

Algorithms Resource Pack

for AQA GCSE Computer Science (8525)

Sue Wright

Part 1 – Theory

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Teacher's Introduction

All examples and vocabulary used follow the AQA Subject Specific Vocabulary definition of key terms used in the AQA GCSE Computer Science (8525) specification.

This resource explores specification section **3.1 Fundamentals of Algorithms** and looks at each section in depth identifying key terms and their definitions to help your students understand some of the more difficult concepts.

There are detailed pseudocode examples, explanations and diagrams which explain the stages of the searching and sorting algorithms and how the pseudocode relates to the process of each algorithm.

Students are shown how to plan algorithms using both flowcharts and AQA standard version pseudocode, starting with explanations and examples of how to analyse an algorithm in terms of its inputs, processes and outputs before attempting the algorithm design itself. The resource also includes a range of exercises, as well as crosswords for each section to check students' understanding of the key terms. Solutions to all exercises are included.

The resource is presented in 2 parts:

Part 1: Seven chapters of theory, interspersed with task prompts. Give to students in its entirety or as separate handouts as and when you need them.

Part 2: Worksheets (for completion of the tasks referred to in Part 1), plus solutions

This booklet could be used as a stand-alone resource to deliver this important part of the syllabus, as well as to support the delivery of syllabus section **3.2 Programming**, where much of the content (such as variables, arrays, subroutines and operators) is covered naturally while looking at algorithms.

This resource will be invaluable in giving students a detailed introduction to the use of written pseudocode and code segments that will form part of their written exams.

About the author

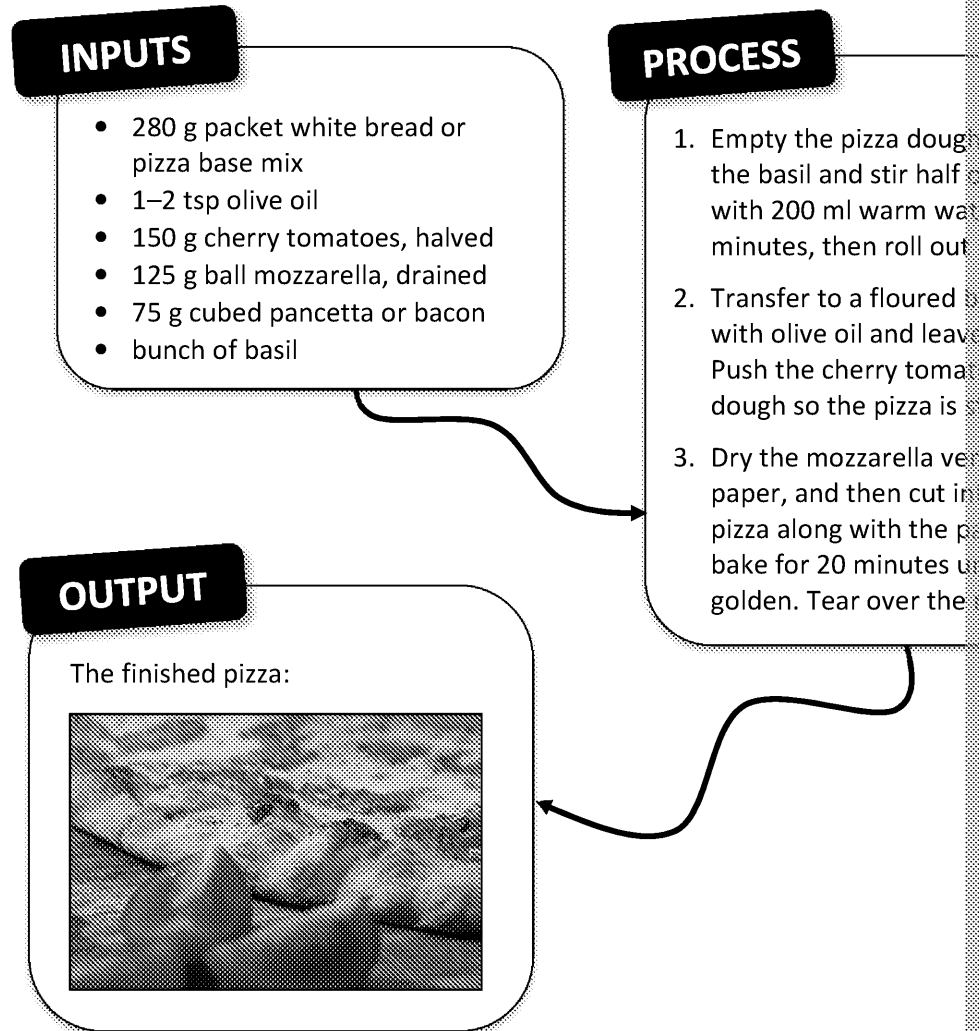
Sue Wright has been teaching for over 25 years and has a B.A., B.Ed. and Undergraduate Diploma in Computing from the Dept. for Continuing Education at Oxford University. She has taught A Level Computing, A Level Computer Science and GCSE Computer Science. In her spare time she enjoys writing, playing in her local brass band, reading crime novels and visiting new places.

Sue Wright, September 2020

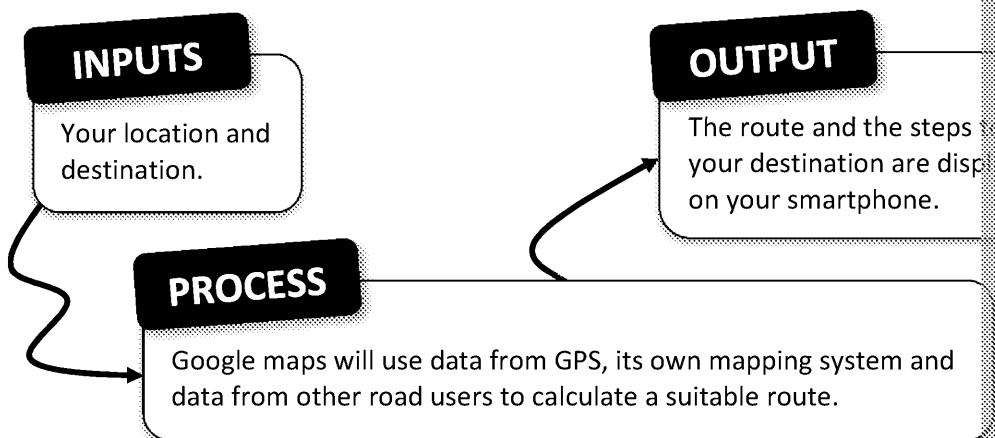
ALGORITHMS: WHAT ARE THEY?

An algorithm is a **series of instructions that solves a problem in a finite number of steps**.

What does that mean? Below is an example of a recipe for making cherry tomato pizza. This can be used to explain an everyday algorithm in terms of its **inputs**, **process** and **output**.



Another example uses the ‘shortest path algorithm’ invented by Dutch computer scientist Edsger Dijkstra.



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In both of these examples:

- The steps or instructions must be clear so that they cannot be misunderstood.
- The steps or instructions must follow the correct order, e.g. Step 1 is followed by Step 2.
- They must produce the outputs you want at the end, e.g. the pizza or the location to your destination.
- Each time the instructions are used, the same results must be produced, e.g. the pizza or the location to your destination.

Every **successful algorithm** can be judged using three criteria:

- Accuracy – does it lead to the expected results?
- Consistency – does it produce the same result each time it is run?
- Efficiency – does it solve the problem in the shortest possible time?

Key Terms

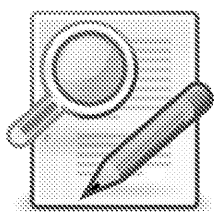
Algorithm	A series of instructions that solves a problem in a finite number of steps.
Sequence	An ordered set of steps or instructions.
Unambiguous	Written in a way that makes it completely clear what is meant.

ALGORITHMS VS PROGRAMS

Algorithms and programs are very closely related BUT the important distinction is that to create a program to solve a problem, you have to work out the solution (the algorithm) first.

Example: You have two young cousins who struggle to learn their spellings each year. You decide to write a program to help them.

Analyse the problem



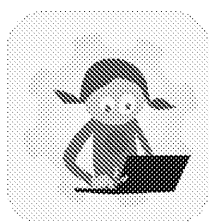
Make a game based on the idea of 'Look, cover, write'



Design the solution



Code the solution



When they have to write a word, they have to write it down. How many words have they written?

There are two ways in which we can plan and design algorithms:

- VISUAL – using flow chart symbols
- TEXT – using a written sequence of instructions

In your exam you will need to be able to use and understand both methods.

Complete Exercise 1: Charity Fundraiser – Analyse the Problem

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VARIABLES – WHAT ARE THEY AND WHY DO WE NEED THEM

In order to process data, all computers need to be able to temporarily store data that is accessed and changed as the program runs.

For example, in a simple hangman game the computer needs to store and access:

- the word to be guessed
- which letters in the word have been guessed correctly
- which letters are incorrect guesses
- which parts of the hangman image have been displayed

Variables are locations in memory where the data is stored; each of these locations has an address – a bit like your postal address – so the computer knows where it has stored the data and where to find it again.

When we plan and write algorithms or create programs we name the variables used in our algorithms easier to understand. The name or identifier used should be easy to use in the algorithm or program.

Rules for variable names:

- The name must be written first before a value is **assigned** to it
- The name cannot start with a number; it must be a letter or an underscore
- Variable names must not have spaces – use CamelCase
- Names must be chosen that make sense in the algorithm

Example:

```
1 WordToGuess ← "twelve"
2
3 CorrectGuess ← ["e"]
4
5 WrongGuess ← ["a" , "o" , "i" , "g" , "s" ]
```

In AQA pseudocode the backwards arrow is used to show **assignment** of a value to a variable. The equals symbol (=) is used to show equality, e.g. $4 = 4$ evaluates to True.

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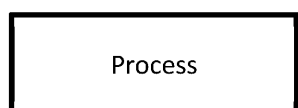
REPRESENTING ALGORITHMS

FLOW CHART SYMBOLS

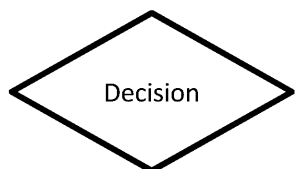
There are many different symbols used in flow charts; you need to be able to recognise the following symbols:



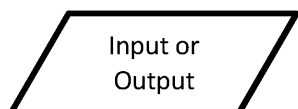
Start or end of your algorithm



A process in the algorithm, e.g. calculating the price of



A decision/selection symbol will always have one of two possible outcomes, true or false



This shows data into the algorithm or outputs from it



Arrows show the sequence of steps in the algorithm. They can be vertical or horizontal.

Key Terms

Flow chart

A flow chart is a visual representation of the **sequence of steps** in the sequence are shown as symbols or shapes which are linked by arrows to show the order.

Variable

A storage location used to store a value; this could be text or a number. A variable may change as the program is run.

Complete Exercise 2: Charity Fundraiser – Put the Symbols in the Correct Order
Complete Crossword One

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PSEUDOCODE

The second way we can plan and design an algorithm is using pseudocode.

PSEUDO means 'pretend' or 'unreal' as it is not a real programming language, it is an algorithm using text. Different textbooks will use different versions of pseudocode, but as long as your meaning is clear and unambiguous, you can use any text to describe your algorithm.

However, you will also be expected to be able to understand simple algorithms written in a standard version of pseudocode in your exam; this booklet will use the exam board version.

Look at the two examples of the same algorithm below.

Flow chart	Pseudocode
<pre> graph TD Start([Start]) --> Input[/Enter circle radius/] Input --> PI[PI = 3.14159] PI --> Area[Area = PI x radius x radius] Area --> Output[/Output Area/] Output --> Stop([Stop]) </pre>	<pre> 1 PRINT('Enter radius') 2 radius ← USER INPUT 3 CONST PI ← 3.14159 4 Area ← PI x radius x radius 5 PRINT(Area) </pre>

This example uses both a **variable** and a **constant**; each of these has been given a name. Identifiers should make your algorithm easy to understand and they **MUST** be unique; you cannot use the same **identifier** or name for different variables in the same algorithm.

