Algorithms

3.1, 5.3, 5.4

Algorithms

Definition: Algorithm

A finite set of instructions for performing a task

Example:

Is Binary Search an algorithm? Yes!

Is the Division Algorithm an algorithm? No!

(It's not a set of instructions)

The Framework

- 1. Computable means that the solution can be described by an algorithm
 - (a) Tractable the algorithm is efficient
 - (b) Intractable no efficient solutions
- 2. Non-computable no algorithm will ever describe the solution.

Algorithm Characteristics

1. Input - Data is provided from outside of the algorithm

2. Output - Information produced by the algorithm

3. Generality - The instructions can solve a collection of similar problems

Algorithm Characteristics

4. Definiteness - (a.ka. Precision, Uniqueness) The instructions are not open to interpretation.

5. Correctness - The output is the accepted answer for the given input.

6. Finiteness - The complete output is produced by the execution of a finite quantity of instructions

Tooth-brushing Algorithm

- 1. Grab the toothpaste
- 2. Uncap the toothpaste
- 3. Grab your toothbrush
- 4. Squeeze toothpaste onto your toothbrush
- 5. Brush your teeth

Some problems with this algorithm:

What if the tube is empty? (Input)

Does this algorithm solve related problems? (Generality)

Brushing technique? (Definiteness)

When do we stop? (Finiteness)

Some Sample Iterative Algorithms

Example: Decimal to Base X Conversion

Input: n Base 10 value to be converted base Destination number system digit() holds LSD of result

```
quotient <-- n
i <-- 0
while quotient does not equal 0:
    digit(i) <-- quotient modulo base
    quotient <-- the floor of quotient/base
    increment i by 1
end while</pre>
```

Some Sample Iterative Algorithms

What is the cost to evaluate $f(x) = 2x^3 - 4x^2 + 3x + 6$?

Naive evaluation:

$$f(x) = 2 \cdot x \cdot x \cdot x - 4 \cdot x \cdot x + 3 \cdot x + 6$$
1 2 3 1 4 5 2 6 3 3+'s, 6 's

But can we do better?

$$f(x) = x(2x^{2} - 4x + 3) + 6$$

$$= x(x(2x - 4) + 3) + 6$$

$$= x(x(x(2) - 4) + 3) + 6$$
3 2 1 1 2 3 3+'s, 3 \cdot's

Some Sample Iterative Algorithms

Example: Horner's Algorithm for Polynomial Evaluation

```
Input: x Value used to evaluate the polynomial Largest Exponent a(0) \dots a(n) Coefficients of x^0 \dots x^n Output: result Evaluation of the polynomial
```

```
result <-- a(n)
index <-- n-1
while index>=0:
    result <-- x * result + a(index)
    decrement index by 1
end while
output result</pre>
```

Recursive Definitions

Definition: Recursive Definition

A complete recursive definition has three parts:

- (a) The <u>basis clause</u> determines how trivial cases are to be handled
- (b) The <u>inductive clause</u> describes complex problem instances in terms of simpler instances
- (c) The <u>extremal clause</u> provides bounds on the definition

Recursive Definitions

Example:

Consider the sequence S: 13,10,7,4,1

Basis: $S_1 = 13$

Recurrence: $S_n = S_{n-1} - 3$

Extremal: $1 \le n \le 5$

Consider the non-negative integers (Z^*)

Basis: $1 \in \mathbb{Z}$

Recurrence: if $n \in \mathbb{Z}$, then $n + 1 \in \mathbb{Z}$

Extremal: N/A

Consider general trees

Basis: Empty tree (0 nodes)

Recurrence: The root has >= 0 subtrees that are general trees

Extremal: N/A

Recursive Algorithms

Definition: Recursive Algorithm

A recursive algorithm express the solution to a task in terms of a simpler case of the same problem.

Aside: Control Structures in Programming Languages

- 1. Sequence
- 2. Selection
- 3. Iteration...or Recursion!

Example: Factorials

Definition: Factorial

The factorial of $n \in \mathbb{Z}^*$, denoted n!, is the product of all integers 1 through n, where 0! = 1.

