CS 2500: Algorithms Lecture 9: Program Correctness and Sorting: Part I

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1/46

Problem Statement. You are tasked with writing a recursive algorithm that computes the mode of a given list of integers. The mode is the element that appears most frequently in the list. If there are multiple modes, the algorithm should return one of them.

- **Recursive Algorithm.** Implement a recursive algorithm in Python that finds the mode of the list.
- Recurrence Relation. Analyze the time complexity of your recursive algorithm by deriving the recurrence relation.
- Proof of correctness. Prove the correctness of your algorithm using mathematical induction.

Recursive Algorithm

```
Function ModeRecursive(lst, freq_dict=None, idx=0):
   if freg_dict == None then
       freq_dict \leftarrow {}
   if idx == len(lst) then
       \max_{\text{freg}} \leftarrow -1
       mode_element \leftarrow None
       foreach (element, frequency) in freq_dict do
           if frequency > max_freq then
               \max_{freq} \leftarrow frequency
               mode\_element \gets element
       return mode_element
   current\_element \leftarrow lst[idx]
   if current_element in freq_dict then
       freq_dict[current_element] \leftarrow freq_dict[current_element] + 1
   else
       freq\_dict[current\_element] \leftarrow 1
    return ModeRecursive(lst, freq_dict, idx+1)
```

Base Case

- Consider the case where the input list lst is empty, i.e., len(lst) = 0.
- In this case, the recursive function reaches the base case immediately because the index idx = 0 is equal to the length of the list.
- At this point, the algorithm initializes a variable max_freq =
 -1 and mode_element = None, and returns None, as there
 are no elements to process.
- This is the expected behavior because the mode of an empty list is undefined (no elements exist). Thus, the base case is correct.

Inductive Hypothesis

- Suppose the algorithm works correctly for a list of size *n*, meaning it correctly computes the mode of any list with *n* elements.
- This means that for a list of size *n*, after processing all elements, the frequency dictionary freq_dict stores the correct counts for all elements, and the algorithm correctly identifies the element with the highest frequency as the mode.

Inductive Step: List of Size n+1

- The recursive function starts by processing the $(n + 1)^{\text{th}}$ element of the list.
- It checks if this element exists in the frequency dictionary:
 - If the element is already in the dictionary, it increments its frequency.
 - If the element is not in the dictionary, it adds the element with an initial count of 1.
- After processing the (n + 1)th element, the algorithm makes a recursive call to process the remaining *n* elements (sublist up to index *n*), which, by the inductive hypothesis, is assumed to work correctly.
- Once the recursion returns, the algorithm compares the frequencies in the dictionary and identifies the element with the highest count as the mode.

Conclusion of Inductive Step

- The algorithm correctly processes the (n + 1)th element and updates the frequency dictionary.
- By the inductive hypothesis, the algorithm works correctly for the remaining *n* elements.
- Therefore, the entire list of size n + 1 is processed correctly, and the algorithm identifies the mode accurately.
- By the principle of mathematical induction, the recursive algorithm correctly computes the mode for any list of size n ≥ 0.

Breakdown of the Recursive Algorithm

- **Base Case**: When the list is fully processed (i.e., idx = len(lst)).
 - In this case, we compute the mode by iterating over the frequency dictionary.
 - This takes O(U) time, where U is the number of unique elements in the list.

Recursive Case:

- For each element in the list, we either update the frequency dictionary or add the element with a count of 1.
- This step takes O(1) time for each element (assuming average-case performance of a hash table).
- The recursion then processes the next element.

