# Algorithms and data structures

Computing Methods for Experimental Physics and Data Analysis

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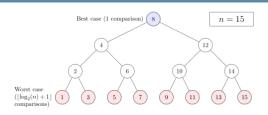
# What is an algorithm?

- ▷ Algorithm: a sequence of instructions to perform a computation
- > Algorithms can be expressed in several different ways
  - > Flowcarts
  - > Pseudo-code
- > The sequence of operation must be expressed unambigously
- Using the right algorithm sometimes makes all the difference between being able to attack a problem in a practical time or not

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# Example: sequential vs. binary search



- Problem: find an element in a sorted list
- Brute force: loop over the list until you find (or not) the target
- Binary search
  - Start from the middle (if that's the target you're done)
  - ▷ If the target is smaller (larger) than the element in the center, bisect the half-list on the left (right)
  - ▷ Iterate until you've found the target (or exhausted the list)
- ▷ Which algorithm is more efficient?
- > (This problem is germane to that of finding a person on the phonebook)



# Complexity of an algorithm

```
def find maximum(list):
2
         """Find the biggest element in a list.
3
        maximum = list [0]
4
        for value in list [1:]:
5
            if value > maximum:
                 maximum = value
8
        return maximum
9
    1 = [1, 2, 5, 98, 3, 1672, 6, 34, 651]
    print(find maximum(l))
13
    1672
14
```

- $\triangleright$  Example: find the largest element in a list of length n
- → How many fundamental instructions is this code executing?
  - > (You should realize this is an ill-posed question)
  - Done assignment and one list lookup at the beginning: 2
  - $\triangleright$  One lookup, one assignment and one comparison for each iteration in the for loop: 3(n-1)
  - $\triangleright$  A variable number of assignments: between 0 and (n-1)
  - > One final return instruction: 1
- $\triangleright$  Answer: anything between 3n and 4n-1



# Complexity of an algorithm

Continued

- Message #1: the exact number of fundamental instructions that an algorithm performs is not determined a priori
  - ▷ It depends on the input data, instead
  - ▷ And so does the running time
- > There's a few questions that you can legitimetely ask, anyway

  - → How many instructions in the best case?
- Message #2: the exact number of operations doesn't really matter, does it?
  - Different machines have different executions speed
  - Different languages have different meaning of fundamental instruction
- Message #3: still, the running time is related to the number of fundamental instructions

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# Asymptotic behavior and big-O notation

- $\triangleright$  Say you have an algorithm operating on an input of lenght n

  - $\triangleright$  or a string with n characters
- How many fundamental instructions N does it take to for your algorithm to run?

$$N = f(n)$$

Asymptotic behavior: drop all the terms that grow slowly with n and only keep the one that grows faster

$$4n - 1 \approx 4n$$
 and  $2n^2 + 6n + 3 \approx 2n^2$ 

(for large n)

Let's go one step further, and say that we neglect the multiplicative factor in front of the leading term

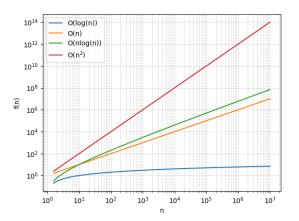
$$4n-1\approx n$$
 and  $2n^2+6n+3\approx n^2$ 

 $\triangleright$  big-O notation: the two algorithms are O(n) and  $O(n^2)$ 



# Asymptotic behavior

Does it matter?



⊳ Yes! If  $n = 10^6$  and you can beat down the complexity from  $n^2$  to  $n \log(n)$  you are cutting down the execution time by one million!



# Asymptotic behavior

### How do I measure it?

- - ▷ (Be careful: results may vary from run to run)
  - ▷ Plot the running time vs. input size
- - (This can be difficult for complex programs, and subject to the hidiosyncrasis of the language)
- By eye
  - $\triangleright$  One loop: O(n)
  - $\triangleright$  Two sequential loops: O(n)
  - $\triangleright$  Two nested loops:  $O(n^2)$



# A refreshing reading

http://www.cs.bme.hu/~friedl/alg/knuth\_song\_complexity.pdf

SPECIAL SECTION

Guest Editor Peter Neumann

# The Complexity of Songs

#### DONALD E. KNUTH

Every day brings new evidence that the concepts of computer science are applicable to areas of life which have little or nothing to do with computers. The purpose of this survey paper is to demonstrate that important aspects of popular songs are best understood in terms of modern complexity theory.

It is known [3] that almost all songs of length n require a text of length  $\sim n$ . But this puts a considerable space requirement on one's memory if many songs are

By the Distributive Law and the Commutative Law [4], we have

$$c = n - (V + R)m + mV$$

$$= n - Vm - Rm + Vm$$

$$= n - Rm.$$
(3)

The lemma follows. D



# Data structures

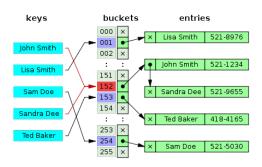
	length = 5				
	ʻp'	'r'	ʻoʻ	ʻb'	'e'
index	0	1	2	3	4
negative index	-5	-4	-3	-2	-1

Operation	Average case	Worst case	
Сору	O(n)	O(n)	
Append	O(1)	O(1)	
Insert	O(n)	O(n)	
Get Item	O(1)	O(1)	
Set Item	O(1)	O(1)	
Delete Item	O(n)	O(n)	
Iteration	O(n)	O(n)	
min(s), max(s)	O(n)		
Get Length	O(1)	O(1)	



### Hash tables

### Why do I even bring this up? Python dictionaries are hash tables



- Associative array mapping keys to values
- Basic idea:
  - ▷ Pre-allocate some space (which might grow or shrink)