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VARIABLES, CONSTANTS AND ASSIGNMENT

We have already discussed variables and briefly looked at how to **assign** a value to a variable.

On Line 2 of the example, the pseudocode algorithm **assigns** the value entered by the user to a **variable** called **radius**. Each time the algorithm is used the value of 'radius' can change. In our calculation we do not need to change anything when the value of 'radius' changes.

The symbol used to show **assignment** of a value to a **variable** is a backwards arrow (\leftarrow) and 4. It is important that the **identifier** for the variable is created BEFORE any value is assigned to it.

When a variable in a program is NOT going to vary it is known as a **constant**. The **identifier** for a constant is written in capital letters. Values are **assigned** to a **constant** in exactly the same way as a variable. You can see this on Line 3.

Key Terms

Constant	A storage location used to store a value that never changes as the program runs.
Assignment	Giving a variable or constant a value by linking a value to the variable or constant.
Identifier	A unique name given to a variable or constant in your algorithm. It makes your algorithm easier to read and understand.
Pseudocode	A structured, code-like language that can be used to describe an algorithm.

PRINT AND USERINPUT

In pseudocode you will be expected to understand and be able to use **keywords** in capital letters.

```

1 PRINT('Enter radius')
2 radius ← USERINPUT
3 CONST PI ← 3.14159
4 Area ← PI x radius x radius
5 PRINT(Area)

```

The two keywords used here are:

- USERINPUT – Getting values into the algorithm from the user (via keyboard)
- PRINT – Messages or results displayed on the screen.

Complete Exercise 3: Constants or Variables?
Complete Exercise 4: Holiday Calculations

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ARITHMETIC OPERATORS

You will be familiar with these from your Maths lessons, but there are some slight differences that you will be able to recognise and use in pseudocode.

STANDARD ARITHMETIC OPERATORS	PSEUDOCODE VERSION	
Addition +	+	5 + 6 evaluates to 11
Subtraction –	–	7 – 3 evaluates to 4
Multiplication ×	*	4 * 2 evaluates to 8
Division ÷	/	12 / 3 evaluates to 4
Integer division (only evaluates the quotient from the division)	DIV	9 DIV 6 evaluates to 1 <i>This evaluates to 1.5 The quotient is 1 integer division</i>
Modulus operator (only evaluates the remainder from the division)	MOD	10 MOD 3 evaluates to 1 <i>This evaluates to 3.33 The remainder is 1 modulus</i>

ORDER OF OPERATIONS: BIDMAS

Remember that you may have a question that involves understanding the order of operations.

For example:

$$6 \times (7 + 3) = 6 \times 10 = 60 \quad \checkmark$$

$$6 \times (7 + 3) = 6 \times 7 = 42 + 3 = 45 \quad \times$$

$$4 + 5 \times 6 = 4 + 30 = 34 \quad \checkmark \text{ (Multiply BEFORE addition or subtraction)}$$

1	B rackets
2	I ndices (powers, square roots)
3	D ivision
4	M ultiplication
5	A ddition
6	S ubtraction

Complete Exercise 5: Holiday Temperature Converter

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RELATIONAL OPERATORS

These are sometimes called equality or comparison operators as they are used to evaluate expressions which use relational operators will evaluate to either True or False.

OPERATOR	WHAT IT MEANS	EXAMPLE
<	Less than	$5 < 7$
>	Greater than	$3 > 12$
= or ==	Equality operator – checks whether both values are the same	$5 = 5$
<> or !=	Not equal to	$7 <> 8$
<=	Less than or equal to	$9 <= 10$ $6.2 <= 6.2$
>=	Greater than or equal to	$12 >= 21$ $5.7 >= 5.7$

In a calculation, any arithmetic operators will be evaluated BEFORE relational operators.

Example:

$(5 * 9) < 30$ evaluates to False

$(12 / 4) != (36/9)$ evaluates to True

BOOLEAN OR LOGICAL OPERATORS

Boolean or logical operators are very useful for combining with relational operators in expressions.

OPERATOR	EXPLANATION	
AND	Logical AND checks whether both conditions are true or false	A password must include a number
OR	Logical OR checks whether EITHER of the conditions is true	A password must include a symbol.
NOT	Logical NOT reverses a Boolean value. In the example $x > y$ evaluates to False, using the logical NOT reverses the evaluation to True.	If a password is NOT including a number

AND OPERATOR

We can start with two statements which could be true or false about your password:

1. The password has eight or more characters.
2. The password includes a number.

If you know the answer to both statements is true, they can be linked with AND

The password has eight or more characters	The password includes a number	
False	False	
False	True	
True	False	
True	True	

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In order to evaluate the overall value of a Boolean expression using the AND operator, both expressions must evaluate to true. For example:

(5 != 12)	AND	(12 > 8)
True	AND	True
True		

OR OPERATOR

This is a very common logical operator that you will be familiar with when making fries or chunky chips? The logical OR will evaluate to True if one of the choices evaluates to True.

(5 != 12)	OR	(12 < 8)
True	OR	False
True		

It does not matter if both choices evaluate to True as the overall expression will still evaluate to True.

NOT OPERATOR

Unlike the AND and OR operators, which compare two Boolean expressions and return a Boolean result, the NOT operator simply reverses the result of the Boolean expression. For example:

NOT (12 > 8)
NOT True
False

COMBINING BOOLEAN OR LOGICAL OPERATORS

The three Boolean operators can be combined into more complex expressions by using parentheses to check whether the expression will give you the answer you want.

Example 1 (using variables)

```
PwdLen ← 8
NumCount ← 1
NOT (PwdLen < 8) AND (NumCount >= 2)
```

We can evaluate our expressions (PwdLen < 8) and (NumCount ≥ 2) to False; our overall expression (False AND False), which we can simplify to NOT False and, therefore, True.

Example 2

```
(5 != 12) OR (NOT (12 < 8))
```

The expressions (5 != 12) and (12 < 8) can be evaluated to True and True so we can simplify this to:

```
True OR (NOT (True))
```

This now evaluates to True OR False which evaluates to True.

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Key Terms

Operator	In maths, an operator is a symbol (such as + * / -) that shows something you want to do with the values.
Quotient	When a number is divided by another, the result is known as the quotient. For example, $12 \div 3 = 4$, the quotient is 4.
Div	Integer division gives only the quotient and ignores any remainder.
Mod	The modulus operation finds the remainder only after division.
Relational operator	This is used in programming to compare two values, e.g. $4 > 3$. Relational operators will evaluate to either True or False.
Boolean operator	A Boolean or logical operator is used to combine conditions and test to see whether they evaluate to True or False.

Complete Crossword Two

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PROGRAMMING CONSTRUCTS

When we are planning algorithms, there are three basic building blocks or 'constructs' that make algorithms easy to read and easy to understand. These are used to control the order of operations that are executed.

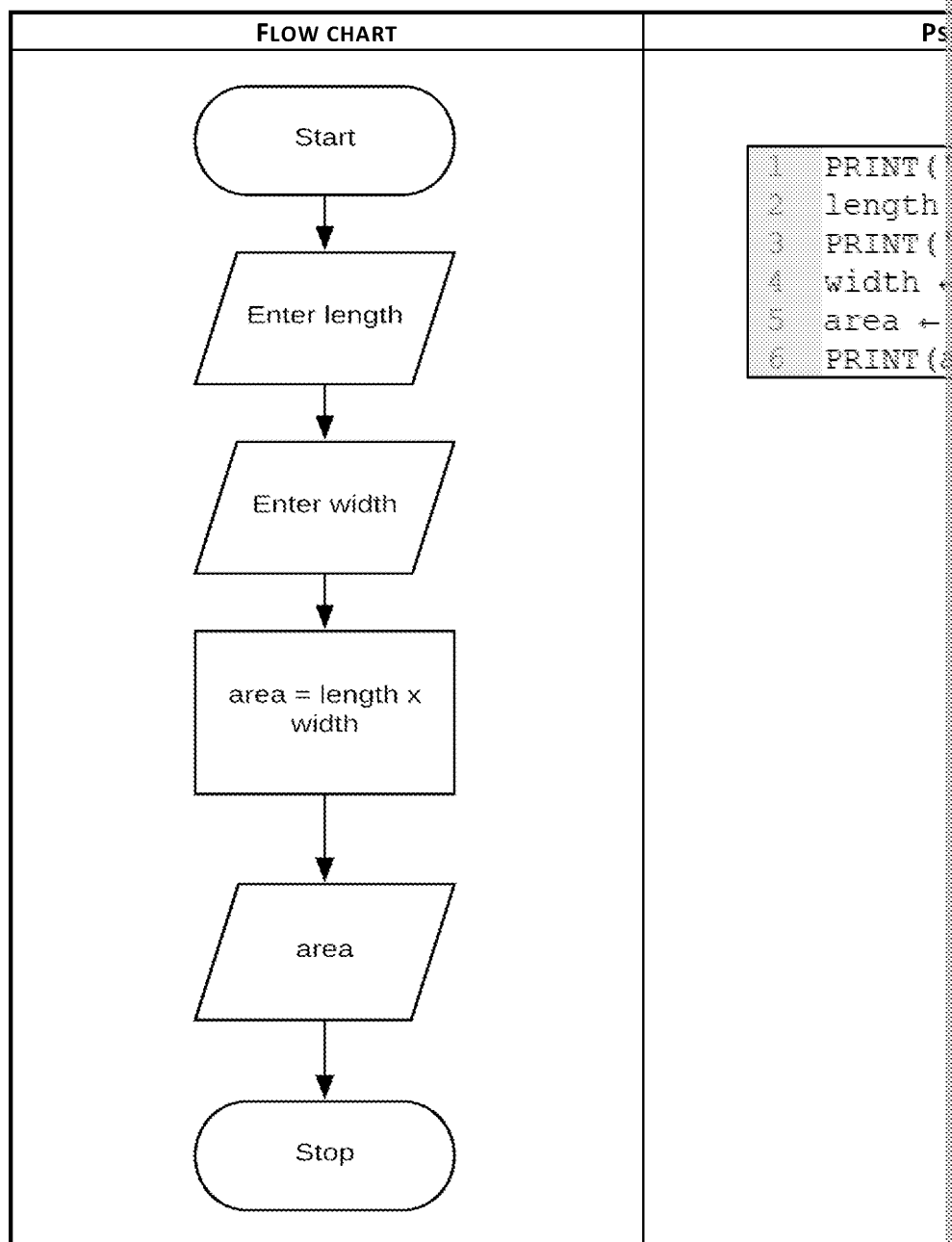
These building blocks also allow you to break a problem down into smaller blocks. These small blocks can then be joined together to solve a more complex problem.

The three constructs are:

- Sequence
- Selection
- Iteration

SEQUENCE

Sequence means doing things one after another. For example, when calculating the area of a rectangle, the steps are:



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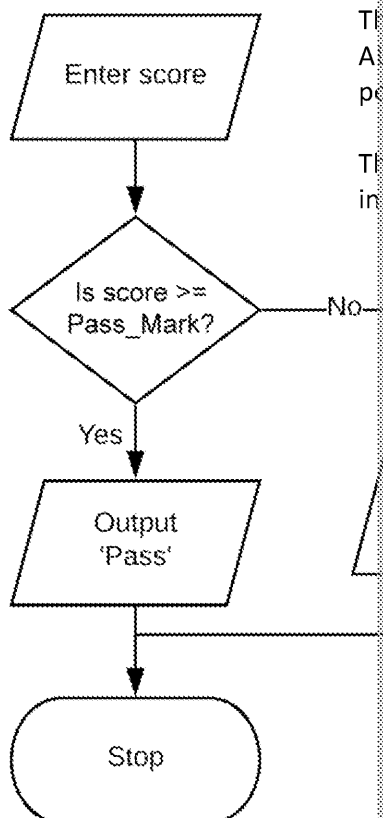
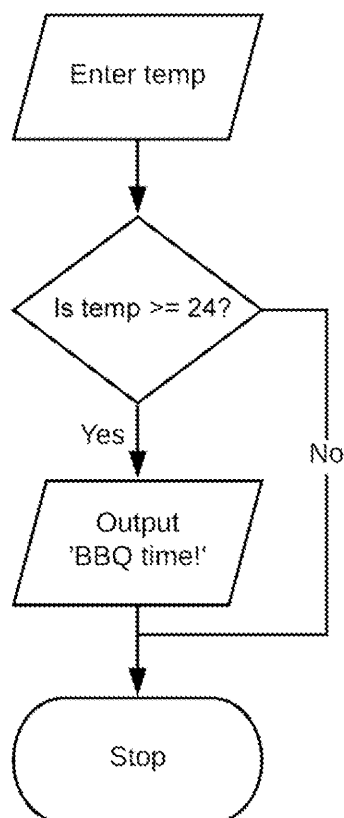
SELECTION

Selection or conditional statements test whether a condition we have set is TRUE or FALSE. We then choose or select what happens next based on whether the condition set evaluates to TRUE or FALSE.

