

6 Algorithm I

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Learning Objective:

- Understand how to use Python to perform simulation experiments for probability problems.
- Understand the concept of sorting and common sorting algorithms.
- Understand the concept of string matching and common string matching algorithms.

6.1 Probability Simulation

Some problems are difficult to solve purely through mathematical analysis. In such cases, we can use simulation-based methods to estimate the results. This section demonstrates how to apply this approach with two problems.

6.1.1 Monty Hall Problem

The Monty Hall Problem is a famous probability puzzle based on a game show scenario. It illustrates how simulation experiments can help us understand counterintuitive results in probability.

In this problem, a contestant is asked to choose one of three doors. Behind one door is a prize, and behind the other two are goats. The host, who knows what is behind each door, then opens one of the remaining doors, always revealing a goat. The contestant is given the option to either stay with his original choice or switch to the other unopened door.

At first, this setup can be confusing, as both options might seem to have an equal chance. However, by simulating this experiment many times with a Python program, we can estimate the actual probabilities: the chance of winning by staying is about 1/3, while the chance of winning by switching is about 2/3.

```
stay_wins = 0
switch_wins = 0
trials = 100000
for _ in range(trials):
    doors = {0, 1, 2}
    prize = random.randint(0, 2)
    choice = random.randint(0, 2)
    possible_doors = doors - {choice, prize}
    opened = random.choice(possible_doors)
    # If the player stays
    if choice == prize:
        stay_wins += 1
    # If the player switches
    switch_choice = (doors - {choice, opened}).pop()
    if switch_choice == prize:
        switch_wins += 1
```

Code 6.1: Monty Hall simulation experiment

6.1.2 Kelly Criterion

Imagine a betting game where each round offers a chance to win or lose money based on known probabilities. If you win, you receive a payoff based on the odds; if you lose, you forfeit the amount you wager. The question is: what fraction of your capital should you bet each round to maximize long-term growth?

The Kelly formula provides an answer:

$$f = p - \frac{1-p}{odds}$$

where:

- f : the optimal fraction of capital to bet,
- $odds$: the net odds received on the wager (*e.g.*, 1 for even odds),
- p : the probability of winning.

For example, when $p = 0.6$, $odds = 2$, $f = 0.4$, we can design a simulation experiment and compare how different betting strategies affect the long-term growth of wealth, and show that the Kelly strategy achieves the best average growth rate over many trials.

```
prob_win = 0.6
odds = 2
def simulate(game, capital, bet_fraction):
    for win in game:
        bet = capital * bet_fraction
        if win:
            capital += bet * odds
        else:
            capital -= bet
    return capital

rounds = 100
game = [random.random() < prob_win for _ in range(rounds)]

result1 = simulate(game, 100, 0.3)
result2 = simulate(game, 100, 0.4)
print(f"Result with bet fraction 0.3: {result1:.2f}")
print(f"Result with bet fraction 0.4: {result2:.2f}")
```

Code 6.2: Kelly Criterion simulation experiment

6.2 Sorting Algorithm

Given a list of elements, the sorting problem is to arrange the elements in a specific order, typically in ascending or descending order. Figure 6.1 demonstrates an example.

Sorting is a fundamental problem in computer science, and many algorithms have been developed to solve it efficiently. This section introduces several commonly used algorithms, including selection sort, bubble sort, quick sort, and radix sort.

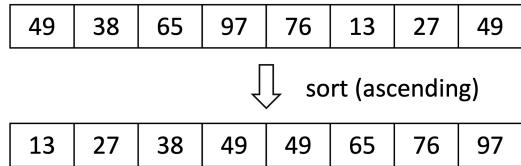


Figure 6.1: Demonstration of a sorting problem.

6.2.1 Selection Sort

Selection sort is a simple comparison-based sorting algorithm. The idea is to repeatedly find the largest (or smallest) element from the unsorted portion of the list and move it to its correct position at the end (or beginning) of the sorted portion. This process is repeated until the entire list is sorted.

