

AIDa Script for the Summer Term 2018

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1 First lecture

Moodle PW: iad18

1.1 Introduction

1.1.1 What is an algorithm?

- an algorithm solves concrete problems and has to be:
 - finite: it has to be able to solve the problem with finite resources and in finite steps.
 - terminal: it has to terminate after a finite time.
 - determinism: it has to give the same output when given the same input.
 - analyzable: runtime and memory usage are predictable.
 - correctness: it should be possible to check whether the algorithm solves the problem correctly.

1.1.2 An example

- calculating the factorial:
 - definition $N! = N(N-1)(N-1)\dots 1$
- two possible solutions:
 - loop
 - recursion

```
1 def Fak(N):  
2     for i in range(N + 1):  
3         fa = fa * i  
4     return fa
```

```
1 def Fak(N):  
2     if N == 1:  
3         return 1  
4     else:  
5         return N * Fak(N - 1)
```

1.1.3 General workflow:

- Specify the problem
- Create an algorithm
- Look for the most efficient solution
- Convert into elementary steps (implement in a programming language)

1.1.4 Classification of algorithms

- iterative algorithms:
 - sequence of operations is predetermined.
- recursive algorithms:
 - break problem into simpler sub problems
 - special treatment for trivial case.

2 Second Lecture

2.1 Turing Machine

- Proposed by Alan Turing
- Consists of a Control Unit with a write/read head and an internal memory
- the memory is realized by an infinite band of paper
- the instructional set consists of
 - read
 - write
 - move to the right (by n cells)
 - move to the left (by n cells)
 - goto a specific cell
 - if 'a' on memory cell goto k if not goto l
 - stop

2.2 Turings Thesis

- The set of Turing-computable Problems is equivalent to the set of intuitively computable Problems
 - examples of non computable Problems:
 - * Halting Problem (check whether Turing code ever halts)
 - * Correctness Problem (does a Turing machine compute a desired function)
 - * Equivalency Problem (do two Turing Machines compute the same function)

2.3 Analysis of algorithms

A simple example:

- sorting Numbers. Some questions arise:
 - is the algorithm correct
 - how much memory is needed
 - how much time is needed
 - how accurate is the solution, what bandwidth is needed

2.3.1 Correctness

- Induction:
 - A over the naturals $n \in \mathbb{N}$
 - * start: show that $A(1)$ is correct
 - * step: show that when going from $A(n) \Rightarrow A(n+1)$ it still holds correct
- Invariants
 - loop invariants are constants that do not change in the scope of the loop
- Tests

2.3.2 Complexity

- get the number of needed operations
- Simple description independent from computer and quality of code
- analyze behavior in different cases
 - best case
 - average case
 - worst case

The goal is not to give an exact ETA but to give some guidelines for scalability. Since the average case is hard to guess most analysis consists of best/worst case analysis.

Example

Table 1: Example

n	1	100	1000
$T(n) = n$	1	10	1000
$T(n) = n^2$	1	100	10000
$T(n) = 2^n$	2	$\approx 10^3$	$\approx 10^{30}$

2.4 principles of algorithms

2.4.1 Enumeration

List all the possible solutions.

Example:

- Maximum-Subarray-Problem:
 - given the series of reels $a_n, a_1, \dots, a_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$
 - look for consecutive of length R series of elements with maximum partial sum

- example: 31, 41, $\underbrace{59, 26, 53, 58, 97, 93, 23, 84}_{187}$

Two simple solution:

```

1 def maxSubarray(A, n):
2     maxsum = 0
3     for L in range(n):
4         for R in range(L, n):
5             sum = 0
6             for i in range(L, R):
7                 sum = sum + A[i]
8             if sum > maxsum:
9                 maxsum = sum
10    return maxsum

```

Other solution:

```

1 def maxSubarray(A, n):
2     maxsum = 0
3     for L in range(n):
4         sum = 0
5         for R in range(L, n):
6             sum = sum + A[R]
7             if sum > maxsum:
8                 maxsum = sum
9    return maxsum

```

2.4.2 Divide and Conquer

- divide the problem in to simpler subproblems until a trivial case is reached
- solve the trivial case
- reconstruct the Solution from solved subproblems

Most of the time the complexity is around $T(n) \approx n \log_2 n$

2.4.3 Scanline-Method

- simple scanning of the array

Example: Isosurfaces: given a lettuce(:) of points find surfaces by scanning point wise intensity

3 Third Lecture

3.1 simple data structures

- Algorithms
 - efficiency
 - * complexity: merit for computing time / memory usage
- Data structures
 - efficient access
 - operations on data structures
 - * need fast algorithms
- Abstract data type
 - specification of what kind of data is stored
 - specification of the kind of operations performed on the structure
- Data structures
 - implementation of abstract datatypes
 - maybe different complexities / runtimes

examples:

