

Figure 1: @hmason on Twitter

## Algorithms

It's a little tricky to define an algorithm, but informally we can use the term interchangeably with more well-known English words like **recipe** or **procedure**.

**Definition:** an **algorithm** is a finite sequence of unambiguous and effectively computable instructions that produce some intended result.

Let's explore some of those terms in more detail:

**finite:** An algorithm must **terminate** at some point. If it might go on forever, then we might never achieve the intended result.

**sequence:** The instructions are **ordered** – first do this, then do that, etc. – and the order must be followed to achieve the correct result. (As an aside, there are *parallel* algorithms, in which the instructions are only *partially* ordered. We'll ignore that distinction for now.)

**unambiguous:** Each instruction must be specified **precisely**, so there can be no confusion as to what must be done. If multiple interpretations of the instruction are possible, it's not an algorithm.

**computable:** Each instruction must specify some task that **can be performed**. This gets a little theoretical, but there are some types of problems that no computer can solve in finite time. For now, let's just take a simple example of an uncomputable instruction: "predict tonight's lottery numbers." Because the lottery is random, there's no procedure we can follow to reliably predict it.

**result:** We develop an algorithm to produce some specific **answer**. It could be a solution to a math problem, a stream of output, a modification of values stored in the memory, or whatever.

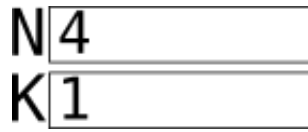


Figure 2:

## Notation

An algorithm is independent of the language or notation in which it is specified. The **binary search** algorithm can be written in Python or Java or Ruby, but they're all the same algorithm.

One notation sometimes used for algorithms is called **pseudo-code** (where **pseudo** of course means “false” or “fake”). Unlike real code in a programming language, pseudo-code cannot be executed directly by a computer. However, because it's based on English (with a little mathematical notation), it's easier for untrained humans to understand.

Below is an example of an algorithm, written in pseudo-code, that will compute the **factorial** of a given integer, **N**. (The factorial is the result of multiplying all the numbers between 1 and **N**, so factorial of 4 is  $1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 = 24$ .)

**Algorithm:** factorial

1. Let **N** be an integer  $> 0$ .
2. Let **K** be 1.
3. If **N** = 1 then output **K** and stop.
4. Set **K** to  $K \times N$ .
5. Set **N** to **N**–1.
6. Go back to step 3.

To understand this algorithm, we need to introduce the concept of a **variable** in programming. We use variables in mathematics too, but they're a little different. In mathematics, a variable is a name given to a value, like  $x=5$ . In programming, a variable is a name given to a **location in memory**, which in turn can hold a value. The difference is that the value in the memory can be **updated** at a later time.

Let's trace the algorithm. In step 1, we're allowed to specify the value of **N**, as long as it is bigger than zero. This is a kind of **input** instruction. Let's use 4, so that the algorithm computes the factorial of 4. In step 2, another variable **K** is named, but its initial value is 1. Here's what that looks like:

Step 3 asks whether **N**=1. It does not, so we **skip** the rest of that instruction.

Step 4 updates a variable. We first compute the value of the expression:  $K \times N = 1 \times 4 = 4$ , and then we write that value to the box labeled **K**, replacing whatever was there before:

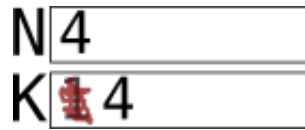


Figure 3:



Figure 4:

Step 5 updates the other variable. We first compute the value of the expression:  $N-1 = 4-1 = 3$ , and then we write that result to the box labeled N, replacing whatever was there before:

Step 6 says to go back to step 3. In step 3, N is still not 1, so we continue with the two updates again. This time,  $K \times N = 4 \times 3 = 12$ , and  $N-1 = 3-1 = 2$ :

N is still not 1, so we go through once more, producing these values for the two variables:

This time  $N=1$ , so in step 3 we output K and stop. By following this algorithm, we just computed the factorial of 4:

Output: 24

By starting the same algorithm with a different value of N, we could have computed any factorial.

## Another example

Here's an algorithm you can try tracing yourself.

**Algorithm:**

7. Let A,B be integers  $> 0$ .
8. If  $A = B$  then output A and stop.
9. If  $A < B$  then set B to  $B-A$  and go back to step 2.