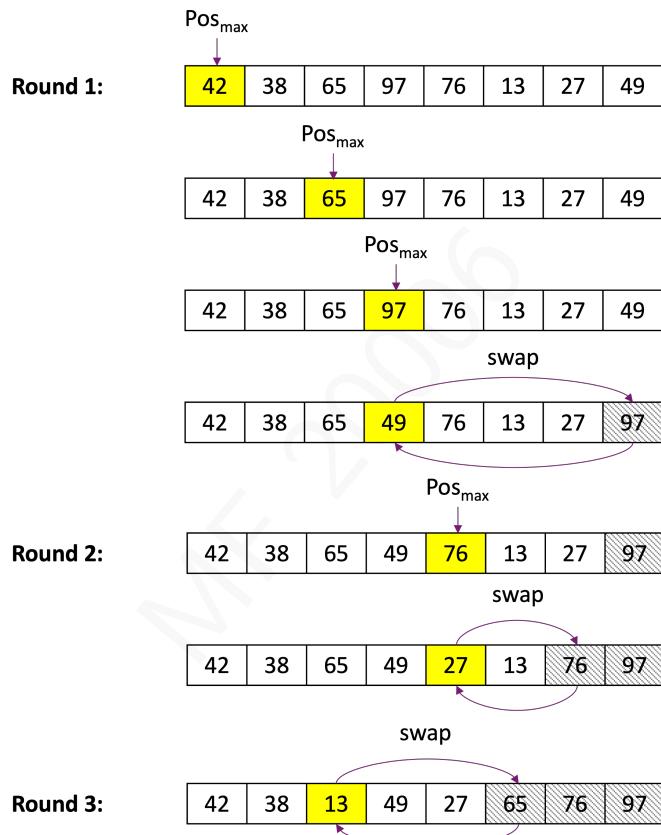


Figure 6.2: Demonstration of selection sort.

Figure 6.2 illustrates the process of selection sort step by step. In the first round, the algorithm finds the largest element and moves it to the end of the list. To do this, it maintains an index that records the position of the current maximum element and compares each remaining element against it. In the second round, the algorithm repeats the process on the unsorted portion of the list, again selecting the largest element and moving it to its correct position. This procedure continues until the entire list is sorted. Code 6.3 demonstrates the algorithm with Python.

```
def selection_sort(l):
    n = len(l)
    for i in range(n):
        max_idx = 0
        for j in range(1, n - i):
```

```

if l[j] > l[max_idx]:
    max_idx = j
l[max_idx], l[n-1-i] = l[n-1-i], l[max_idx]

```

Code 6.3: Selection sort

6.2.2 Bubble Sort

Bubble sort is a simple comparison-based sorting algorithm that repeatedly compares adjacent elements and swaps them if they are in the wrong order. This process causes the largest (or smallest) elements to “bubble up” to their correct positions in each pass through the list.

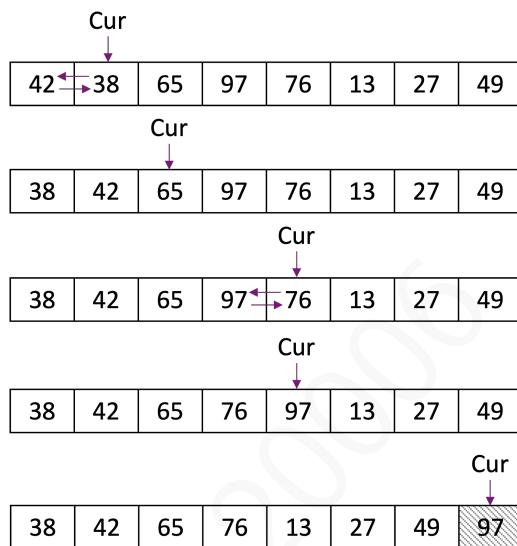


Figure 6.3: Demonstration of bubble sort.

Figure 6.3 demonstrates the first round of bubble sort. The algorithm compares each pair of adjacent elements and swaps them if the left element is larger than the right one. As a result, the largest value “bubbles up” to the end of the list, similar to how selection sort moves the largest element to its correct position in the first round.

```

def bubble_sort(l):
    n = len(l)
    for i in range(n):
        swapped = False
        for j in range(n - i - 1):
            if l[j] > l[j + 1]:
                l[j], l[j + 1] = l[j + 1], l[j]
                swapped = True
        if not swapped:
            break

```

Code 6.4: Bubble sort

Code 6.4 demonstrates an implementation of the algorithm. It iterates through the list, comparing each pair of adjacent elements and swapping them if necessary. The swapped flag is used to detect whether the list is already sorted; if no swaps occur during a pass, the algorithm terminates early. The process repeats until all elements are in order.

