



COMP110: Principles of Computing 10: Algorithm Strategies



Worksheets

- ► Worksheet 6: due this Friday
- ► Worksheet 7: due **next Friday**





Recursion

Recursion

- ► A recursive function is a function that calls itself
- Example: the Fibonacci numbers each number in the sequence is the sum of the previous two

```
1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55, \dots
```

▶ To calculate the nth Fibonacci number:

```
int fibonacci(int n)
{
   if (n <= 2)
      return 1;
   else
      return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2);
}</pre>
```

 Recursive functions need a base case where they stop recursing, otherwise they will go forever



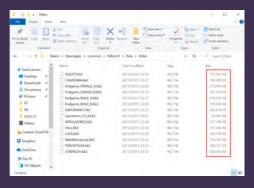
Thinking recursively

- I want to solve a problem
- If I already had a function to solve smaller instances of the problem, I could use it to write my function
- I can solve the smallest possible problem
- Therefore I can write a recursive function



Example: file sizes

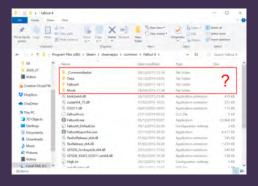
Suppose we want to find the total size of all files in a folder and its subfolders



If the folder contains only files, then we can simply add their sizes together

Example: file sizes

What if the folder contains subfolders?



► We need to find the total size of all files in the subfolders and their subsubfolders...



Example: file sizes — recursive solution

```
assume the system provides a GETFILESIZE function

procedure CALCULATEFOLDERSIZE(folder)

totalSize ← 0

for each item in folder do

if item is a file then

totalSize ← totalSize + GETFILESIZE(item)

else if item is a folder then

totalSize ← totalSize + CALCULATEFOLDERSIZE(item)

end if

end for

return totalSize
end procedure
```



The call stack

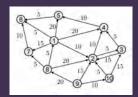
- Recall: nested function calls are handled using a stack
- ► Calling a function pushes a frame onto the stack
- Returning from a function pops the top frame from the stack
- Recursive functions are no different
- This means if a recursive function contains local variables, they are independent between instances of the function
- This is also why careless use of recursion can lead to a stack overflow





Graphs and trees

Graphs

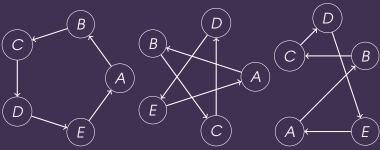




- ► A graph is defined by:
 - A collection of nodes or vertices (points)
 - ► A collection of **edges** or **arcs** (lines or arrows between points)
- Often used to model networks (e.g. social networks, transport networks, game levels, automata, ...)
- ▶ Directed graph: edges are arrows
- ▶ Undirected graph: edges are lines

Drawing graphs

- A graph does not necessarily specify the physical positions of its nodes
- ► E.g. these are technically the same graph:







Trees

- A tree is a special type of directed graph where:
 - One node (the root) has no incoming edges
 - All other nodes have exactly 1 incoming edge
- Edges go from parent to child
 - All nodes except the root have exactly one parent
 - Nodes can have 0, 1 or many children
- Used to model hierarchies (e.g. file systems, object inheritance, scene graphs, state-action trees, behaviour trees, ...)





Tree traversal



Tree traversal

- ► Traversal: visiting all the nodes of the tree
- Two main types
 - Depth first
 - Breadth first



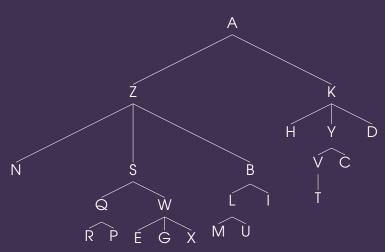
Tree traversal

```
procedure DepthFirstSearch
   let S be a stack
   push root node onto S
   while S is not empty do
      pop n from S
      print n
      push children of n onto S
   end while
end procedure
procedure BreadthFirstSearch
   let Q be a queue
   enqueue root node into Q
   while Q is not empty do
      dequeue n from Q
      print n
      enqueue children of n into Q
   end while
end procedure
```



Tree traversal example

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Recursive depth first search

```
procedure DEPTHFIRSTSEARCH(n)
print n
for each child c of n do
DEPTHFIRSTSEARCH(c)
end for
end procedure
```

Compare to the pseudocode on the previous slide. Where is the stack?





Algorithm strategies



The knapsack problem — informally

- You are looting a dungeon in an RPG
- Every item you can pick up has a weight and a value
- You have a maximum carry weight
- Which items should you pick up to maximise the total value without exceeding your carry weight?

The knapsack problem — formally

- ► There is a set X of items
- ► Each item x has a weight weight(x) and a value value(x)
- ► There is a maximum weight W
- ▶ What subset $S \subseteq X$ maximises the total value, whilst not exceeding the maximum weight?
- ▶ In other words: find $S \subseteq X$ to maximise

$$\sum_{x \in S} \mathsf{value}(x)$$

subject to

$$\sum_{x \in S} \mathsf{weight}(x) \leq W$$



Algorithm strategies

- Brute force
- ▶ Greedy
- ▶ Divide-and-conquer
- ▶ Dynamic programming

Brute force

► Try every possible solution and decide which is best procedure KNAPSACK(X W)

```
procedure Knapsack(X, W)
    S_{\text{best}} \leftarrow \{\}
     v_{\text{best}} \leftarrow 0
    for every subset S \subset X do
         if weight(S) \leq W and value(S) > V_{\text{best}} then
               S_{\text{best}} \leftarrow S
               V_{\text{best}} \leftarrow \text{value}(S)
          end if
     end for
     return Spest
end procedure
```



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- ► If X contains n elements, how many subsets of X are there?
 - Hint: think about constructing a subset as a series of "yes or no" questions
- Therefore what is the time complexity of the brute force algorithm?
- ► If we add one element to X, what happens to the running time of the algorithm?