IF STATEMENT	
<pre>IF < condition > THEN <statement when condition is true> ENDIF</pre>	<pre>temp ← 25 IF temp >= 24 THEN PRINT('BBQ time!') ENDIF</pre>

IF-ELSE STATEMENT	
<pre>IF < condition > THEN <statement when condition is true> ELSE <statement when condition is false> ENDIF</pre>	<pre>Pass_Mark ← 60 score ← USERINPUT IF score >= Pass_Mark THEN PRINT('Pass') ELSE PRINT('Fail') ENDIF</pre>

SELECTION USING FLOW CHARTS



The flowchart is a visual representation of the algorithm.

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Complete Exercise 6: Odds or Evens

What happens if you want to check more than one condition?

In the example code below the algorithm will check whether one of the conditions execute the relevant code. If the first condition evaluates to True then none checked; if none of the conditions evaluates to True, then the default **else** code will

ELSE-IF STATEMENT	
<pre> IF <condition> THEN <statement when condition is true> ELSE IF < next condition> THEN <statement when condition is true> ELSE IF <next condition > THEN <statement when condition is true> ELSE <do this> ENDIF </pre>	<pre> score ← USERINPUT IF score >= 80 THEN PRINT('Levels 7 - 9') ELSE IF score <= 79 AND PRINT('Levels 4 - 6') ELSE IF score <= 59 AND PRINT('Levels 1 - 3') ELSE PRINT('Failed. Please') ENDIF </pre>

Example 1:

Line	Score	score >= 80	score <= 79 AND score >= 60	score < 60
1	32			
2				
3		False		
4				
5			False	
6				
7				F
8				
9				
10				
11				

Example 2:

Line	Score	score >= 80	score <= 79 AND score >= 60	score < 60
1	60			
2				
3		False		
4				
5			True	
6				
7				
8				
9				
10				
11				

As you can see in the trace table above, the ELSE-IF statement will not check any statement has been evaluated to True; Lines 6 to 11 would be ignored and the a line of code after Line 11.

Complete Exercise 7: Colour Range

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TRACE TABLES

A trace table is a useful way of checking the logic of your algorithm BEFORE you write the code. It involves using a range of data to check that the algorithm you have written works. The example table shown on the previous page.

This type of checking is always done on paper and is called performing a 'dry run'.

Complete Exercise 8: Trace Table 1

Complete Exercise 9: Trace Table 2

ITERATION

In computer science, iteration means that instructions in your algorithm are repeated. There are two types of iteration or LOOPING that you need to know about:

- Condition-controlled Loop (indefinite iteration)
- Count-controlled Loop (definite iteration)

CONDITION-CONTROLLED LOOP (INDEFINITE ITERATION)

REPEAT... UNTIL...	
<pre> REPEAT <statements> UNTIL <Boolean Expression> </pre>	<p>Example 1</p> <pre> 1 password ← USER 2 REPEAT 3 PRINT('Confirm password') 4 confirm ← USER 5 UNTIL confirm = password </pre> <p><i>This will continue to ask for the user's password until the passwords they match.</i></p> <p>Example 2</p> <pre> 1 count ← 10 2 REPEAT 3 PRINT(count) 4 count ← count - 1 5 UNTIL count = 5 </pre> <p><i>This will print out 10, 9, 8, 7, 6 and 5.</i></p>

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WHILE... ENDWHILE

WHILE <Boolean Expression>
 <statements>
ENDWHILE

Example 1

```
1 password ← USER
2 PRINT('Confirm
3 confirm ← USER
4
5 WHILE confirm
6     PRINT('Ent
7     PRINT('Conf
8     confirm ←
9 ENDWHILE
```

In this example, the condition is checked before the loop starts. If the password and confirm are the same, the loop will not execute.

Example 2

```
1 count ← 10
2
3 WHILE count > 0
4     PRINT(count)
5     count ← count - 1
6 ENDWHILE
```

Again, the condition is checked before the loop starts. The condition used will be different from the first example as we want to output the numbers 10 down to 1.

COUNT-CONTROLLED LOOP (DEFINITE ITERATION)

FOR... ENDFOR

FOR identifier ← IntExp TO IntExp
 <condition>
ENDFOR

```
1 FOR count ← 1 TO 10
2     PRINT(count)
3 ENDFOR
```

This will output 1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10

Key Terms

Construct	The basic building blocks of an algorithm or program. Instructions are executed.
Sequence	When instructions are executed, in order, one after another.
Selection	Also known as a conditional statement, this allows the program to execute different instructions based on whether a condition is True or False.
Iteration	Instructions are repeated either until a condition is True or False, or for a set number of times.
Trace table	A manual method of testing an algorithm to ensure it works as intended.

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COMBINING SEQUENCE, SELECTION AND ITERATION

As you will probably be aware from your knowledge of programming so far, problems often require a combination of these three building blocks or 'constructs'.

Example 1:

```

1  FOR x ← 1 TO 101
2      IF x MOD 3 = 0 AND x MOD 5 = 0 THEN
3          PRINT('FizzBuzz')
4      ELSE IF x MOD 5 = 0 THEN
5          PRINT('Buzz')
6      ELSE IF x MOD 3 = 0
7          PRINT('Fizz')
8      ELSE
9          PRINT(x)
10     ENDIF
11 ENDFOR

```

This is an example of a simple programming task often used in interviews to check understanding of sequence, selection and iteration constructs and code a solution that works!

Example 2:

```

1  #Guess the number game
2  guessed ← False
3  target ← 11
4
5  WHILE guessed != True
6      PRINT('Enter a number between 1 and 10')
7      number ← USERINPUT
8      WHILE number <= 0 OR number > 10
9          PRINT('Number out of range, please enter a number between 1 and 10')
10         number ← USERINPUT
11     ENDWHILE
12     IF number = target THEN
13         PRINT('Well done, you guessed it!')
14         guessed ← True
15     ELSE IF number > target THEN
16         PRINT('Too high')
17     ELSE
18         PRINT('Too low')
19     ENDIF
20 ENDWHILE

```

This example uses the variable **guessed** as a 'flag' on Line 2. Variables used as flags are used to indicate whether a condition is true or false. The flag variable will be set with an initial value (True or False), depending on what the program needs to do.

When the code on Line 12 evaluates to True then the 'flag' on Line 14 (the variable **guessed**) will be set to True. This means that the condition on Line 5 will now evaluate to False and the loop will end.

Complete Exercise 10: Identify the Constructs

Complete Exercise 11: FizzBuzz

Complete Exercise 12: Dial a Pizza

Complete Crossword Three

Complete Exercise 13: Count until Zero

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DATA STRUCTURES

ARRAYS

An array is a data structure that allows us to store multiple items using just one variable. An array is usually referred to as an 'element'.

Most modern programming languages start numbering array indexes at 0; this will be the case in your exam **unless the question tells you otherwise**.

ASSIGNMENT (OF AN ARRAY)	
Identifier \leftarrow [Exp, Exp, Exp,...,Exp] <i>Note: Exp means any expression</i>	<pre> 1 shopping \leftarrow ['milk', 'bread', 'butter'] 2 3 a \leftarrow [4, 32, 78, 51] </pre> <p>The shopping array has three elements starting at index position 0, finishing at index position 2.</p> <p>The a array has four elements, starting at index position 0, finishing at index position 3.</p>

ACCESSING AN ELEMENT	
Identifier [IntExp]	<pre> 1 shopping[1] 2 3 a[3] </pre> <p><i>Note: shopping [1] will evaluate to 'bread' as the array starts at index position 0. These are the index positions of each item in the array.</i></p>

UPDATING AN ELEMENT	
Identifier [IntExp] \leftarrow Exp	<pre> 1 shopping[2] \leftarrow 'eggs' 2 3 a[1] \leftarrow 94 </pre> <p><i>Note: the element at index position shopping [2] has been updated from 'butter' to 'eggs'. The array is now ['milk', 'bread', 'eggs']. The element at index position a [1] has been updated from 32 to 94. The array is now [4, 94, 78, 51].</i></p>

ACCESSING AN ELEMENT IN A 2D ARRAY	
Identifier [IntExp] [IntExp]	<pre> 1 high_scores \leftarrow [['Ashley', 58, 62, 43], ['Raheem', 78, 85, 92], ['Jamie', 65, 72, 81]] 2 3 high_scores [0, 1] 4 high_scores [1, 1] </pre> <p><i>Note: You can think of a 2D array as being like a table. For example, Line 3 would evaluate to the second element of the first row (58). Line 4 would evaluate to the second element of the second row (78), i.e. the second item in the second element of the array.</i></p>

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You should think of a 2D array as looking like a table:

	Ashley	Raheem	Jami
Row 1, column 0 high_scores [1, 0]	58	62	43

UPDATING AN ELEMENT IN A 2D ARRAY	
Identifier [IntExp] [IntExp] ← Exp	<pre>1 high_scores [1,1] ← 67</pre> <p>Note: This results in the 2D array now looking has been increased from 62 to 67. [['Ashley', 'Raheem', 'Jamie'],[58,67,43]]</p>

ARRAY LENGTH	
LEN(Identifier)	<p>LEN (high_scores) will evaluate to 2 player names in row 0 and the player score</p> <p>LEN (shopping) will evaluate to three</p>

FOR LOOPS AND ARRAYS

When we use arrays to store multiple data items, a common process is to search whether it contains an item or to perform some other operation on each item.

We know how to use a FOR loop for counting:

```
1 FOR count ← 1
2   PRINT (count)
3 ENDFOR
```

How do we loop through each item in an array using a FOR loop?

Example:

```
daily_temps ← [17, 19, 22, 26, 21, 24, 22]
totalTemps ← 0

FOR i ← 0 TO 6
    totalTemps ← totalTemps + daily_temps[i]
ENDFOR

avgTemp ← totalTemps/7

PRINT (totalTemps)
```

The array **daily_temps** has seven items but we are assuming (unless the exam question says otherwise) that array counting starts at index position 0.

The FOR loop looks at the **index position** of each item in the array and then adds the value at that position to the variable **totalTemps**. The total is then divided by 7 to find the average.

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What happens if we do not know how large the array will be for setting the condition? We can use the LEN () option to find the length of an array as well as a string. We can

```
# Calculate a weekly average temperature

daily_temps ← [17, 19, 22, 26, 21, 24, 22]
totalTemps ← 0

FOR i ← 0 TO LEN(daily_temps)-1
    totalTemps ← totalTemps + daily_temps[i]
ENDFOR

avgTemp ← totalTemps/7

PRINT(totalTemps)
```

Another process that can be achieved using arrays, WHILE loops and selection statements. An array includes a data item, e.g. a name:

```
# Search for names of students who sat mock exam

examAttendees ← ['Keiran', 'Taisha', 'Emily', 'Wyatt', 'Ryan',
                 'Grace', 'Adam']
examRetake ← []
found ← False
index ← 0
check ← ''

WHILE check != 'X'
    target ← USERINPUT
    index ← 0
    WHILE index < LEN(examAttendees)-1 AND NOT found
        IF examAttendees[index] != target THEN
            index ← index + 1
        ELSE
            found ← True
        ENDIF
    IF index = LEN(examAttendees)-1 AND NOT found THEN
        examRetake ← examRetake + target
    ENDIF
    ENDWHILE
    PRINT('Enter X to exit or C to continue ')
    check ← USERINPUT
ENDWHILE

PRINT(examRetake)
```

In this example, the algorithm is searching the array looking for a name entered by the user.