Recurrence Equation

- Let T(n) represent the time complexity of the algorithm for a list of size n.
- The recurrence relation for this algorithm can be expressed as:

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + O(1)$$
 for $n > 0$

• The base case, when n = 0, takes O(U) time to compute the mode:

$$T(0)=O(U)$$

• Therefore, the full recurrence equation is:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} O(U) & \text{if } n = 0\\ T(n-1) + O(1) & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

Solving the Recurrence. Let's solve the recurrence equation step by step:

$$T(n) = T(n-1) + O(1)$$

$$T(n-1) = T(n-2) + O(1)$$

$$T(n-2) = T(n-3) + O(1)$$

$$\vdots$$

$$T(1) = T(0) + O(1)$$

Substituting these values back into the original equation:

$$T(n) = T(0) + O(1) + O(1) + \dots + O(1)$$
 (n terms)

Since T(0) = O(U), we get:

$$T(n) = O(U) + O(n)$$

Final Time Complexity

- The final time complexity of the recursive algorithm is O(n + U), where:
 - *n* is the total number of elements in the list.
 - *U* is the number of unique elements in the list.
- In the worst case (when all elements are unique, U = n):

$$T(n)=O(n)$$

If there are few unique elements (U ≪ n), the time complexity is still dominated by O(n).

Problem Statement: Sum of Digits

- Given a number *n*, we want to find the sum of its digits recursively.
- Example: n = 123, the sum of digits is 1 + 2 + 3 = 6.
- We aim to define a recursive algorithm, derive its recurrence equation, solve the equation, and prove its correctness.

Recursive Algorithm: Sum of Digits

- The recursive idea is to:
 - Extract the last digit of n (i.e., n%10).
 - Recursively compute the sum of the digits of the quotient n//10.
 - Add these two results to get the sum.

Algorithm SumOfDigits(n)

- 1: if n = 0 then
- 2: return 0 ▷ Base case: no digits left.
- 3: end if
- 4: return ($n \mod 10$) + SumOfDigits(n//10)

Breakdown of the Recursive Algorithm

- **Base Case**: When *n* = 0, the sum of digits is 0, so the function returns 0.
- Recursive Case:
 - The function extracts the last digit using n%10 (constant time O(1)).
 - The function then recursively processes the quotient n//10, reducing n by one digit.

Recurrence Equation

- Let T(n) represent the time complexity of the algorithm for a number n with d digits.
- Each recursive step processes one digit and calls the function for the number n//10 (i.e., removing the last digit).
- The recurrence relation is:

$$T(d) = T(d-1) + O(1)$$

• The base case occurs when d = 0:

$$T(0)=O(1)$$

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Problem 2: Sum of Digits

Solving the Recurrence

$$T(d) = T(d-1) + O(1)$$

 $T(d-1) = T(d-2) + O(1)$
 $T(d-2) = T(d-3) + O(1)$
 \vdots
 $T(1) = T(0) + O(1)$

Substituting these values back into the original equation:

$$T(d) = T(0) + O(1) + O(1) + \dots + O(1)$$
 (d terms)

Since T(0) = O(1), we get:

$$T(d) = O(1) + O(d) = O(d)$$

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Proof of Correctness: Mathematical Induction. We will prove the correctness of the algorithm using **mathematical induction**. **Base Case:**

- When n = 0, the algorithm returns 0.
- This is correct, as the sum of the digits of 0 is indeed 0.

Inductive Step

- **Inductive Hypothesis**: Assume that the algorithm correctly computes the sum of digits for any number with *d* digits.
- Inductive Step:
 - For a number with d + 1 digits, the algorithm:
 - Extracts the last digit using n%10.
 - Recursively computes the sum of the first *d* digits using n//10.
- By the inductive hypothesis, the algorithm correctly computes the sum of the first *d* digits.

Conclusion of Inductive Step

- After computing the sum of the first d digits, the algorithm adds the last digit (which is correctly computed as n%10).
- Thus, the algorithm correctly computes the sum of all d + 1 digits.

Therefore, by **mathematical induction**, the algorithm is correct for any number n.

Problem Statement

- Given a linked list, swap every two adjacent nodes and return the new head of the list.
- You must solve the problem without modifying the values of the nodes; only the pointers (nodes themselves) can be changed.