Greedy algorithm

 At each stage of building a solution, take the best available option

```
procedure KNAPSACK(X, W) S \leftarrow \{\} for each x \in X, in descending order of value(x) do if weight(S) + weight(x) \leq W then add x to S end if end for return S end procedure
```



Greedy algorithm

- Time complexity is dominated by sorting X by value
- The rest of the algorithm runs in linear time
- In some problems an appropriately chosen greedy solution is optimal
 - A* pathfinding
 - Huffman coding
- ► However the greedy solution to the knapsack problem may not be optimal!
- For example (maximum carry weight is 100)
 - Greedy algorithm takes 1 set of horse armour (weight 100, value 500)
 - ... instead of 100 silver coins (each weight 1, value 10)



Divide and conquer strategies

- Break the problem into smaller, easier to solve subproblems
- Requires that the solution to the original problem is composed of the solutions to the smaller problem
- Example from earlier in the module: binary search
 - Problem: find an element in a list
 - Subproblem: find the element in a list of half the size



Divide and conquer for the knapsack problem

- ▶ Consider an element $x \in X$ with weight $(x) \leq W$
- ▶ Let X' be X with x removed
- The solution to the knapsack problem either includes x or it doesn't
- ► The solution is either:
 - The solution to the knapsack problem on X' with maximum weight W, or
 - ► The solution to the knapsack problem on X' with maximum weight W - weight(x), plus x
- ... whichever has the greater value
- Base case: the solution to the knapsack problem on the empty set is the empty set



In other words...

- Think about solving the knapsack problem based on the remaining loot and the remaining carry capacity
- Base case: if you have no carry capacity left, there is nothing to loot
- For each piece of loot, try:
 - Picking it up and solving the problem with the resulting (reduced) carry capacity
 - Leaving it and solving the problem with the original carry capacity
- Whichever of those two gives the best result, go with it



Divide and conquer for the knapsack problem

```
procedure KNAPSACK(X, W)
    if X = \{\} or W < 0 then
        return {}
    end if
    x \leftarrow \text{last element of } X
    X' \leftarrow X without x
    S \leftarrow \mathsf{KNAPSACK}(X', W)
    if weight(x) < W then
        S' \leftarrow \mathsf{KNAPSACK}(X', W - \mathsf{weight}(X))
        add x_{\nu} to S'
        return whichever of S, S' has the larger value
    else
        return S
    end if
end procedure
```

Time complexity

- Each call to KNAPSACK has, in the worst case, two recursive calls to KNAPSACK
- Number of calls is

$$\underbrace{1+2+4+8+\cdots+2'+\ldots}_{n \text{ terms}}$$

- ▶ Thus the worst case time complexity is $O(2^n)$ still exponential!
- ► However in the average case many of the calls have only a single recursive call, so this is still more efficient than brute force



Overlapping subproblems

- Here we end up solving the same subproblem multiple times
- Can save time by caching (remembering) these sub-solutions
- ► This is called **memoization**
 - ▶ Not memorization!
- One of several techniques in the category of dynamic programming



Dynamic programming for the knapsack problem

```
procedure KNAPSACK(X, W)
   if KNAPSACK(X, W) has already been computed then
       return previously computed result
   end if
   if X = \{\} or W < 0 then
       return {}
   end if
   x \leftarrow \text{last element of } X
   X' \leftarrow X without x
   S \leftarrow KNAPSACK(X', W)
   if weight(x) \leq W then
       S' \leftarrow \mathsf{KNAPSACK}(X', W - \mathsf{weight}(X))
       add x_{\nu} to S'
       cache and return whichever of S, S' has the larger value
   else
       cache and return S
   end if
end procedure
```



Time complexity

- ► The running time of a dynamic programming algorithm is limited by the size of the result table once the table is filled, there is nothing left to do
- ▶ In this case, combinations of X and W
- ▶ If we always remove the last element of X, then there are n+1 possibilities
- Remaining carry weight is an integer between 0 and
 W so there are W + 1 possibilities

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- What is the maximum possible number of entries in the table of intermediate results?
- ► Therefore what is the time complexity of the dynamic programming algorithm?

Another example of dynamic programming

From the beginning of the lecture:

```
int fibonacci(int n)
{
   if (n <= 2)
      return 1;
   else
      return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2);
}</pre>
```

- ▶ fibonacci(10) Calls fibonacci(9) and fibonacci(8)
- ► fibonacci (9) Calls fibonacci (8) and fibonacci (7)
- ► fibonacci(8) Calls fibonacci(7) and fibonacci(6)
- So if we memoize, we can vastly reduce the number of recursive calls

Summary of algorithm strategies

- Brute force
 - Good enough for small/simple problems
- Greedy
 - Efficient for certain problems, but doesn't always give optimal solutions
- ▶ Divide-and-conquer
 - Good if the problem can be broken down into simpler subproblems
- Dynamic programming
 - Makes divide-and-conquer more efficient if subproblems often reoccur



