

Algorithms and Programming

Lecture 12 – Recap

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Course content

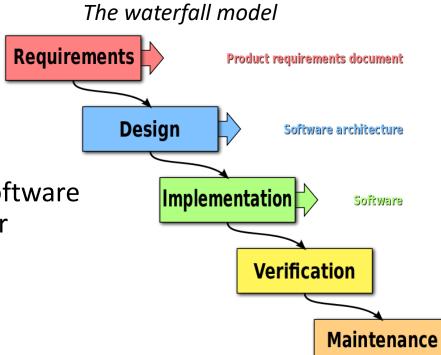
Programming in the large

Programming in the small

- 1. Software development process (Lectures 1, 2)
- 2. Procedural programming
- 3. Modular programming
- 4. Abstract data types
- 5. Software development principles
- 6. Testing and debugging
- 7. Recursion
- 8. Complexity of algorithms
- 9. Search and sorting algorithms
- 10. Problem solving methods
 Algorithms and Programming

- Programming
 - Python programs
 - Data types
 - List operations
 - Assignments
 - Statements
 - Control flow
- Software development process
- Feature-driven development

- Roles in software engineering
 - Programmer / software developer
 - Client
 - User
- Software development process:
 - Includes creation, launch and maintainence of software
 - Indicates the steps to be followed and their order
- Steps in solving a problem:
 - Problem definition
 - Requirements
 - Use case scenario
 - Identify the features and separate them on iterations
 - Identify the activities or tasks (for each feature) and describe them



- Build a feature list from problem statement
- Plan iterations
- For each iteration
 - Model planned features
 - Implement and test the features
 - Obs:
 - At the beginning of each iteration: analyze each feature determine the activities (tasks) required schedule the tasks implementat and test each independently.
 - An iteration will result in a working program for the client (will interact with the user, perform some computation, show results)

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Procedural programming

- Programming paradigms
- Procedural programming
- Function definition
- Variable scope
- Test-driven development

- Programming paradigms
 - Imperative programming
 - Computations described through statements that modify the state of a program (control flow – sequence of statements exexuted by the computer)
 - Examples: Procedural programming, Object oriented programming
- Procedural programming each program is formed by several procedures (subroutines or functions)
- Function
 - A block of statements that can be reused
 - Are run in a program only when they are called

Functions in Python

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Function characteristics:

Has a name

Has a list of parameters

Can **return** a value

Has a body (a block of statements)

```
def get_max(a, b):
    """
    Compute the maximum of 2 numbers a, b - numbers
    Return a number - the maximum of two integers.
    Raise TypeError if parameters are not integers.
    """
    if a>b:
        return a
    return b
```

Has a specification (docstring) formed of:

- A description
- Type and description of parameters
- Conditions imposed on input parameters (pre-conditions)
- Type and description of return value
- Conditions imposed on output values (post-conditions)
- Exceptions that can occur during its execution

get_max(2, 3)

Variable scope

- Types of variables
 - Local a name (of variable) defined in a block
 - Global a name defined in a module
 - Free a name used in a block but defined somewhere else

```
g1 = 1 # g1 - global variable (also local, a module being a block)
def fun1(a): # a is a formal parameter
    b = a + g1 # b - local variable, g1 - free variable
    if b > 0: # a, b, and g1 are visible in all blocks of this function
        c = b - g1 # b is visible here, also g1
        b = c # c is a local variable defined in this block
    return b # c is not visible here
def fun2():
    global g1
    d = g1 # g1 - global variable
    g1 = 2 # g1 must be declared global, before
    return d + g1 # any references to g1 in this function
print(fun1(1))
print(fun2())
```

- Where is a variable visible?
 - Rules to determine the scope of a name (variable or function)
 - A name is visible only inside the block where it is defined
 - The formal parameters of a function belong to the body of the function (are visible only inside the function)
 - Names defined outside of a function (at module level) belong to the module scope
 - When a name is used in a block, its visibility is determined using the nearest scope (that contains that name)

```
a = 100
def f():
    a = 300
    print(a) # 300

f()
print(a) # 100
```

```
a = 100
def f():
    global a
    a = 300
    print(a) # 300

f()
print(a) # 300
```

