

Data Structures and Algorithms 2

Chapter 1 Programming: A General Overview

Dr. Fouzia ANGUEL 2nd year / S3

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Course Outline

Introduction

Mathematics Review

- Exponent
- Logarithms
- Series
- Proofs
 - Proof By Induction
 - Sum of arithmetic serie
 - Sum of squares
 - Fibonacci numbers
 - Proof By Counter Example
 - Proof By Contradiction

Recursion

- Recursion vs Iteration

What Is an Algorithm?

An algorithm is an explicit sequence of instructions, performed on data, to accomplish a desired objective.

Example

Problem: determine the kth largest number in a group of N numbers.

Selection problem

Selection problem

Algorithm 1

- read the N numbers into an array,
- sort the array in decreasing order
- return the element in position k.

Selection problem

Algorithm 2

- read the first k elements into an array and sort them (in decreasing order).
- A new element, is ignored or it is placed in its correct spot in the array, bumping one element out of the array.
- The element in the kth position is returned as the answer.

- An algorithm is considered **correct** if, for every input instance, it terminates with the correct output.
- We say that a correct algorithm **solves** the given computational problem.
- An **incorrect** algorithm might not terminate at all on some input instances,
- or it might halt with an answer other than the desired one.

Introduction Selection problem

Simulation

- Using a random file of 30 million elements and k = 15,000,000.
- It showed that neither algorithm finishes in a reasonable amount of time;
- Each one requires several days of computer processing to terminate (although eventually with a correct answer).
- The proposed algorithms work, BUT they cannot be considered good algorithms.
- In many problems, writing a working program is not good enough.
- If the program is to be run on a large data set then the running time becomes an issue .

How to estimate the running time of a program?

How can we tell which algorithm is better?

- We could implement both algorithms, run them both Expensive and error prone
- Preferably, we should analyze them mathematically Algorithm analysis
 - measuring the resources needed for its execution,

time (how long the algorithm takes to run) and

space (how much memory the algorithm uses).

- It helps evaluate the efficiency of an algorithm, especially when the input size becomes large.

Exponents

$$X^A X^B = X^{A+B}$$

$$X^{AB} = (X^A)^B = (X^B)^A$$

$$X^N + X^N = 2X^N \neq X^{2N}$$

$$2^{N} + 2^{N} = 2^{N+1}$$

Logarithms

In computer science, all logarithms are to the base 2 unless specified otherwise:

$$X^A = B$$
 if and only if $\log_x B = A$

$$\log_{A} B = \log_{C} B / \log_{C} A$$

$$A,B,C > o, A \neq o$$

$$\log (AB) = \log A + \log B$$

$$A,B > o$$

$$\log (A/B) = \log A - \log B$$

$$\log (A^{B}) = B \log A$$

$$a^{\log n} = n^{\log a}$$

 $\log 1 = 0$ $\log 2 = 1$ $\log 1024 = 10$ $\log 1048576 = 10$

Arithmetic series

Each term in an arithmetic series is increased by a constant value (usually 1):

$$0+1+2+3+\mathbb{Z} + n = \sum_{k=0}^{n} k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Proof 1: write out the series twice and add each column

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n-2 + n-1 + n
+ n + n-1 + n-2 + \dots + 3 + 2 + 1
(n+1) + (n+1) + (n+1) + \dots + (n+1) + (n+1) + (n+1)$$

$$= n (n+1)$$

Since we added the series twice, we must divide the result by 2

Geometric series

The next series we will look at is the geometric series with common ratio r:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} r^{k} = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

and if |r| < 1 then it is also true that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} r^k = \frac{1}{1-r}$$