Problem 3: Swap Every Two Adjacent Nodes



Linked List After Swapping Adjacent Nodes



Recursive Algorithm - Intuition

- Recursively swap the first two nodes and continue swapping the rest.
- Base case: If there are fewer than two nodes, no swap is needed.
- Recursive case: Swap the first two nodes, and recursively call the function to handle the remaining nodes.

Algorithm SwapPairs(head)

- 1: if head = None or head.next = None then
- 2: **return** head > Base case: fewer than two nodes
- 3: end if
- 4: first \leftarrow head
- 5: second \leftarrow head.next
- 6: first.next \leftarrow SwapPairs(second.next) \triangleright Recursive call
- 7: second.next \leftarrow first \triangleright Swap the two nodes
- 8: return second

Breakdown of Recursive Algorithm

- Base Case: If there are fewer than two nodes left (i.e., no node or only one node), return the head as no swaps are needed.
- Recursive Case:
 - Assign the first node to first and the second node to second.
 - Call the function recursively on the next pair starting from second.next.
 - Swap the first and second nodes and link the new head to the result of the recursive call.

Recurrence Equation

- Let T(n) be the time complexity of the algorithm for a list with n nodes.
- The recurrence relation can be written as:

$$T(n) = T(n-2) + O(1)$$

- This is because for each pair of nodes, the algorithm swaps them in constant time O(1), and then recursively processes the remaining n-2 nodes.
- Base Case: If n = 0 or n = 1, no swap is needed, so T(0) = O(1) and T(1) = O(1).

Problem 3: Swap Every Two Adjacent Nodes

Solving the Recurrence

$$T(n) = T(n-2) + O(1)$$

$$T(n-2) = T(n-4) + O(1)$$

$$T(n-4) = T(n-6) + O(1)$$

:

$$T(2) = T(0) + O(1)$$

Summing these gives:

$$T(n) = O(1) + O(1) + \dots + O(1)$$
 (n/2 terms)

Therefore, the time complexity is:

$$T(n)=O(n)$$

26 / 46

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Proof of Correctness: Induction

- Base Case: When n = 0 or n = 1, the algorithm correctly returns the head since no swaps are needed.
- Inductive Hypothesis: Assume the algorithm correctly swaps adjacent nodes for a list of n 2 nodes.
- Inductive Step: For n nodes, the algorithm swaps the first two nodes, and then recursively calls itself to swap the next n-2 nodes. By the inductive hypothesis, the recursive call correctly swaps the remaining nodes.
- Therefore, by mathematical induction, the algorithm correctly swaps adjacent nodes for any list.

The Sorting Problem

- **Input**: A sequence of *n* numbers $\{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n\}$.
- **Output**: A permutation (reordering) $\{a'_1, a'_2, \dots, a'_n\}$ of the input sequence such that:

$$a_1' \leq a_2' \leq \cdots \leq a_n'$$

• The input is usually an *n*-element array but can also be represented in other ways, such as a linked list.

- In practice, the numbers to be sorted are rarely isolated values. Each is part of a record.
- Each record contains:
 - Key: The value to be sorted.
 - **Satellite Data**: Additional information that must be permuted along with the key.
- When sorting, we often permute the records themselves, or to minimize data movement, we permute an array of pointers to the records.

Why is Sorting Important?

- Inherent Need: Many applications require sorted data, such as banks sorting checks by check number.
- **Subroutine in Algorithms**: Sorting is a key subroutine in many algorithms. For example, rendering graphical objects in the correct order may require sorting.
- Rich Set of Techniques: Sorting algorithms use various design techniques that are essential in other algorithms as well.
- **Historical and Theoretical Importance**: Sorting has been central to the study of algorithms for decades and helps develop core algorithmic concepts.

- Sorting is often considered the most fundamental problem in algorithm design.
- Many key techniques for algorithm design appear in sorting algorithms developed over the years.
- Sorting helps introduce concepts such as divide and conquer, comparisons, recursion, and algorithmic efficiency.

• The fastest sorting algorithm depends on various factors:

- Prior knowledge about the keys and satellite data.
- The memory hierarchy of the host computer (caches, virtual memory).
- The software environment (how the sorting function interacts with other parts of the system).
- These issues are often best addressed at the algorithmic level rather than tweaking the implementation code.

