

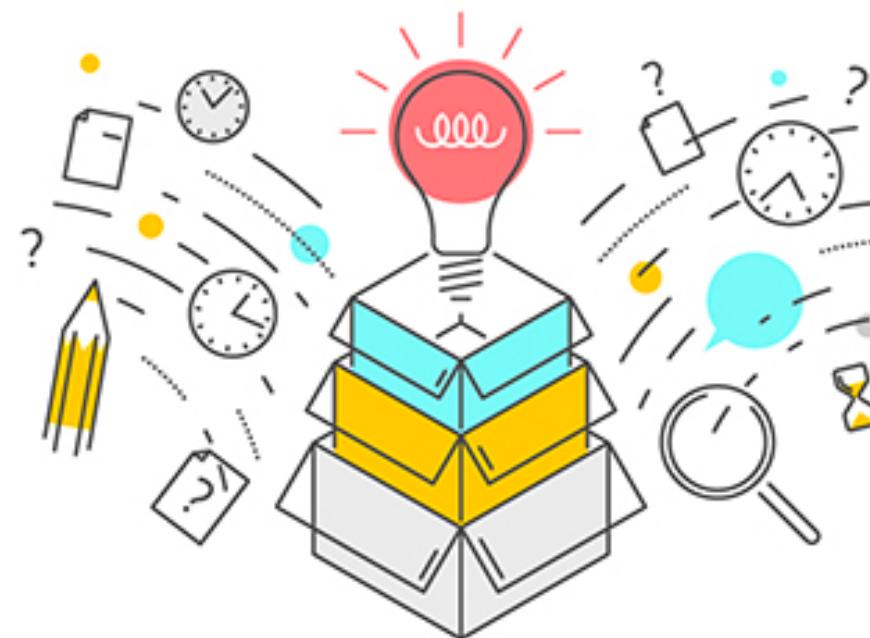
Introduction to Computer Science & Engineering

Lecture 6: Problem Solving Algorithms

Jeonghun Park

Problem Solving

- The act of finding a solution of a perplexing, distressing, vexing, or unsettled question

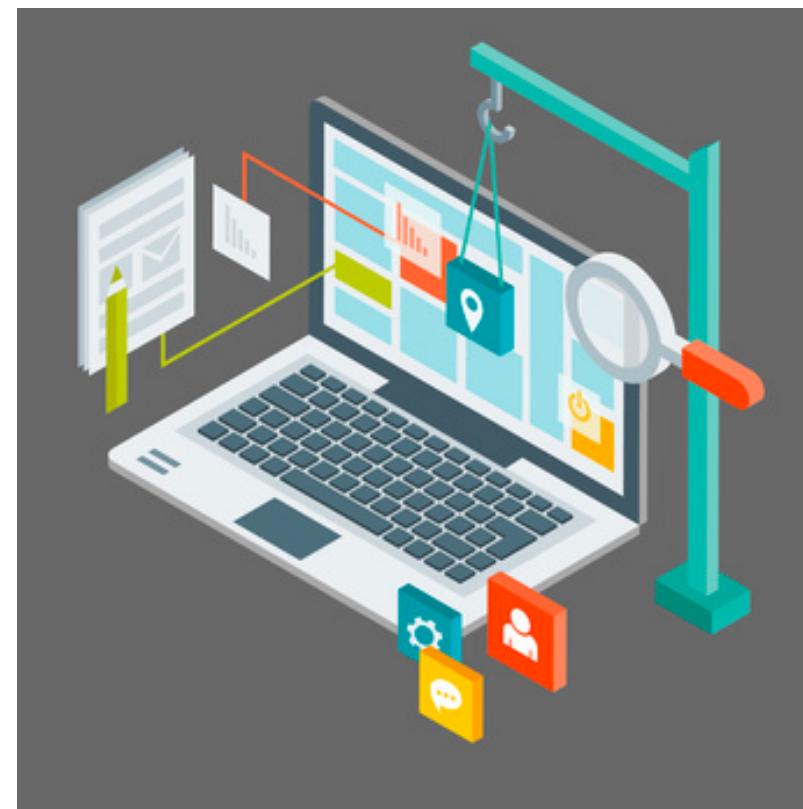


Problem Solving

- How do we solve problems?
 - ▶ Understand the problem
 - ▶ Devise a plan
 - ▶ Carry out the plan
 - ▶ Look back

Problem Solving by Computers

- Maybe different from what we do with our hands



Strategies

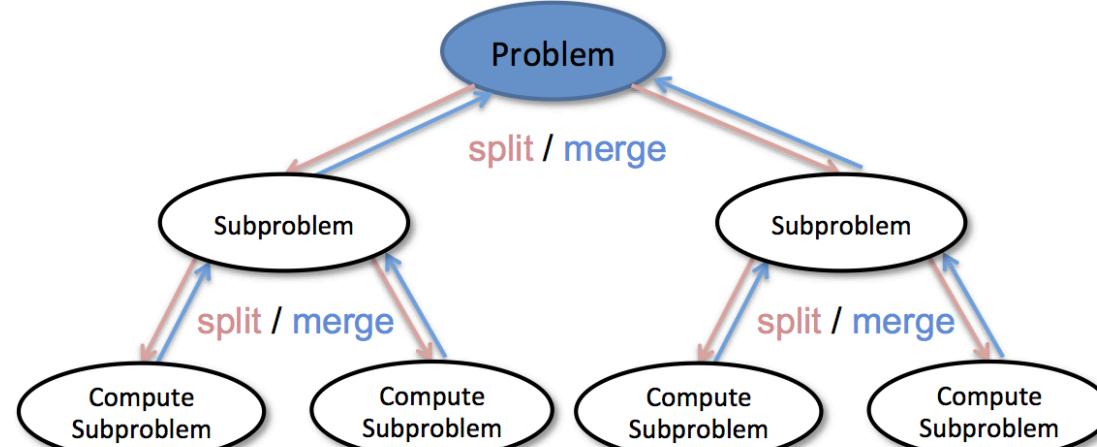
- A solution can be found in questions
 - ▶ What do I know about the problem?
 - ▶ What is the information that I have to process in order to find the solution?
 - ▶ What does the solution look like?
 - ▶ What sort of special cases exist?
 - ▶ How will I recognize that I have found the solution?

There Is No “Totally New” Problems

- Never reinvent the wheel
 - ▶ Similar problems come up again and again in different guises
 - ▶ A good programmer recognizes a task or subtask that has been solved before and plugs in the solution
 - ▶ Can you think of two similar problems?

Divide and Conquer

- Break up a large problem into smaller units and solve each smaller problem
 - ▶ Applies the concept of abstraction
 - ▶ The divide-and-conquer approach can be applied over and over again until each subtask is manageable



Computer Problem Solving

- Analysis and Specification Phase
 - ▶ Analyze
 - ▶ Specification
- Algorithm Development Phase
 - ▶ Develop algorithm
 - ▶ Test algorithm
- Implementation Phase
 - ▶ Code algorithm
 - ▶ Test algorithm
- Maintenance Phase
 - ▶ Use
 - ▶ Maintain

Computer Problem Solving

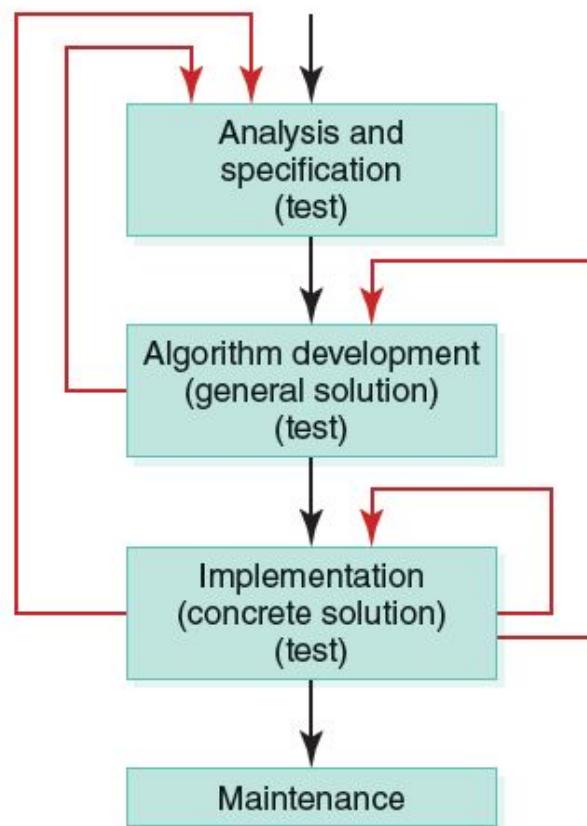


FIGURE 7.3 The interactions among the four problem-solving phases

Algorithms

Algorithm

- A set of unambiguous instructions for solving a problem or subproblem in a **finite** amount of time using a **finite** amount of data
- Abstract Step
 - ▶ An algorithmic step containing unspecified details
- Concrete Step
 - ▶ An algorithm step in which all details are specified