6.2.3 Quick Sort

Quick sort is a divide-and-conquer sorting algorithm. In the divide-and-conquer strategy, a complex problem is divided into smaller, more manageable subproblems that can be solved independently and then combined to form the final solution. The main idea is to select a pivot element from the list, partition the list into elements less than, equal to, and greater than the pivot, and then recursively sort the sublists. This process continues until all sublists are trivially sorted, resulting in a fully sorted list.

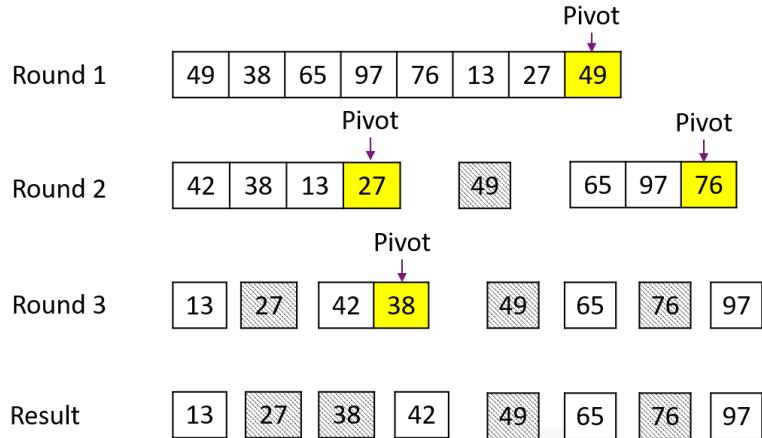


Figure 6.4: Demonstration of quick sort.

Figure 6.4 illustrates the partitioning and recursive process of quick sort based on the implementation of Code 6.5. In this implementation, the list is split into three parts relative to the pivot. The algorithm then recursively sorts the left and right sublists and combines them with the middle elements. This recursive approach ensures that all elements are eventually placed in the correct order.

```
def quick_sort(l):
    if len(l) <= 1:
        return
    pivot_index = partition(l)
    left = [x for x in arr if x < pivot]
    middle = [x for x in arr if x == pivot]
    right = [x for x in arr if x > pivot]
    return quick_sort(left) + middle + quick_sort(right)
```

Code 6.5: Quick sort

Quick sort is much faster than both selection sort and bubble sort for large datasets. It typically runs in $O(n \log n)$ time by dividing the list around a pivot and sorting the parts recursively, though in the worst case it can take $O(n^2)$. In contrast, both selection sort and bubble sort have average and worst-case time complexities of $O(n^2)$, making them inefficient for large inputs.

6.2.4 Radix Sort

Radix sort is a non-comparative sorting algorithm that sorts numbers by processing their digits. Unlike comparison-based algorithms, it organizes numbers digit by digit, typically starting from the most significant digit (MSD) or the least significant digit (LSD). In each pass, numbers are placed into buckets according to the value of the current digit. The algorithm then recursively or iteratively processes the next digit until the entire list is sorted.

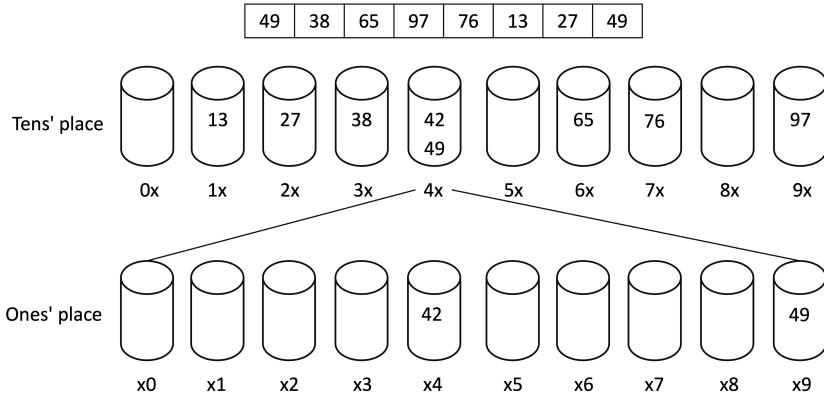


Figure 6.5: Demonstration of bubble sort.

