# Week 10 - Algorithms and Recursion

#### Overview

In this lecture we look at how to compare algorithms in relation to performance.

We look at some common algorithms in relation to some common classifications for performance, in particular computational complexity.

We also look at recursion as an appropriate approach to some types of problems.

## What is an algorithm?

An algorithm is formally defined as (Knuth, 1968):

- 1. Finite (it stops);
- 2. Definite (precise, not subjective);
- 3. An Effective procedure (i.e can be carried out); and
- 4. Produces output (has some result or effect)
- 5. Takes input.

Knuth, D.E 1968, Fundamental Algorithms: The Art of Computer Programming, Vol 1, Addison-Wesley, London

# Examples of algorithms (or not?)

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Is each of the following an algorithm:
Test each integer to see if it is prime
Count each grain of sand on Bondi beach.
Beat the eggs until fluffy
Calculate the constant PI to 5 decimal places

## Computational Complexity I

- We are interested in how efficient programs are.
- Inefficiency might be ok for small data sets, but a big problem for large data sets.
- It depends on how 'quickly' or seriously performance degrades as the data set increases.

# Computational Complexity II

There are some general categories for classifying how different algorithms performance compares as the data set size increases. These are as follows:

 $O(n^2)$  Algorithms

O(n) Algorithms

 $O(log_n)$  Algorithms

## Computational Complexity III

## ullet $O(n^2)$ Algorithms

 $\circ$  the time (number of lines of code executed) increases quadratically in proportion to the size of the data set (N). This type of pattern can extend to exponential eg:  $O(c^n)$  - where c is a constant.

#### • O(n) Algorithms

• The time (number of lines of code executed) increases in direct proportion to the size of the data set to N.

#### ullet O(logn) Algorithms

• The time (number of lines of code executed) increases logarithmically in proportion to the size of the data set.

## An Example

Lets try bubble sort with 100 items, then change NUM\_ITEM to 1,000, then 10,000.

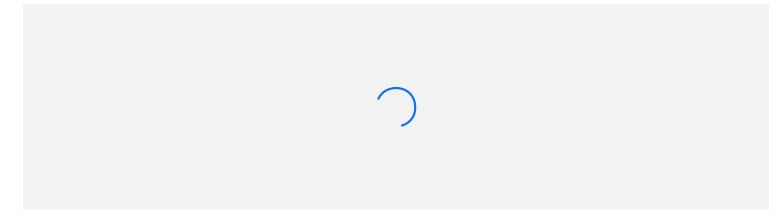
For each of the above check the number of comparisons - what pattern do you see?

```
▶ Run
                                                                           RUBY
 1 # Code for bubble sort
 2 \text{ NUM\_ITEM} = 100
 3 # Max VALUE of 100%
 4 MAX_VALUE = 100
 5 \text{ num\_compare} = 0
 6 arr = Array.new(NUM_ITEM)
 7
 8 # Randomly put some final exam VALUEs into arr
 9
10 for i in (0..NUM_ITEM - 1)
11
      arr[i] = rand(MAX_VALUE + 1)
12 end
13
14 # Output randomly generated array
```

# Complexity Quiz

#### Question

Look at the complexity graphs - rank the list below so as to go from most efficient (at the top) to least efficient (at the bottom):

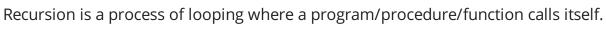


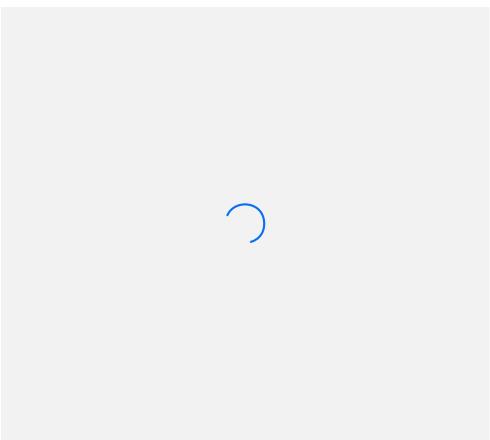
 $O(n^2)$ 

O(n)

 $O(n \log n)$ 

## Recursion





## **Recursion Structure**

Recursion needs to have the elements of a loop:

- 1. initialisation
- 2. repetition/incrementing
- 3. Termination condition

Loops (revision)
A loop like the following has a control variable:

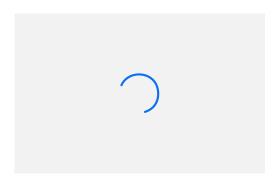
## Loop Example

```
▶ Run
 1
 2 def print_array(array)
     index = 0
 3
     while index < array.length</pre>
 4
          puts array[index]
 5
          index += 1
 6
 7
     end
     index
 8
 9 end
10
11 def main
     array = [10, 2, 5, 7, 6]
12
13
     count = print_array(array)
     puts "The array contained " + count.to_s + " elements."
14
```

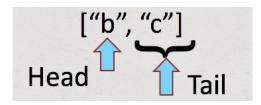
## Lists

In Ruby we can look at arrays as lists.