Test-Driven Development (TDD)

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TDD circle

- Implies creation of tests (that clarify the requirements) before writing the code of the function
- Steps to create a new function:
 - 1. Add a new test / several tests
 - 2. Execute tests and verify that at least one of them failed
 - 3. Write the body of the function
 - 4. Run all tests
 - 5. Refactor the code
 - Extraction method
 - Substitution of an algorithm
 - Replacing a temporary expression with a function



 Analyse boundary behaviour, how to handle invalid parameters before writing any code

Course content

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Modular programming

- Modules
- Packages
- import statement

- How to organize an application
- Layered architecture
- Exceptions
 - raise statement
 - try..except(..finally) statement

- Module
 - Structural unit (that can communicate with other units), changeable
 - Collections of functions and variables that implement a well-defined feature
- Based on decomposing the problem in subproblems considering:
 - Separating concepts
 - Layered architectures
 - Maintenance and reuse of code
 - Cohesion of elements in a module
 - Link between modules

Python module

- Module: a file that contains Python statements and definitions
 - Variables global names, visible at the level of the module
 - Function definitions available in that module and in other modules that import the current module
 - Other statements initialization
- A module has:
 - Name (__name___)
 - Docstring (__doc__)
 - A symbol table with all the names introduced by the module dir(moduleName)
- Python module must be imported in order to use it
 - The import statement
 - import [path.]moduleName
 - from moduleName import itemName

Organize the code of an application

- Layered architectures
 - Decomposing by features 2 perspectives:
 - Functional perspective identifying different features specified by the problem
 - Technical perspective introducing technical features (such as user interaction, file management, databases, networks, etc)
 - Recommended solution:
 - Decompose a complex application on layers
 - Concentrate the code related to the domain of the problem in a single layer and isolate it
 - Ensure cohesive layers

- How to organize the code
 - Create modules for
 - User interface
 - Functions dealing with user interaction
 - Contains read operations and display methods
 - The only module used to read and output data
 - Domain of the application
 - Functions dealing with the problem domain
 - Infrastructure
 - Useful functions that are highly to be reused (e.g. logging, network I/O)
 - Application coordinator
 - Initializes and starts the application

Course content

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Abstract Data Types

- Abstract Data Type
- Classes
- Data abstraction
- Encapsulation
- Information hiding
- Class attributes vs. instance attributes
- Static methods
- UML diagrams

Abstract Data Types (ADT)

- Abstract Data Type
 - Export a name (a data type)
 - Define a domain of values for the data
 - Define an interface (the operation possible with the new data type)
 - Restrict access to the components of the new type
 - Hide the implementation of the new type
- Create the class vs.
 using an instance of the class
- class keyword

```
class Flower:
    a flower is a structure of two elements:
name (a string) and price (an integer)
    def __init__(self, n, p = 0):
        creates a new instance of Flower
        self.name = n
        self.price = p
        self.size = None

myFlower = Flower("rose", 5)
```

- Creating a new class:
 - Creates a new type of an object
 - Allows *instances* of that type
- A class instance can have:
 - Attributes (to maintain its state)
 - Methods (to modify its state)
- Class name is the type e.g. class Flower:
- Instance is one specific object e.g. f1 = Flower("rose", 5)
- A class introduces a new namespace

ADT Recommendations

- Create getter and setter methods to access the data attributes
- Hide the implementation details
 - The class is an abstraction (a black box)
 - The interface of the class stays the same while internal changes can occur
 - Client code should work without any changes even when internal changes occur in the class
- Document each class
 - Short description
 - What objects can be created (based on the data attributes)
 - Restrictions that apply to data
- Create classes using test-driven development
 - Create test functions for
 - Creating an instance of the class
 - Each method of the class

- Encapsulation
 - bundling of data with the methods that operate on that data
 - Getter/setter methods
- Information hiding
 - the principle that some internal information or data is "hidden" so that it can not be changed by accident
 - The internal representation of an object
 - Needs to be hidden outside the object's denition
 - Protect object integrity by preventing users from setting the internal data of the component into an invalid or inconsistent state
- Data Abstraction = Data Encapsulation + Data Hiding