Figure 6.6 illustrates the step-by-step process of radix sort. Since the largest element is 97, the algorithm first distributes the numbers into buckets based on the ten's digit. After that, it processes the unit digit to further organize the numbers. This two-step process results in a fully sorted list. Code 6.6 demonstrates the algorithm implementation in Python. The function `radix_sort` first determines the highest place value in the list. The helper function `sort_helper` then distributes elements into buckets based on the current digit and recursively sorts each bucket by the next lower digit. By processing all digits in this way, the algorithm produces a fully sorted list.

```

def radix_sort(l):
    # Find the maximum number to know how many digits we need
    max_num = max(l)
    # Determine the highest place (e.g., 1000s, 100s, 10s, 1s)
    exp = 1
    while max_num // exp >= 10:
        exp *= 10

    return sort_helper(l, exp)

def sort_helper(arr, exp):
    if len(l) <= 1 or exp == 0:
        return l # Base case: one element or no more digits

    # Create 10 buckets for digits 0-9
    buckets = [[] for _ in range(10)]
    for ele in l:
        digit = (ele // exp) % 10
        buckets[digit].append(ele)

    # Recursively sort each bucket by the next lower digit
    result = []
    for b in buckets:
        if b:
            result.extend(sort_helper(b, exp // 10))
    return result

```

Code 6.6: Radix sort

Radix sort has a time complexity of $O(d \times n)$, where n is the number of elements, d is the number of

digits in the largest number. It runs in linear time for fixed digit lengths, making it efficient for integers or strings of limited size. However, it requires additional space for buckets.

6.3 String Matching

String matching is the problem of finding all occurrences of a pattern string within a larger text string. It is also a fundamental problem in computer science, with applications in text processing, search engines, and bioinformatics. This section introduces two approaches: the naive brute-force method and the more efficient Knuth-Morris-Pratt (KMP) algorithm.

6.3.1 Naive Approach

The naive approach checks for the pattern at every possible position in the text. Although simple to implement, it can be inefficient for long texts and patterns.

```
def str_match_brute(text: str, pattern: str) -> List[int]:
    n, m = len(text), len(pattern)
    result = []
    for i in range(n - m + 1):
        if text[i:i+m] == pattern:
            result.append(i)
    return result
```

Code 6.7: Naive string matching

6.3.2 Knuth-Morris-Pratt (KMP) Algorithm

The KMP algorithm improves efficiency by avoiding redundant comparisons. It preprocesses the pattern to compute the *longest prefix-suffix (LPS)* array, which is used to skip characters in the text that have already been matched.

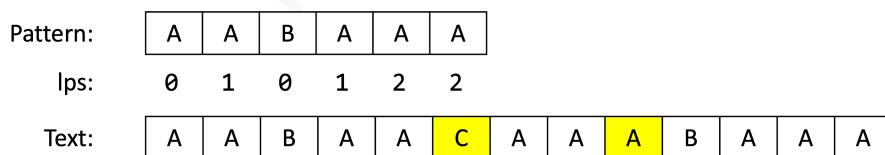


Figure 6.6: Demonstration of string matching via the longest prefix-suffix.

LPS is defined as the length of the longest proper prefix which is also a suffix of a string. For example, the LPS of a target pattern string “AABAAA” can be calculated as follows:

- $LSP(0) = 0$, because the “A” does not have a prefix or suffix.
- $LSP(1) = 1$, because the “AA” has a matched prefix and suffix “A”.
- $LSP(2) = 0$, because the “AAB” does not have a matched prefix and suffix.
- $LSP(3) = 1$, because the “AABA” has a matched prefix and suffix “A”.
- $LSP(4) = 2$, because the “AABAA” has a matched prefix and suffix “AA”.
- $LSP(5) = 2$, because the “AABAAA” has a matched prefix and suffix “AA”.

If the LPS of the target pattern is known, we can use it to avoid unnecessary comparisons in the text. When a mismatch occurs between the text and the pattern, instead of restarting the match from the next character in the text, we can use the LPS array to determine the next position in the pattern to compare. This allows the algorithm to skip characters that are guaranteed to match, improving efficiency.

```
def kmp_search(text, pattern):
    n, m = len(text), len(pattern)
    lps = compute_lps(pattern)
    result = []
    i = j = 0
    while i < n:
        if text[i] == pattern[j]:
            i += 1
            j += 1
        if j == m:
            result.append(i - j)
            j = lps[j-1]
        elif i < n and text[i] != pattern[j]:
            if j != 0:
                j = lps[j-1]
            else:
                i += 1
    return result
```

Code 6.8: KMP string matching

Code 6.8 demonstrates the KMP string matching algorithm using the LPS array. The main execution steps of the algorithm for the given text and pattern are summarized in Table 6.1. This table shows the values of the text index i , the pattern index j , and the corresponding actions taken during each step.

