

# Brute-force algorithms

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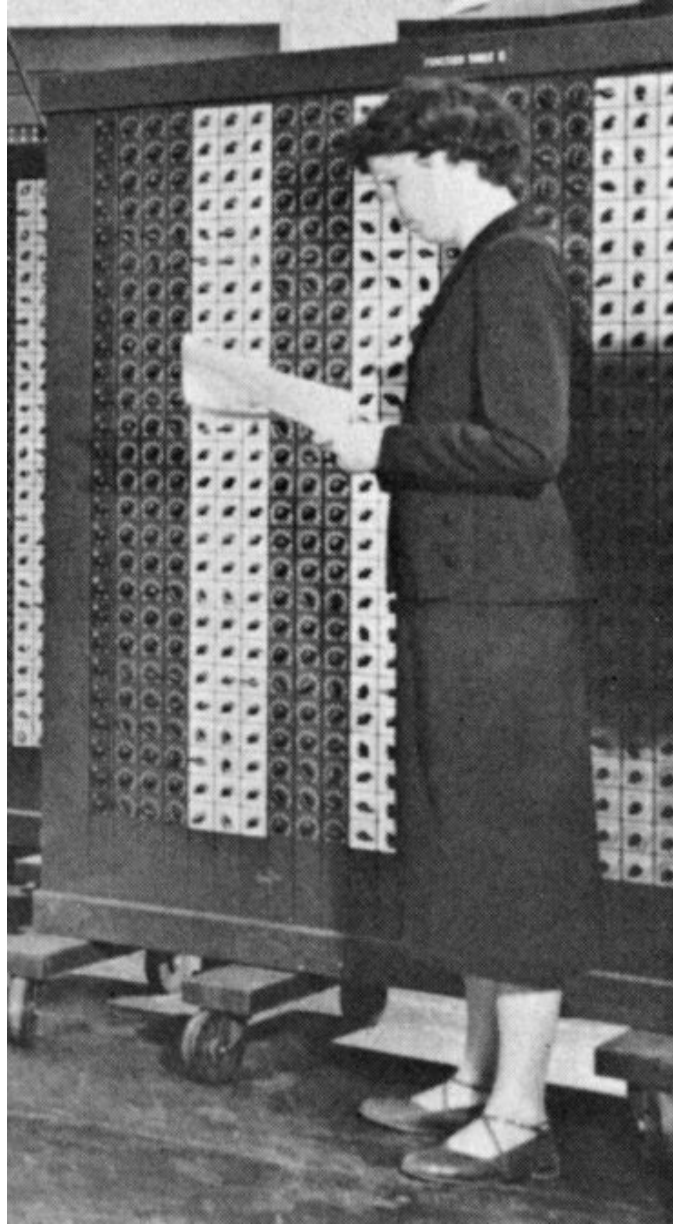
## Abstract

This chapter introduces the notion of *brute-force algorithms* with the implementation of two algorithms of this kind: *linear search* and *insertion sort*. The historic hero introduced in these notes is Betty Holberton. She was one of the first programmers of the ENIAC, and one of the key people for the development of several programming languages and algorithms for sorting objects.

## Historic hero: Betty Holberton

[Frances Elizabeth – knows as Betty – Holberton](#), shown in [Figure 1](#), was one of the first programmers of the [Electronic Numerical Integrator and Computer \(ENIAC\)](#). The funds of the United States Army permitted the development of this earliest electronic and general-purpose computer between 1943 and 1946. Besides, she contributed to developing several programming languages, such as [COBOL](#) and [FORTRAN](#). She created the first statistical analysis tool, used for analysing the data of the United States Census in 1950.

She dedicated a considerable part of her work in the development of algorithms for [sorting the elements in a list](#). The activity of sorting things is a typical human activity. It can be, of course, automatised using computers, and it is a desirable property to have for addressing several tasks.



**Figure 1.** Picture of Betty Holberton in front of the ENIAC. Source: [https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Betty\\_Holberton.jpg](https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Betty_Holberton.jpg).