Comparison-Based Sorting Algorithms

Comparison-Based Sorting

- Sorting algorithms that determine order by comparing elements.
- Examples:
 - **Bubble Sort**: Repeatedly swapping adjacent elements if they are in the wrong order.
 - Selection Sort: Repeatedly selecting the smallest (or largest) element from the unsorted part of the list and placing it at the beginning.
 - **Insertion Sort**: Builds the sorted array one element at a time by repeatedly inserting the current element into the correct position in the sorted portion.
 - **Merge Sort**: Dividing the array in half, sorting each half, and merging the results.
 - **Quick Sort**: Selecting a pivot element, partitioning the array, and recursively sorting the partitions.
 - Heap Sort: Building a heap from the input data and then extracting the maximum (or minimum) element repeatedly.

- Sorting is a fundamental problem in computer science due to its wide range of applications.
- Sorting algorithms help illustrate essential algorithmic techniques such as recursion, divide-and-conquer, and comparison-based decision making.
- Understanding sorting is key to understanding the complexity and performance of many other algorithms.

What is Bubble Sort?

- Bubble Sort is a simple comparison-based sorting algorithm.
- The algorithm repeatedly compares adjacent elements and swaps them if they are in the wrong order.
- After each pass through the list, the largest unsorted element "bubbles" to its correct position.

Step-by-Step Process:

- Traverse the list multiple times, comparing adjacent elements.
- Swap adjacent elements if they are out of order.
- After each pass, the largest unsorted element is placed in its correct position.
- Repeat the process for the remaining unsorted part of the list.

Initial List: [5, 1, 4, 2, 8]

- Compare 5 and 1, swap: [1, 5, 4, 2, 8]
- Compare 5 and 4, swap: [1,4,5,2,8]
- Compare 5 and 2, swap: [1,4,2,5,8]
- Compare 5 and 8, no swap: [1,4,2,5,8]
- Largest element 8 is in its correct position.

Next List: [1,4,2,5,8]

- Compare 1 and 4, no swap.
- Compare 4 and 2, swap: [1,2,4,5,8]
- Compare 4 and 5, no swap.
- Largest element 5 is now in its correct position.

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38 / 46

Next List: [1, 2, 4, 5, 8]

- Compare 1 and 2, no swap.
- Compare 2 and 4, no swap.
- No swaps made, the list is sorted!

Final Sorted List: [1, 2, 4, 5, 8]

Algorithm BubbleSort(arr)



Time Complexity Analysis:

- Worst-case time complexity: $O(n^2)$ (when the list is in reverse order).
- Best-case time complexity: O(n) (if the list is already sorted and we use early termination).
- Average-case time complexity: $O(n^2)$ for a randomly ordered list.

Space Complexity:

- Bubble Sort is an **in-place sorting algorithm**, meaning it requires only a constant amount of additional memory.
- **Space Complexity**: *O*(1), as it uses a fixed number of extra variables regardless of the input size.

Optimization: Early Exit

- We can optimize Bubble Sort by tracking whether any swaps were made during a pass.
- If no swaps are made, the list is already sorted, and we can terminate early.
- This reduces the number of unnecessary passes and improves performance for nearly sorted lists.



Advantages of Bubble Sort:

- Simple and easy to understand.
- Requires no additional memory beyond the input array.

Disadvantages of Bubble Sort:

- Very inefficient for large datasets due to its $O(n^2)$ time complexity.
- Redundant comparisons and swaps, especially when the list is nearly sorted.

Summary of Bubble Sort:

- Bubble Sort is a simple but inefficient sorting algorithm, primarily used for small datasets or educational purposes.
- While it can be optimized with early termination, its $O(n^2)$ time complexity makes it impractical for large datasets.
- Despite its inefficiencies, Bubble Sort is an excellent tool for learning sorting concepts and basic algorithm design.