms, S. Sridhar, Oxford (Higher Education)



Question Paper Pattern

The question paper will have ten questions.

Each full Question consisting of 20 marks.

There will be 2 full questions (with a maximum of four sub questions) from each module.

Each full question will have sub questions covering all the topics under a module.

The students will have to answer 5 full questions, selecting one full question from each module.



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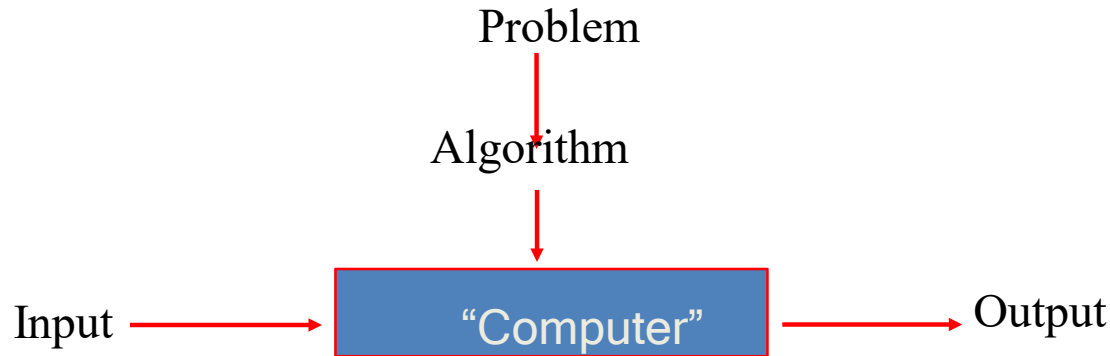
INTRODUCTION

Module 1- Chapt 1

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What is an algorithm?

An algorithm is a sequence of unambiguous instructions for solving a problem, i.e., for obtaining a required output for any **legitimate** input in a finite amount of time.



- In addition, all algorithms must satisfy the following criteria:
 - Input: Zero or more quantities are externally supplied.
 - Output: At least one quantity is produced.
 - Definiteness: Each instruction is clear and unambiguous.
 - Finiteness: algorithm terminates after a finite number of steps.
 - Correctness
 - Effectiveness



Euclid's Algorithm



Problem: Find $\gcd(m, n)$, the greatest common divisor of two nonnegative, not both zero integers m and n

Examples: $\gcd(60, 24) = 12$, $\gcd(60, 0) = 60$, $\gcd(0, 0) = ?$

Euclid's algorithm is based on repeated application of equality

$$\gcd(m, n) = \gcd(n, m \bmod n)$$

$m \bmod n$ is the remainder of the division $m \& n$.

until the second number becomes 0, which makes the problem trivial.

$$\text{Example: } \gcd(60, 24) = \gcd(24, 12) = \gcd(12, 0) = 12$$

Two descriptions of Euclid's algorithm

- Step 1 If $n = 0$, return m and stop; otherwise go to Step 2
- Step 2 Divide m by n and assign the value of the remainder to r
- Step 3 Assign the value of n to m and the value of r to n .
- Go to Step 1.

```
while  $n \neq 0$  do  
     $r \leftarrow m \bmod n$   
     $m \leftarrow n$   
     $n \leftarrow r$   
return  $m$ 
```

Other methods for computing $\gcd(m,n)$

Consecutive integer checking algorithm

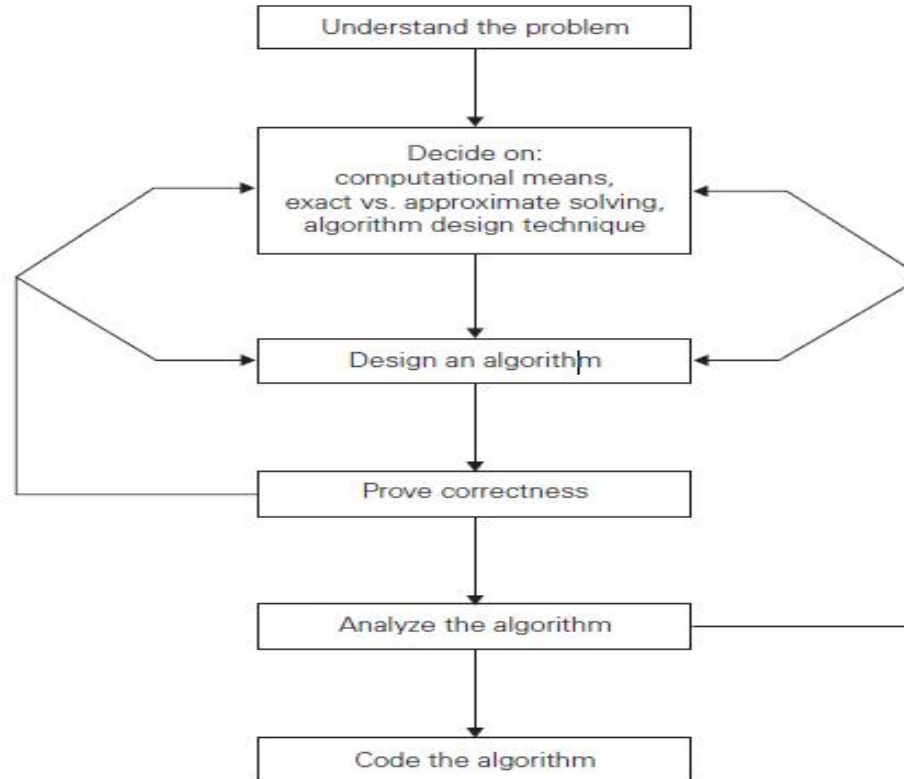
- Step 1 Assign the value of $\min\{m,n\}$ to t
- Step 2 Divide m by t . If the remainder is 0, go to Step 3;
 otherwise, go to Step 4
- Step 3 Divide n by t . If the remainder is 0, return t and stop;
 otherwise, go to Step 4
- Step 4 Decrease t by 1 and go to Step 2

Other methods for $\gcd(m,n)$ [cont.]