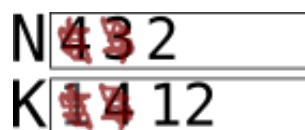


Figure 5:

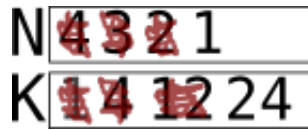


Figure 6:

10. Otherwise set  $A$  to  $A-B$  and go back to step 2.

I won't tell you what this algorithm produces, but try it starting with these values for  $A$  and  $B$ :

$A$ : 35

$B$ : 21

Then try these:

$A$ : 28

$B$ : 12

And finally these:

$A$ : 14

$B$ : 33

Do you see the pattern? What does the algorithm compute?

## Sorting

One rich area of algorithms is **sorting** – putting things in some order, whether that's alphabetical, numerical, chronological, or by size. There are many different sorting algorithms with different strengths and weaknesses. These videos introduce a few of them.

See also:

- [Diagram for Batchier's 'bitonic' sort](#)

## Speed

Whenever we talk about the “speed” of an algorithm, we have to consider the **size of the input**. In fact, we're usually most concerned about how the size of the input *impacts* the running time, as that size *increases*. Maybe for sorting 8 elements, there

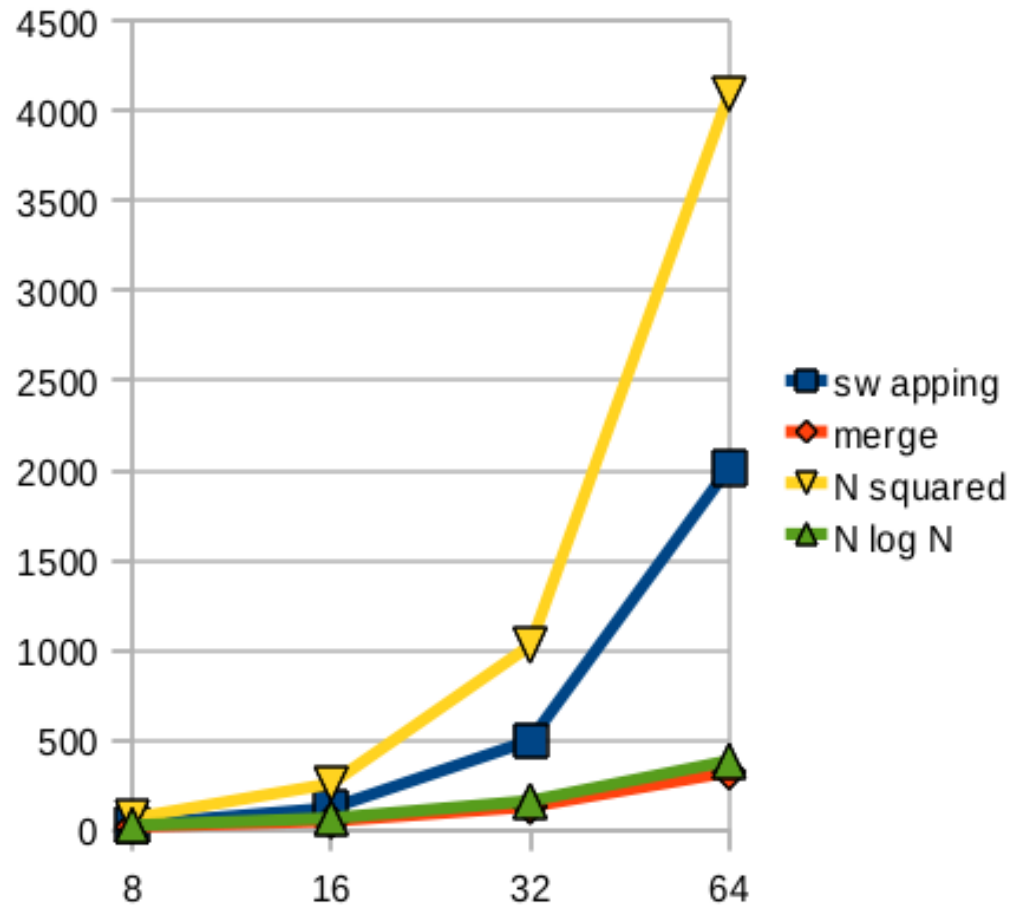


Figure 7:

isn't much difference. But when we increase that to 50 or 1,000, dramatic differences may emerge.

Below is a graph comparing the number of comparisons for selection vs. merge sort, and also showing the lines  $N^2$  and  $N \cdot \log_2(N)$ , which are characterizations of these different approaches. You can see that the selection sort is somewhat less than  $N^2$ , however, they do grow large in the same awful way.