  - > This is about it, except that you have to be able to handle collisions

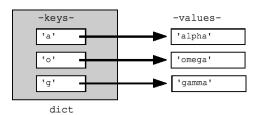
→ Hash tables (aka dictionaries) are highly optimized in Python

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### Data structures

### Dictionaries



Operation	Average case	Worst case	
Сору	O(n)	O(n)	
Get Item	O(1)	O(n)	
Set Item	O(1)	O(n)	
Delete Item	O(1)	O(n)	
Iteration	O(n)	O(n)	

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# An odd corner of Python dictionaries

```
print (hash(3))
    print(hash(3.))
3
4
    d = \{ \}
5
6
    d[3] = 'Hi there!'
7
    print (d)
8
9
    d[3.] = 'How are you?'
    print (d)
10
12
13
14
    3: 'Hi there!'
15
    3: 'How are you?'
16
```

- When a float corresponds to an integer, its hash is the same as that of the integer
- > The hash is used to map keys into indices
- ⊳ Therefore: 3 and 3. are the same key to a dictionary

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# A real-life example: sorting

```
def sloppy_sort(list_):
2
         """Poor man's implementation of a sorting algorithm.
3
         sorted list = []
4
5
         for item in list :
6
             if len(sorted list) == 0:
                  sorted list.append(item)
8
             else:
9
                 if item < sorted list[0]:</pre>
                      sorted list.insert(0, item)
10
                  else:
                      for i, sorted item in enumerate (sorted list):
13
                          if item <= sorted item:</pre>
14
                               sorted list.insert(i, item)
                               break
15
16
         return sorted list
17
18
    1 = [10, 1, 5, 2, 7, 3, 9, 4]
19
    print(1)
    print (sloppy sort (1))
20
2.1
22
    [10, 1, 5, 2, 7, 3, 9, 4]
23
24
    [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10]
```

- ▷ Say you are asked to implement an algorithm to sort a list
  - $\triangleright$  Chances are that you would come up with two nested loops,  $O(n^2)$



# Sorting algorithms on the market aka Don't try this at home

Name •	Best •	Average •	Worst •	Memory 0	Stable •	Method •	Other notes
Quicksort	n log n variation is n	$n \log n$	$n^2$	$\log n$ on average, worst case space complexity is $n$ ; Sedgewick variation is $\log n$ worst case.	Typical in-place sort is not stable; stable versions exist.	Partitioning	Quicksort is usually done in-place with $O(\log n)$ stack space. [516]
Merge sort	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	A hybrid block merge sort is O(1) mem.	Yes	Merging	Highly parallelizable (up to O(log n) using the Three Hungarians' Algorithm <sup>17</sup> or, more practically, Cole's parallel merge sort) for processing large amount of data.
In-place merge sort	-	-	$n \log^2 n$ See above, for hybrid, that is $n \log n$	1	Yes	Merging	Can be implemented as a stable sort based on stable in-place merging. <sup>[6]</sup>
Heapsort	If all keys are distinct, $n \log n$	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	1	No	Selection	
Insertion sort	п	$n^2$	$n^2$	1	Yes	Insertion	O(n+d), in the worst case over sequences that have $d$ inversions.
Introsort	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	$\log n$	No	Partitioning & Selection	Used in several STL implementations.
Selection sort	$n^2$	$n^2$	$n^2$	1	No	Selection	Stable with $O(n)$ extra space or when using linked lists. $^{[2]}$
Timsort	п	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	п	Yes	Insertion & Merging	Makes n comparisons when the data is already sorted or reverse sorted.
Cubesort	н	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	п	Yes	Insertion	Makes n comparisons when the data is already sorted or reverse sorted.
Shell sort	$n \log n$	Depends on gap sequence	Depends on gap sequence; best known is $n^{4/3}$	1	No	Insertion	Small code size, no use of call stack, reasonably fast, useful where memory at a premium such as embedded and older mainframe applications. There is a worst case $O(n(\log n)^2)$ gap sequence but it loses $O(n\log n)$ best case time.
Bubble sort	п	$n^2$	$n^2$	1	Yes	Exchanging	Tiny code size.
Binary tree sort	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	n log n (balanced)	п	Yes	Insertion	When using a self-balancing binary search tree.
Cycle sort	$n^2$	$n^2$	$n^2$	1	No	Insertion	In-place with theoretically optimal number of writes.
Library sort	и	$n \log n$	$n^2$	п	Yes	Insertion	
Patience sorting	п	-	$n \log n$	п	No	Insertion & Selection	Finds all the longest increasing subsequences in $O(n \log n)$ .
Smoothsort	п	$n \log n$	$n \log n$	1	No	Selection	An adaptive variant of heapsort based upon the Leonardo sequence rather than a traditional binary heap.

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# What is Python using? Timsort

### The name comes from Tim Peters

https://github.com/lucabaldini/cmepda/tree/master/slides/latex/snippets/timsort.py

```
1    1 = [10, 1, 5, 2, 7, 3, 9, 4]
2    print(1)
3    1.sort()
4    print(1)
5    6    [Output]
7    [10, 1, 5, 2, 7, 3, 9, 4]
8    [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9, 10]
```

- - ▷ Find subsequences of the data that are already ordered
- ▷ "Although practicality beats purity" (The Zen of Python)



# References

- b https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Algorithm
- b https://discrete.gr/complexity/
- → https://wiki.python.org/moin/TimeComplexity
- https://bugs.python.org/file4451/timsort.txt
- > https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Timsort