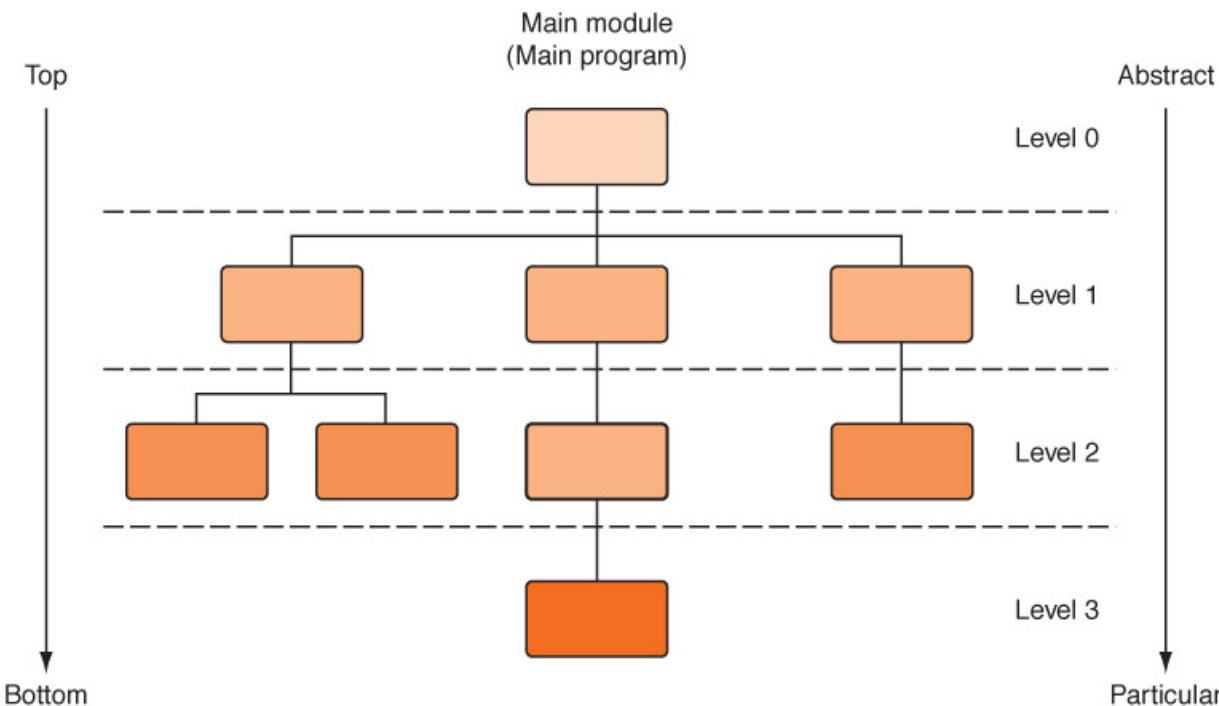
Algorithm Development

- Two methodologies used to develop computer solutions to a problem
- Top-down design
 - ▶ focuses on the **tasks** to be done
- Object-oriented design
 - ▶ focuses on the **data** involved in the solution

Methodology

- Analyze the Problem
 - ▶ Understand the problem!!
 - ▶ Develop a plan of attack
- List the Main Tasks (becomes Main Module)
 - ▶ Restate problem as a list of tasks (modules)
 - ▶ Give each task a name
- Write the Remaining Modules
 - ▶ Restate each abstract module as a list of tasks
 - ▶ Give each task a name
- Re-sequence and Revise as Necessary
 - ▶ Process ends when all steps (modules) are concrete

Top-Down Design

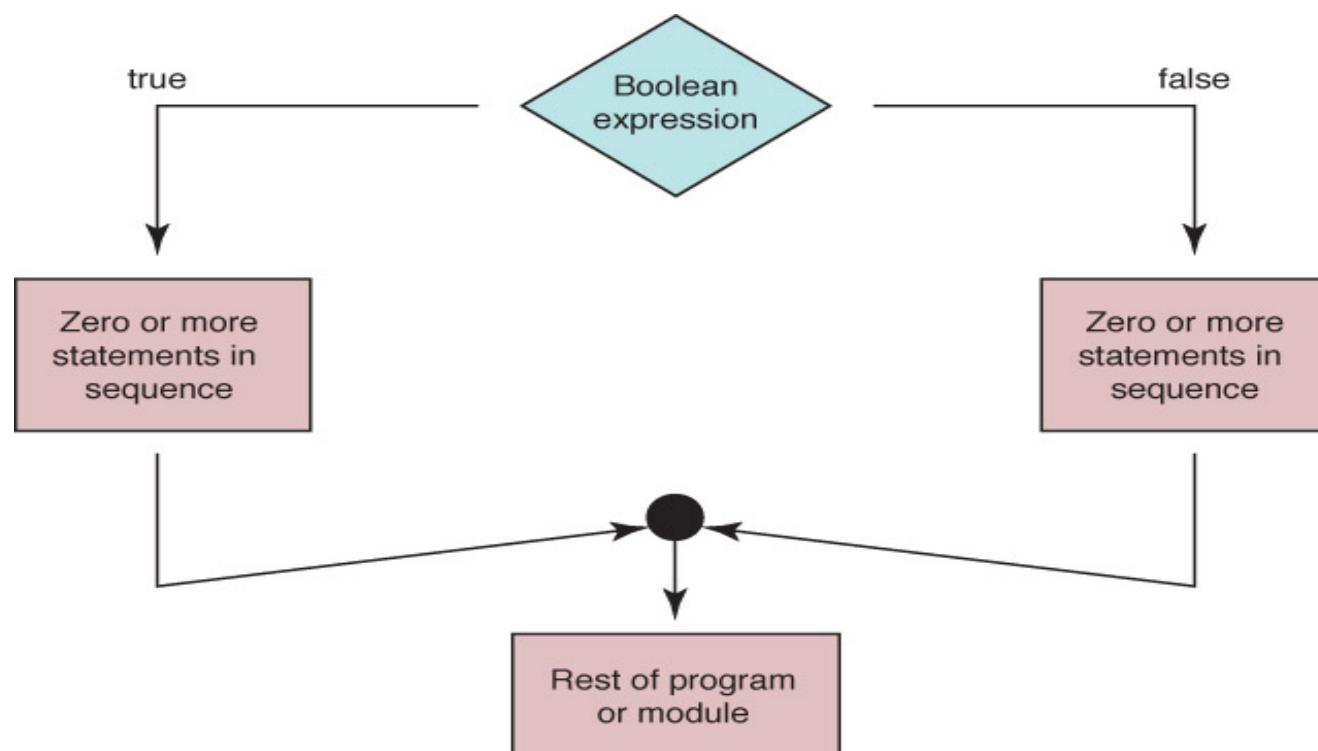


- Process continues for as many levels as it takes to make every step concrete
- Name of (sub)problem at one level becomes a module at next lower level

Control Structures

- An instruction that determines the order in which other instructions in a program are executed
- It is similar to building blocks that constructs an algorithm

Selection Statement



Examples

- Weather determine problem:

IF (temperature > 90)

Write “Texas weather: wear shorts”

ELSE IF (temperature > 70)

Write “Ideal weather: short sleeves are fine”

ELSE IF (temperature > 50)

Write “A little chilly: wear a light jacket”

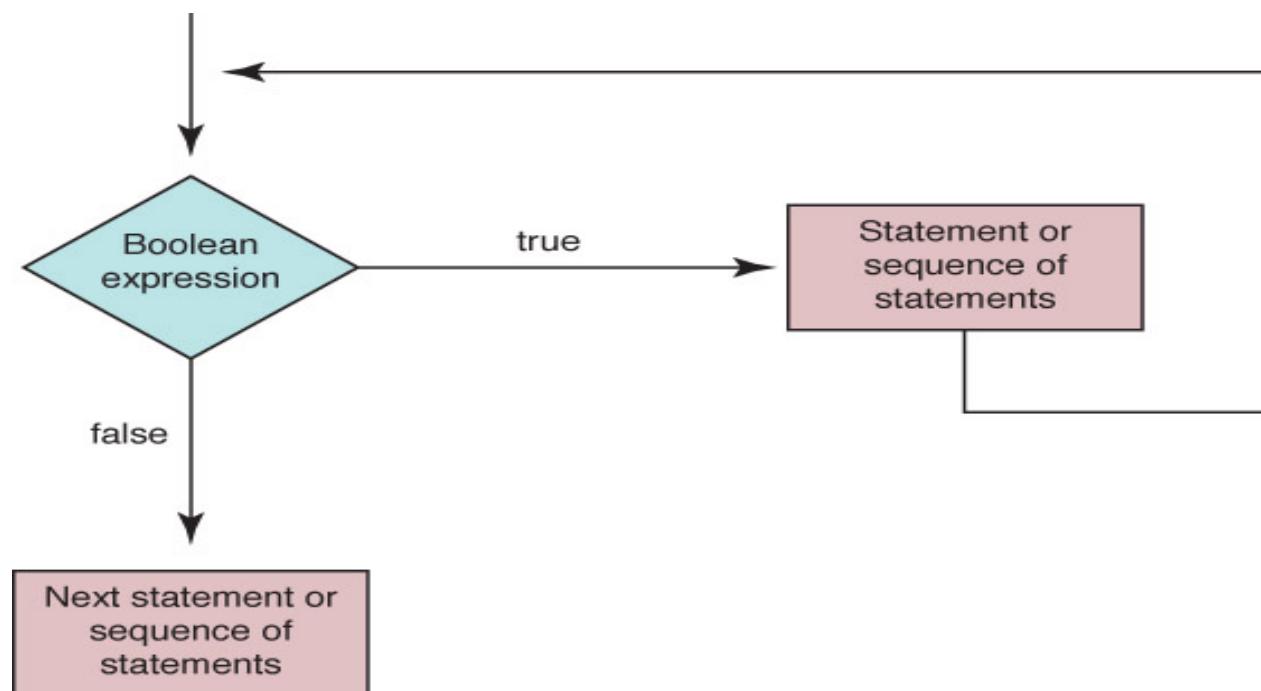
ELSE IF (temperature > 32)