Information hiding

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- Data hiding in Python
 - public and private members
 - based upon convention

- Attribute types
 - Private attributes name
 - Protected (restricted) attributes name
 - Public attributes name

• Class attributes vs instance attributes

```
class Student:
   studentCount = 0
   def __init__(self, name=""):
       self. name = name
       Student. studentCount += 1
   def setName(self, name):
       self.__name = name
   def getName(self):
       return self.__name
   @staticmethod
   def getStudentCount():
       return Student. studentCount
```

6 UML Class Diagram

Programming in the large

Flower

+name: String +price: Integer

+__init__()

+getName(): String

+setName(String)

+getPrice(): Integer

+setPrice(Integer)

+compare(Flower): Boolean

Visibility

• + -> public

• - -> private

-> protected

```
class Flower:
   def __init__(self):
        self.name = ""
        self.price = ""
   def getName(self):
        return self.name
   def setName(self, n):
        self.name = n
   def getPrice(self):
        return self.price
   def setPrice(self, p):
        self. price = p
   def compare(self, other):
        if ((self.name == other.name) and
            (self.price == other.price)):
            return True
        else:
            return False
```

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5 Software development principles

- Design principles
- Layered architecture
- GRASP

- Good software design:
 - ✓ Code easy to understand
 - ✓ Easy to test
 - ✓ Easy to maintain
 - ✓ Easy to develop and modify (e.g. add features)
- Key design principles
 - Single Responsibility Principle
 - Separation of Concerns Principle
 - Reuse Principle
 - Cohesion and Coupling Principle

- Single Responsibility Principle
 - Responsibility: of a function = to compute something, of a module = responsibilities of all functions in the module
 - The principle of a single responsibility: a function / module should have one responsibility
- Reuse Principle
 - Using modules improves the maintenance of an application
 - Using modules facilitates reuse of elements defined in the application
 - Managing the dependencies increases reuse
 - Dependencies between functions
 - A function invokes (calls) another function / other functions
 - Dependencies between modules
 - The functions from a module invoke functions from other modules

- Cohesion and Coupling Principle
 - The cohesion degree:
 - the degree to which a module has a single, well-focused purpose
 - High cohesion the elements of the module are highly dependent on each other
 - Low cohesion the elements relate more to other activities (and not to each other)
 - The coupling degree:
 - how dependent is a module on other modules
 - High coupling modules that are highly dependent on each other
 - Low coupling independent modules

- Organizing the application on layers should consider:
 - Each layer communicates with the previous layer
 - Each layer has a well-defined interface that is used by the superior layer (implementation details are hidden)
 - Low coupling between modules
 - Modules do not need to know details about other modules futures changes are easier to make
 - High cohesion of each module
 - The elements of a module should be highly related

- General Responsibility Assignment Software Patterns (GRASP)
 - Guidelines for assigning responsibility to classes and objects
 - High Cohesion
 - Low Coupling
 - Information Expert
 - Creator
 - Pure Fabrication
 - Controller

Layered architecture:

High cohesion

To increase cohesion: break programs into classes and subsystems

Low cohesion means that an element has too many unrelated responsibilities => problems: hard to understand, hard to reuse, hard to maintain

Low coupling

Low dependency between classes

Low impact in a class of changes in other classes

High reuse potential

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Assign a responsibility to the class that has the information necessary to fulfill the responsibility

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Which class is responsible for creating objects?
Class B should be responsible for creating instances of class A if:

- Instances of B contain instances of A
- Instances of B closely use instances of A
- Instances of B have the initializing information for instances of A and can use it for creation

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A class added to an application in order to achieve low coupling, high cohesion and reuse

Repository

- Represents all objects of a certain type as a conceptual set
- Objects can be added, updated, removed and retrieved from the repository (persistent storage)

Programming in the large

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Controller:

the first object beyond the UI layer that receives and coordinates ("controls") a system operation

- Delegates to other objects the work that needs to be done
- Coordinates or controls the activity
- It does not do much work itself

Programming in the large

- User Interface
 - Functions, modules, classes fd
 - UI / View / Presentation
- Domain
 - The logic of the application
 - Business Logic / Model
- Infrastructure
 - Functions with a general chara
 - Utils
- Coordinator
- Controller
- Repository
- Test