An iterative factorial algorithm is easy to create:

```
product <-- 1
while n is larger than 1:
    product <-- product * n
    n<--n-1
end while
output product</pre>
```

Example: Factorials

Factorials can be easily computed recursively:

$$4! = 4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1$$

$$4! = 4 \cdot 3!$$

But what are the Basis, Inductive, and Extremal clauses?

Basis: 0! = 1

Inductive: $n! = n \cdot (n-1)!$

Extremal: n! is defined $\forall n \in \mathbb{Z}^*$

Example: Factorials

Recursive pseudocode algorithm:

```
subprogram factorial (given: n) returns: n!
    if n is 0
        return 1
        else
(Inductive)        answer <-- n * factorial(n-1)
        end if
    end subprogram</pre>
```

Extremal? Assumed!

Can We Prove Our Algorithm?

Conjecture: factorial(n) returns n!

```
Proof (structural induction):
```

```
Basis: Let n = 0. The algorithm returns 1, and by definition, 0! = 1. Ok!
```

Inductive Step: If factorial(n) returns n!, then factorial(n+1) returns (n+1)!.

When the input is (n + 1), the algorithm will compute (n + 1)! to be (n + 1)* factorial(n)

(Continues ...)

Can We Prove Our Algorithm?

By the Inductive Hypothesis, we know that factorial(n) computes n!. And, from the recursive definition of factorial, we know that n! * (n + 1) = (n + 1)!.

Therefore, factorial(n) computes n!

Conjecture: In a binary tree, the number of null references equals one more than the number of nodes in the tree, for all non-empty binary trees.

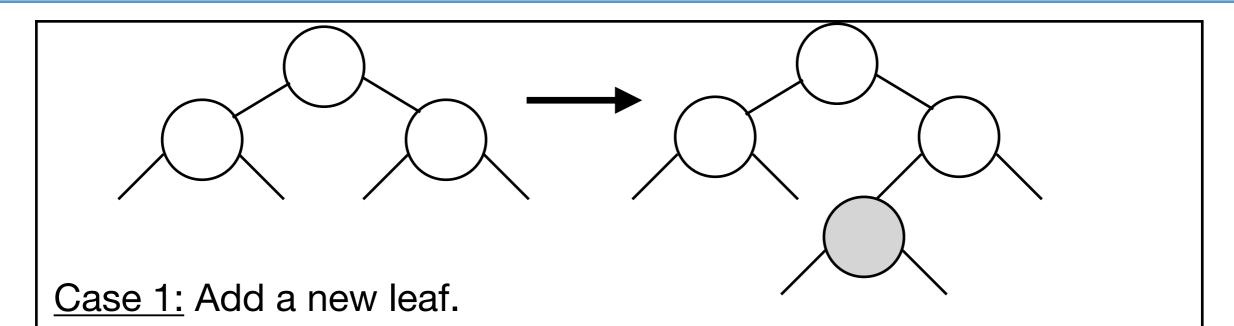
Proof (structural induction):

Basis: A binary tree with one node has 2 nulls. Ok!

Inductive Step: If a binary tree of n nodes has n+1 nulls, then a binary tree of n+1 nodes has n+2 nulls.

There are three possible insertion situations

(Proof Continues ...)