Middle-school procedure

- Step 1 Find the prime factorization of m
- Step 2 Find the prime factorization of n
- Step 3 Find all the common prime factors
- Step 4 Compute the product of all the common prime factors and return it as $\gcd(m,n)$

Fundamental steps in solving problems



Fundamental steps in solving problems

(i) Understanding the Problem

- This is the first step in designing of algorithm.
- Read the problem's description carefully to understand the problem statement completely.
- Ask questions for clarifying the doubts about the problem.
- Identify the problem types and use existing algorithm to find solution.
- Input (instance) to the problem and range of the input get fixed.

(ii) Decision making

The Decision making is done on the following:

a) Ascertaining the Capabilities of the Computational Device - In random-access machine (RAM), instructions are executed one after another (The central assumption is that one operation at a time).

Accordingly, algorithms designed to be executed on such machines are called **sequential** algorithms. Operations executed concurrently, i.e., in parallel are called **parallel** algorithms.

b) Choosing between Exact and Approximate Problem Solving:

→The next principal decision is to choose between solving the problem exactly or solving it approximately.

→An algorithm used to solve the problem exactly and produce correct result is called an exact algorithm.

→If the problem is so complex and not able to get exact solution, then we have to choose an algorithm called an approximation algorithm to produces an approximate answer.

E.g., extracting square roots, solving nonlinear equations, and evaluating definite integrals.

c) Algorithm Design Techniques

- An algorithm design technique (or “strategy” or “paradigm”) is a general approach to solving problems algorithmically that is applicable to a variety of problems from different areas of computing.

- Though Algorithms and Data Structures are independent, but they are combined together to develop program. Hence the choice of proper data structure is required before designing the algorithm.
 - Implementation of algorithm is possible only with the help of Algorithms and Data Structures
 - Algorithmic strategy / technique / paradigm are a general approach by which many problems can be solved algorithmically.
- E.g., Brute Force, Divide and Conquer, Dynamic Programming, Greedy Technique and soon.

(iii) Methods of Specifying an Algorithm

There are three ways to specify an algorithm. They are:

- a. Natural language
- b. Pseudocode
- c. Flowchart

a. **Natural Language-** It is very simple and easy to specify an algorithm using natural language. But many times specification of algorithm by using natural language is not clear and thereby we get brief specification.

Example: **An algorithm to perform addition of two numbers.**

Step 1: Read the first number, say a.

Step 2: Read the first number, say b.

Step 3: Add the above two numbers and store the result in c.

Step 4: Display the result from c.

b) **Pseudocode:** • Pseudocode is a mixture of a natural language and programming language constructs. Pseudocode is usually more precise than natural language.

- For Assignment operation left arrow “←”, for comments two slashes “//”, if condition, for, while loops are used.



ALGORITHM Sum(a,b) //Problem Description: This algorithm performs addition of two nos.