- - 🛮 🌐 controller
 - __init__.py
 - Controller.py
 - 🗸 🛗 domain
 - __init__.py
 - Passenger.py
 - PassengerException.py
 - > 🖻 PassengerValidator.py
 - Deliane.py
 - PlaneException.py
 - PlaneValidator.py
 - repository
 - rinit_.py
 - PassengerRepository.py
 - ▶ PlaneRepository.py

- 🔠 test
 - init_.py
 - ControllerTest.py
 - PassengerRepoTest.py
 - PassengerTest.py
 - PlaneRepoTest.py
 - ▶ PlaneTest.py
- 🛮 🔠 ui
 - init_.py
 - PlaneUI.py
- 🛮 🌐 utils
 - init_.py
 - SearchSortOperations.py
- p app.py

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 Algorithms and Programming

Testing and debugging

Programming in the large

- Blackbox testing
- Whitebox testing

- Testing levels
- Testing in Python: unittest

- Blackbox testing
 - Choose the testing data based on the specification of algorithms (data, results) without looking at the code
 - Test if the application does what is supposed to do
 - Normal values
 - Boundary conditions on the values e.g empty list, large numbers, etc
 - Error conditions
- Whitebox testing
 - Choose testing cases based on the code of the algorithms
 - If: Test all parts of conditionals
 - While, for: Test all cases to exit the loop, Loop not entered, Loop executed only once or several times

Programming in the large

Unit Test

- Verify the functionality of a specific section of code e.g. a function
- Test small parts of the program independently

Integration Test

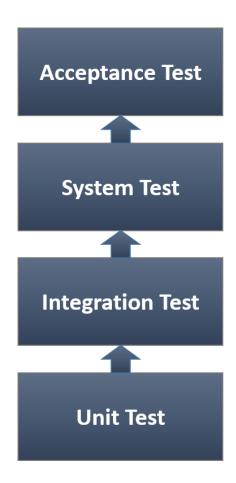
- Test different parts of the system in combination
- Bottom-up approach: based on the results of unit testing

System Test

 Tests how the program works as a whole after all modules have been tested

Acceptance Test

 Check that the system complies with user requirements and is ready for use



- Automated Testing
- unittest
 - Python framework for writing Unit Tests
 - provides a class TestCase and a main() method
 from unittest import TestCase, main OR import unittest
- Test classes in Python
 - Test classes should extend TestCase and contain at least one method starting with test_
 - Test methods contain assertions (assertEqual, assertTrue, etc)
- Running the tests
 - unittest.main method looks for all classes derived from TestCase
 - Runs all the tests and reports

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- A programming technique where a function calls itself
- Basic concepts
 - Recursive element an element that is defined by itself
 - Recursive algorithm an algorithm that calls itself
- Recursion can be:
 - Direct a function calls itself (f calls f)
 - Indirect a function f calls a function g, function g calls f
- Main idea of developing a recursive algorithm for a problem of size n
 - Base case
 - How to stop recursion
 - Identify the base case solution (for n=1)
 - Inductive step
 - Break the problem into a simpler version of the same problem plus some other steps

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 Algorithms and Programming

Complexity of algorithms

- Complexity in time
 - Running time of an algorithm:
 - It is not a fixed number but a function T(n) that depends on the size n of the input data
 - Measures the basic steps the algorithm makes
 - Best case, Worst case, Average case
 - Exact steps vs Big Oh or O() notation
 - O(n) measure
 - How the running time grows depending on the input data size
 - Expression for the number of operations -> asymptotic behavior as the problem gets bigger
- Complexity in space
 - Estimates the space (memory) that an algorithm needs to store input data, output data and any temporary data