- arrays
- lists
- stacks
- queue

3.1.1 Arrays

- predefined in most languages
- used for
 - vectors, matrices, images, ...
 - numerics, image processing
- properties
 - selection of congruent elements
 - access via index
- most of the time arrays are statically defined (fixed sized)
- generalization
 - stacks, queues, dynamic arrays

The array as an abstract datatype holds elements of the same datatype. There are some necessary operations an array has to have:

- `create (n)`: creates an array of size `n`
- `A.get(i)`: returns element at position `i`
- `A.set(x, i)`: write `x` to position `i`
- `A.size()`: returns length of array

A dynamic array has to also have the following methods:

- `A.append(x)`: creates a new entry with value `x` at the end
- `A.pop(x)`: deletes the last element

example `vector` of the *C++ standard library* internally allocates, in the simplest case, double the amount of memory. So that at most $k \log n$ accesses are needed, and at most $k \cdot n$ memory is wasted

SIDENOTE: Computer architecture

- CPU
 - program memory: list of operations
 - data storage: data
 - most simple model: sequential computation of operations obtained from the program memory
 - faster: pipelining: divide the operation into smaller parallel instructions like:
 - * fetch
 - * instruction decode
 - * execute
 - * mempry
 - * write back
 - even faster: multi scalar: local parralelisation
 - now: multicore: multiple CPUs on one die.

good algorithms make good use of architecture.

- Memory
 - hard drive, SSD: good for large amounts of data but slow access
 - memory (DRAM): faster
 - cache hierarchy
 - * very fast access, if data is accesses in time wise order
 - * third level cahce (SRAM)
 - * second level cahce
 - * first level cache

good algorithms make good use of memory hierarchy (caching)

- Register
- 1st level cache
- 2nd level cache
- 3rd level cache
- RAM
- Hard drive

3.1.2 lists

- multiple sets of data (maybe of different type)
- access is serial, ideally only operations on neighboring elements
- appending is easy
 - append at the end
 - append as first element
 - middle: append by changing pointers to following elements
- cons
 - very slow when not operating serially on neighbors

example:

```

1 class listElement:
2     def __init__(self,
3                   key=0,
4                   data=None,
5                   next=None,
6                   prev=None):
7         self.key = key
8         self.data = data
9         self.next = next
10        self.prev = prev

```

different flavours of lists include:

- single chained lists: each element has a reference to its successor
- double chained lists: each element has a reference to both its successor and predecessor

example for search with a list:

```

1 current = first
2 while current != None and current_key != x:
3     current = current_next

```

is of complexity $\mathcal{O}(n)$

4 Fourth Lecture

4.1 Stacks and Queues

- Stack
 - `create()` creates an empty stack
 - `stack.push(a)` appends element to the "top" of the stack
 - `stack.pop()` deletes the "top" element
 - `stack.peak()` looks up the "top" element, without changing it
 - `stack.is_empty()` returns `true` if the Stack is empty
 - The Stack is a "LIFO" (Last In First Out) memory
- Queue
 - `queue.enqueue(a)` appends at the "top"
 - `queue.dequeue()` returns first element and removes it
 - `queue.is_empty()` returns `true` if the Stack is empty
 - The Queue is a "FIFO" (First In First Out) memory

A special form of the queue is the priority queue which stores key value pairs and supports the following operations

- `pqueue.create()` creates an empty priority queue
- `pqueue.insert(x, key)` inserts a key value pair
- `pqueue.getMin()` returns the element with the smallest key assigned
- `pqueue.deleteMin()` removes the element with the smallest key assigned
- analogous to the Min these two methods can be implemented for the largest keys respectively

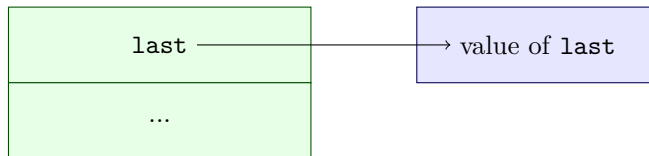
The most common implementation of the priority queue is the heap