//Input: Two integers a and b

//Output: Addition of two integers

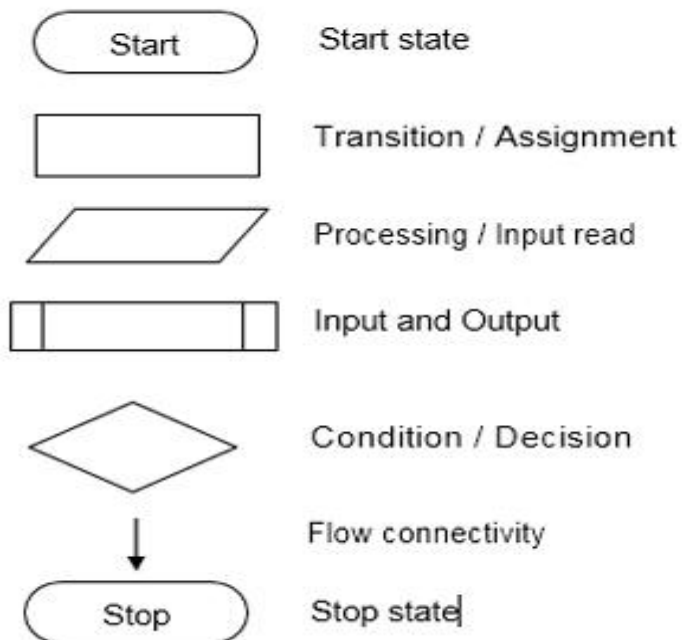
$c \leftarrow a + b$

return c

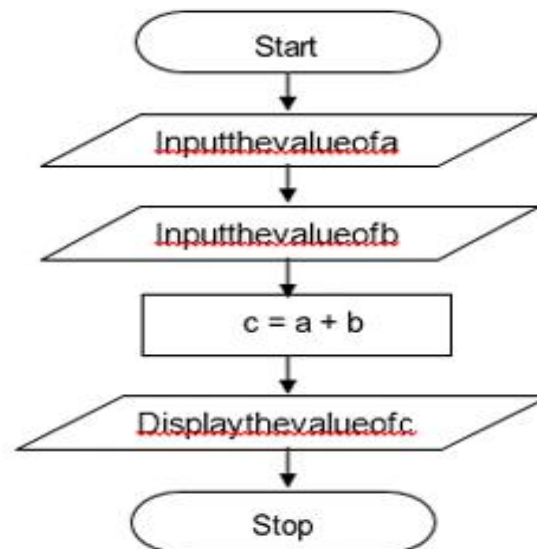
c) **Flowchart** • Flowchart is a graphical representation of an algorithm.

It is a method of expressing an algorithm by a collection of connected geometric shapes containing descriptions of the algorithm's steps.

Symbols



Example: Addition of a and b



(iv) Proving an Algorithm's Correctness

- Once an algorithm has been specified then its correctness must be proved.
- An algorithm must yield a required result for every legitimate input in a finite amount of time.
- A common technique for proving correctness is to use mathematical induction because an algorithm's iterations provide a natural sequence of steps needed for such proofs.
- For Example, the correctness of Euclid's algorithm for computing the greatest common divisor stems from the correctness of the equality $\text{gcd}(m, n) = \text{gcd}(n, m \bmod n)$.

(v) Analyzing an Algorithm

- For an algorithm the most important is efficiency. In fact, there are two kinds of algorithm efficiency. They are:
- Time efficiency, indicating how fast the algorithm runs, and
- Space efficiency, indicating how much extra memory it uses.
- The efficiency of an algorithm is determined by measuring both time efficiency and space efficiency.

(vi) Coding an Algorithm

- The coding / implementation of an algorithm is done by a suitable programming language like C, C++, JAVA.
 - Implementing an algorithm correctly is necessary..
- Standard tricks like computing a loop's invariant (an expression that does not change its value) outside the loop, collecting common subexpressions, replacing expensive operations by cheap ones, selection of programming language and so on should be known to the programmer.
 - It is very essential to write an optimized code (efficient code) to reduce the burden of compiler.



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FUNDAMENTALS OF THE ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHM EFFICIENCY

Module 1- Chapt 2

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The efficiency of an algorithm can be in terms of time and space. The algorithm efficiency can be analyzed by the following ways.

- a. Analysis Framework.
- b. Asymptotic Notations and its properties.
- c. Mathematical analysis for Recursive algorithms.
- d. Mathematical analysis for Non-recursive algorithms.

a. **Analysis Framework:** There are two kinds of efficiencies to analyze the efficiency of any algorithm. They are:

- Time efficiency-indicating how fast the algorithm runs
- Space efficiency-indicating how much extra memory it uses.



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The algorithm analysis framework consists of the following:

- i. Measuring an Input's Size
- ii. Units for Measuring Running Time
- iii. Orders of Growth
- iv. Worst-Case, Best-Case, and Average-Case Efficiencies

i. Measuring an Input Size

- it is a function of some parameter n indicating the algorithm's input size. For example, it will be the size of the **list** for problems of sorting, searching.
- For the problem of evaluating a polynomial of degree n , the size of the parameter will be the polynomial's degree or the number of its coefficients, which is larger by 1 than its degree.
- In computing the product of two $n \times n$ matrices, the choice of a parameter indicating an input size does matter.
- In spell-checking algorithm. If the algorithm examines individual characters of its input, then the size is measured by the number of characters.
- In measuring input size for algorithms solving problems such as checking primality of a positive integer n . the input is just one number.

(ii) Units for Measuring Running Time

Some standard unit of time measurement such as a second, or millisecond, and so on can be used to measure the running time of a program after implementing the algorithm.

Drawbacks

- Dependence on the speed of a particular computer.
- Dependence on the quality of a program implementing the algorithm.
- The compiler used in generating the machine code.
- The difficulty of clocking the actual running time of the program.
- So, we need metric to measure an algorithm's efficiency that does not depend on these extraneous factors.
- One possible approach is to count the number of times each of the algorithm's operations is executed. This approach is excessively difficult.
- The most important operation (+, -, *, /) of the algorithm, called the **basic operation**. Computing the number of times the basic operation is executed is easy. The total running time is determined by basic operations count.

(iii) Orders of Growth

- A difference in running times on small inputs is not what really distinguishes efficient algorithms from inefficient ones.
- For example, the greatest common divisor of two small numbers, it is not immediately clear how much more efficient Euclid's algorithm is compared to the other algorithms. The difference in algorithm efficiencies becomes clear for larger numbers only.
- For large values of n , it is the function's order of growth that counts just like the Table below which contains values of a few functions particularly important for analysis of algorithms.