The WHILE loop looks at each item in the array; if an item does not match the target name, the index is incremented by 1. If the end of the array is reached and the target name is not found, then that student has failed the exam and their name is added to the dynamic array called **resits**.

When the user has finished entering names and enters 'X', the main loop finishes.

Complete Exercise 14: Calculate Fares

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RECORDS

Records are data structures that allow multiple data types to be identified by a key. You may have used something similar like a dictionary in Python to store data.

In this example we are looking at the records of employee cars for a large firm. Each employee has a parking space depending on the location in the car park and must park in their numbered space.

```
1  # example employee vehicle record
2
3  RECORD StaffCar
4      surname: String
5      v_reg : String
6      park_space: integer
7      park_fee : Real
8      pay_month: Integer
9      make: String
10     model: String
11 ENDRECORD
12
13 # add new vehicles
14
15 HJK ← StaffCar('Kelly', 'TJ56 DVM', 102, 70.00, 1, 'Fiat', '500')
16 JVM ← StaffCar('Mathieson', 'ED19 LKB', 34, 90.00, 3, 'Ford', 'Focus')
17 CLP ← StaffCar('Parker', 'PJ20 DSC', 15, 100.00, 5, 'Range', 'Rover')
18
19 current_month ← 4
20 IF JVM.pay_month < current_month THEN
21     PRINT('Payment overdue')
22     park_fee ← (JVM.park_fee * 0.10) + JVM.park_fee
23     PRINT('Please pay your overdue parking fee of ' + R$(park_fee))
24 ENDIF
```

A record is a data type created by a programmer for a specific purpose, so it is tailored to the requirements required for the task.

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SUBROUTINES

Subroutines are clear, independent blocks of code within a computer program written by the main program. These are also known as functions or procedures, depending on whether they return a value or not.

PROCEDURE DEFINITION	
PROCEDURE Identifier (parameters) <statements> END PROCEDURE	<pre> 1 PROCEDURE multiply_nums 2 total = a * b 3 PRINT(total) 4 END PROCEDURE 5 6 n ← USERINPUT 7 8 PROCEDURE greetings(n) 9 PRINT('Welcome'+ n) 10 END PROCEDURE </pre>

FUNCTION DEFINITION	
FUNCTION Identifier (parameters) <statements> RETURN Exp END FUNCTION	<pre> 1 FUNCTION CheckPwd() 2 pwd ← USERINPUT 3 IF pwd = 'Turing' 4 RETURN True 5 ELSE 6 RETURN False 7 ENDIF 8 END FUNCTION </pre>

CALLING A SUBROUTINE (PROCEDURE/FUNCTION)	
	<pre> multiply_nums (5,12) pwd_result ← CheckPwd() </pre> <p><i>In order to use the procedure or function then you need to 'call' them and providing any inputs in brackets. The inputs to the procedure multiply_nums are 5 and 12. The expression returned from the function CheckPwd() is stored in the variable name pwd_result.</i></p>

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PARAMETERS AND ARGUMENTS

The example shows the use of parameters. These are 'placeholders' inside the brackets after the name of the subroutine. Not all subroutines will need a parameter value.

The CheckPwd () subroutine shown on the previous page has no parameters so the brackets are empty.

The **parameters** used in the first subroutine are **a**, **b**; in the second subroutine the parameter is **n**.

Arguments are the actual values we use when we 'call' the function, as shown here.

```
FUNCTION average
    avg = (a + b) / 2
    RETURN avg
END FUNCTION

exam_result ← average(75, 85)

n ← USERINPUT

PROCEDURE greet
    PRINT('Welcome')
END PROCEDURE

greetings('Ashley')
```

Key Terms

Nesting	This means combining code together; for example, putting a WHILE loop or an IF statement inside another IF statement.
Array	An array is a data structure that allows us to store multiple values with a single name, e.g. vw_cars ← ["Up!", "Polo", "Golf", "T-Roc", "Tiguan"]
Subroutine	Subroutines are clear, independent blocks of code within a program that can be called and accessed by the main program.
Call	The term used to describe 'starting' the subroutine.
Return	Subroutines that return values (to be used elsewhere in the code) are called functions. Subroutines that do not return any values (e.g. printing out code) are called procedures.

Complete Exercise 15: Guessing Game using Subroutines

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STRING HANDLING

A string is a sequence of characters; these could be letters, numbers, punctuation always surrounded by single or double quotation marks.

STRING LENGTH	
LEN (StringExp)	LEN ('the quick brown fox') will evaluate to 19, which includes three

POSITION OF A CHARACTER	
POSITION (StringExp, CharExp)	POSITION('the quick brown f will evaluate to 4 <i>REMEMBER: as with arrays, exam paper is specifically stated otherwise.</i>

SUBSTRING	
SUBSTRING (IntExp, IntExp, StringExp)	SUBSTRING(4,14,'the quick b will evaluate to 'quick brow' <i>Note: the first parameter indicates the s the second parameter indicates the end</i>

CONCATENATION	
StringExp + String Exp	'the quick brown fox' + ' jump will evaluate to 'the quick brown fox jumped

Complete Exercise 16: Strings and Substrings

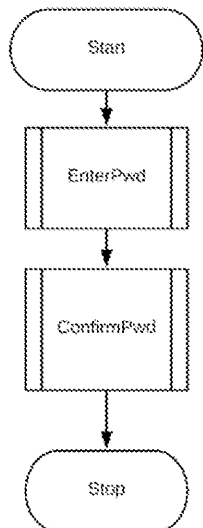
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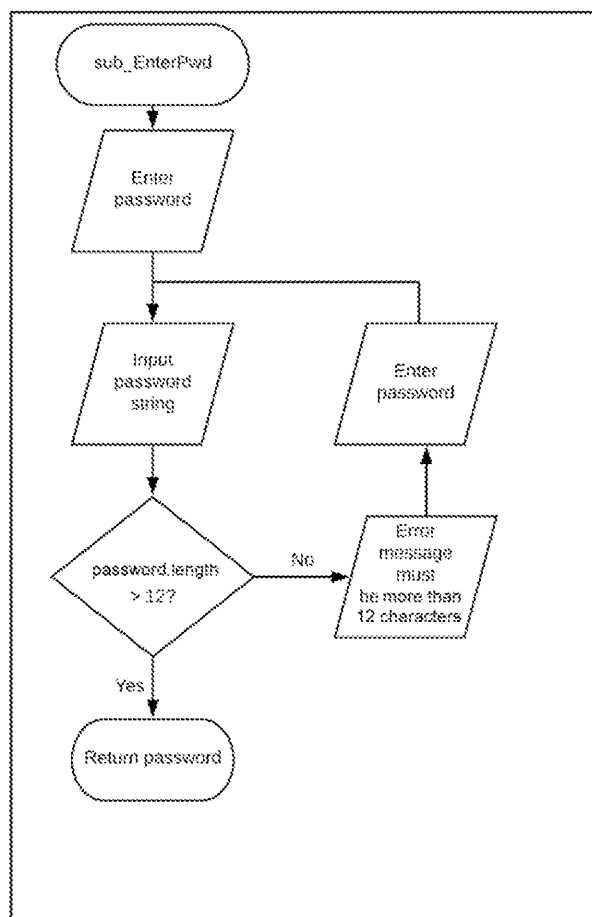
FLOW CHARTS AND SUBROUTINES

We have looked in detail at how to write a subroutine in pseudocode and how to show these structures using flow charts.

Main Program



Subroutines



EXPLANATION

The first subroutine, **sub_EnterPwd**, asks for the password and checks that it is longer than 12 characters. If it is not, an error message is displayed. This is then looped until a password of over 12 characters is entered.

The password is returned from this subroutine and passed as an argument into the second subroutine.

The second subroutine, **sub_ConfirmPwd**, then asks for the password to be confirmed. If the password string and the confirm string do not match, an error message is shown and the user is asked to re-enter the password. Again, this loops until the correct matching string is entered.

Complete Exercise 17: Area Tester
Complete Crossword Four

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STRING AND CHARACTER CONVERSION

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STRING TO INTEGER	
STRING_TO_INT (StringExp)	STRING_TO_INT ("24") evaluates to the integer 24
STRING TO REAL	
STRING_TO_REAL (StringExp)	STRING_TO_REAL ("24.25") evaluates to the real 24.25
INTEGER TO STRING	
INT_TO_STRING (IntExp)	INT_TO_STRING (74) evaluates to the string "74"
COMMENTS	
Single line comments	# code written to the right of
Multiline comments	# comment # additional comments
REAL TO STRING	
REAL_TO_STRING (RealExp)	REAL_TO_STRING (19.56) evaluates to the string "19.56"
CONVERT A STRING TO UPPER/ LOWERCASE	
TOUPPER (StringExp)	postcode ← TOUPPER(postcode)
TOLOWER (StringExp)	quiz_answer ← TOLOWER(quiz_ar
CHAR TO CODE	
CHAR_TO_CODE (CharExp)	CHAR_TO_CODE ('G') evaluates to 71 using ASCII/Unicode
CODE TO CHAR	
CODE_TO_CHAR(IntExp)	CODE_TO_CHAR (103) evaluates to 'g' using ASCII/Unicode

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SCOPE OF VARIABLES, CONSTANTS AND SUBROUTINES

You may have heard of this term in your lessons on programming. The scope of a variable, constant or subroutine is about where that variable, constant or subroutine can be used. It is important to understand scope or you may get unexpected results from your code.

There are two types:

- Local
 - This means that the variable, constant or subroutine can only be used where it is defined, e.g. inside a subroutine.
- Global
 - This means that the variable, constant or subroutine can be used anywhere in the program.

Example:

```

1  # These variables are in GLOBAL scope
2
3  x ← 15
4  y ← 23
5  G_total ← x + y
6
7
8  PROCEDURE AddNums(x,y)
9
10     # These variables are in LOCAL scope
11     x ← 82
12     y ← 19
13     L_total ← x + y
14     PRINT('The sum of x + y is ' + INT_TO_STRING(L_total))
15
16 END PROCEDURE
17
18 AddNums(x,y)
19
20 PRINT('The sum of x + y is ' + INT_TO_STRING(G_total))

```

The output from the subroutine AddNums(x, y) would be:

```
'The sum of x + y is 101'
```

Although the subroutine takes in the two parameters, x and y, which are GLOBAL, INSIDE the code block with the same name will take precedence, i.e. will be used instead of the GLOBAL variables. However, if removed, there are NO local variables. The subroutine will then use the GLOBAL variables.

The output from the code on Line 20 will be:

```
'The sum of x + y is 38'
```

The code on Line 20 is not part of any code block and so will use the GLOBAL variables. This example shows the use of the same variable name in both the GLOBAL and LOCAL scopes. You should try to use different meaningful identifiers/names for your variables as this will make your code clearer and easier to understand.

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DEALING WITH ERRORS: VALIDATION TECHNIQUE

When you are planning and designing algorithms it is important to think about all the errors that could occur in the logic of your design and write solutions that will deal with them without crashing the program. This is called 'validation'.

You have already seen examples and exercises where the code checked the length of the data entered and continued until the data entered matched a specified minimum length, or in Exercise 1.2 where the data entered was in a certain range.

The example below prompts the user to enter the data in integers, but we also need to handle the case where the user enters 'fifteen' instead of 15 to make sure our algorithm will not fail.

```
1 PRINT(' Enter your age: ')
2 age ← USERINPUT
```

CATCHING ERRORS

A common way of dealing with incorrect data types being entered is using error handling. In programming, these are called 'exceptions', which you may have already encountered in your programming lessons. When an 'exceptional' happens we can 'catch' the error and output a message or write code to deal with it.