Of course, sorting things is an expensive task, in particular, if you have to order billions of items. However, having such items sorted in some way is crucial for several tasks that we can perform on the list that contains them. For instance, in libraries, books are ordered according to specific guidelines such as the [Dewey classification](#). Such a classification allows one to cluster books according to particular fields, and each cluster contains books ordered according to the authors' names and the book title. With this kind of order, the librarian can find a requested title avoiding to look at the billion books available one by one, thus saving a considerable amount of time, after all. Therefore, to sort things in advance is a satisfactory practice if one has to search these things several times in the future.

## May the (brute) force be with you

In this chapter, for the very first time, we start to talk about [problem-solving methods](#). In Computer Science, *problem-solving* is the activity of creating a computer-interpretable process (i.e. an algorithm) for solving some given problem, e.g. ordering all the books alphabetically in a library. Computer scientists have proposed several different methods for solving problems, grouped into general categories. Probably, the more uncomplicated class of problem-solving techniques is the [brute-force approach](#).



**Figure 2.** The game of Go, which cannot be solved efficiently through a brute-force approach.  
Picture by Goban1, source: <https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:FloorGoban.JPG>.

Brute-force algorithms are these processes that reach the perfect solution to a problem by analysing all the possible candidate solutions. There are advantages and disadvantages in adopting such kind of approach. Usually, a brute-force approach is simple to implement, and it will always find a solution to the computational problem, by considering *iteratively* all the possible solutions one by one. However, its computational cost depends strictly on the number of available candidate solutions. Thus, often, for practical problems with a vast solution space, it is a rather slow, even if simple, approach to adopt. A good suggestion is to use such a brute force approach when the problem size is small.

[Abstract strategy board games](#), such as [Chess](#) or [Go](#), belong to that set of computational problems that have a quite huge solution space. Writing a brute-force algorithm which can play the game appropriately requires to consider all the possible legal moves that are available on the board (shown in [Figure 2](#)). According to John Tromp, the number of all the possible legal moves in Go was determined to be 208168199381979984699478633344862770286522453884530548425639456820927419612738015378525648451698519643907259916015628128546089888314427129715319317557736620397247064840935 [\[Tromp, 2016\]](#). That makes a brute-force approach intractable, even for an electronic computer.

Python has two alternatives for creating iterative blocks: [for-each loops](#) and [while loops](#). The first kind of iteration mechanism is provided in Python through `for` statement, illustrated in [Listing 1](#). All the instructions within the `for` block are repeated for each item in a collection (a list, a queue, etc.).

```
for item in <collection>:
    # do something using the current item
```

**Listing 1.** The general structure of a for-each loop in Python.

```
from collections import deque

def stack_from_list(input_list):
    output_stack = deque() # the stack to create

    # Iterate each element in the input list and add it to the stack
    for item in input_list:
        output_stack.append(item)

    return output_stack
```

**Listing 2.** A simple function that takes a list as input and creates a stack with all the values the list contains – by using a for-each loop. The source code of this listing is available [as part of the material of the course](#).

The for-each loop is handy when we want to iterate on all the elements of a list. For instance, one can apply some operations on each of them, or find a particular value – as discussed in more detail in [Section "Linear Search"](#). Or, we can use a for-each loop for creating a stack with all the elements included in a list, as shown by the simple algorithm in [Listing 2](#).

```
while <condition>:
    # do something until the condition is true
```

**Listing 3.** The general structure of a while loop in Python.

The while loop, instead, works in a slightly different way. Python allows us to create it by using a `while` statement (as shown in [Listing 3](#)). The `while` statement will repeat all the instructions that are contained in such block until the condition specified is true. For instance, it is possible to use a `while` statement for implementing the `run_forever` function that maps the Turing machine introduced in the [chapter "Computability"](#). [Listing 4](#) shows one of its possible implementation in Python.

```
def run_forever():
    value = 0
    while value >= 0:
        value = value + 1
```

**Listing 4.** Another simple algorithm that sums 1 to a starting value indefinitely. The source code of this listing is available [as part of the material of the course](#).