n	\sqrt{n}	$\log_2 n$	n	$n \log_2 n$	n^2	n^3	2^n	$n!$
1	1	0	1	0	1	1	2	1
2	1.4	1	2	2	4	4	4	2
4	2	2	4	8	16	64	16	24
8	2.8	3	8	$2.4 \cdot 10^1$	64	$5.1 \cdot 10^2$	$2.6 \cdot 10^2$	$4.0 \cdot 10^4$
10	3.2	3.3	10	$3.3 \cdot 10^1$	10^2	10^3	10^3	$3.6 \cdot 10^6$
16	4	4	16	$6.4 \cdot 10^1$	$2.6 \cdot 10^2$	$4.1 \cdot 10^3$	$6.5 \cdot 10^4$	$2.1 \cdot 10^{13}$
10^2	10	6.6	10^2	$6.6 \cdot 10^2$	10^4	10^6	$1.3 \cdot 10^{30}$	$9.3 \cdot 10^{157}$
10^3	31	10	10^3	$1.0 \cdot 10^4$	10^6	10^9	Very big computation	
10^4	10^2	13	10^4	$1.3 \cdot 10^5$	10^8	10^{12}		
10^5	$3.2 \cdot 10^2$	17	10^5	$1.7 \cdot 10^6$	10^{10}	10^{15}		
10^6	10^3	20	10^6	$2.0 \cdot 10^7$	10^{12}	10^{18}		

(iv) Worst-Case, Best-Case, and Average-Case Efficiencies

Consider Sequential Search algorithm some search key K ALGORITHM

SequentialSearch(A[0..n - 1], K)

//Searches for a given value in a given array by sequential search

//Input: An array A[0..n - 1] and a search key K

//Output: The index of the first element in A that matches K or -1 if there are no matching elements

$i \leftarrow 0$

while $i < n$ and $A[i] \neq K$ do

$i \leftarrow i + 1$

if $i < n$ return i

else return -1

Clearly, the running time of this algorithm can be quite different for the same list size n .

In the worst case, there is no matching of elements or the first matching element can found at last on the list.

In the best case, there is matching of elements at first on the list.



Worst-case efficiency

- The worst-case efficiency of an algorithm is its efficiency for the worst case input of size n .
- The algorithm runs the longest among all possible inputs of that size.
- For the input of size n , the running time is $C_{\text{worst}}(n) = n$.

Best case efficiency

- The best-case efficiency of an algorithm is its efficiency for the best case input of size n .
- The algorithm runs the fastest among all possible inputs of that size n .
- In sequential search, If we search a first element in list of size n . (i.e. first element equal to a search key), then the running time is $C_{\text{best}}(n) = 1$

Average case efficiency

The Average case efficiency lies between best case and worst case.

To analyze the algorithm's average case efficiency, we must make some assumptions about possible inputs of size n .



Aysmptotic Growth

The rate at which the function grows.

“Growth rate” means the complexity of the function and the amout of time it takes to compute.

Classification of Growth

- Growing with same rate
- Growing with slower rate
- Growing with faster rate
- .

Asymptotic Notations and Basic Efficiency Classes

Asymptotic notation is a notation, which is used mainly used to represent the time complexities of the algorithms. The efficiency analysis framework concentrates on the order of growth of an algorithm

To compare and rank such orders of growth, computer scientists use three notations, they are:

- O - Big oh notation - “asymptotic Less Than” (Slower rate)
- Ω - Big omega notation - “greater than” (faster rate)
- Θ - Big theta notation - “Equality” (same)

Let $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ be any nonnegative functions defined on the set of natural numbers.

The algorithm’s running time $t(n)$ usually indicated by its basic operation count $C(n)$, and $g(n)$: eg functions.

$$n \in O(n^2), \quad 100n + 5 \in O(n^2), \quad \frac{1}{2}n(n-1) \in O(n^2).$$

$$n^3 \notin O(n^2), \quad 0.00001n^3 \notin O(n^2), \quad n^4 + n + 1 \notin O(n^2).$$

$$n^3 \in \Omega(n^2), \quad \frac{1}{2}n(n-1) \in \Omega(n^2), \quad \text{but } 100n + 5 \notin \Omega(n^2).$$

where $g(n) = n^2$.

i) O - Big oh notation

A function $t(n)$ is said to be in $O(g(n))$, denoted $t(n) \in O(g(n))$, if $t(n)$ is bounded above by some constant multiple of $g(n)$ for all large n , i.e., if there exist some positive constant c and some nonnegative integer n_0 such that:

$$t(n) \leq cg(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0$$

Where $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ are nonnegative functions defined on the set of natural numbers.

O = Asymptotic upper bound = Useful for worst case analysis.

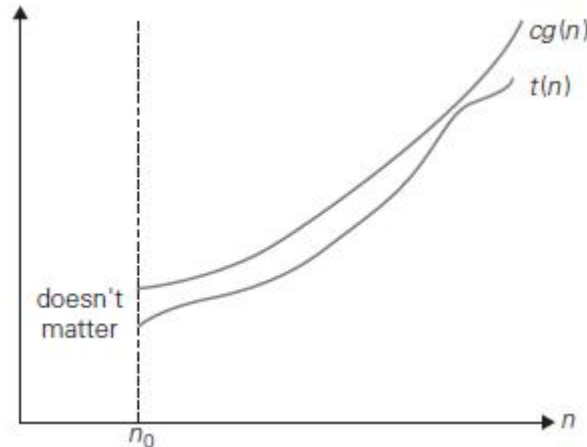


FIG 2.1 Big-oh notation: $t(n) \in O(g(n))$.