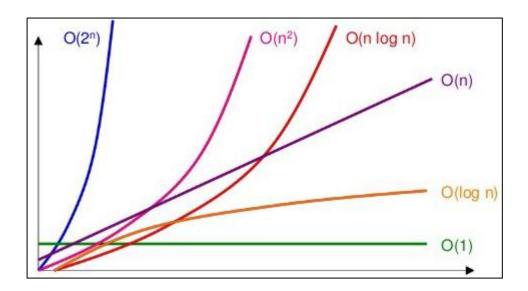
9 Complexity classes

Programming in the small

O(1)	Constant running time	e.g. 1, 47, 100	Add an element to a list
O(log n)	Logarithmic running time	e.g. 10 + log n	Find an element in a sorted list
O(n)	Linear running time	e.g. n, 3n, 10n+100	Find an entry in an unsorted list
O(n log n)	Log-linear running time	e.g. n + n log n	Sort a list (MergeSort, QuickSort)
O(n ^c), c is constant	Polynomial running time	e.g. n ² +1, n ³ +n ² +5n	Shortest path between two nodes
O(c ⁿ), c is constant	Exponential running time	e.g. 2 ⁿ +1, 3 ⁿ	Traveling Salesman Problem (TSP)

O(n²) - quadratic time

O(n³) - cubic time



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 Algorithms and Programming

Programming in the small

Sequential search

- Basic idea: the elements of the list are examined one by one (the list can be ordered or not)
- O(n)

Binary search

- Basic idea: the problem is divided in two similar but smaller subproblems (the list has to be ordered)
- O(log n)

Python

Functions index, count, find

Sorting methods

Programming in the small

Selection sort

- Swap the smallest element with the first one & repeat for all elements
- O(n²)

Insertion sort

- Insert each element at the correct position in a sublist with the elements already sorted
- O(n²)

Bubble sort

- Compare any 2 consecutive elements and swap them if not in correct order
- O(n²)

Quick sort

- Divide and conquer: divide the list in 2 parts and sort the sublists
- O(n log n)

Sorting in Python

- list.sort()
- sorted(lista)
- Lambda expressions
- Writing general functions

```
def sortMembersByInfo(self):
       member list = self. data[:]
       mySort(member list, lambda x, y:
                              x.getInfo() < y.getInfo())</pre>
       return member list
```

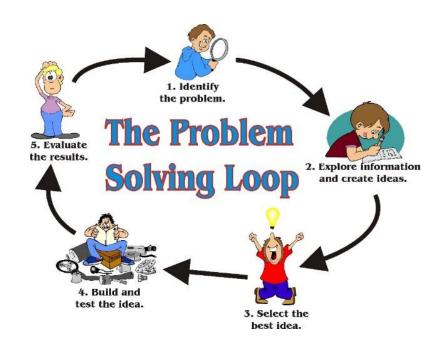
```
def mySearch(1, cond):
   result = []
   for i in range(0, len(1)):
        if (cond(1[i])):
            result.append(l[i])
   return result
def mySort(1, relation):
   for i in range(0, len(1) - 1):
        for j in range(i + 1, len(l)):
            if (not relation(l[i], l[j])):
                aux = 1[i]
                l[i] = l[j]
                l[i] = aux
```

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- 9. Search and sorting algorithms (Lecture 9, 10)
- 10. Problem solving methods (Lectures 11, 12)

11 Problem solving methods

- Solving problems by search using standard methods
 - Exact methods
 - Generate and test
 - Backtracking
 - Divide and conquer
 - Dynamic programming
 - Heuristic methods
 - Greedy method



- Basic idea
 - Generate a possible solution and verify it
- Mechanism
 - Generate: determine all possible solutions
 - Test: search solutions that are correct (satisfy some conditions)
- When to use it?
 - Problems that can have multiple solutions
 - Problems with restrictions (solutions need to satisfy some conditions)
- Examples
 - Generate permutations with 3 elements

```
#D = D(D1) = D(D1(D2))...
def generate_test(D):
    while (True):
        sol = generate_solution()
        if (test(sol) == True):
            return sol
```

- The ability to undo backtrack when a potential solution is not valid
- Basic idea:
 - Try every possibility to see if it's a solution: Search space of a solution s
 - Sequence of choices: A solution is formed of several elements s[0], s[1], s[2],...
- Implementation elements:
 - init: generates an empty value for the definition domain
 - getNext: returns the next element from the definition domain
 - isConsistent: verifies if a (partial) solution is consistent
 - isSolution: verifies if a (partial) solution is a complete solution
- Examples
 - Generate permutations with n elements
 - 8 queens problem

