R: Advanced Problems

Signal Data Science

things to cover: - profvis - memoise

Now that you're acquainted with the basics of R's functional programming toolkit and have a strong grasp of the most important aspects of R's internals, we'll wrap up our R curriculum with a series of more challenging problems and exercises.

Run length encoding

- Write a function that prints out the longest "run" (sequence of consecutive identical values) in an input vector. (If there's more than one, print out the one that occurs first.)
 - Rewrite your function, incorporating the usage of rle().

Fast primality testing

Checking whether a number is prime or composite is a classic algorithmic task, stretching all the way back to 200 BC with the Sieve of Erastosthenes developed by Erastosthenes of Cyrene. We will work toward writing an implementation of the Miller–Rabin primality test, a modern test for primality known to be very fast in practice for reasonably small numbers.

Modular exponentiation

First, we'll need a fast implementation of modular exponentiation, consisting of the task of calculating $a^b \mod c$, *i.e.*, the remainder of dividing $a^b \mod c$.

• Write a function pow(a, b, c) that calculates $a^b \mod c$. Begin with a naive implementation that simply evaluates the calculation directly. Verify that $6^{17} \mod 7 = 6$ and that $50^{67} \mod 39 = 2$.

- To improve the runtime of pow(), start at 1 and repeatedly multiply an intermediate result by *a*, calculating the answer mod *c* each time, until the *b*th power of *a* is reached. Implement this as pow2().
- Using the tictoc package, quantify the resulting improvement in runtime. How does runtime improve as *a* or *c* increase in size? Is the runtime improvement merely a constant-factor scaling change (is the new runtime a constant multiple of the previous runtimes)?

To make further improvements easily, we will want to write the following utility function:

Write a function decompose(n) which takes as input an integer n and returns a vector of integers such that when you calculate 2 to the power of each element of the result and take the sum of those powers of 2, you obtain n. (Hint: First, calculate all powers of 2 less than or equal to n. After that, iteratively subtract off the highest power from n, keeping track of which power of 2 it was, until you get to 0.)

Finally, we can implement a quite rapid algorithm for modular exponentiation with the trick of repeated squaring:

• You can improve the runtime of pow() further by decomposing b into a sum of powers of 2, starting with a and repeatedly squaring modulo c (to calculate $a^1, a^2, a^4, a^8, \ldots \mod c$), and then forming the final answer as a *product* of those intermediate calculations. (For example, for $6^{17} \mod 7$, you are essentially calculating $17 = 2^0 + 2^4 \mod 6^{17} \mod 7 = 6^{2^0} \cdot 6^{2^4} \mod 7$.) Using decompose(n), implement this improvement as pow3(), making sure to calculate every intermediate result modulo c. Verify that pow3() is faster than pow2().

The Miller-Rabin primality test

In the Miller–Rabin primailty test, we test the primality of a number n > 2 as follows: Since n is odd, n-1 must be even, so we can write $n-1=2^s \cdot d$, where d is odd. (For example, if n=13, then $n-1=12=2^2 \cdot 3$ with s=2 and d=3.) The Miller–Rabin primality test is based on the observation that if we can find a number a such that $a^d \not\equiv 1 \pmod{n}$ and $a^{2^r d} \not\equiv -1 \pmod{n}$ for all integers r in the range $0 \le r \le s-1$, then n is not prime. Otherwise, n is likely to be prime.

Note that the Miller–Rabin primality test, as formulated here for a specific value of a, is *probabilistic* rather than *deterministic* – it cannot definitively establish that n is prime. It can be made deteterministic by checking all $a \le 2(\ln n)^2$. Better yet, when n is sufficiently small, it has been found that we only need to consider a couple different values of a; for example, for n < 4,759,123,141, we only have to check $a \in \{2,7,61\}$.

We have one more utility function to write:

Write a function decompose_even(n) which takes as input an even integer
n and returns a vector of two integers c(s, d) such that n is equal to 2^s
* d and d is odd.

With decompose(), decompose_even(), and pow3(), we are now ready to implement the entire primality test.

- Following the above description, implement the deterministic Miller–Rabin test as miller_rabin(n) for n < 4,759,123,141, returning TRUE for a prime number and FALSE otherwise. (Note that checking if $x \equiv -1 \pmod{n}$ is equivalent to checking if $x \equiv n 1 \pmod{n-1}$.)
- Write a function simple_check(n) that checks if n is a prime by checking
 if n is divisible by any integers from 2 up to floor(sqrt(b)). Verify that
 miller_rabin() and simple_check() produce the same output for the
 first 100 integers. Use timeit to compare the performance of the two
 functions as n grows.

A small primality problem

Find a counterexample to the following statement: By changing at most
a single digit of any positive integer, we can obtain a prime number.
(Memoization may be useful to speed up computation.)

Saving and loading the RNG

Quicksort and quickselect

One of the most straightforward sorting algorithms is *quicksort*, which sorts a list of length n in $O(n \log n)$ time. The steps of a simplified form of the algorithm are as follows:

- 1. For a vector L, pick a random position i. The element L[i] is called the *pivot*. (If the pivot is the only element, return it.)
- 2. Form two vectors of elements lesser and greater which hold elements of L at positions *other than* i which are respectively lesser than or greater than L[i]. (Elements equal to L[i] can go in either one.)
- 3. Call the algorithm thus far qs(). Our result is the combination of concatenating together qs(lesser), L[i], and qs(upper).

Now it's your turn:

• Implement a quicksort(L) function that sorts a vector of numbers L from least to greatest. Verify that your function works by writing a loop which generates 100 vectors of 10 random integers and compares the

output of quicksort() to the built-in sort(). Compare the performance of quicksort() to that of sort().

The *quickselect* algorithm, which is similar to quicksort, allows you to find the kth largest (or smallest) element of a list of n elements in O(n) time. The difference in the algorithms is that in each iteration, we only have to recurse into *one* of the two subdivisions of the vector, because we can tell which one holds our desired value based on the value of k and the sizes of lesser and greater.

• Implement a quickselect(L, k) function which finds the *k*th smallest element of *L*.

Writing a simple spellcheck function

Spelling correction is one of the most natural and oldest natural language processing tasks. It may seem like a difficult task to you at the moment, but it's surprisingly easy to write a spellchecker that does fairly well. (Of course, companies like Google spend millions of dollars making their spellcheckers better and better, but we'll start with something simpler for now.)

Read Peter Norvig's How to Write a Spelling Corrector. Recreate it in R
and reproduce his results. After doing so yourself, read about this 2-line
R implementation of Norvig's spellchecker.

More *n*-dominoes

The following continuation to the study of *n*-dominoes (from the data frames lesson) is optional because of its open-ended nature.

Suppose that you have a single copy of every unique n-domino for some value of n.

- Write a function make_circle(n) that tries to construct a valid circle of *n*-dominoes from a *single copy* of every unique *n*-domino.
 - In the process of doing so, keep track of your various approaches.
 - Are there values of *n* for which no approach seems to work?
 - If so, can you make an argument about why you can't make a valid circle of *n*-dominoes for those values of *n* (using a single copy of every *n*-domino)? It may be instructive to look at the intermediate steps of your algorithm and how it fails.
 - Give a proof of your heuristic results.