Example 2: Prove the assertions $100n + 5 \in O(n^2)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Proof: } 100n + 5 &\leq 100n + n \text{ (for all } n \geq 5) \\ &= 101n \\ &\leq 101n^2 \text{ (}\because n \leq n^2\text{)}\end{aligned}$$

Since, the definition gives us a lot of freedom in choosing specific values for constants c and n_0 . We have $c=101$ and $n_0=5$

Example 3: Prove the assertions $100n + 5 \in O(n)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Proof: } 100n + 5 &\leq 100n + 5n \text{ (for all } n \geq 1) \\ &= 105n\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{i.e., } 100n + 5 \leq 105n$$

$$\text{i.e., } t(n) \leq cg(n)$$

$$\therefore 100n + 5 \in O(n) \text{ with } c=105 \text{ and } n_0=1$$

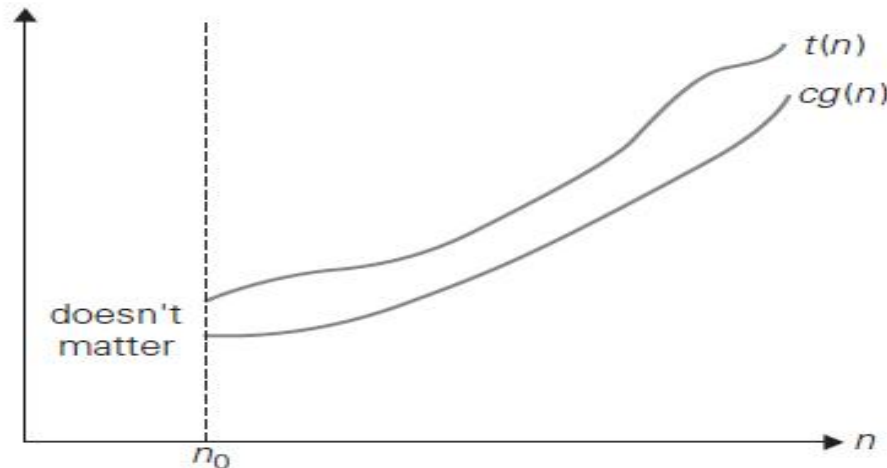
(ii) Ω - Big omega notation

A function $t(n)$ is said to be in $\Omega(g(n))$, denoted $t(n) \in \Omega(g(n))$, if $t(n)$ is bounded below by some positive constant multiple of $g(n)$ for all large n , i.e., if there exist some positive constant c and some nonnegative integer n_0 such that

$$t(n) \geq cg(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0.$$

Where $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ are nonnegative functions defined on the set of natural numbers.

Ω = Asymptotic lower bound = **Useful for best case analysis** = Loose bound





Prove the assertions $n^3+10n^2+4n+2 \in \Omega (n^2)$.

Proof: $n^3+10n^2+4n+2 \geq n^2$

(for all $n \geq 0$)

i.e., by definition $t(n) \geq cg(n)$, where $c=1$ and $n_0=0$

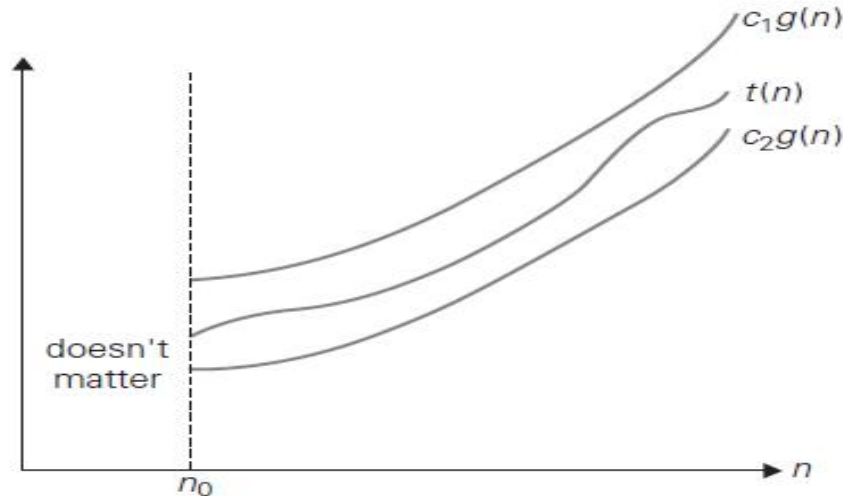
(iii) Θ - Big theta notation

A function $t(n)$ is said to be in $\Theta(g(n))$, denoted $t(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$, if $t(n)$ is bounded both above and below by some positive constant multiples of $g(n)$ for all large n , i.e., if there exist some positive constants c_1 and c_2 and some nonnegative integer n_0 such that

$$c_2 g(n) \leq t(n) \leq c_1 g(n) \text{ for all } n \geq n_0.$$

Where $t(n)$ and $g(n)$ are nonnegative functions defined on the set of natural numbers.

Θ = Asymptotic tight bound = **Useful for average case analysis**



Big-theta notation: $t(n) \in \Theta(g(n))$.

For example, let us prove that $\frac{1}{2}n(n-1) \in \Theta(n^2)$. First, we prove the right inequality (the upper bound):

$$\frac{1}{2}n(n-1) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 - \frac{1}{2}n \leq \frac{1}{2}n^2 \quad \text{for all } n \geq 0.$$

Second, we prove the left inequality (the lower bound):

$$\frac{1}{2}n(n-1) = \frac{1}{2}n^2 - \frac{1}{2}n \geq \frac{1}{2}n^2 - \frac{1}{2}n \frac{1}{2}n \quad (\text{for all } n \geq 2) = \frac{1}{4}n^2.$$

Hence, we can select $c_2 = \frac{1}{4}$, $c_1 = \frac{1}{2}$, and $n_0 = 2$.



MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS FOR RECURSIVE ALGORITHMS

General Plan for Analyzing the Time Efficiency of Recursive Algorithms

1. Decide on a parameter (or parameters) indicating an input's size.
2. Identify the algorithm's basic operation.
3. Check whether the number of times the basic operation is executed can vary on different inputs of the same size;
if it can, the worst-case, average-case, and best-case efficiencies must be investigated separately.
4. Set up a recurrence relation, with an appropriate initial condition, for the number of times the basic operation is executed.
5. Solve the recurrence or, at least, ascertain the order of growth of its solution.



EXAMPLE 1: Compute the factorial function $F(n) = n!$ for an arbitrary nonnegative integer n . Since $n! = 1 \cdot \dots \cdot (n-1) \cdot n = (n-1)! \cdot n$, for $n \geq 1$ and $0! = 1$ by definition, we can compute $F(n) = F(n-1) \cdot n$ with the following recursive algorithm.

ALGORITHM $F(n)$

//Computes $n!$ recursively

//Input: A nonnegative integer n

//Output: The value of $n!$

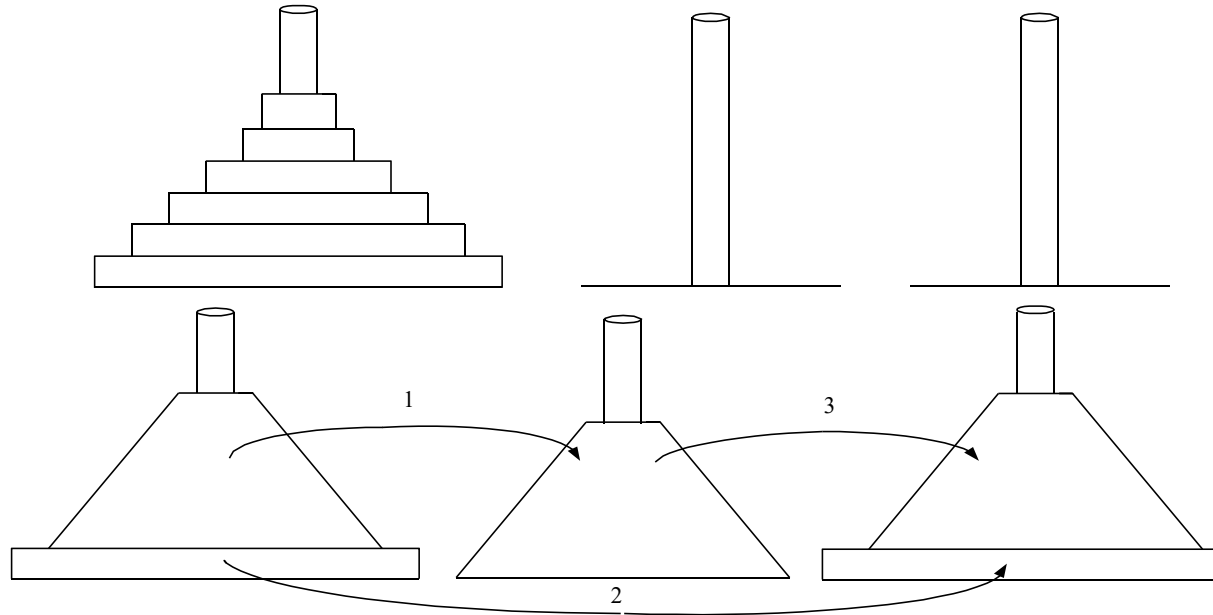
if $n = 0$ return 1

else return $F(n-1) * n$

Tower of Hanoi Problem

- In this problem, we have n disks of different sizes and three pegs.
- Initially, all the disks are on the first peg in order of size, the largest on the bottom and the smallest on top.
- The goal is to move all the disks to the third peg, using the second one as an auxiliary if necessary.
- We can move only one disk at a time, and it is forbidden to place a larger disk on top of a smaller one.

Example 2: The Tower of Hanoi Puzzle



Recurrence for number of moves:

Algorithm : TOH (n, S, T, D)

```
// Solving Tower of Hanoi Problems
// Input : Number of discs n
// Output : The sequence of movements.
{
    if  $n > 0$ 
    {
        TOH ( $n - 1, S, D, T$ );
        move disk from S to D
        TOH ( $n - 1, T, S, D$ )
    }
}
```

Solving recurrence for number of moves

$$M(n) = 2M(n-1) + 1, M(0) = 0$$

$$2[2M(n-2)+1]+1$$

$$2^2M(n-2) + 2 + 1$$

$$2^2 [2M(n-3) + 1] + 2 + 1$$

$$2^3 M(n-3) + 2^2 + 2 + 1$$

...