In the simple example above we want to:

1. Ask the user for data
2. If the data type entered is not an integer, output an error message
3. Loop back to No. 1

```
valid ← False

PRINT(' Enter your age: ')
REPEAT
    age ← USERINPUT
    TRY
        ageNumber ← STRING_TO_INT(age) # the type is integer
        valid ← True
        IF ageNumber < 16 THEN
            PRINT('You cannot drive anything yet')
        ELSE IF ageNumber >= 16 AND ageNumber < 18 THEN
            PRINT('You can drive a moped at 16 and a car at 18')
        ELSE
            PRINT('You can now drive any vehicle')
        ENDIF
    CATCH
        PRINT('Please enter age as a number in years')
UNTIL valid
```

The code in the TRY block is executed

If it fails (the age entered is not a number) then the code jumps to the CATCH block

The REPEAT... UNTIL loop continues until integers are entered as the age variable and the value of the flag variable valid to True and the REPEAT loop ends.

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Another simple example is a 'presence check'. This means checking that some data is present, for example, when asking for data such as a password or a name.

```
valid ← False

PRINT('Enter your name')
WHILE not valid
    name ← USERINPUT
    IF LEN(name)= 0 THEN
        PRINT('You have not entered any text')
        PRINT('Enter your name')
    ELSE
        valid ← True
    ENDIF
ENDWHILE
```

In this example, the length of the input string is checked before the algorithm continues.

Another option is to 'cast' the USERINPUT to the data type you want by wrapping it in a function, e.g.

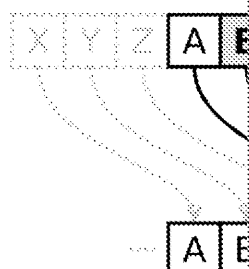
```
age ← STRING_TO_INT (USERINPUT)
```

Complete Exercise 18: Password Checker Validation

USING CHAR TO CODE AND CODE TO CHAR

A Caesar cipher is a simple way to encrypt messages using the numerical values of the letters. It shifts each letter by a set number of places along in the alphabet.

If we know that CHAR_TO_CODE (A) evaluates to 65 (using the ASCII/Unicode tables) then substituting the letter A with another 11 places further on in the alphabet simply involves adding 65 + 11, and using CODE_TO_CHAR (76) will evaluate to the letter L.



Complete Exercise 19: Encryption Cipher

RANDOM NUMBER GENERATION

RANDOM_INT(IntExp, IntExp)

```
options ← RANDOM_INT(5, 8)
# will generate 5, 6, 7 or 8)
```

Complete Exercise 20: Simple Battleships

Complete Exercise 20A: Battleships Extension

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APPROACHES TO PROBLEM-SOLVING

DECOMPOSITION

One of the most important skills in computer science is problem-solving. Computers do this for themselves and, although it can compute at faster and faster speeds, a computer has always been designed and developed by humans.

The term 'problem-solving' means the ability to analyse problems, consider a range of possible solutions, choose the chosen solution clearly, perhaps in the form of an algorithm that can be translated into code.

An important technique used by computer scientists to analyse a complex problem is to break a problem down into smaller and smaller parts, until each part becomes a problem that has already been solved. We have already done this earlier in this booklet when we split problems up into input, processing and output in order to make them easier to solve.

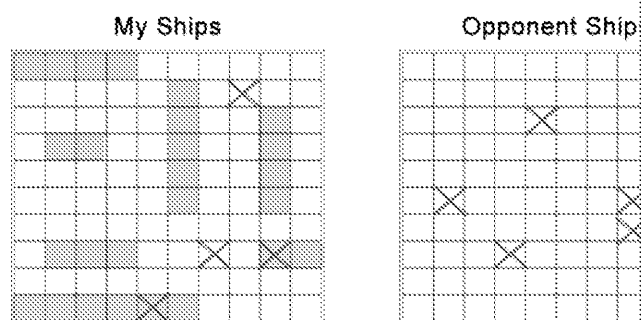
We can look at how we might plan our own battleships game starting with identifying the tasks that need to be done.

1. Create a game board
2. Add ships to the board
3. Record hits on opponent board
4. Record hits on own board
5. Organise player turns
6. How to calculate when a player wins

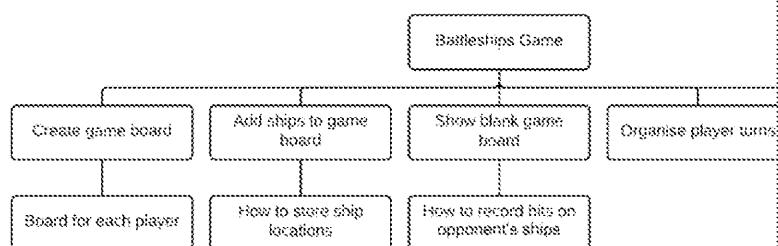
We can then look at each task, and consider: *Can it be solved in one go or does it need to be broken down further?*

1. Create game board

- a. The game board must show hits on opponents and ship position, and hit positions.
 - i. Display must change the game boards with each player turn.
 - ii. Display must show where hits have landed for opponents.
 - iii. Display must show where opponent's hits have landed and whether ships have been sunk.



Each problem must be broken down into smaller and smaller sub-problems until it is solved. Some people prefer to break up a problem by using charts like the one below. In gaming software often have different teams of programmers working on different parts of the game. One thing each team needs to know about another part of the game is how to join or connect the parts.



The technical term for this process is **decomposition**.

Complete Exercise 21: RPG Game Inventory

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ABSTRACTION

Abstraction is an important skill that is used when solving complex problems; it is unnecessary detail to focus on what is important in order to solve the problem.

There are many different examples of abstraction in everyday life; for example, when driving I do not need to know how the engine works, how the power from the engine is transmitted to the wheels – I just need to know how to operate the car.

When you get in from school and need a quick snack, you do not need to know how to use a microwave in order to heat up / cook your snack; just how to operate the microwave.

Here is a classic brain-teaser to demonstrate how details can be removed to make a problem easier to solve.

ABSTRACTION EXAMPLE 1

You have a fox, a chicken and a sack of grain.

You must cross a river, which is 20 metres wide, using a red rowing boat with only one of them at a time. If you leave the fox with the chicken he will eat it; if you leave the chicken with the grain he will eat it.

How can you get all three across safely?

We will call the side of the river you are on bank A, and the side you want to move to bank B.

There is a simple computational approach for solving this problem. We could try a brute force approach, which means trying every possibility, but logical thinking will help us find the solution more efficiently.

We will first remove all the irrelevant detail from the problem:

- *Is the width of the river important?*
- *Is the colour of the boat important?*
- *Is it important that it is a rowing boat?*

We can now start with the following information:

1. River banks are A and B
2. Fox = F
3. Chicken = C
4. Grain = G

At the moment we have this:

A B
FCG

We want to end up with this:

A B
FCG

Step 1: Take the chicken across to bank B as the fox will not eat the grain but it will eat the chicken.

How many steps are left? What are they?

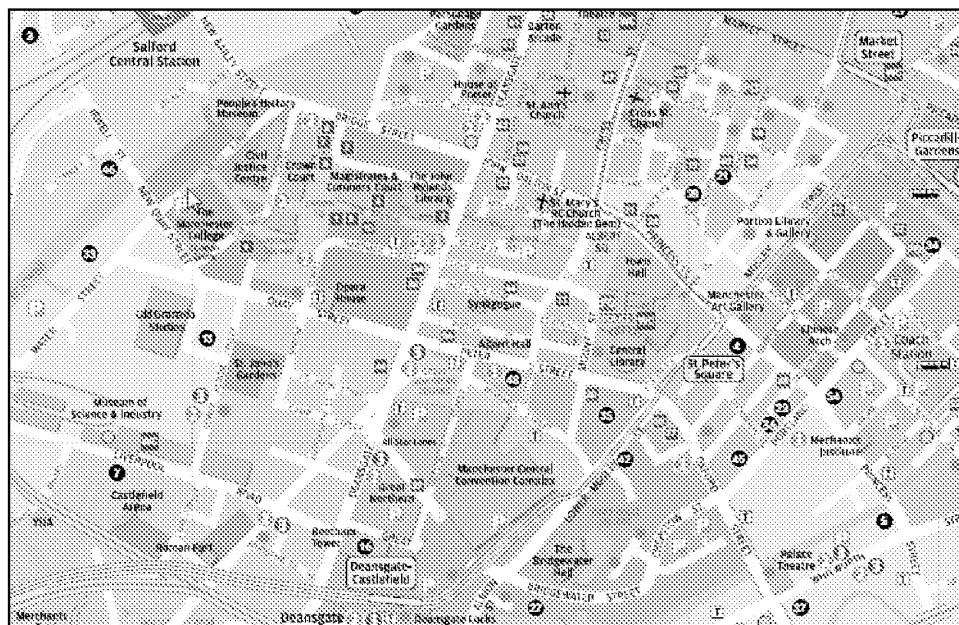
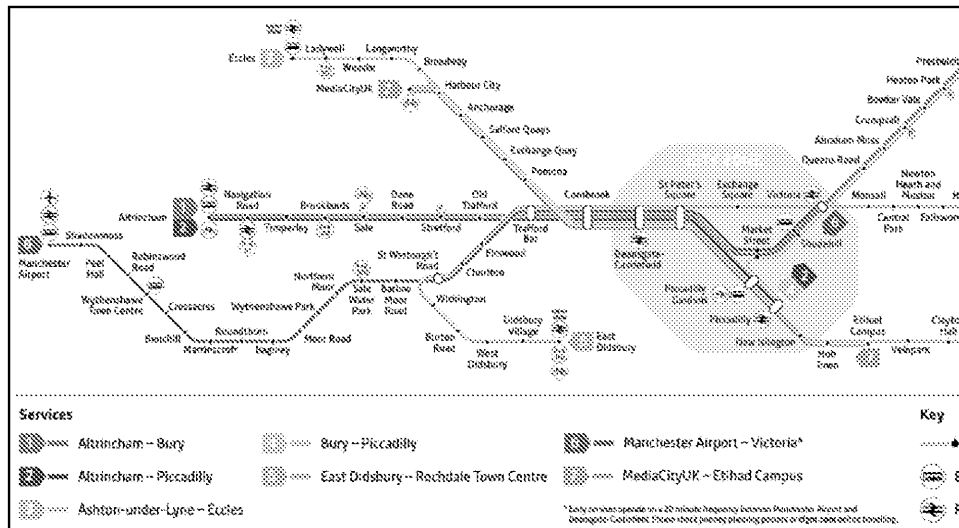
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ABSTRACTION EXAMPLE 2

If you have ever travelled on the London Underground, then you will be familiar with the map below. The original was designed by Henry Beck, an electrical engineer. He created the London Underground in 1933 based on a circuit board layout; now many maps use this style.

Here is a current version of the Metrolink tram system in Manchester. Below you can see how the city centre actually looks like, with some of the stations listed in the first map.



It is obvious that the first map is easier and clearer to read as all the irrelevant details have been removed.

Complete Exercise 22: Music Gig

Key Terms

Decomposition	This means breaking a problem down into smaller sub-problems that can be solved.
String	A sequence of characters, which could be letters, numbers, punctuation, etc. It is surrounded by single or double quotation marks.
Concatenation	This means merging or joining two strings together using the + operator.
Abstraction	The process of removing unnecessary detail from a problem to focus on the essential parts.

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EFFICIENCY OF ALGORITHMS

You should now be aware that algorithms are a fundamental part of problem-solving and there may be several different algorithms available which will all solve the same problem.

So how do we choose which is best?

There are two different measures that are used to measure the efficiency of an algorithm:

- Time – the amount of time the algorithm takes to complete.
- Space – the amount of memory that the computer needs to use to complete the algorithm.

For example, if you have to solve a problem of finding a person's details from 50,000 records, one until you find the record you need, this would not take very long. However, if there are thousands and thousands of data records, the time needed to solve the problem grows.

Looking at each record would eventually find the record you are searching for or not. This type of approach is known as a **brute force** approach as it solves the problem by trying every possibility. The number of records is not efficient; the time taken to complete the search grows as the number of records to be searched grows.