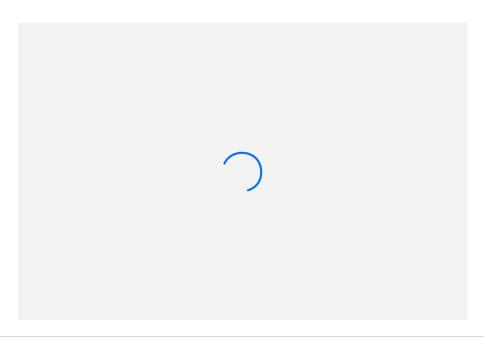
In computing lists are considered as having a head and a tail eg:



Then the tail can be seen as another 'sub-list":



## Recursion Example using a list



```
▶ Run
                                                                     RUBY
 1 # Print array and return count of elements calculated
 2 # as we print them
 3
 4 def print_list_recursive(list)
    if (list.length == 0)
 5
 6
     return
 7
     end
 9
     puts " List Element is: " + list[0].to_s
10
     print_list_recursive(list[1..list.size])
11 end
12
13 def main
     list = ["a", "b", "c", "d", "e", "f"]
```

#### **Recursive Calculations**

But printing is just output – when doing calculations or generating something (like a sum) we need an additional element for our recursion:

#### "the glue":

```
def print_list_recursive_with_count(list)
   if (list.length == 0)
        return 0
        return o
   end

puts " List Element is: " + list[0].to_s
   return print_list_recursive_with_count(list[1..list.size]) + 1
end

def main
        list = ["a", "b", "c", "d", "e", "f"]
   count = print_list_recursive_with_count(list)
   puts "The list contained " + count.to_s + " elements."

Calculated recursively
```

## Recursion Example - function

```
▶ Run
 1
 2 # Print list recursively with count
 3
 4 def print_list_recursive_with_count(list)
     if (list.length == 0)
       return 0
 6
 7
     end
 8
     puts " List Element is: " + list[0].to_s
 9
     return print_list_recursive_with_count(list[1..list.size]) + 1
10
11 end
12
13 def main
     list = ["a", "b", "c", "d", "e", "f"]
14
```

# Example: Factorials

#### Factorial:

$$f(1) = 1$$

$$f(2) = 1 \times 2 = 2$$

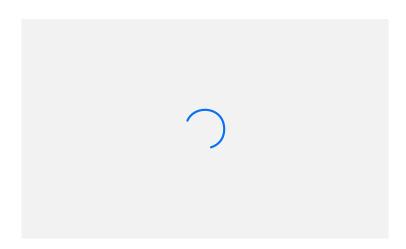
$$f(3) = 1 \times 2 \times 3 = 6$$

$$f(4) = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 = 24$$

$$f(5) = 1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \times 5 = 120$$

## Example: Factorials II

A Lisp program:



Lets try this with Lisp. What if we try a really large number?

What happens? Why?

```
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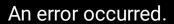
1 (defun factorial (N) (if (= N 1) 1 (* N (factorial (- N 1)))))
2 (trace factorial)
3 (factorial 10000)
```

## Impacts on the Stack

- Each time we call a recursive function we add a level to the program stack.
- Remember the stack stores the state of each function or procedure that is called.
- Tail recursion like print\_list\_recursive() above allows the possibility for a smart interpreter to never run out of stack space.
- Thus if you pass all the data to the next call, you can potentially save stack space

### When to use recursion?

The Towers of Hanoi (5 disk version):



Try watching this video on www.youtube.com, or enable JavaScript if it is disabled in your browser.

# Induction

Recursion is related to a method of mathematical proof called "induction".

## Induction: Recurrence Relations

Recurrence relations are equations that define the i th value in a sequence of numbers in terms of the preceding  $i\!-\!1$  values.