Geometric series

proof: multiply by $1 = \frac{1-r}{1-r}$

$$1 = \frac{1 - r}{1 - r}$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} r^{k} = \frac{(1-r)\sum_{k=0}^{n} r^{k}}{1-r}$$
Telescoping series:
all but the first and last terms cancel
$$= \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{n} r^{k} - r\sum_{k=0}^{n} r^{k}}{1-r}$$

$$= \frac{(1+r+r^{2}+\mathbb{N}+r^{n}) - (r+r^{2}+\mathbb{N}+r^{n}+r^{n+1})}{1-r}$$

$$= \frac{1-r^{n+1}}{1-r}$$

Geometric series

A common geometric series will involve the ratios $r = \frac{1}{2}$ and r = 2:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{i} = \frac{1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 2 - 2^{-n} \qquad \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{i} = 2$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} 2^{k} = \frac{1 - 2^{n+1}}{1 - 2} = 2^{n+1} - 1$$

Proofs

The two most common ways of proving statements in data-structure analysis are proof by induction and proof by contradiction.

The best way of proving that a theorem is false is by exhibiting a counterexample.

Proof by induction

- Prove that a property holds for input size 1 (base case)
- > Assume that the property holds for input size 1,...n (inductive hypothesis).
- > Show that the property holds for input size n+1 (next value).

Then, the property holds for all input sizes, n. (this proves the theorem)

Proof by induction

Example 1: Let's prove by induction the sum of the arithmetic serie:

The statement is true for n = 0:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{0} k = 0 = \frac{0 \cdot 1}{2} = \frac{0(0+1)}{2}$$

Assume that the statement is true for an arbitrary n:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

We must show that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n+1} k = \frac{(n+1)(n+2)}{2}$$

Proof by induction

Then, for n + 1, we have:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n+1} k = (n+1) + \sum_{i=0}^{n} k$$

By assumption, the second sum is known:

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

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

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

- The statement is true for n = 0 and
- the truth of the statement for n implies the truth of the statement for n + 1.
- Therefore, by the process of mathematical induction, the statement is true for all values of $n \ge 0$.

Proof by induction

Example 2 : Sum of Squares

Now we show that

$$1 + 2^{2} + 3^{2} + \dots + n^{2} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} k^{2} = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

1(1+1)(2+1)/6 = 1 Thus the property holds for n = 1 (base case)

Assume that the property holds for n=1,...m, thus

$$1 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + m^2 = m(m + 1)(2m + 1)/6$$

and show the property for m + 1,

$$1 + 2^{2} + 3^{2} + \dots + (m+1)^{2} = (m+1)(m+2)(2m+3)/6 ?$$

$$1 + 2^{2} + 3^{2} + \dots + (m+1)^{2} = (m)(m+1)(2m+1)/6 + (m+1)^{2}$$

$$= (m+1)[m(2m+1)/6 + m+1]$$

$$= (m+1)[2m^{2} + m + 6m + 6]/6$$

$$= (m+1)(m+2)(2m+3)/6$$

Proof by induction

Example 3: Fibonacci Numbers

Sequence of numbers, $F_0 F_1$, F_2 , F_3 ,.....

$$F_0 = 1, F_1 = 1$$

$$F_i = F_{i-1} + F_{i-2}$$
 (Recurrence relation)

$$F_2 = 2$$
, $F_3 = 3$, $F_4 = 5$

Prove that $F_n < (5/3)^n$ for i >= 1

Base case:

$$F_1 = 1 < (5/3)$$

 $F_2 = 2 < (5/3)^2$

Proof by induction

We assume that the theorem is true for i=1,...k (inductive hypothesis) We need to show $F_{k+1}<(5/3)^{k+1}$? We have :

$$\begin{split} F_{k+1} &= F_k + F_{k-1} \\ F_{k+1} &< (5/3)^k + (5/3)^{k-1} \\ &< (\%)(5/3)^{k+1} + (\%)^2 (5/3)^{k+1} \\ &< ((\%) + (\%)^2) (5/3)^{k+1} \\ &< (24/25) (5/3)^{k+1} \\ F_{k+1} &< (5/3)^{k+1} \\ &\text{proving the theorem} \end{split}$$

Proof by Counterexample

- Want to prove something is not true!
- Give an example to show that it does not hold!

Example: is
$$F_N < N^2$$
?