Some algorithms are suitable for small data sets but can then become very inefficient for large data sets. This can be due to the way the code has actually been written.

Example: The code below will sort the data in the original array into two new arrays based on the condition set in the IF statement.

```
1  nums ← [4,7,12,13,17,19,23]
2  odds ← []
3  evens ← []
4
5  FOR i ← 1 TO LEN(nums)-1
6      IF i MOD 2 = 0 THEN
7          evens ← evens + i
8      ELSE
9          odds ← odds + i
10     ENDIF
11 ENDFOR
```

```
1  nums ← [4,7,12,13,17,19,23]
2  odds ← [i FOR i ← 1 TO LEN(nums)-1 IF i MOD 2 = 1]
3  evens ← [i FOR i ← 1 TO LEN(nums)-1 IF i MOD 2 = 0]
```

The second example uses less code to achieve the same result, i.e. an array of odd and even numbers.

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EFFICIENT CODE PROOF

If the pseudocode is translated into Python, the code can be tested to see which is more efficient. The examples below use a built-in function that enables the two approaches to be compared.

The code has been amended into functions to make the time comparison easier. The number of times each function is sorted has been increased.

```

1      def sort_odds_evens_lc():
2          """sorts array using list comprehension"""
3
4          nums = [5, 6, 10, 16, 18, 24, 25, 30, 34, 36, 37,
5                  64, 68, 75, 77, 80, 81, 83, 85, 88, 93,
6                  95, 96, 99, 100]
7          evens = [i for i in nums if i % 2 == 0]
8          odds = [i for i in nums if i % 2 != 0]
9
10         def sort_odds_evens_loop():
11             """sorts array using a loop"""
12
13             nums = [5, 6, 10, 16, 18, 24, 25, 30, 34, 36, 37,
14                     64, 68, 75, 77, 80, 81, 83, 85, 88, 93,
15                     95, 96, 99, 100]
16             odds = []
17             evens = []
18             for i in range(0, len(nums)):
19                 if nums[i] % 2 == 0:
20                     evens.append(nums[i])
21                 else:
22                     odds.append(nums[i])
23
24         import timeit
25         print(timeit.timeit(sort_odds_evens_lc, number=10000))
26         print(timeit.timeit(sort_odds_evens_loop, number=10000))

```

The code on Lines 23 to 25 runs each function 10,000 times to get the average speed of execution for each showing the function with less code is more efficient.

We will look at the relative efficiency of the linear search and the binary search in the next section.

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SEARCHING ALGORITHM

There are two types of searches that you will need to understand for your exam: linear and binary searches. You will also need to understand the differences between them.

We have already talked about searching for names in a set of data records to find a specific name. We will now look at the mechanics of this type of search in more detail.

LINEAR SEARCH

A linear search is the simplest type of search; it looks at each data item in your data set until the item you are searching for OR reaches the end of the list.

Here is an example of a linear search using a small array of names.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Keiran	Taisha	Emily	Wyatt	Ryan	Zoe	Bethany

Note: The top row shows the INDEX value of each name in the array.

If we are searching to see if the name 'Zoe' is in our list, the algorithm will work like this:

```
1  PROCEDURE search
2      found ← False
3
4      FOR index ← 0 TO 6
5          IF list[index] = 'Zoe' THEN
6              found ← True
7          PRINT index
8          ELSE
9              index ← index + 1
10         ENDIF
11     ENDFOR
12     IF found = True THEN
13         PRINT('Zoe found at index ' + index)
14     ENDIF
15 END PROCEDURE
```

Step 1:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Keiran	Taisha	Emily	Wyatt	Ryan	Zoe	Bethany

The algorithm starts looking at the data in **index** position 0 in the array.

If the data item at that position, 'Keiran', matches the **name** 'Zoe', then the item has been found and the search will stop.

```
FOR index ← 0
IF list[index] = 'Zoe' THEN
    found ← True
    PRINT index
ELSE
    index ← index + 1
ENDIF
```

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Step 2:

We can see that the data at index position 0 does not match the **name** 'Zoe' so the ELSE part of the IF statement and executes Line 9.

The **index** value is now 1. The algorithm loops again and now checks **index** position 1.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Keiran	Taisha	Emily	Wyatt	Ryan	Zoe	Bethany

The FOR loop will continue to add 1 onto the **index** value each time the item in the list does not match the **name**.

```
FOR index = 0 TO 6
  IF list[index] = name THEN
    found = True
    PRINT "Found"
  ELSE
    index = index + 1
  ENDIF
NEXT index
```

Step 3:

When the index value is equal to 5 the data item at that position in the array will be found. The found flag on Line 6 will be changed to True and the algorithm will output 'Found'.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Keiran	Taisha	Emily	Wyatt	Ryan	Zoe	Bethany

```
FOR index = 0 TO 6
  IF list[index] = name THEN
    found = True
    PRINT "Found"
  ELSE
    index = index + 1
  ENDIF
NEXT index
```

Step 4:

The algorithm will continue to loop through the rest of the array to complete the FOR loop instructions.

The algorithm will then move to Line 12 and find that the value of **found** is True, and the algorithm will then finish.

Can you spot any inefficiency in this algorithm?

It should be clear that our algorithm should stop searching when the search item has been found and not continue to Step 4.

```
FOR index = 0 TO 6
  IF list[index] = name THEN
    found = True
    PRINT "Found"
  ELSE
    index = index + 1
  ENDIF
NEXT index
IF found = True THEN
  PRINT "Found"
ENDIF
```

Complete Exercise 23: Fill in the Blanks

Complete Exercise 24: Linear Searches and Trace Tables

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BINARY SEARCH

A binary search works by repeatedly reducing, splitting the data set into two halves. One half cannot contain the search item. This reduces the number of comparisons and the efficiency of the algorithm.

Unlike a linear search algorithm, which will work whether the data is sorted into order, binary search will only work on an ordered list.

Here is our array of names; we are searching for 'Zoe' again.

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Adam	Bethany	Darryl	Emily	Grace	Keiran	Ryan

Step 1:

The variable values for the search are set up in Lines 7, 8 and 9. This ensures that the search will only look at index positions from 0 to 9.

7	
8	
9	

```

1 target ← USERINPUT
2
3 nameArray ←
4 ['Adam', 'Bethany', 'Darryl', 'Emily', 'Grace', 'Keiran', 'Ryan']
5
6 PROCEDURE binary_Search(item, list)
7     found ← False
8     first ← 0
9     last ← LEN(list)-1
10    WHILE NOT found AND first ≤ last
11        Midpoint ← (first + last) DIV 2
12        IF list[Midpoint] = item THEN
13            found = True
14            PRINT(' Name found at list index '+INT_TO_STRING(Midpoint))
15        ELSE
16            IF item < list[Midpoint] THEN
17                last ← Midpoint-1
18            ELSE
19                first ← Midpoint + 1
20            ENDIF
21        ENDIF
22    ENDWHILE
23    IF found = False THEN
24        PRINT(' Item not found')
25    END PROCEDURE
26
27 binary_Search(target,nameArray)
28

```

Step 2:

The WHILE loop checks that the item has not been found AND that there are still items to search before setting the midpoint value. Line 11 adds 0 + 9 and then uses integer division to find the midpoint position 4.

10	WHILE NOT found
11	Midpoint ← (first + last) DIV 2

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Adam	Bethany	Darryl	Emily	Grace	Keiran	Ryan

↑
Midpoint

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Step 3:

The next step checks whether the item has been found and prints out a suitable message. If the variable **found** has changed to True, the conditions for the WHILE loop are no longer true.

```

12      IF list[Midpoint] = item THEN
13          found = True
14          PRINT(' Name found at list index ' + IN

```

Step 4:

If the search item is not found here, then a check is made to see whether the item is in the list BELOW this starting midpoint value in the ordered list. The name we are looking for is 'Darryl'. The code is now executed. The value of our variable **first** now becomes 5.

```

12      IF list[Midpoint] = item THEN
13          found = True
14          PRINT(' Name found at list index ' + IN
15      ELSE
16          IF item < list[Midpoint] THEN
17              last ← Midpoint-1
18          ELSE
19              first ← Midpoint + 1
20          ENDIF

```

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Adam	Bethany	Darryl	Emily	Grace	Keiran	Ryan

These items are no longer part of the search

Step 5:

The item has not yet been found and there are still items to be searched in the list. The midpoint now evaluates to 7 ((5 + 9) DIV 2).

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Adam	Bethany	Darryl	Emily	Grace	Keiran	Ryan

Step 6:

Step 3 is repeated again. As the item we are looking for is not in the midpoint, Step 4 is executed. The midpoint now evaluates to 8 ((8 + 9) DIV 2).

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Adam	Bethany	Darryl	Emily	Grace	Keiran	Ryan

Step 7:

Step 3 is repeated again. As the item we are looking for is not in the Midpoint, Step 4 is executed. The midpoint now evaluates to 9 ((9 + 9) DIV 2).

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Adam	Bethany	Darryl	Emily	Grace	Keiran	Ryan

Step 8:

Step 3 is repeated again. This time the data at index position 9 matches our search item. The WHILE loop as neither condition remains true.

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LINEAR SEARCH VS BINARY SEARCH

COMPARISON CRITERIA	LINEAR SEARCH	
Advantages	(1) The data does not need to be sorted. (2) A linear search only needs access to the data to be sorted sequentially so less memory space is needed. (3) A linear search only needs to make equality comparisons.	For a search will be
Disadvantages	A linear search is a sequential search. As the size of the array to be searched grows, the time taken to search will increase at the same rate.	(1) T (2) T at m (3) A G

Key Terms

Time efficiency	The number of steps to complete the algorithm.
Space efficiency	The amount of memory required to complete the algorithm.
Brute force	A process that tries all possible alternatives to find a solution time to complete.
Linear search	Used where data is unsorted. Each item in an array is compared item is found or the end of the array is reached.
Binary search	Can only be used with a sorted array. Divides the array in search term with the 'midpoint' each time. The half which can discarded. This continues until the item is found or the array

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EFFICIENT SEARCHING PROOF

Again we can convert our search methods into Python to prove which is more efficient. We will compare the two searches perform by running some simple tests and checking the speed of each.

```

1  def search_linear():
2      """linear search of an ordered list"""
3      arr = [11, 22, 33, 44, 55, 66, 77, 88, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150]
4      n = 127
5      found = False
6      comps = 0
7      for i in range(0, len(arr)-1):
8          if arr[i] == n:
9              found = True
10             print("Item found at list position {}".format(i))
11             print("Number of comparisons = {}".format(comps))
12             break
13         else:
14             i += 1
15             comps += 1
16     if not found:
17         print("Item not found")
18
19     search_linear()
20

```

Item found at
Number of comparisons

The function has been modified to count the comparisons made in the search. Every time the item is found the variable on Line 15 is incremented and the number is displayed when the item is found.

```

1  def binary_search():
2      """binary search function"""
3      n = [11, 22, 33, 44, 55, 66, 77, 88, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150]
4      t = 127
5      found = False
6      first = 0
7      last = len(n)-1
8      comps = 1
9
10     while not found and first <= last:
11         mid_pt = (first + last) // 2
12         if n[mid_pt] == t:
13             found = True
14             print("Item found at list index {}".format(mid_pt))
15             print("Number of comparisons = {}".format(comps))
16         else:
17             comps += 1
18             if t < n[mid_pt]:
19                 last = mid_pt - 1
20             else:
21                 first = mid_pt + 1
22     if not found:
23         print("Item not found")
24
25     binary_search()
26

```

Item found at
Number of comparisons

The number of comparisons needed to find the same item in the same array is much less than the linear search. This means that as the size of the array increases the amount of comparisons grow making the linear search slower than a binary search. If we use the **timeit** module to clear (Linear = 0.073... vs Binary = 0.024...)

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SORTING ALGORITHMS

There are two sorting methods that you need to understand for your exam: the bubble sort.

The simplest type of sorting algorithm is the bubble sort.