Eg: factorials 
$$0! = 1, n! = (n-1)! * n$$

## Another function

Cumulative Sum:

$$c(2)1+2=3$$

$$c(3)1 + 2 + 3 = 6$$

$$c(4)1 + 2 + 3 + 4 = 10$$

$$c(5)1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 = 154$$

## Lets try two new Lisp functions

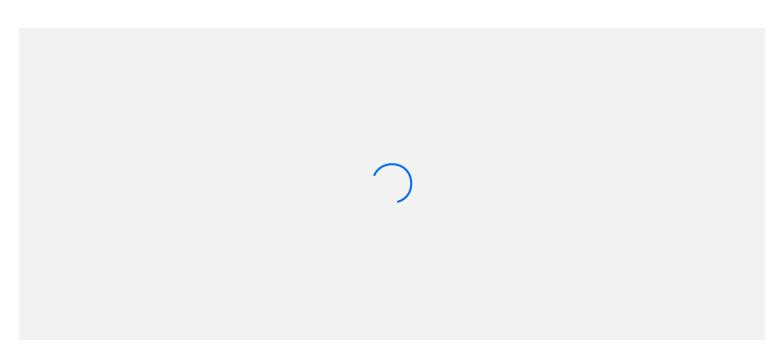
3 (cumsum 10)

```
(defun sum (N) (if (= N 1) 1 (+ N (sum (- N 1)))))

(defun cumsum (N) (if (= N 1) 1 (/ (* N (+ N 1)) 2)))

Note: (trace sum) will trace the first function.
```

## Intuitive Proof



Eg: n=9, then add up all the n sums to get 45, which is the same as 9 imes 10/2

Eg: n=3, then add up all the n sums to get 6 which is 3 imes 4/2

## Inductive Proof I

Induction involves proof through recursive relations using the following steps:

- 1. Show the proposition is true for an initial value (k) (base step)
- 2.Assume the proposition is true for  $n \geq k$  show it is true for n+1 (induction step)

## Inductive Proof II:

Eg: Prove that:

$$1+2+3+\ldots+n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}(1.0)$$

Base Step: P(1) show the statement is true for the initial value:

$$1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2}$$

## Inductive Proof III

So keep in mind that:

$$1+2+3+\ldots=n=rac{n(n+1)}{2}(1.0)$$

And for n=1 we have:

$$1 = \frac{1(1+1)}{2}$$

## Induction Step I

So to generalise we add a 'recursive' step, moving to the next number in the 'chain'.

We start with:

$$1+2+3+\ldots+n=rac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
 (1.0)

Then the induction step assumes that our equation holds for some n + 1.

$$1+2+3+\ldots+n+(n+1)=rac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$$
 (2.0)

i.e add one to each n.

## Induction Step II

So building on our induction step that our equation holds for some n+1.

$$1+2+3+\ldots+n+(n+1)=rac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}(2.0)$$

then the left side of the equation (2.0) becomes (note the recursive use of the RHS of 1.0 here):

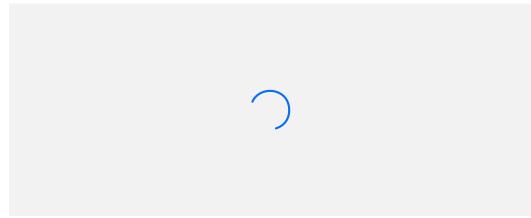
$$\frac{n(n+1)}{2} + (n+1) = \frac{(n(n+1)+2(n+1))}{2} = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$$

and so we have verified conditions 1 and 2 of the Principle of Mathematical Induction.

## HD Task: Recursive Maze Search: Hint

Try running the code with the following command:





The last lines of each if statement need to set visited to true, and then recursively call search()

# C Compiling Task for Week 10

Let us see a demonstration of the C compiling task and talk a bit about what is in that file:

## This week's CREDIT task

Write a simple recursive factorial program

You can use the code above as a basis

It takes an argument on the command line.

## Summary

- Programs may be written to be simple/elegant and/or efficient.
- For larger data sets efficiency becomes more important, the growth can be so large that machine time costs become significant.
- Recursion is an alternative to loops.
- Recursion may allow code to be both EFFICIENT and ELEGANT if the problem is suited to it.

## References

Freider, O, Frieder, G & Grossman, D. 2013 Computer Science Programming Basics in Ruby, O'Reilly Media Inc. See Section 7.2 Available online from the Swinburne Library

Stephens, R 2013 Essential Algorithms: A Practical Approach to Computer Algorithms, John Wiley and Sons (Chapt 6)

## **Test Revision**

Code - make sure you up to at least week 6 with your tasks and you should be fine.

Quizzes and theory - based on the lessons and the lesson quizzes up to Week 6.

## D and HD Tasks

- Check The Rubric (attached)
- Some the examples in the recorded video 'Custom Project Levels' under Modules->Assessments in Canvas.



MarkingRubricSummary.pdf



Note: we want discussion of design and evidence of design.