4.1.1 Stack/Queue Schematics

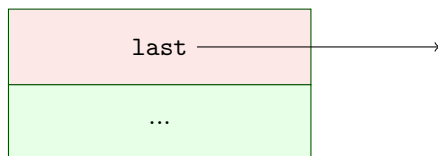
last
...
third
second
first

Note that first denotes the first element on the stack/queue time wise

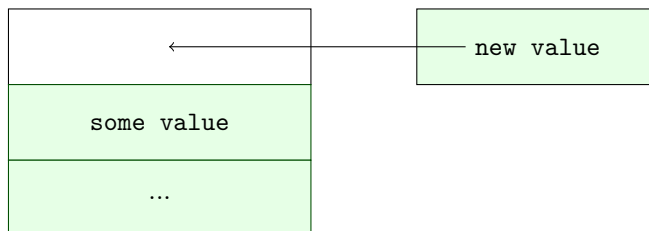
4.1.2 `stack.peek()`



4.1.3 `stack.pop()`



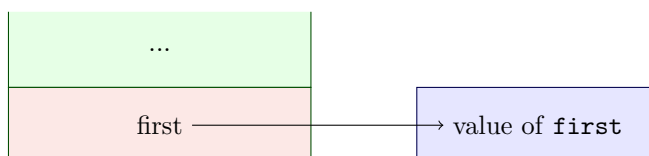
4.1.4 `stack.push()`



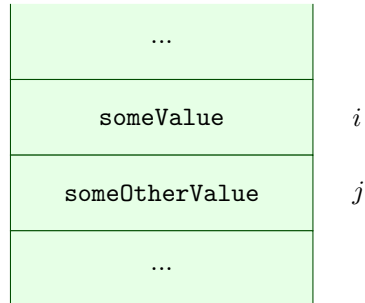
4.1.5 `queue.enqueue`

same as `stack.push()`

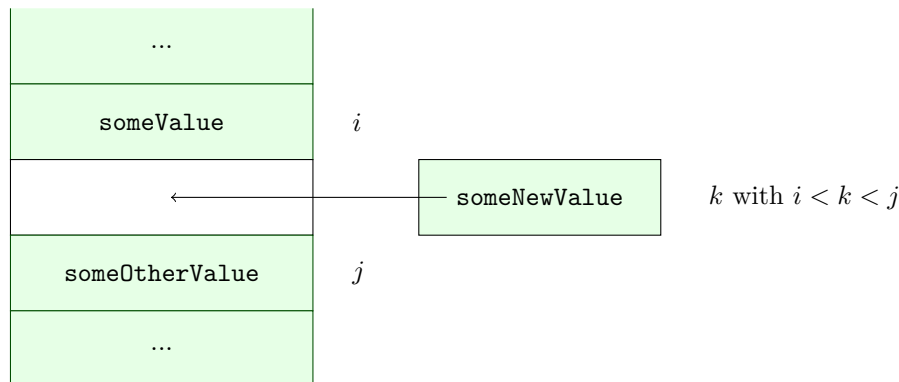
4.1.6 `queue.dequeue`



4.1.7 Priority Queue



4.1.8 `pqueue.insert()`



4.2 Dictionaries (or Maps, Associative Arrays)

A dictionary holds a set of elements each assigned an unambiguous key. Instead of an access through an index dictionaries are accessed via the element's key. The following operations are possible:

- `dict.create()` creates an empty dict
- `dict.insert(x, key)` add a value key pair
 - if the key already exists it will be overridden
- `x = dict.find(key)` returns the entry `x`
 - if the key is non existent return a default value
- `dict.delete(key)` removes value belonging to the respective key

Table 2: complexity

operation	list	array	sorted array	dictionary
<code>create</code>	$\mathcal{O}(1)$	$\mathcal{O}(1)$	$\mathcal{O}(1)$	$\mathcal{O}(1)$
<code>insert</code>	$\mathcal{O}(n)$	$\mathcal{O}(n)$	$\mathcal{O}(n)$	$\mathcal{O}(n \log n)$
<code>find</code>	$\mathcal{O}(n)$	$\mathcal{O}(n)$	$\mathcal{O}(\log n)$	$\mathcal{O}()$
<code>delete</code>	$\mathcal{O}(n)$	$\mathcal{O}(n)$	$\mathcal{O}(n)$	$\mathcal{O}()$

4.3 Sorting

4.3.1 Motivation

sorting is one of the most common problems (approx. $\frac{1}{4}$ of the total computing time)

4.3.2 Problem

Given a sequence of n elements x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n , the $>$ and $<$ relations have to be defined and $x_i \leq x_j$ should give a boolean (**true/false**). The result should be a sorted sequence i.e $\forall i < j \Rightarrow x_i \leq x_j$. This for example be achieved by permutation (series of swaps).

4.3.3 Selection Sort

The selection sort algorithm is a very simple one, it consists of the following steps:

- find the smallest element
- swap with the first element
- continue

An example implementation:

```
1 def selectionSort(alist):
2     for i in range(len(alist) - 1):
3         least = i
4         for k in range(i + 1, len(alist)):
5             if alist[k] < alist[least]:
6                 least = k
7                 temp = alist[least]
8                 alist[least] = alist[i]
9                 alist[i] = temp
```

4.3.4 Insertion Sort

The insertion sort algorithm is often used by humans when playing card games.

- start with the second element
- check if it is greater than the first
- if so swap the element to the left until smaller than next element
- then continue with the third element
- repeat until sorted

we can divide the array into two parts:

- presorted start
- not yet sorted end

```
1 def insertionSort(alist):
2     for index in range(1, len(alist)):
3         current_value = alist[index]
4         position = index
5         while position > 0 and alist[position - 1] >
           ↪ current_value:
6             alist[position] = alist[position - 1]
7             alist[position] = current_value
```

4.4 SIDENOTE: how to record runtime in Python

```
1 import time
2
3 start_time = time.time()
4 run_time = (time.time() - start_time) * 1000 #because
           ↪ time returns microseconds
```