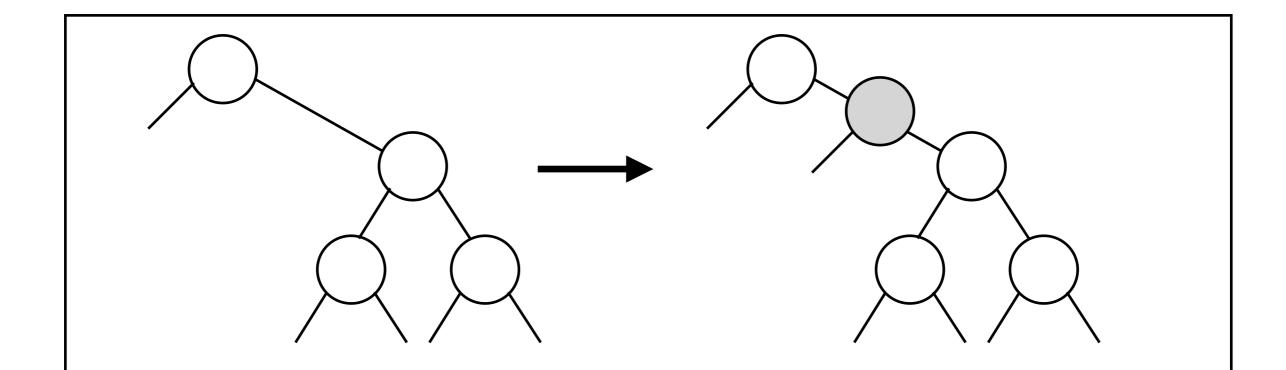


By the Inductive Hypothesis, we have n nodes and n+1 nulls in our tree.

Adding a leaf adds one node and two nulls, but occupies (removes) an existing null.

This is a net gain of one node and one null, giving a total of n + 1 nodes and n + 2 nulls, as desired.

(Proof Continues)

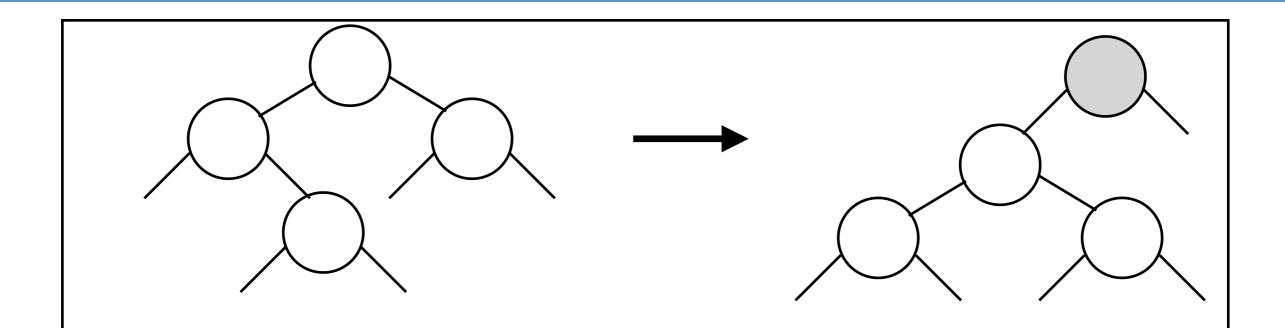


Case 2: Insert between nodes.

We add a node, occupy an existing null, and use one of its children, leaving one extra new null.

As before this is a gain of one node and one null.

(Proof Continues)



Case 3: Insert a new root.

We add a node and occupy of its nulls in referencing the old root. Again, a net gain of one node and one null.

Therefore, #-nulls = 1+ # nodes, for all non-empty binary trees

Example: Fibonacci Sequence

Definition: Fibonacci Sequence

```
The n^{th} term of the Fibonacci sequence is the sum of terms n-1 and n-2, where F(0)=0 and F(1)=1
```