No,
$$F11 = 144 > 121!$$

ightharpoonup However, if you were to show that $F_N < N^2$ is true then you would need to show for all N, and not just one number.

Proof by Contradiction

- > Suppose you want to prove a theorem.
- > Assume that the theorem is false.
- > Then show that you arrive at an impossibility and hence the original assumption was erroneous.

Example: The proof that there is an infinite number of prime numbers .

Proof by Contradiction

We assume that the theorem is false,

the number of primes is finite, k. So that The largest prime is P_k

Let P_1, P_2, \dots, P_k be all the primes

Consider the number $N = 1 + P1 * P2* \dots * Pk$

N is larger than P_k, thus N is not prime (hypothesis)

So N must be the product of some primes.

However, none of the primes P1, P2, ..., Pk divide N exactly.

So N is not a product of primes. (contradiction)

because every number is either prime or a product of primes

Let's consider the following function f valid on nonnegative integers, that satisfies :

$$\begin{cases}
f(0) = 0 \\
f(x) = 2f(x - 1) + x^2 & x > 0
\end{cases}$$

A function that is defined in terms of itself is called recursive. the recursive implementation of f

```
1. int f( int x )
2. {
3. if( x == 0 )
4. return 0;
5. else
6. return 2 * f( x - 1 ) + x * x;
7. }
```

A recursive function is a subroutine which calls itself, with different parameters.

Basic rules of recursion:

- 1. Base cases. You must always have some base cases, which can be solved without recursion.
- 2. Making progress. For the cases that are to be solved recursively, they should progressively move towards the base case.
- 3. Design rule. Assume that all the recursive calls work.
- 4. Compound interest rule. Never duplicate work by solving the same instance of a problem in separate recursive calls.

Example 1: Printing numbers digit by digit

We wish to print out a positive integer, n.

Our routine will have the heading printOut(n).

Assume that the only I/O routine available **printDigit(m)** will take a single-digit number and outputs it.

```
    void printOut( int n ) // Print nonnegative n
    {
    if( n >= 10 )
    {printOut( n / 10 );}
    printDigit( n % 10 );
    }
```

Recursive routine to print an integer

Example 1: Printing numbers digit by digit

Proof: Recursion and induction

Let us prove rigorously that the recursive number printing program works, we'll use a proof by induction.

- First, if n has one digit, then the program is trivially correct,
- Assume then that printOut works for all numbers of k or fewer digits.
- A number of k + 1 digits is expressed by its first k digits (n/10) followed by its least significant digit.
 by the inductive hypothesis, (n/10) is correctly printed, and the last digit is n mod 10,

so the program prints out any (k+1)-digit number correctly.

Example 2: Factorial

To evaluate factorial(n)

```
factorial(n) = n*(n-1)*...*2* 1
= n * factorial(n-1)
```

The recursive routine

```
    int Factorial(int m)
    {
    If (m == 1) return 1
    else return (m * Factorial(m-1));
    }
```

Example 2: Factorial

Recursion Versus Iteration

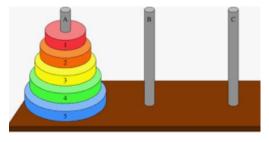
• Factorial of n (n>0) can be iteratively computed as follows:

```
factorial = 1
for j=1 to n
factorial ← factorial * j
```

- Compare to the recursive version.
 - In general, iteration is more efficient than recursion because of maintenance of state information, so use it when it simplifies the problem.

Introduction to recursion Towers of Hanoi

- Source peg, Destination peg, Auxiliary peg



- k disks on the source peg,
- a bigger disk can never be on top of a smaller disk

Need to move all k disks to the destination peg using the auxiliary peg, without ever keeping a bigger disk on the smaller disk.

```
Tower of Hanoi(k, source, auxiliary, destination)
    If k=1 move disk from source to destination; (base case)
    Else,
            Tower of Hanoi(top k-1, source, destination,
               auxiliary);
            Move the kth disk from source to destination;
            Tower of Hanoi(k-1, auxiliary, source, destination);
```