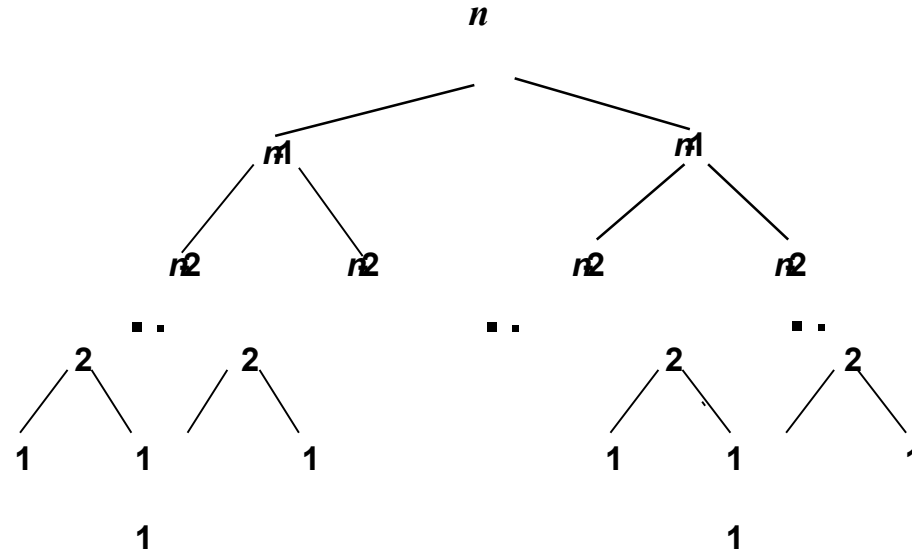
$$2^n M(n-n) + 2^{n-1} + 2^{n-2} + \dots + 2^2 + 2 + 1$$

Standard formula used is G.P sequence

$$(1 + 2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^{n-2} + 2^{n-1}) = \frac{a(r - 1)}{r - 1}$$

Here $a=1$ and $r=2 \Rightarrow O(2^n)$

Tree of calls for the Tower of Hanoi Puzzle





MATHEMATICAL ANALYSIS FOR NON-RECURSIVE ALGORITHMS

General Plan for Analyzing the Time Efficiency of Nonrecursive Algorithms

1. Decide on a parameter (or parameters) indicating an input's size.
2. Identify the algorithm's basic operation (in the innermost loop).
3. Check whether the number of times the basic operation is executed depends only on the size of an input. If it also depends on some additional property, the worst-case, average-case, and, if necessary, best-case efficiencies have to be investigated separately.
4. Set up a sum expressing the number of times the algorithm's basic operation is executed.
5. Using standard formulas and rules of sum manipulation either find a closed form formula for the count or at the least, establish its order of growth.



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EXAMPLE 1: Consider the problem of finding the value of the largest element in a list of n numbers.

Assume that the list is implemented as an array for simplicity.

ALGORITHM MaxElement($A[0..n - 1]$)

//Determines the value of the largest element in a given array

//Input: An array $A[0..n - 1]$ of real numbers

//Output: The value of the largest element in A

maxval $\leftarrow A[0]$

for $i \leftarrow 1$ to $n - 1$ do

if $A[i] > \text{maxval}$

maxval $\leftarrow A[i]$

return maxval

Example 1: Maximum element

ALGORITHM *MaxElement*($A[0..n - 1]$)

//Determines the value of the largest element in a given array

//Input: An array $A[0..n - 1]$ of real numbers

//Output: The value of the largest element in A

$maxval \leftarrow A[0]$

for $i \leftarrow 1$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

if $A[i] > maxval$

$maxval \leftarrow A[i]$

return $maxval$

Analysis

1. Input parameter :
2. Basic operation: Comparison
 $A[i] > \max$

3.
$$C(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 1.$$

4.
$$C(n) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 1 = n - 1 \in \Theta(n).$$

Example 2: Element uniqueness problem

ALGORITHM *UniqueElements*($A[0..n - 1]$)

//Determines whether all the elements in a given array are distinct

//Input: An array $A[0..n - 1]$

//Output: Returns “true” if all the elements in A are distinct

// and “false” otherwise

for $i \leftarrow 0$ **to** $n - 2$ **do**

for $j \leftarrow i + 1$ **to** $n - 1$ **do**

if $A[i] = A[j]$ **return false**

return true

Analysis

1. Input parameter is input size n
2. Basic operation: Comparison $A[i] == A[j]$

3.

$$\begin{aligned} C_{\text{worst}}(n) &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n-1} 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} [(n-1) - (i+1) + 1] = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1-i) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1) - \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} i = (n-1) \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} 1 - \frac{(n-2)(n-1)}{2} \\ &= (n-1)^2 - \frac{(n-2)(n-1)}{2} = \frac{(n-1)n}{2} \approx \frac{1}{2}n^2 \in \Theta(n^2). \end{aligned}$$

4. We also could have computed the sum $\sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1-i)$ faster as follows:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1-i) = (n-1) + (n-2) + \cdots + 1 = \frac{(n-1)n}{2}, \quad \in O(n^2)$$



A T M E
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BRUTE FORCE APPROACHES

Module 1- Chapt 3

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BRUTE FORCE

Brute force is a straightforward approach to solving a problem, usually directly based on the problem statement and definitions of the concepts involved.

Selection Sort, Bubble Sort, Sequential Search, String Matching, Depth-First Search and Breadth-First Search can be solved by Brute Force.