In the following sections, we reuse some of these iterations to implement two brute-force algorithms for searching the position of an item in a list, and for ordering a list. These are known as *linear search* and *insertion sort*.

## Linear search

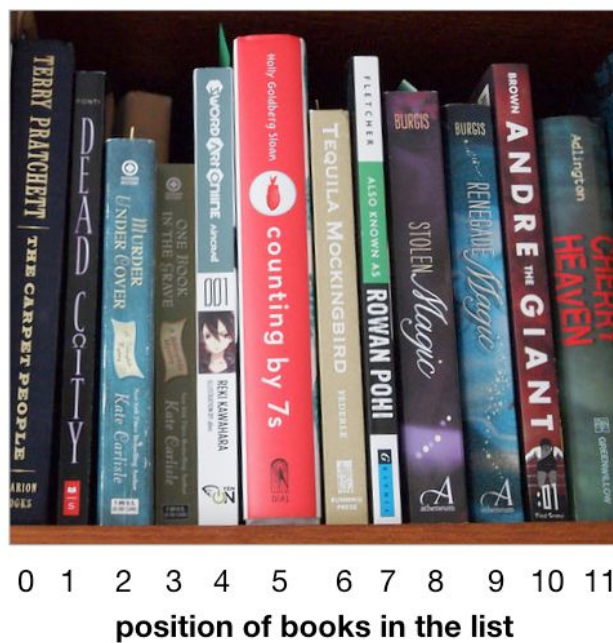
Searching for the position in which a particular value is in a list is an ordinary operation, which has applications in several real-life tasks. For instance, consider again the example of the library introduced in [Section "Historic hero: Betty Holberton"](#). Once a librarian has received a particular request for a book, she consults the catalogue of all the library books. Then, she finds the appropriate location of the requested book. This scenario is a sort of real applications of the aforementioned abstract problem of searching a value in a list, which is formally defined as follows:

**Computational problem:** find the position of the first occurrence of a value within a list.

While several approaches can be used to find an element in a list, we focus on a particular algorithm, called [linear search](#). This approach is pretty simple. The idea is to iterate over all the items contained in an input list one by one. Then, one must check if each of them is equal to the

value we are looking for, specified as input. Once one found the input value in the list, she returns its position in the list. If the list does not contain the input value, she returns no position at all.

We need to clarify some aspects of the description of the linear search algorithm before providing its implementation in Python. The first one is the fact that an item in a list has a specific position, which is something quite natural if you think about it. However, in the previous chapter, we have not mentioned how to get such a position. Besides, there is this aspect typical of Computer Science, that wants to number every position starting from 0, instead of 1. Thus, for instance, looking at the books in [Figure 3](#), Terry Pratchett's *The Carpet People* has position 0, James Ponti's *Dead City* has position 1, and so on.



**Figure 3.** The position numbers assigned to a book of a list according to the typical Computer Science habit – which starts numbering from 0.

```
for <var_item_1>, <var_item_2>, ... in <collection of tuples>:  
    # here you can use directly the variables defining  
    # the various items in the tuple
```

**Listing 5.** How Python allows one to decouple tuples in for-each loops involving a collection of tuples, by assigning a variable to each item in the tuple.

Python allows one to use the function `enumerate(<list>)` for retrieving the current position of an item in a list that is accessed using a for-each loop. This function takes as input a list of values and returns a *kind* of list (it is an *enumerate object*: it behaves like a list, but it is not a list) of [tuples](#). Each tuple contains two elements: the first element is the position of the item in consideration within the list, while the second element is the item itself. In Python, a tuple is