BUBBLE SORT: HOW IT WORKS

The bubble sort works on an array of data; these could be integers, real numbers

1. Starting at the beginning of the array (index position 0), the first element is compared with the next element.
2. If the first element is larger than the next element, the two are swapped.
3. Move one element to the right and compare the current element with the next element.
4. Repeat Step 2 and Step 3 until the end of the array is reached.
5. If no swaps have been made in the comparisons of the elements in the array, the array is sorted.
6. If not, repeat Steps 1 to 5 again.

Simple example:

5	1	12	-5	16	UNSORTED
5	1	12	-5	16	$5 > 1$, SWAP 5 and 1
1	5	12	-5	16	$5 < 12$, OK
1	5	12	-5	16	$12 > -5$, SWAP 12 and -5
1	5	-5	12	16	$12 < 16$, OK
START AGAIN					
1	5	-5	12	16	$1 < 5$, OK
1	5	-5	12	16	$5 > -5$, SWAP 5 and -5
1	-5	5	12	16	$5 < 12$, OK
START AGAIN					
1	-5	5	12	16	$1 > -5$, SWAP 1 and -5
-5	1	5	12	16	$1 < 5$, OK
START AGAIN					
-5	1	5	12	16	$-5 < 1$, OK
-5	1	5	12	16	SORTED

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PSEUDOCODE FOR THE BUBBLE SORT

This example will use an array of names; we will look at how the algorithm works

0	1	2	3	4	5
Keiran	Taisha	Emily	Wyatt	Ryan	Zoe

```

1 nameArray ← ['Keiran', 'Taisha', 'Emily', 'Wyatt', 'Ryan', 'Zoe']
2
3 swapped ← True
4
5 WHILE swapped = True
6     swapped ← False
7     FOR x ← 0 TO LEN(nameArray)-1
8         IF nameArray[x] > nameArray[x + 1]
9             temp ← nameArray[x]
10            nameArray[x] ← nameArray [x + 1]
11            nameArray[x + 1] ← temp
12            swapped ← True
13        ENDIF
14    ENDFOR
15 ENDWHILE

```

Step 1:

A flag variable called 'swapped' is used to control the WHILE loop and determine i.e. when a pass has been made and there were no swaps needed. This is initially control the WHILE loop.

```

1 nameArray ← ['Keiran', 'Taisha', 'Emily', 'Wyatt', 'Ryan', 'Zoe']
2
3 swapped ← True
4
5 WHILE swapped = True

```

Step 2:

Line 6 sets the value of the 'flag' swapped to False. This means that if the array is running the WHILE loop is no longer true and the sort will end.

Line 8 starts to compare the array items in index positions 0 and 1. In this example, alphabet, so no swap is needed and the code moves to Line 14 and the value of x is

0	1	2	3	4	5
Keiran	Taisha	Emily	Wyatt	Ryan	Zoe

```

5 WHILE swapped = True
6     swapped ← False
7     FOR x ← 0 TO LEN(nameArray)-1
8         IF nameArray[x] > nameArray[x + 1]
9             temp ← nameArray[x]
10            nameArray[x] ← nameArray [x + 1]
11            nameArray[x + 1] ← temp
12            swapped ← True
13        ENDIF
14    ENDFOR
15 ENDWHILE

```

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Step 3:

The WHILE loop iterates again with x being incremented (increased) to have the between index items 1 and 2.

As Emily comes before Taisha in the alphabet, Line 9 stores the value at index position 1. Line 10 puts the data at index position 2 into index position 1. Line 11 copies the value at index position 2. The 'flag' variable **swapped** is also changed to True as a swap has occurred.

The array now looks like this:

0	1	2	3	4	5
Keiran	Emily	Taisha	Wyatt	Ryan	Zoe

The process continues until all the pairs have been compared. This is called the first pass of the bubble sort algorithm. The array has changed as shown here.

0	1	2	3	4	5
Keiran	Taisha	Emily	Wyatt	Ryan	Zoe

0	1	2	3	4	5
Keiran	Emily	Taisha	Wyatt	Ryan	Zoe

0	1	2	3	4	5
Keiran	Emily	Taisha	Wyatt	Ryan	Zoe

0	1	2	3	4	5
Keiran	Emily	Taisha	Ryan	Wyatt	Zoe

0	1	2	3	4	5
Keiran	Emily	Taisha	Ryan	Wyatt	Zoe

Result of first **pass** of the bubble sort

As you can see, the last two items are now in order in the correct position. The value of our 'flag' **swapped** is still equal to True.

The bubble sort algorithm will need to make several passes or traversals of the array.

SECOND PASS

0	1	2	3	4	5
Emily	Keiran	Taisha	Ryan	Wyatt	Zoe

0	1	2	3	4	5
Emily	Keiran	Taisha	Ryan	Wyatt	Zoe

0	1	2	3	4	5
Emily	Keiran	Ryan	Taisha	Wyatt	Zoe

0	1	2	3	4	5
Emily	Keiran	Ryan	Taisha	Wyatt	Zoe

0	1	2	3	4	5
Emily	Keiran	Ryan	Taisha	Wyatt	Zoe

FINAL PASS

0	1	2	3
Emily	Keiran	Taisha	Ryan

0	1	2	3
Emily	Keiran	Taisha	Ryan

0	1	2	3
Emily	Keiran	Ryan	Taisha

0	1	2	3
Emily	Keiran	Ryan	Taisha

0	1	2	3
Emily	Keiran	Ryan	Taisha

Why is the final pass needed when the data is all sorted after the second pass?

The second pass involved a swap between Ryan and Taisha which left the 'flag' variable equal to True. The bubble sort algorithm must run one last time to prove that no more swaps are needed before the array is sorted.

Complete Exercise 25: Bubble Sort Exercises

Complete Exercise 26: Put the Bubble Sort Flow Chart in Order

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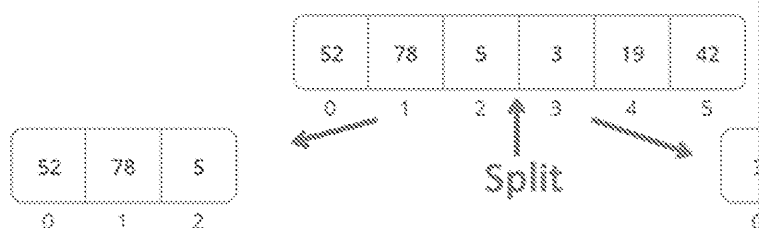


MERGE SORT: HOW IT WORKS

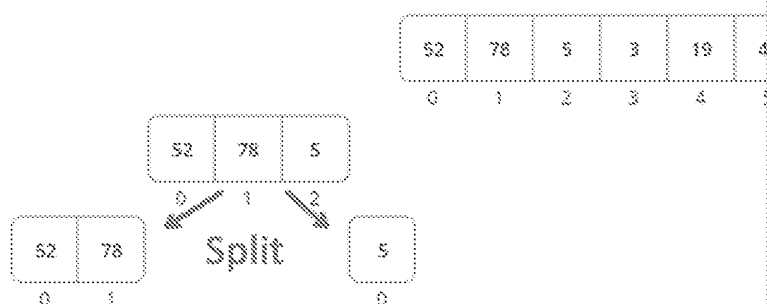
The merge sort is much more complex than the bubble sort and is known as a 'divide and conquer' algorithm. It splits up the data array to be sorted into smaller sub-arrays until the sub-array has only one element. The sub-arrays are then sorted and recombined into a sorted array.

Example:

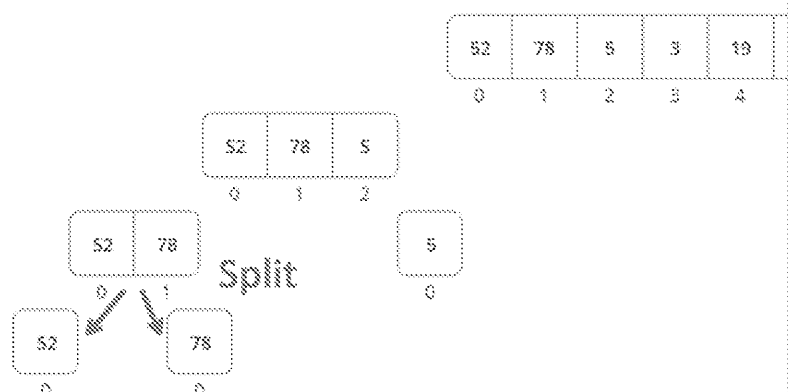
Step 1: Split the array in half at the midpoint.



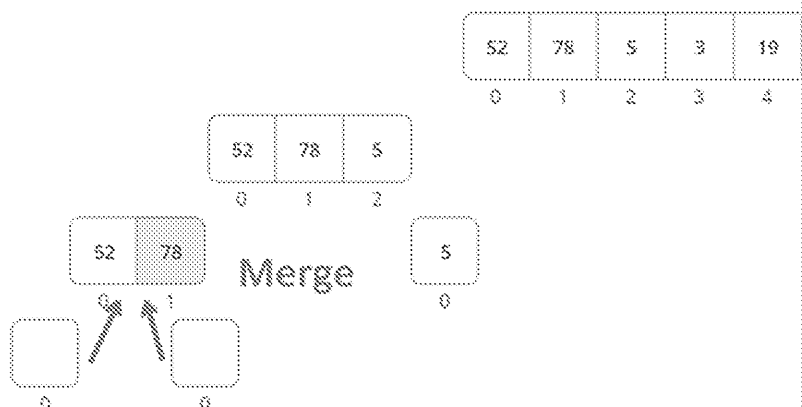
Step 2: Select the left sub-array and split again.



Step 3: Select the left sub-array and split again so that the sub-array has just one element.



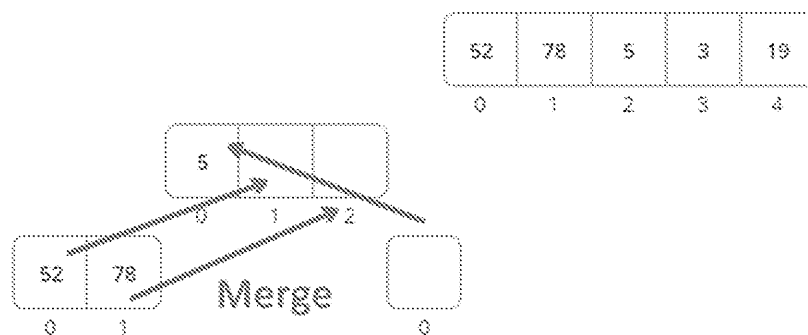
Step 4: Merge the sorted data back into an array.



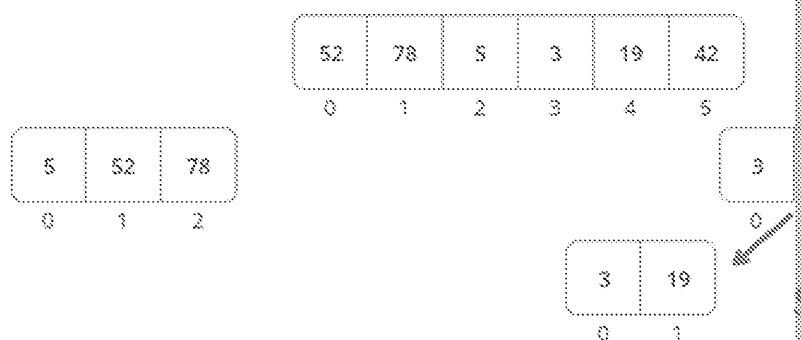
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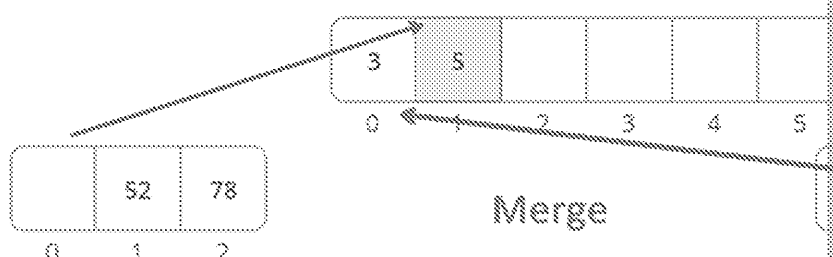
Step 5: Combine the sorted array and merge together with the smallest item first



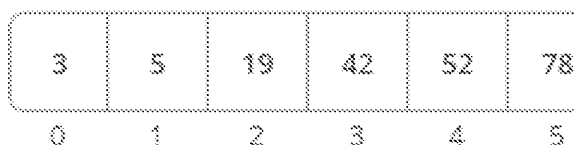
Step 6: Repeat the process with the right sub-array.