Write “Philadelphia weather: wear a heavy coat”

ELSE

Write “Stay inside”

Looping Statement



Examples

- A count-controlled loop

Set sum to 0

Set count to 1

While (count <= limit)

Read number

Set sum to sum + number

Increment count

Write "Sum is " + sum

Examples

- An event-controlled loop

Set sum to 0

Set allPositive to true

WHILE (allPositive)

Read number

IF (number > 0)

Set sum to sum + number

ELSE

Set allPositive to false

Write "Sum is " + sum

Examples

- Find the square root problem
 - ▶ Calculate \sqrt{z} given z

Read z

Set \tilde{x}_{init}

Set $\epsilon = 1$

Set $\tilde{x}_{\text{old}} \leftarrow \tilde{x}_{\text{init}}$

WHILE ($\epsilon > 0.001$)

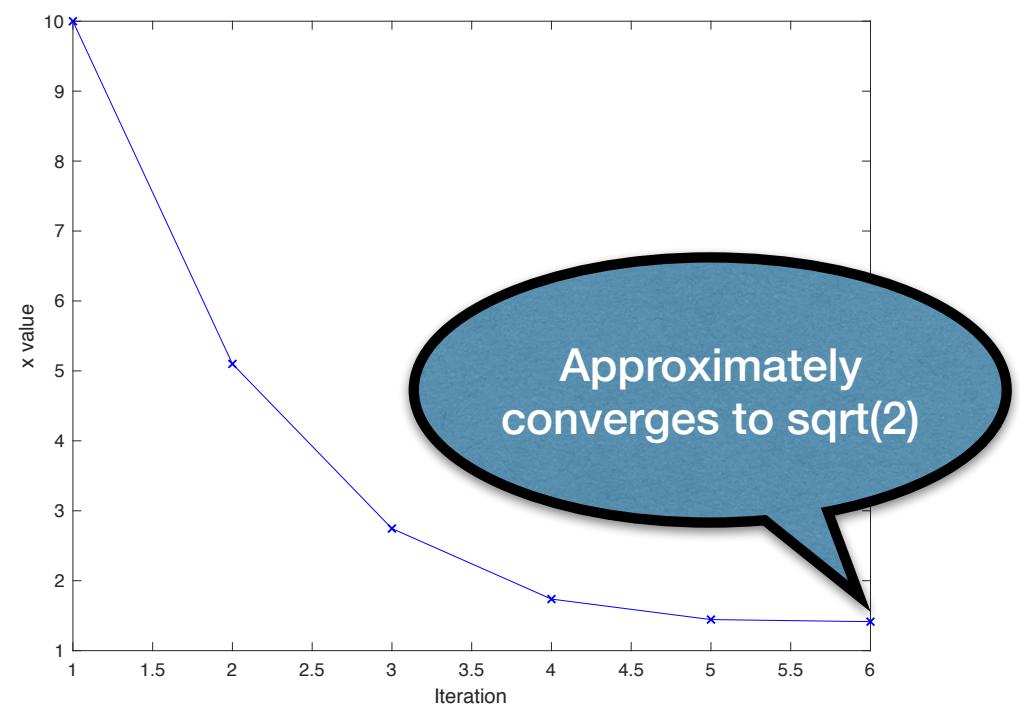
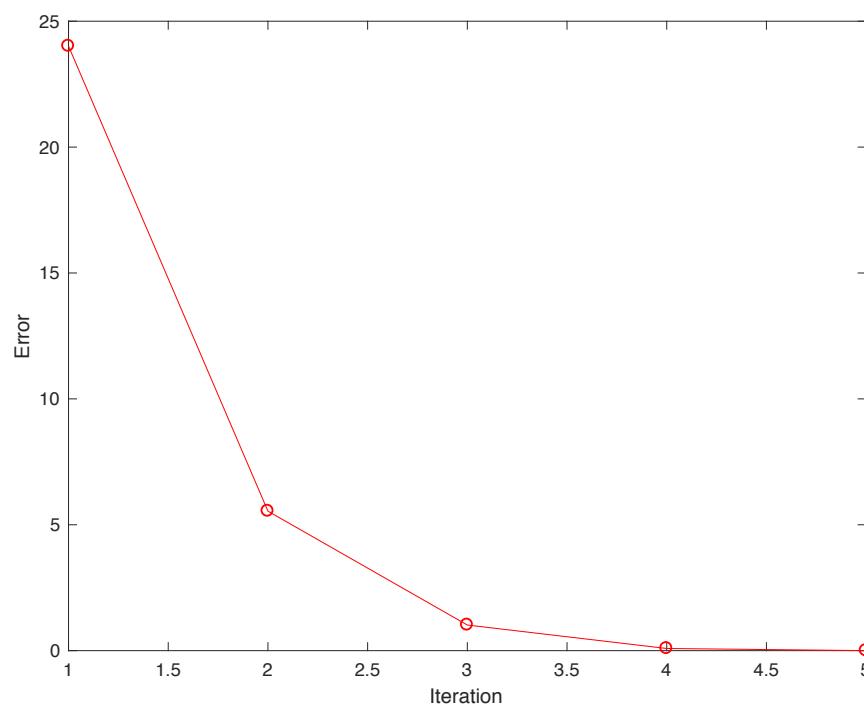
Set $\tilde{x}_{\text{new}} \leftarrow (\tilde{x}_{\text{old}} + (z/\tilde{x}_{\text{old}}))/2$

Set $\epsilon = |z - \tilde{x}_{\text{new}}^2|$

Write out \tilde{x}_{new}

Plots

- In this example, we use
 - $\tilde{x}_{\text{init}} = 10, z = 2$



Data Types

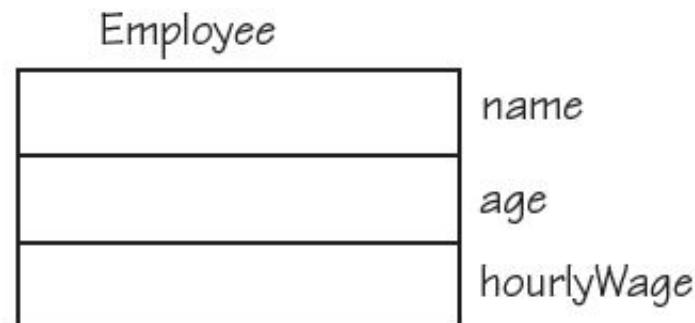


FIGURE 7.6 Record Employee

- Structure

Employee employee

Set employee.name to “Frank Jones”

Set employee.age to 32

Set employee.hourlyWage to 27.50

Arrays

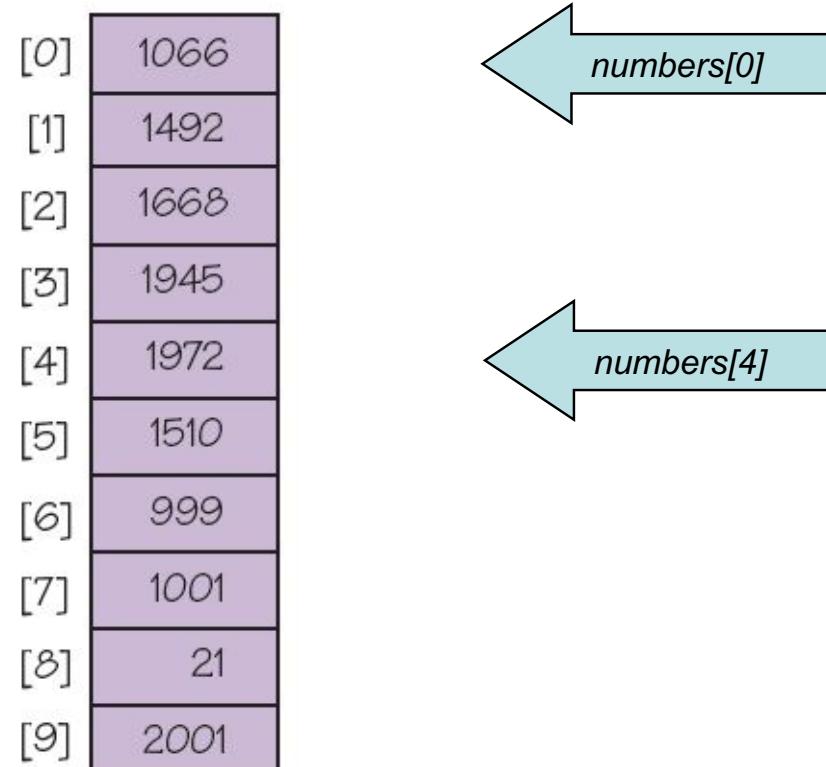


FIGURE 7.5 An array
of ten numbers

Arrays

- As data is being read into an array, a counter is updated so that we always know how many data items were stored
- If the array is called *list*, we are working with
list[0] to list[length-1] or
list[0]..list[length-1]