created by specifying comma-separated values between round brackets – for instance, `my_tuple = (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5)` assigns a tuple with six numbers to `my_tuple`. While tuples could be perceived similar to lists, they are not. The main difference with lists is that tuples do not provide any way for updating them with a new value since they do not permit the append operation. Thus, once a tuple is created, it stays forever.

```
# Test case for the algorithm
def test_linear_search(input_list, value_to_search, expected):
    result = linear_search(input_list, value_to_search)
    if expected == result:
        return True
    else:
        return False

# Code of the algorithm
def linear_search(input_list, value_to_search):
    # iterate all the items in the input list,
    # getting also their position on the list
    for position, item in enumerate(input_list):
        # check if the current item is equal to the value to search
        if item == value_to_search:
            # if so, the position of the current item is returned
            # and the algorithm stops
            return position

# Three different test runs
print(test_linear_search([1, 2, 3, 4, 5], 3, 2))
print(test_linear_search(["Alice", "Catherine", "Bob", "Charles"],
                          "Denver", None))
print(test_linear_search(["Ron", "Harry", "Hermione"], "Ron", 0))
```

**Listing 6.** The linear search algorithm described in Python, including its test case. The source code of this listing is available [as part of the material of the course](#).

Considering these aspects, running the function `enumerate(list(["a", "b", "c"]))` will return the following enumeration of tuples: `enumerate([(0, "a"), (1, "b"), (2, "c")])`, where the first item of each tuple is the position that the second item of the tuple has in the original list. Also, Python allows us to decouple the items in a tuple by specifying names for each item with variables created in the `for` statement on-the-fly, as shown in [Listing 5](#). Thus, for instance, a for-each loop like `for position, item in enumerate([(0, "a"), (1, "b"), (2, "c")])` will assign `0` to `position` and `"a"` to `item` in the first iteration, `1` to `position` and `"b"` to `item` in the second iteration, and `2` to `position` and `"c"` to `item` in the third iteration.

```

list_of_books = list(["Coraline", "American Gods",
                    "The Graveyard Book", "Good Omens",
                    "Nowhere"])

linear_search(list_of_books, "The Graveyard Book")

# FOR-EACH LOOP EXECUTION
# enumerate(input_list) will result in:
# enumerate([(0, "Coraline"), (1, "American Gods"),
#           (2, "The Graveyard Book"), (3, "Good Omens"),
#           (4, "Nowhere")])
#
# Iteration 1
# position = 0
# item = "Coraline"
# item == value_to_search is False
# Continue to the next iteration
#
# Iteration 2
# position = 1
# item = "American Gods"
# item == value_to_search is False
# Continue to the next iteration
#
# Iteration 3
# position = 2
# item = "The Graveyard Book"
# item == value_to_search is True
# Return the position (i.e. 2) and end the execution of the algorithm