Examples:

1. Computing a^n : $a * a * a * \dots * a$ (n times)
2. Computing $n!$: The $n!$ can be computed as $n * (n-1) * \dots * 3 * 2 * 1$
3. Multiplication of two matrices : $C=AB$
4. Searching a key from list of elements (Sequential search)

Advantages:

1. Brute force is applicable to a very wide variety of problems.
2. It is very useful for solving small size instances of a problem, even though it is inefficient.
3. The brute-force approach yields reasonable algorithms of at least some practical value with no limitation on instance size for sorting, searching, and string matching.

Selection Sort

ALGORITHM SelectionSort($A[0..n - 1]$)

//Sorts a given array by selection sort

//Input: An array $A[0..n - 1]$ of orderable elements

//Output: Array $A[0..n - 1]$ sorted in nondecreasing order

for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $n - 2$ do

$\text{min} \leftarrow i$

 for $j \leftarrow i + 1$ to $n - 1$ do

 if $A[j] < A[\text{min}]$ $\text{min} \leftarrow j$

 swap $A[i]$ and $A[\text{min}]$

The analysis of selection sort is straightforward. The input size is given by the number of elements n ;

the basic operation is the key comparison $A[j] < A[\min]$.

The number of times it is executed depends only on the array size and is given by the following sum:

$$C(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \sum_{j=i+1}^{n-1} 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} [(n-1) - (i+1) + 1] = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1-i).$$

selection sort is a $O(n^2)$ algorithm for best case. however, that the number of key swaps is only $O(n)$.

Worst case case is also $O(n^2)$

Bubble Sort

ALGORITHM BubbleSort(A[0..n - 1])

//Sorts a given array by bubble sort

//Input: An array A[0..n - 1] of orderable elements

//Output: Array A[0..n - 1] sorted in nondecreasing order

for i ← 0 to n - 2 do

for j ← 0 to n - 2 - i do

if A[j + 1] < A[j] swap A[j] and A[j + 1]

The number of key comparisons for the bubble-sort version given above is the same for all arrays of size n; it is obtained by a sum that is almost identical to the sum for selection sort:

$$\begin{aligned} C(n) &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} \sum_{j=0}^{n-2-i} 1 = \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} [(n-2-i) - 0 + 1] \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^{n-2} (n-1-i) = \frac{(n-1)n}{2} \in \Theta(n^2). \end{aligned}$$

Advantages of Bubble Sort

- Easily understandable.
- Does not necessitates any extra memory.
- The code can be written easily for this algorithm.
- Minimal space requirement than that of other sorting algorithms.

Disadvantages of Bubble Sort

- It does not work well when we have large unsorted lists, and it necessitates more resources that end up taking so much of time.
- It is only meant for academic purposes, not for practical implementations.
- It involves the n^2 order of steps to sort an algorithm.



Sequential Search

ALGORITHM SequentialSearch2($A[0..n]$, K)

//Implements sequential search with a search key as a sentinel

//Input: An array A of n elements and a search key K

//Output: The index of the first element in $A[0..n - 1]$ whose value is
// equal to K or -1 if no such element is found

$A[n] \leftarrow K$

$i \leftarrow 0$

while $A[i] = K$ do

$i \leftarrow i + 1$

if $i < n$ return i

else return -1

Algorithm for Linear Search:

The algorithm for linear search can be broken down into the following steps:

1. Start: Begin at the first element of the collection of elements.
2. Compare: Compare the current element with the desired element.
3. Found: If the current element is equal to the desired element, return true or index to the current element.
4. Move: Otherwise, move to the next element in the collection.
5. Repeat: Repeat steps 2-4 until we have reached the end of collection.
6. Not found: If the end of the collection is reached without finding the desired element, return that the desired element is not in the array.

Advantages of Linear Search:

- Linear search can be used irrespective of whether the array is sorted or not. It can be used on arrays of any data type.
- Does not require any additional memory.
- It is a well-suited algorithm for small datasets.

Disadvantages of Linear Search:

- Linear search has a time complexity of $O(N)$ (Worst Case), which in turn makes it slow for large datasets.
- Not suitable for large arrays.

When to use Linear Search?

- When we are dealing with a small dataset.
- When you are searching for a dataset stored in contiguous memory.

Brute-Force String Matching

pattern: a string of m characters to search for

text: a (longer) string of n characters to search in

problem: find first substring in text that matches pattern

Brute-force: Scan text LR, compare chars, looking for pattern,

Step 1 Align pattern at beginning of text

Step 2 Moving from left to right, compare each character of pattern to the corresponding character in text until

- all characters are found to match (successful search);
- or a mismatch is detected

Step 3 While pattern is not found and the text is not yet exhausted, realign pattern one position to the right and
repeat Step 2

Brute-Force String Matching

ALGORITHM BruteForceStringMatch($T[0..n-1]$, $P[0..m-1]$)

//Implements brute-force string matching

//Input: An array $T[0..n-1]$ of n characters representing a text and

// an array $P[0..m-1]$ of m characters representing a pattern

//Output: The index of the first character in the text that starts a

// matching substring or -1 if the search is unsuccessful

for $i \leftarrow 0$ to $n - m$ do

$j \leftarrow 0$

 while $j < m$ and $P[j] = T[i + j]$ do

$j \leftarrow j + 1$

 if $j = m$ return i

return -1

The Time Complexity of the Brute Force Algorithm is **$O(MN)$** , where M denotes the length of the text and N denotes the length of the pattern.