Unsorted Array

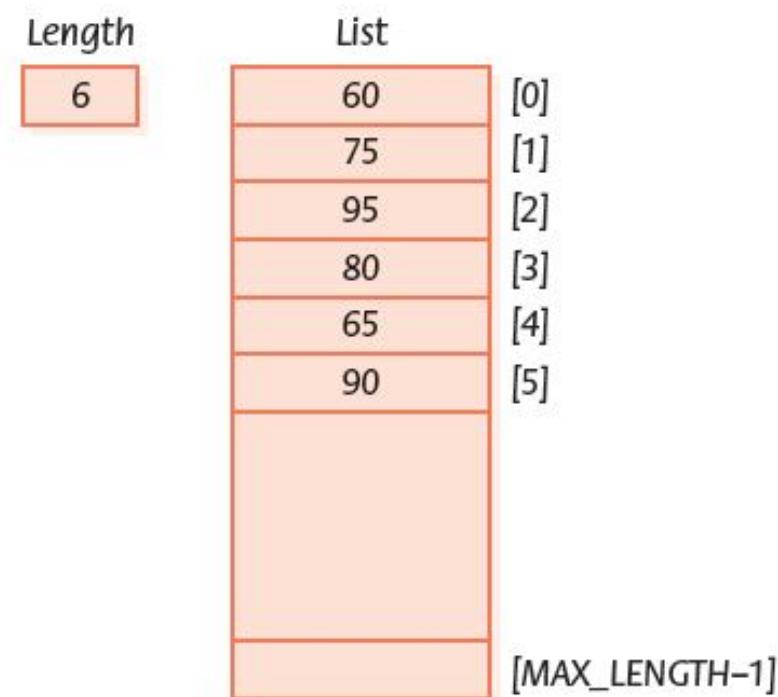


FIGURE 7.7 An unsorted array

Algorithms with Arrays

- Array size check algorithm

```
integer data[20]
Write "How many values?"
Read length
Set index to 0
WHILE (index < length)
    Read data[index]
    Set index to index + 1
```

Algorithms with Arrays

- Sequential search algorithm

Observe there is IF statement inside of WHILE statement

Set Position to 0

Set found to FALSE

WHILE (position < length AND NOT found)

IF (numbers [position] equals searchitem)

Set Found to TRUE

ELSE

Set position to position + 1

Boolean Operations

- Boolean Operators
 - ▶ A **Boolean variable** is a location in memory that can contain either *true* or *false*
 - ▶ Boolean operator **AND** returns *TRUE* if both operands are true and *FALSE* otherwise
 - ▶ Boolean operator **OR** returns *TRUE* if either operand is true and *FALSE* otherwise
 - ▶ Boolean operator **NOT** returns *TRUE* if its operand is false and *FALSE* if its operand is true

Sorted Array

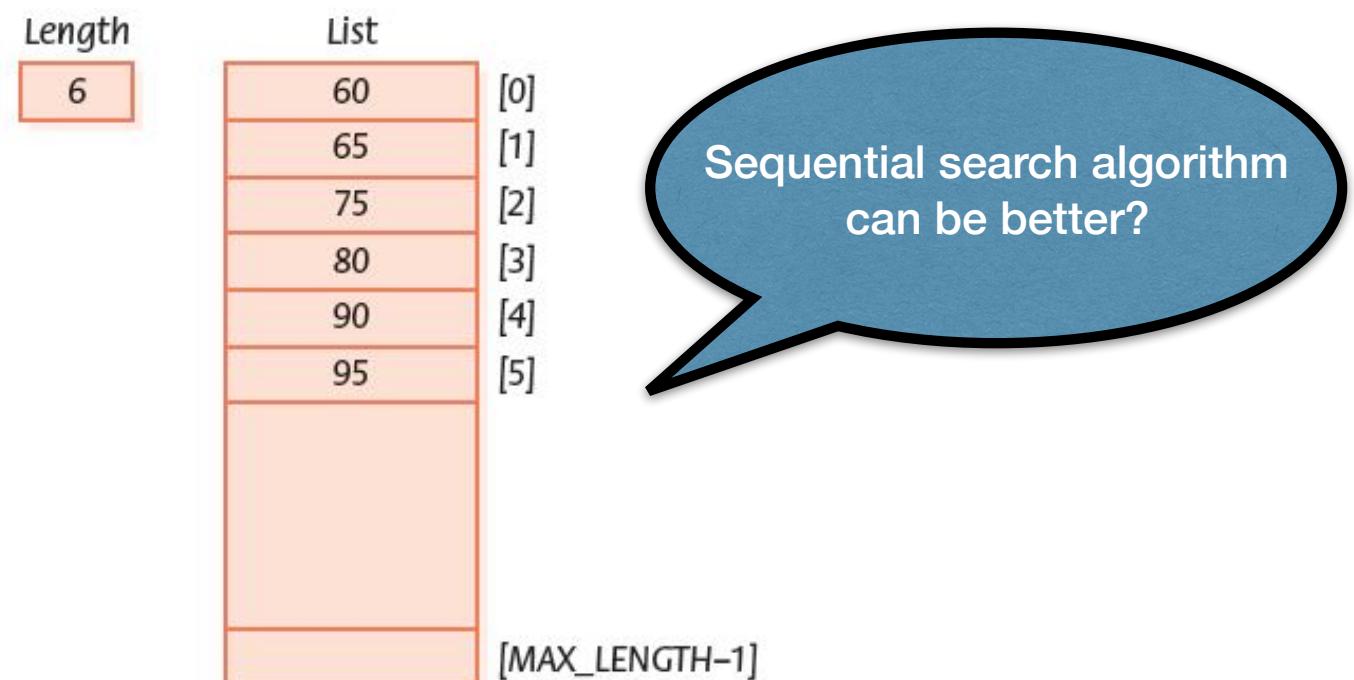


FIGURE 7.8 A sorted array

Binary Search Algorithm

- We already know the solution:
 - ▶ Binary search algorithm

```
Set first to 0
Set last to length-1
Set found to FALSE
WHILE (first <= last AND NOT found)
    Set middle to (first + last)/ 2
    IF (item equals data[middle]))
        Set found to TRUE
    ELSE
        IF (item < data[middle])
            Set last to middle – 1
        ELSE
            Set first to middle + 1
RETURN found
```

Binary Search Details

Length	Items	
[0]	ant	
[1]	cat	
[2]	chicken	
[3]	cow	
[4]	deer	
[5]	dog	
[6]	fish	
[7]	goat	
[8]	horse	
[9]	rat	
[10]	snake	
.	.	
.	.	

FIGURE 7.9 Binary search example

Searching for cat			
First	Last	Middle	Comparison
0	10	5	cat < dog
0	4	2	cat < chicken
0	1	0	cat > ant
1	1	1	cat = cat
			Return: true

Searching for fish			
First	Last	Middle	Comparison
0	10	5	fish > dog
6	10	8	fish < horse
6	7	6	fish = fish
			Return: true

Searching for zebra			
First	Last	Middle	Comparison
0	10	5	zebra > dog
6	10	8	zebra > horse
9	10	9	zebra > rat
10	10	10	zebra > snake
11	10		first > last
			Return: false

FIGURE 7.10 Trace of the binary search

Complexity

TABLE

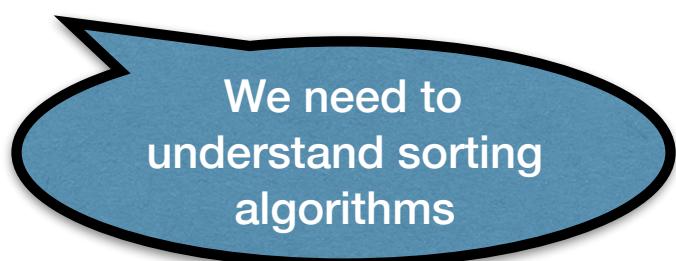
Onion: © matka_Wariatka/Shutterstock, Inc.