```

**Listing 7.** An example of the execution steps of the linear search algorithm implemented.

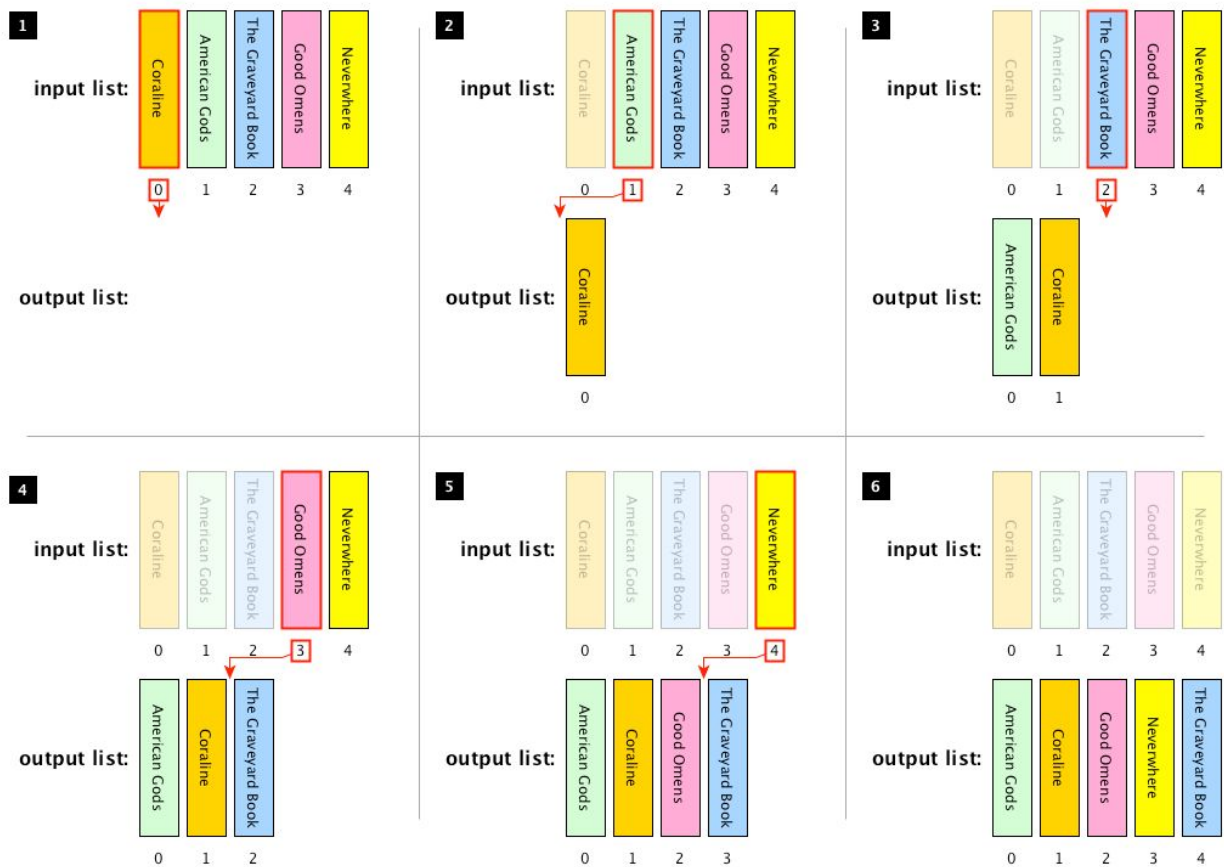
There is an aspect that is implicit in the description of the linear search algorithm introduced before. Indeed, the algorithm should not return any position if the value to search is not present in the list. In Python, this can be implemented by returning nothing (i.e. by not ever executing the statement `return`) or explicitly by returning a particular object that means *nothing*, i.e. `None`.

At this point, we have all the ingredients for developing the linear search algorithm in Python, shown in [Listing 6](#). To understand how the algorithm works, we have prepared a description of the various execution steps (shown in [Listing 7](#)) of the for-each loop introduced in the algorithm. This description would allow the reader to have a first glance at how iterative loops work from a purely computational point of view.



# Insertion sort

As already mentioned in [Section "Historic hero: Betty Holberton"](#), the task of ordering a sequence of items is an operation we usually have to deal with in everyday life. Recalling the example of the library, having the books sorted will make the operation of searching them more efficient. It would allow us to avoid using naive approaches for the search, e.g. the one introduced in [Section "Linear search"](#). These naive approaches are quite expensive if we have billions of books to check.



**Figure 4.** The execution of the insertion sort algorithm using the following list of book titles as input: *Coraline*, *American Gods*, *The Graveyard Book*, *Good Omens*, *Neverwhere*. The book highlighted by a bold red border is the one currently selected in the particular iteration of the algorithm. The red arrow shows the assigned position of the book in the output list. We use transparent filter on books considered in previous iterations of the process.