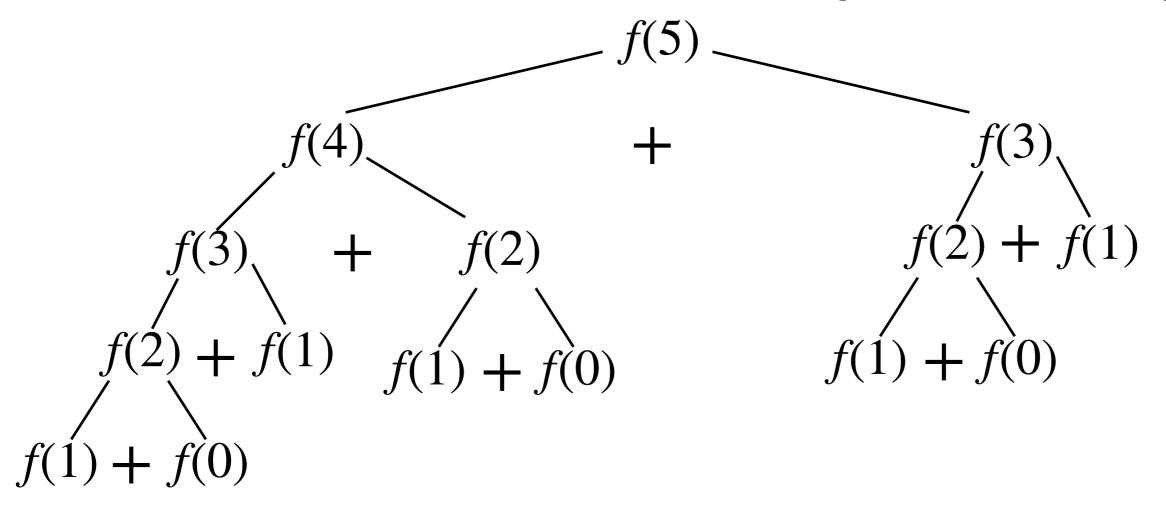
Recursively generating terms of the sequence is easy...

```
subprogram fibonacci (given: n) returns: nth term
  if n is 0 or 1
      return n
  else
      return fibonacci(n-1) + fibonacci(n-2)
  end if
end subprogram
```

Example: Fibonacci Sequence

... but inefficient!

Consider this tree of invocations resulting from fibonacci(5):



Note the three f(2) trees and the two f(3) trees \Rightarrow Repeated (and therefore wasted) effort!

Extra Slides

Example: Euclidean Algorithm for GCDs

Theorem: GCD(a,b) = GCD(b,a%b)

Proof: See Rosen 8/e p. 283

Recursive pseudocode algorithm:

```
subprogram GCD (given: a,b) returns: gcd(a,b)
  if a is 0, return b endif
  if b is 0, return a endif
  answer <-- GCD(b, a%b)
  return answer
end subprogram</pre>
```

Question: Is this more or less efficient than the iterative algorithm presented earlier?

Example: Sums of Odd Positive Integers

$$\mathbb{Z}^+: 1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4 \ \dots \qquad n \qquad \frac{(m+1)}{2}$$

$$o:1 \ 3 \ 5 \ 7 \ \dots \ 2n-1$$
 m

Let oddsum(term) represent the sum of o(1) through o(term).

Base: oddsum(1) = 1

General: oddsum(term) =

Example: Sums of Odd Positive Integers

Recursive implementation, using pseudocode:

```
subprogram oddsum (given: term)
        returns: sum from 1 through term of (2i-1)

if term is 1, return 1
    otherwise
        answer <-- oddsum(term-1)+2*term-1
        return answer
    end if</pre>
```

Proving oddsum()

Conjecture: oddsum(t) produces $\sum_{i=1}^{t} (2i-1), \forall t \geq 1$

Proof (structural induction):

Basis: Let t = 1. The algorithm returns 1, and $\sum_{i=1}^{1} (2i - 1) = 1$. Ok!

Inductive Step: If oddsum(t) returns $\sum_{i=1}^{i} (2i-1)$,

then oddsum(t+1) returns
$$\sum_{i=1}^{t+1} (2i-1).$$

(Continues ...)

Proving oddsum()

When given t + 1, oddsum() returns

oddsum(t) +
$$[2(t+1) - 1]$$
 = oddsum(t) + $(2t+1)$

By the Inductive Hypothesis, oddsum(t) = $\sum_{i=1}^{t} (2i-1)$.

Substituting, oddsum(t+1) returns $\sum_{i=1}^{t} (2i-1) + (2t+1).$

2t + 1 is the $(t + 1)^{st}$ term of the sequence; thus

$$\sum_{i=1}^{t} (2i-1) + (2t+1) = \sum_{i=1}^{t+1} (2i-1).$$

Therefore, oddsum(t) produces $\sum_{i=1}^{t} (2i-1), \forall t \geq 1$