Length	Sequential Search	Binary Search
10	5.5	2.9
100	50.5	5.8
1000	500.5	9.0
10000	5000.5	12.0

 $O(N)$  $O(\log(N))$

Sorting

- So in conclusion, sorting is powerful in search algorithm
- One may throw this question:
 - ▶ If we have unsorted array, is it better to
 - ▶ Directly apply sequential search vs.
 - ▶ First sort the array then use binary search

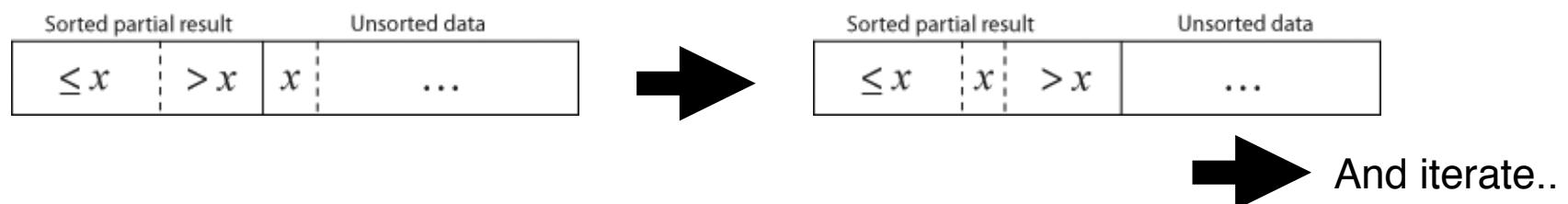


We need to
understand sorting
algorithms

Sorting Algorithm

- Sorting
 - ▶ Arranging items in a collection so that there is an ordering on one (or more) of the fields in the items
- Sort Key
 - ▶ The field (or fields) on which the ordering is based
- Sorting algorithms
 - ▶ Algorithms that order the items in the collection based on the sort key

Insertion Sort



Try it with
6 5 3 1 8 7 3 2

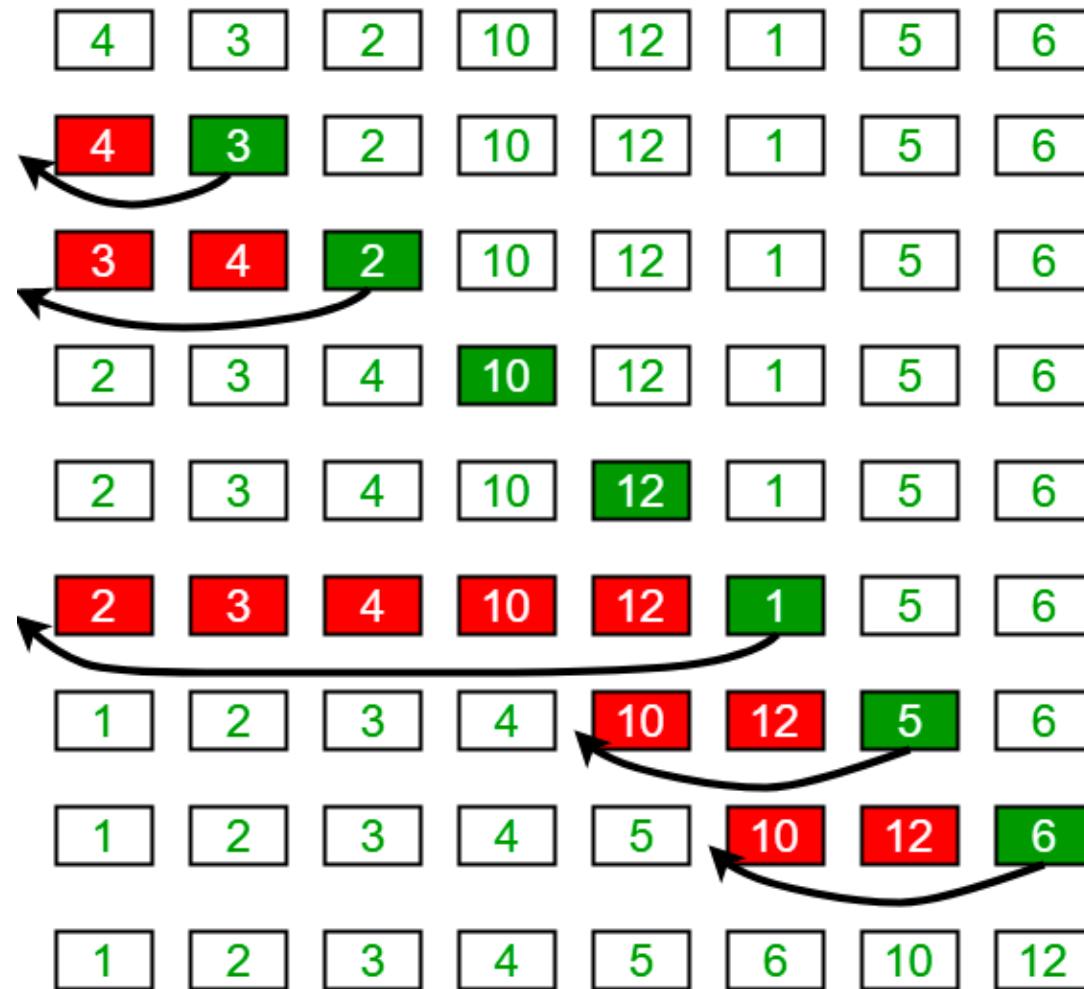
<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Insertion-sort-example-300px.gif>

Insertion Sort Implementation

```
i ← 1
while i < length(A)
    x ← A[i]
    j ← i - 1
    while j >= 0 and A[j] > x
        A[j+1] ← A[j]
        j ← j - 1
    end while
    A[j+1] ← x[4]
    i ← i + 1
end while
```

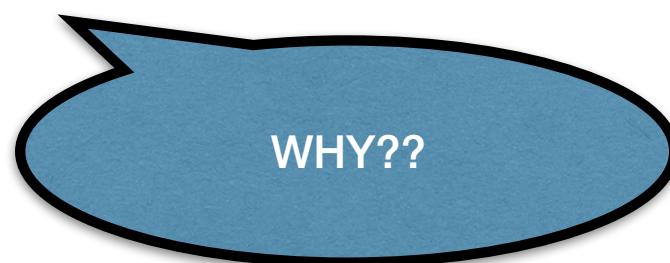
Insertion Sort

Insertion Sort Execution Example



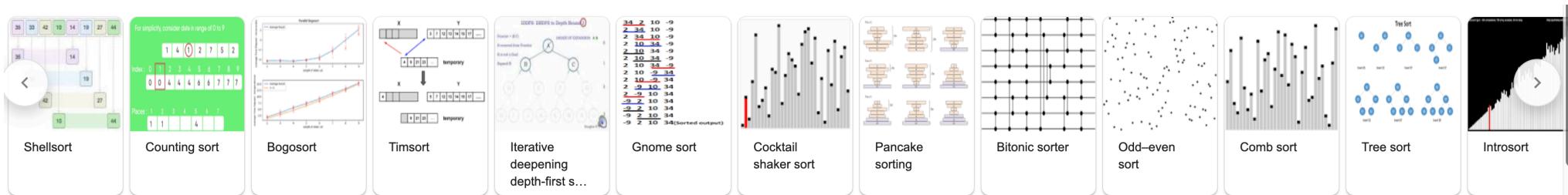
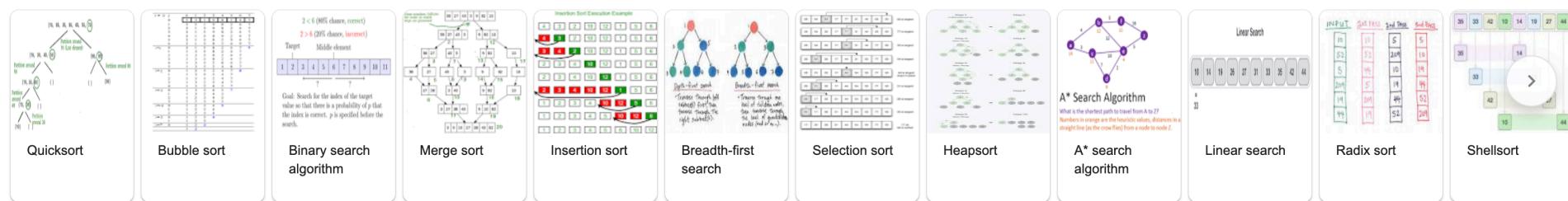
Complexity

- Best
 - ▶ $O(N)$
- Average
 - ▶ $O(N^2)$
- Worst
 - ▶ $O(N^2)$
- Memory
 - ▶ $O(1)$



Other Sorting Algorithms

sorting algorithms



Bubble Sort

- A basic approach is same
 - ▶ Find the next unsorted item
 - ▶ Put it to the proper place
- But it's comparison window size is always 2