Table 6.1: KMP Matching Steps

i	j	Action / Notes
0	0	pattern[0] = text[0], $i \leftarrow 1$, $j \leftarrow 1$
1	1	pattern[1] = text[1], $i \leftarrow 2$, $j \leftarrow 2$
:	:	:
5	5	pattern[5] \neq text[5], $j \leftarrow lps[4] = 2$
5	2	pattern[2] \neq text[5], $j \leftarrow lps[1] = 1$
5	1	pattern[1] \neq text[5], $j \leftarrow lps[0] = 0$
5	0	pattern[0] \neq text[5], $i \leftarrow 6$
6	0	pattern[0] \neq text[6], $i \leftarrow 7$, $j \leftarrow 1$
:	:	:
8	2	pattern[2] \neq text[8], $j \leftarrow lps[1] = 1$
8	1	pattern[1] = text[8], $i \leftarrow 9$, $j \leftarrow 2$
9	2	pattern[2] = text[9], $i \leftarrow 10$, $j \leftarrow 3$
10	3	pattern[3] = text[10], $i \leftarrow 11$, $j \leftarrow 4$
11	4	pattern[4] = text[11], $i \leftarrow 12$, $j \leftarrow 5$
12	5	pattern[5] = text[12], $i \leftarrow 13$, $j \leftarrow 6$, result.append(7), $j = lps(4) = 2$
13	2	$i == n$, terminate

```

def compute_lps(pattern: str) -> List[int]:
    m = len(pattern)
    lps = [0] * m
    length = 0
    i = 1
    while i < m:
        if pattern[i] == pattern[length]:
            length += 1
            lps[i] = length
            i += 1
        else:
            if length != 0:
                length = lps[length-1]
            else:
                lps[i] = 0
                i += 1
    return lps

```

Code 6.9: Longest prefix-suffix computation

The LPS array for a given pattern can be computed using the algorithm shown in Code 6.9. Table 6.2 presents the main steps of the LPS computation for the pattern “AABAAA”. Each row shows the current value of `len` (the length of the current longest prefix-suffix), the index i , and the action taken.

Table 6.2: LPS Computation Steps

len	i	Action / Notes
0	1	pattern[0] = pattern[1], len \leftarrow 1, lps[1] \leftarrow 1, i \leftarrow 2
1	2	pattern[1] \neq pattern[2], len \leftarrow lps[0] = 0
0	2	pattern[0] \neq pattern[2], lps[2] \leftarrow 0, i \leftarrow 3
0	3	pattern[0] = pattern[3], len \leftarrow 1, lps[3] \leftarrow 1, i \leftarrow 4
1	4	pattern[1] = pattern[4], len \leftarrow 2, lps[4] \leftarrow 2, i \leftarrow 5
2	5	pattern[2] \neq pattern[5], len \leftarrow lps[1] = 1
1	5	pattern[1] = pattern[5], len \leftarrow 2, lps[5] \leftarrow 2, i \leftarrow 6
2	6	pattern[2] \neq pattern[6], len \leftarrow 2, lps[1] = 1
1	6	pattern[1] = pattern[6], len \leftarrow 2, lps[6] \leftarrow 2, i \leftarrow 7
2	7	i == m, terminate

KMP is especially efficient when the pattern contains repeated sub-patterns. In such cases, naive string matching would repeatedly re-examine characters that are known to match, leading to unnecessary comparisons. By using the LPS array, KMP avoids this redundancy by skipping portions of the text that have already been matched, resulting in a worst-case time complexity of $O(n + m)$, where n is the length of the text and m is the length of the pattern.

Excercise

- 1) Given the list of numbers

[29, 10, 14, 37, 13, 7, 21, 18],

demonstrate the process of applying the quick sort algorithm step by step. For each step, indicate:

- the pivot chosen,
- the partitioning of the list into elements less than, equal to, and greater than the pivot, and
- the recursive sorting of each sublist until the entire list is sorted.

- 2) Given a DNA pattern string, *e.g.*, “AGATAG”, calculate its LPS array step by step using the algorithm in Code 6.9. Then, using the computed LPS array, demonstrate the process of applying the KMP algorithm to search for this pattern in a longer DNA sequence, *e.g.*, “CAGATAGGAGATAGT”. For each step, show the values of the sequence index i , pattern index j , and the actions taken.