11 Divide and conquer

- Basic idea
 - Divide the problem in sub-problems similar to the initial problem but smaller in size and get the final solution by combining sub-solutions
- Mechanism
 - **Divide**: breaking the problem in sub-problems
 - Conquer: solve the sub-problems
 - Combine: combine sub-solutions to obtain final solution
- When it can be used
 - A problem P with the input data D can be solved by solving the same problem P but with input data d, where d < D
- Examples
 - Find the maximum of a list.
 - Cover a chessboard with L shapes

```
\#D = d1 U d2 U d3...U dn
def div imp(D):
    if (size(D) < lim):</pre>
        return rez
    rez1 = div imp(d1)
    rez2 = div_imp(d2)
    rezn = div imp(dn)
    return combine(rez1, rez2, ..., rezn)
```

Dynamic Programming

- Basic idea:
 - Break the problem in nested sub-problems P(P1(P2(P3(...(Pn))...)
 - Solve the sub-problems
 - Compute the final solution by combining the sub-solutions
- Applicable in solving problems where:
 - Problems where one needs to find the best decisions one after another
 - The solution is the result of a sequence of decisions dec1; dec2; ...; decn.
 - The principle of optimality holds (whatever the initial state is remaining decisions must be optimal with regard the state following from the first decision)
- Examples
 - find the longest increasing subsequence from a list of integer numbers
 - Stagecoach problem

- Basic idea
 - Break the problem in successive sub-problems & solve them
 - Determine the final solution by successively selecting the best sub-solutions
 - Global optimum = a sequence of local optimas
- Mechanism
 - Divide the problem in successive sub-problems P1, P2, ...Pn
 - Progress to the final solution by selecting at each step the best decision
- When to use Greedy?
 - Problem P (optimization)
 - Solution is the result of a successive selections of local optima
- Examples
 - Coins Problem
 - Knapsack Problem



Reading materials and useful links

- 1. The Python Programming Language https://www.python.org/
- 2. The Python Standard Library https://docs.python.org/3/library/index.html
- 3. The Python Tutorial https://docs.python.org/3/tutorial/
- 4. M. Frentiu, H.F. Pop, Fundamentals of Programming, Cluj University Press, 2006.
- MIT OpenCourseWare, Introduction to Computer Science and Programming in Python, https://ocw.mit.edu, 2016.
- 6. K. Beck, Test Driven Development: By Example. Addison-Wesley Longman, 2002. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Test-driven_development
- 7. M. Fowler, Refactoring. Improving the Design of Existing Code, Addison-Wesley, 1999. http://refactoring.com/catalog/index.html

Exam

• "Written exam" (40% of final grade) -> online exam

12 January 2022, 7:30AM

✓ You need to have the minimum required attendance for seminar (75%) and lab (90%)

"Practical exam" (30% of final grade) -> physical presence

Date and time of your last lab (with your own semigroup)

Exams

CAMELIA CHIRA 08/12/2021 16:53

Exam Dates

2021_MIE1_Algorithms_Programming

The written exam will take place online in the last week of the semester: January 12th 2022, 7:30 AM (online, Microsoft Teams)

The <u>retake</u> written exam date is: **February 17th 2022, 10:00 AM** (online, Microsoft Teams)

The <u>practical exam</u> will take place in **the last week of the semester** during the lab hours for each semigroup (with <u>physical presence</u> of students).

The <u>retake practical exam</u> will take place on the same date as the written exam as follows: **February 17th 2022, 16:00, Lab 338** (with <u>physical presence</u> of students).

Written exam – online

- Quiz
- At least 15 questions
- Time: 20 minutes
- Both theoretical and practical questions
- Types of questions:
 - Open-ended
 - Multiple choice
 - File upload

Written exam – online

- Examples of theoretical questions
 - What is test-driven development?
 - What is the difference between a local variable and a global variable?
- Examples of practical questions

```
class Person():
    classdocs

def __init__(self, name, age):
    Constructor
    self.__name = name
    self.age = age
```

+name: String +price: Integer +__init__() +getName(): String +setName(String) +getPrice(): Integer +setPrice(Integer) +compare(Flower): Boolean

Simulation exam....