Bubble Sort

	unsorted
	5 > 1, swap
	5 < 12, ok
	12 > -5, swap
	12 < 16, ok
	1 < 5, ok
	5 > -5, swap
	5 < 12, ok
	1 > -5, swap
	1 < 5, ok
	-5 < 1, ok
	sorted

Bubble Sort Implementation

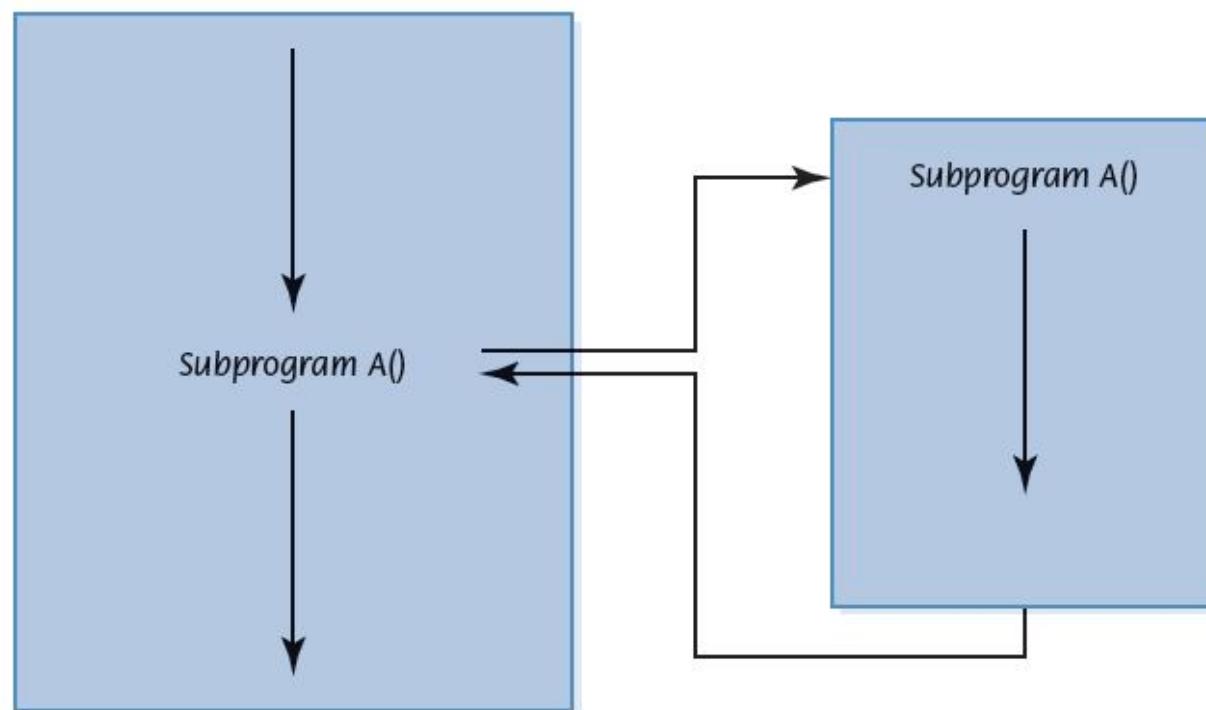
```
n ← length(A)
i ← 1
sort_flag ← 1
while (sort_flag == 1)
    sort_flag ← 0
    while (i <= n-1)
        if A[i] > A[i+1]
            x ← A[i+1]
            y ← A[i]
            A[i] ← x
            A[i+1] ← y
            sort_flag ← 1
        else
        end
        i ← i+1
    end while
```

Is it better?

- What is the worst complexity of bubble sort?

Subprogram Statement

(a) Subprogram A does its task and calling unit continues with next statement



Recursion

- The ability of subprogram to call itself
- For example,
 - ▶ We want to calculate $N! = N * (N - 1)!$
 - ▶ Base case: $\text{Factorial}(0) = 1$ ($0! = 1$)
 - ▶ General case: $\text{Factorial}(N) = (N-1)*\text{Factorial}(N-1)$

Recursion

Write “Enter n”

Read n

Set result to Factorial(n)

Write result + “is the factorial of “ + n

Factorial(n)

IF (n equals 0)

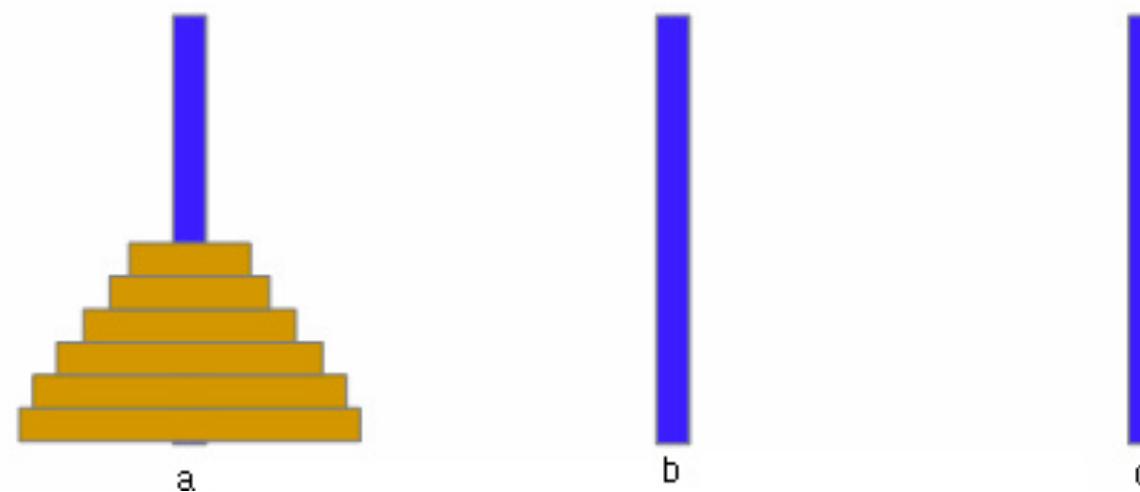
RETURN 1

ELSE

*RETURN n * Factorial(n-1)*

Recursion

- Tower of Hanoi Problem



Move the disks in “a” to “c” with
the same order of “a”

Recursion

- Pseudocode

```
FUNCTION MoveTower(disk, source, dest, spare):  
    IF disk == 0, THEN:  
        move disk from source to dest  
    ELSE:  
        MoveTower(disk - 1, source, spare, dest)      // Step 1 above  
        move disk from source to dest                // Step 2 above  
        MoveTower(disk - 1, spare, dest, source)    // Step 3 above  
    END IF
```