Step 7: When each sub-array has been sorted, the sub-arrays are then merged by comparing the values in each sub-array and choosing the smallest.



Step 8: When all data has been merged back into the original array, the data is sorted.



MERGE SORT SUMMARY

1. Divide the original array into two sub-arrays
2. Continue dividing all sub-arrays until they have just one element
3. Compare the element in the left sub-array with the element in the right sub-array
4. Add the smallest to the new array
5. Move to the next element in the sub-array you just used
6. If the sub-array is empty, add all elements from the other sub-array in the new array
7. Otherwise, repeat from 3 until one list is empty

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PSEUDOCODE FOR THE MERGE SORT

We will use a simple array of numbers: [63, 12, 5, 27, 31, 45].

```

1  PROCEDURE mergeSort(dataArray)
2
3      IF LEN(dataArray) >1 THEN
4          mid ← LEN(dataArray) DIV 2
5          left ← dataArray[:mid]
6          right ← dataArray[mid:]
7          mergeSort(left)
8          mergeSort(right)

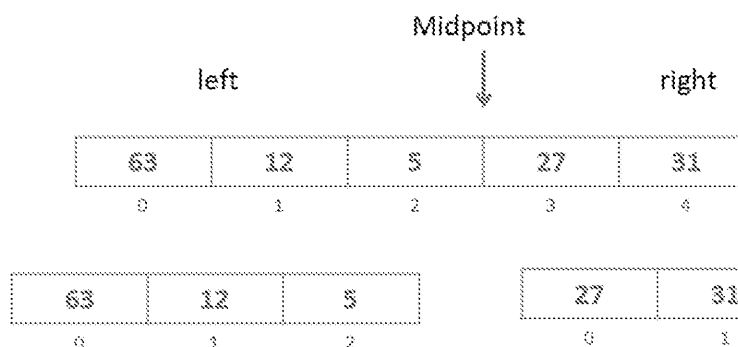
```

Step 1: Line 3 checks if the array is larger than one, if not the data is already sorted. If the array is larger than one, the code uses that value to split the `dataArray` into a left half and a right half and stores them in two variables.

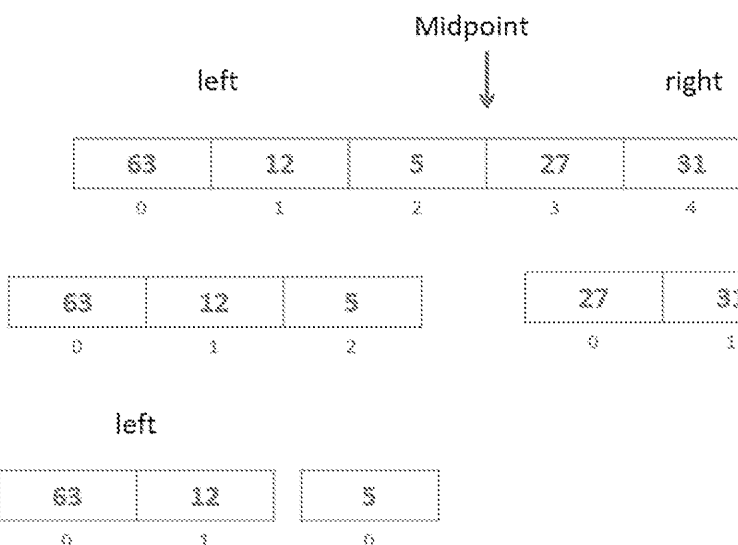
Step 2: This example uses a programming construct we have not yet seen called **recursion**, which is splitting a problem down into smaller versions of the same problem by calling the same subroutine on Lines 7 and 8.

In this case we are making the problem smaller by calling the **mergeSort** subroutine on the left and right halves of `dataArray` into the subroutine as the **parameter**.

Here is the current state of our array, **dataArray**:



Step 3: The process is now repeated from Line 3 as the **mergeSort subroutine** is using the **left** part of the original **dataArray**. The current state of the array now is [63, 12, 5] split in half again.

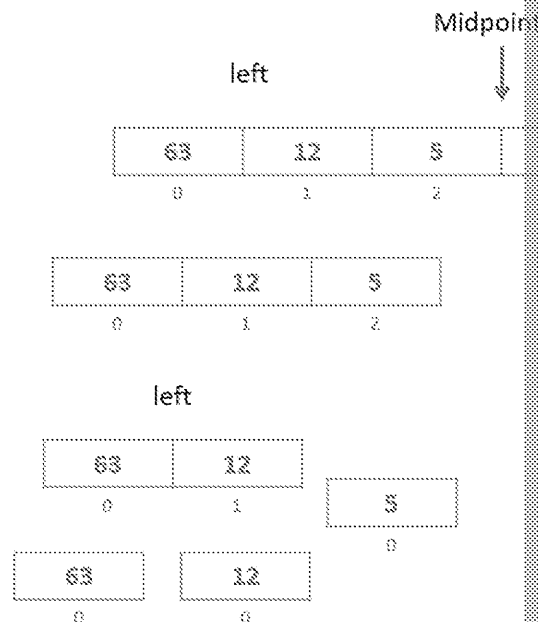


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Step 4: The process is repeated again as the **mergeSort** subroutine is called again in Line 7 now using the new **left** array, which has just two numbers in it.

The data on the **left** is now ready for merging back into order.



Step 5: The next part of the subroutine now sorts the data back into order, starting with the **left** array.

The subroutine uses three index variables, *i*, *j* and *k*, on Lines 9 to 11 to set the starting points for comparing and sorting the data back into the original **dataArray**.

The comparison will start with 63 and 12. 63 is greater than 12 (see Line 17) so it becomes the first item copied back into the **dataArray**.

The values of variables *i*, *j* and *k* are also incremented (Lines 15, 18 and 20).

Step 6: When the data on the left is sorted, the process of splitting and sorting will be repeated for the data on the right.

Note: Even though it looks as if the data array on the right is already sorted (the numbers in the right side of the array just happened to be in order), the whole process must be repeated.

```

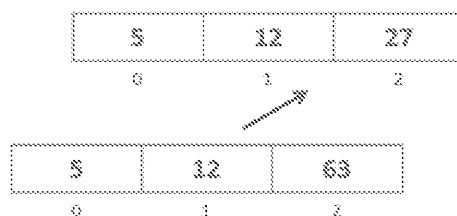
 9      i ← 0
10      j ← 0
11      k ← 0
12      WHILE i < LEN(left)
13          IF left[i] < right[j]
14              dataArray[k] ← left[i]
15              i ← i + 1
16          ELSE
17              dataArray[k] ← right[j]
18              j ← j + 1
19          ENDIF
20          k ← k + 1
21      ENDWHILE
22
23      WHILE i < LEN(left)
24          dataArray[k] ← left[i]
25          i ← i + 1
26          k ← k + 1
27      ENDWHILE
28
29      WHILE j < LEN(right)
30          dataArray[k] ← right[j]
31          j ← j + 1
32          k ← k + 1
33      ENDWHILE
34  ENDIF
35
36  END PROCEDURE
37
38  dataArray ← [63, 12, 5, 27]
39  results ← mergeSort(dataArray)
40  PRINT(results)

```

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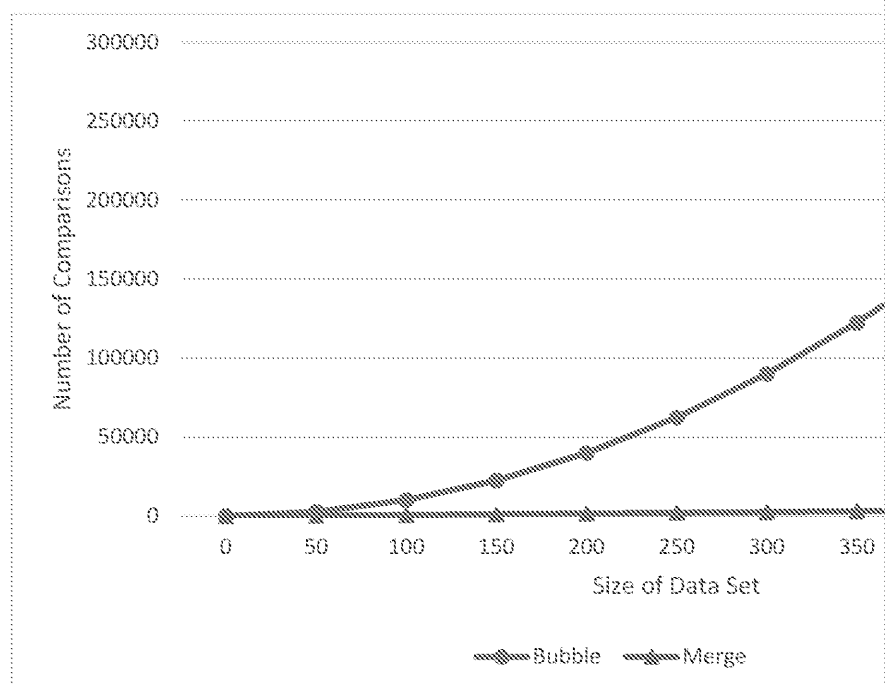
Step 7: The left and right arrays are now finally sorted into order by running the algorithm from Line 13 through to the end by comparing each item in the two arrays before copying them into the sorted **dataArray**.



BUBBLE SORT VS MERGE SORT

COMPARISON CRITERIA	BUBBLE SORT	
Advantages	(1) Very simple algorithm, easy to code. (2) Uses much less memory than a merge sort.	Much regard
Disadvantages	Slower algorithm than the merge sort.	(1) (2)

The chart below compares the bubble sort and the merge sort for the same data set. The merge sort is very efficient, regardless of the size of the data being sorted. The bubble sort is inefficient as the size of the data to be sorted grows.



Key Terms

Bubble sort	The sort works by comparing and swapping each pair of items that are not in order. This may take several passes through the array.
Pass	Each process of working through an array is known as a 'pass'.
Merge sort	This sort divides an array into smaller and smaller sub-arrays. The sub-arrays are then merged back in the correct order.
Divide and conquer	This is the term given to algorithms (searches and sorts) which divide a problem into smaller sub-problems which are easier to solve by using recursion. The solution is then combined back into the original problem as part of the subroutine.

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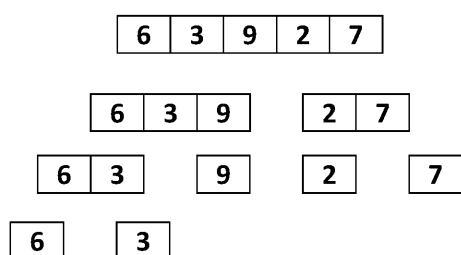
EXAMPLE EXAM QUESTION & SOLUTION:

Using the data array [6, 3, 9, 2, 7], demonstrate how the data would be sorted using bubble sort, showing each stage in the sorting process.

Bubble Sort: Solution

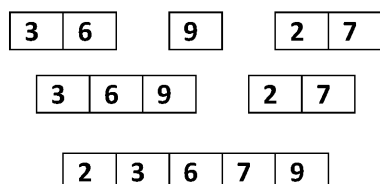
6	3	9	2	7
3	6	9	2	7
3	6	2	9	7
3	6	2	7	9
3	2	6	7	9
2	3	6	7	9

Merge Sort: Solution



Split the array into smallest elements

Merge the smallest elements back in order



Complete Exercise 27: Sorting and Searching
Complete Crossword Five

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