In this section, we propose one particular brute-force algorithm for addressing the following computational problem:

**Computational problem:** sort all the items in a given list.

The algorithm that we want to use for addressing the aforementioned computational problem is called [insertion sort](#). It is one of the simplest sorting algorithms to implement<sup>1</sup>, and it is quite efficient for small lists. The idea behind this algorithm is the following. It considers the items in the list one by one, according to the order they have been placed. Thus, at each iteration, it removes one item from the input list. Then, it finds the right location for it in the output list by looking at the items the output list contains starting from the last one (i.e. the rightmost one). Finally, it inserts it in the location found. The algorithm finishes when there are no more items to add in the output list. [Figure 4](#) shows an example of the execution of this algorithm.

```
def insertion_sort(input_list):
    result = list() # A new empty list where to store the result

    # iterate all the items on the input list
    for item in input_list:

        # initialise the position where to insert the item
        # at the end of the result list
        insert_position = len(result)

        # iterate, in reverse order, all the positions of all the
        # items already included in the result list
        for prev_position in reversed(range(insert_position)):

            # check if the current item is less than the one in
            # prev_position in the result list
            if item < result[prev_position]:
                # if it is so, then the position where to insert the
                # current item becomes prev_position
                insert_position = prev_position

        # the item is inserted into the position found
        result.insert(insert_position, item)

    return result # the ordered list is returned
```

**Listing 8.** The insertion sort algorithm described in Python. The source code of this listing is available [as part of the material of the course](#), and includes also the test case of the algorithm.

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<sup>1</sup> For a more comprehensive discussion and examples on sorting algorithms, please see the [Visualgo webpage about them](#) and a [creative Youtube video](#) showing fifteen distinct sorting algorithms in action.

To provide a Python implementation of this algorithm, we need to introduce two functions and one additional operation applicable to lists. The first function we need to use is `range(<stop_number>)`. It takes a non-negative number as input. It returns a *kind* of list (i.e. a *range object* behaving like a list) of all numbers from 0 to the one preceding `stop_number`. Thus, for instance, `range(4)` returns the `range([0, 1, 2, 3])`, while `range(0)` returns the empty range object `range([])`.

The other function is `reversed(<input_list>)`. This function takes a list as input. It returns a kind of list, i.e. an iterator for iterating the items in the list in reversed order. Thus, for instance, `reversed(list([0, 1, 2, 3]))` returns `iterator([3, 2, 1, 0])`. We can use these two functions in combination. They allow us to obtain the positions of the items already ordered in past iterations of the algorithm. For instance, `reversed(range(2))` returns `iterator(range([1, 0])` starting from the position (i.e. 2) of the third item in the input list.

In addition, we need a way for selecting an item in a list and for inserting an item in a specific position in a list. For addressing these tasks, Python makes available the additional list methods `<list>[<position>]` and `<list>.insert(<position>, <item>)`. In particular, the former returns the item in the list at the specified position – e.g. if we have the list `my_list = list(["a", "b", "c"])`, `my_list[1]` returns "b". The latter method allows one to put `<item>` in the position specified, and it shifts all the elements with position greater than or equal to `<position>` of one position – e.g., by applying `my_list.insert(1, "d")`, the list in `my_list` is modified as follows: `list(["a", "d", "b", "c"])`.

At this point, we have all the ingredients for developing the insertion sort algorithm in Python, shown in [Listing 8](#).

## Exercises

1. Write down the execution steps of `linear_search(list(["Coraline", "American Gods", "The Graveyard Book", "Good Omens", "Neverwhere"]), "The Sandman")`, as explained in [Listing 7](#).
2. Create a test case for the algorithm introduced in [Listing 2](#).
3. Write in Python the function `def my_enumerate(input_list)` which behaves like the built-in function `enumerate()` introduced in [Section "Linear search"](#) and returns a proper list, and accompany the function with the related test case. It is not possible to use the built-in function `enumerate()` in the implementation.
4. Write in Python the function `def my_range(stop_number)` which behave like the built-in function `range()` introduced in [Section "Insertion sort"](#) and returns a proper list, and accompany the function with the related test case. It is not possible to use the built-in function `range()` in the implementation.

5. Write in Python the function `def my_reversed(input_list)` which behave like the built-in function `reversed()` introduced in [Section "Insertion sort"](#) and returns a proper list, and accompany the function with the related test case. It is not possible to use the built-in function `reversed()` in the implementation.

## Acknowledgements

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## References

Tromp, J. (2016). Counting Legal Positions in Go. <http://tromp.github.io/go/legal.html> (last visited 10 November 2017)