Quicksort

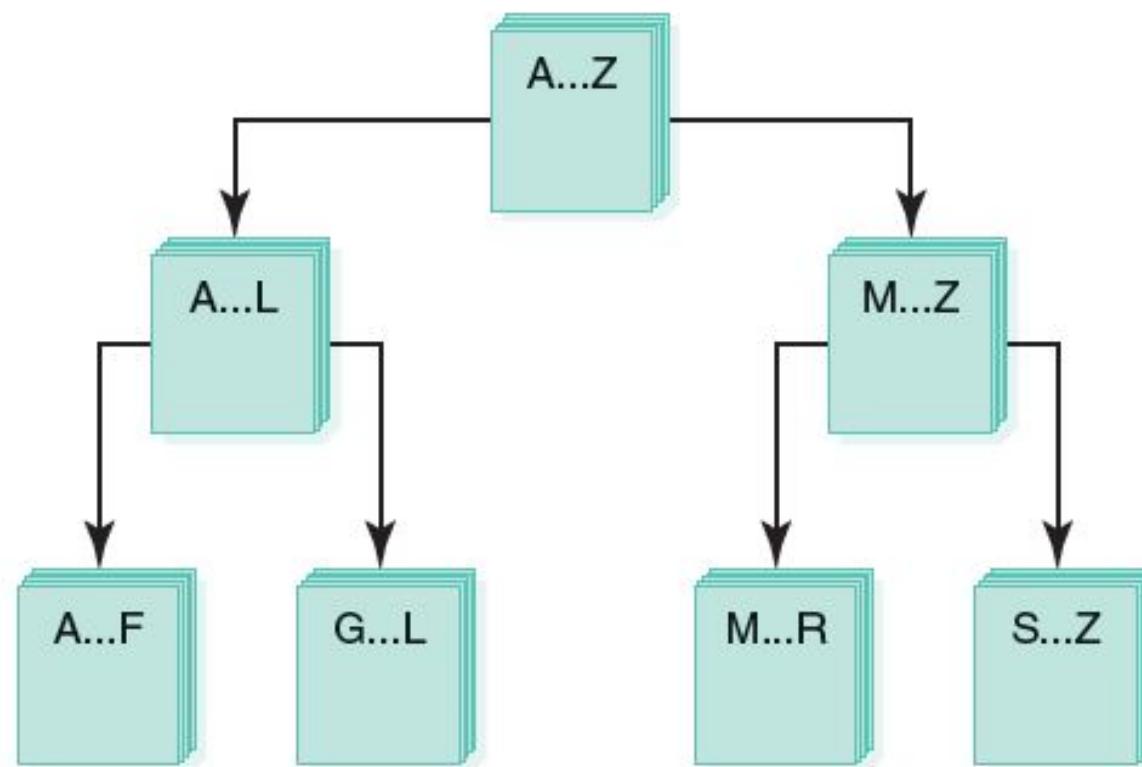
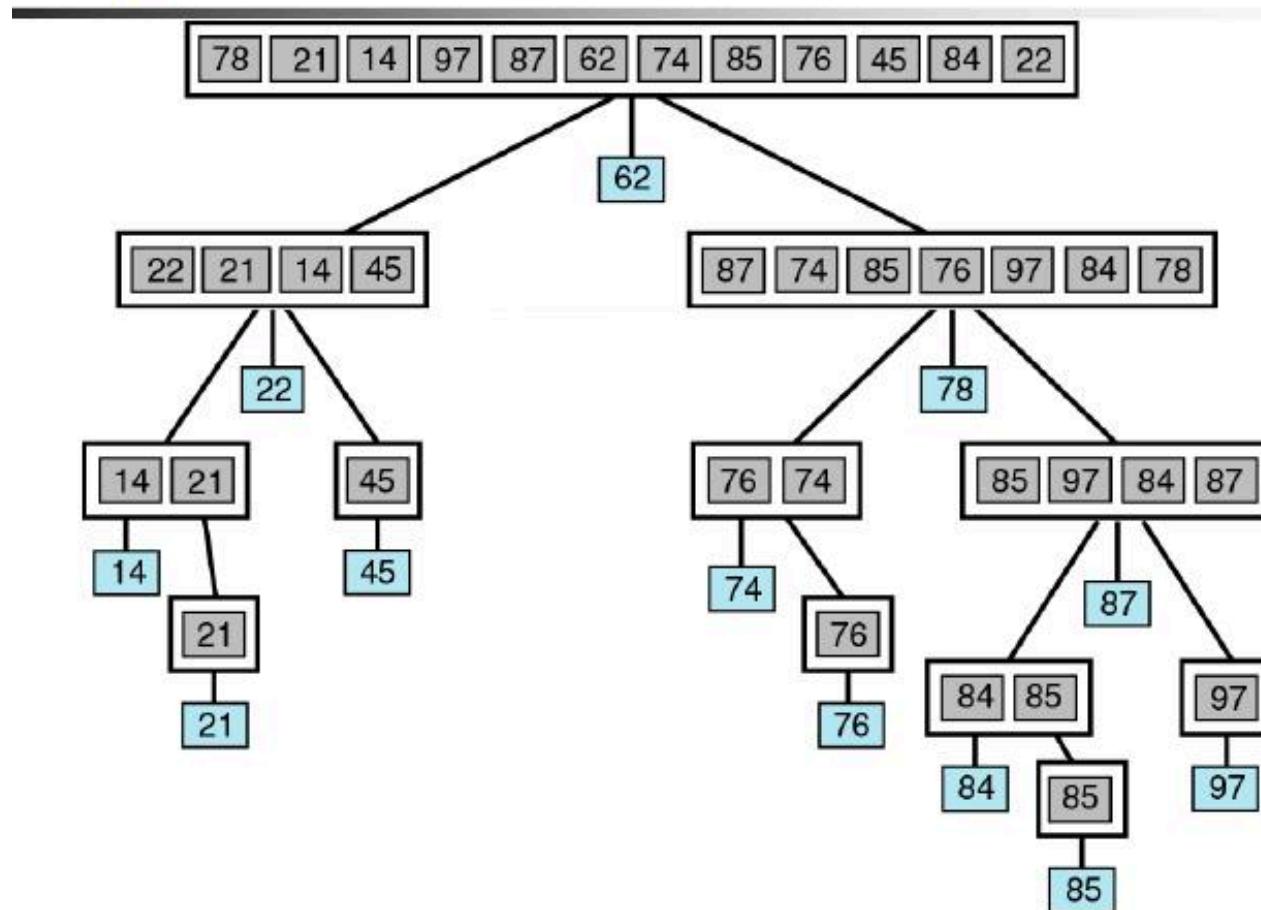


FIGURE 7.15 Ordering a list using the Quicksort algorithm

Quicksort

- Pick an element, called a *pivot*, from the array.
- *Partitioning*: reorder the array so that all elements with values less than the pivot come before the pivot, while all elements with values greater than the pivot come after it (equal values can go either way). After this partitioning, the pivot is in its final position. This is called the *partition* operation.
- Recursively apply the above steps to the sub-array of elements with smaller values and separately to the sub-array of elements with greater values.

Quicksort



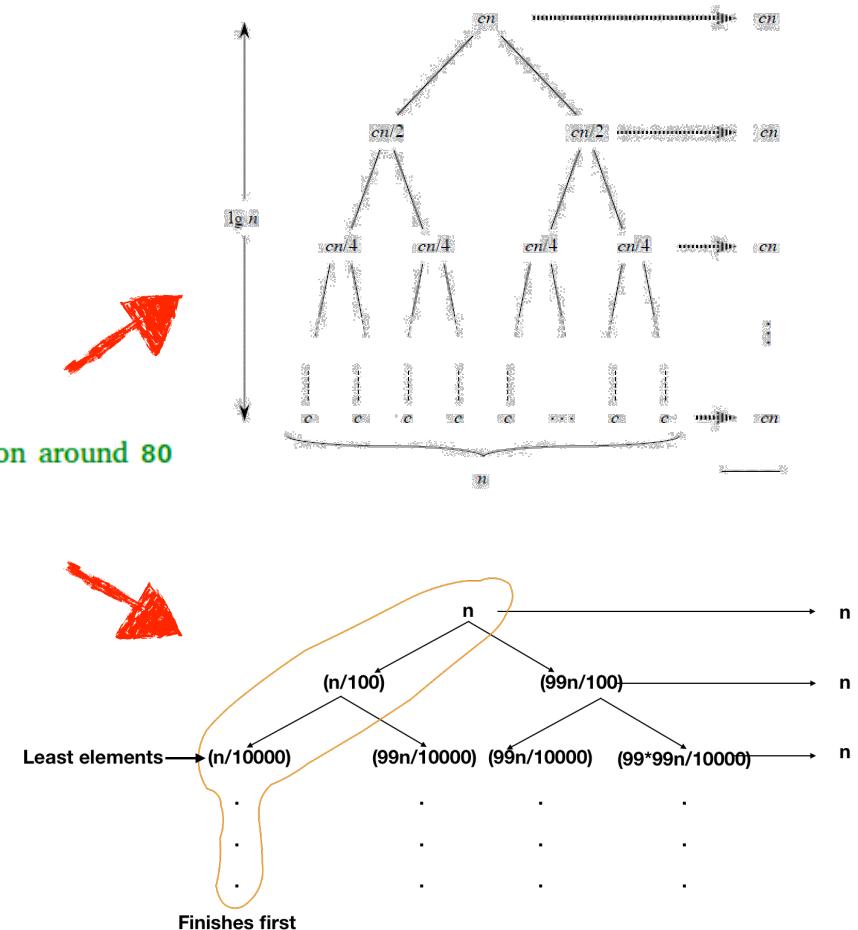
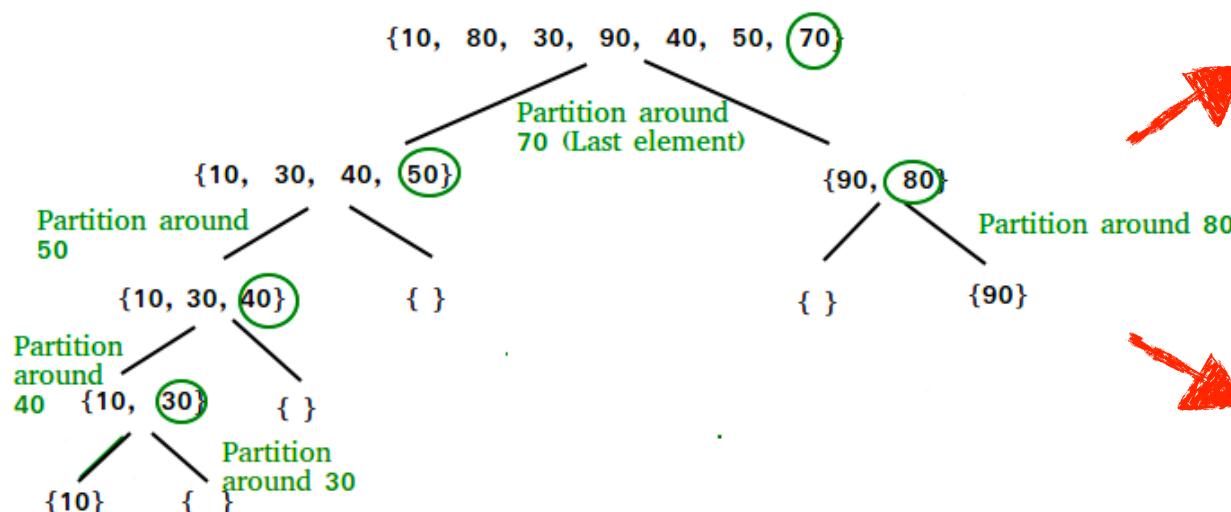
Quicksort Complexity

- Assume that we have N size array, and $T(N)$ is the complexity.
- Then we have:
 - ▶
$$\begin{aligned} T(N) &= 2T(N/2) + N \\ &= 2(2T(N/4) + N/2) + N \\ &= 4T(N/4) + 2N \\ &\vdots \\ &= 2^x T(N/2^x) + xN, \quad x = \log_2(N) \\ &= NT(1) + N \log_2(N) \\ &\approx O(N \log_2(N)) \end{aligned}$$

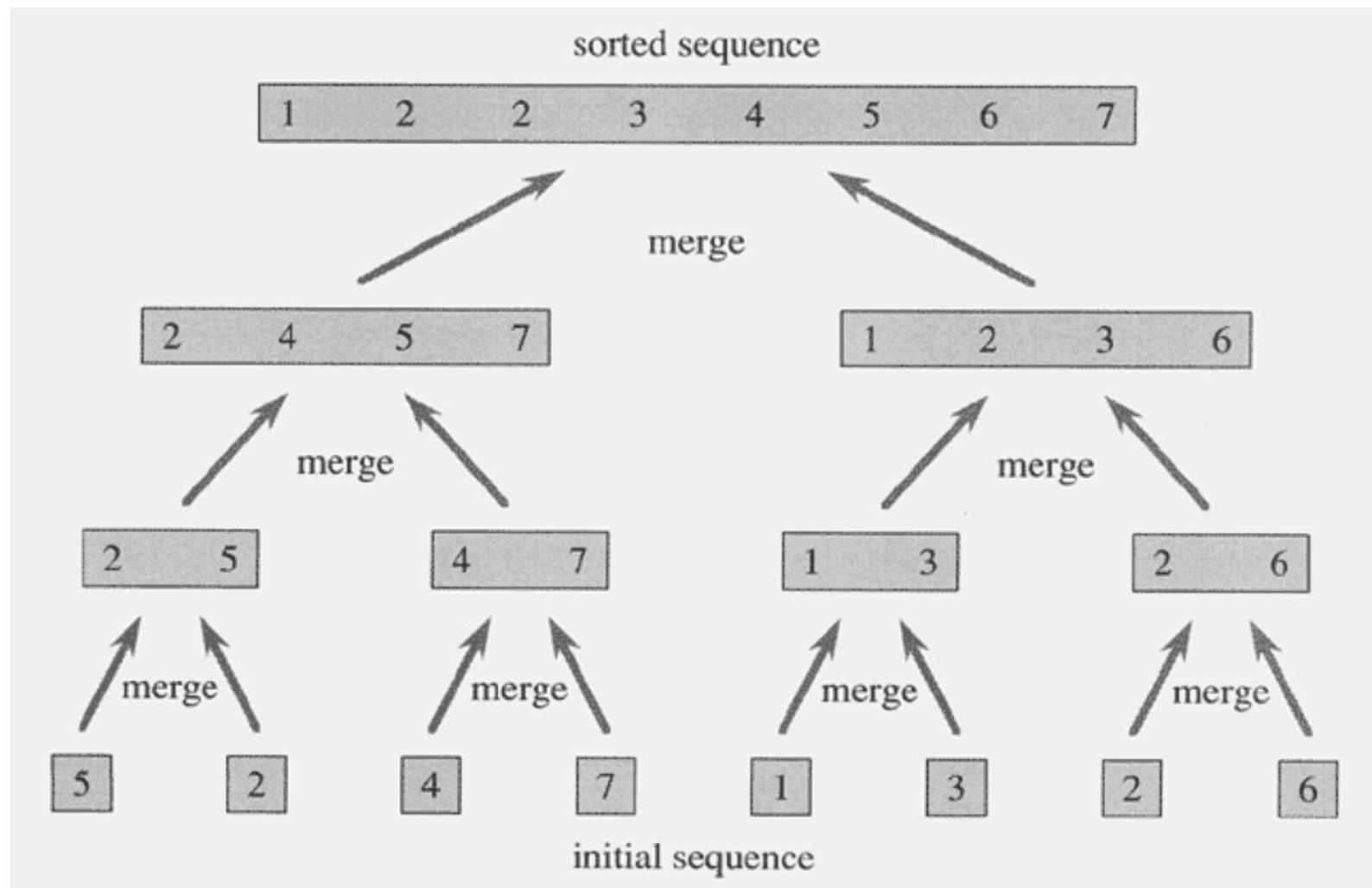


Quicksort Implementation

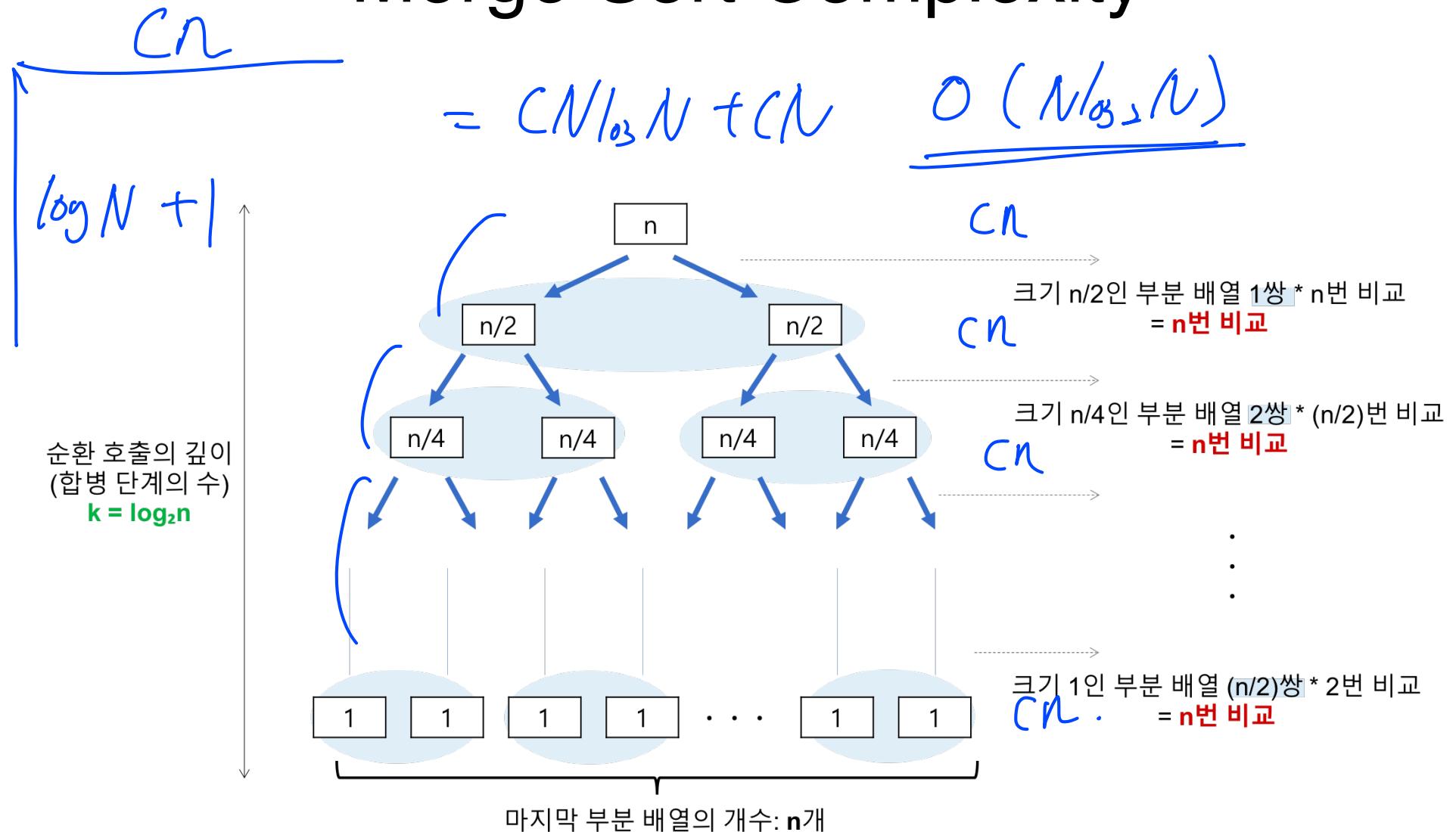
- We can do it by using recursion



Merge Sort



Merge Sort Complexity



$$= O(N \log_2(N))$$

Can we prove it analytically?