

Assignment One – L^AT_EX Data

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1 Nodes, Stacks, & Queues

1.1 Making a Node

A node needs to contain the data it stores and reference(s) to another node. In this case, just a single reference to a next Node is needed because the nodes will only be singly linked. A node struct could be used to implement this which wraps a piece of data with a reference to the next Node. A node is a building block for many different algorithms and structures; therefore, this node structure should be generic enough to easily create a node storing any type of data.

```
27 // Wraps a generic, T, typed data in a node to reference other
    nodes
28 template <typename T>
29 struct Node{
30     T data;
31     Node<T>* next;
32 };
```

1.2 Stacks & Queues

Nodes can link together to form stacks and queues. Stacks and queues in programming should be intuitive as stacks (much like a stack of papers) are first in first out (FIFO) while queues (much like a line of people waiting for something) are last in first out (LIFO).

Well structured stack and queue classes encapsulate node structure they are made of only revealing their respective functionality to add and get data. Both stacks and queues should have method to check if the are empty, add data,

and remove data. The interface for stacks minimally follows: `push()` and `pop()`. The interface for queues minimally follows: `queue()` and `enqueue()`. It should be obvious what each method does. Each method should happen in constant time.

The stack class will need to have contain a pointer to the head (the top of the stack) to implement its interface.

Push action:

1. Takes in a piece of data and creates a new node.
2. Sets the new node to this head.
3. Sets the new node's next value to the previous head (if there was one).

```
98     void push(T value) {
99         Node<T>* node = new Node<T>;
100         node->data = value;
101         node->next = top;
102         top = node;
```

Pop action:

1. Make the new head the current head's next attribute.
2. Return the value of now the old head node.

```
105     T pop(){
106         if(isEmpty()){
107             throw logic_error("Cannot pop from empty stack.");
108         }
109         Node<T>* trash = top;
110         T value = top->data;
111         top = top->next;
112         delete trash;
113
114         return value;
```

isEmpty action:

1. Returns if the head is currently points to a node.

The queue class will need to have a pointer to the first (start of the line) and the last (end of the line) node to implement its interface in constant time. It is possible to only have a pointer to the first node and then traverse the queue to obtain the last, but the trade off to store an additional pointer to the last element is almost worth it because it saves the queues from having to execute a linear time complexity operation when enqueueing.

Enqueue action:

1. Takes in a piece of data and creates a new node.

2. Sets the new node to the value of the tail.
3. Only if there was no head node, sets the new node equal to the head.
4. Sets the previous tail's next value to the new node (if there was one).

```

47     void enqueue(T value){
48         Node<T>* node = new Node<T>;
49         node->data = value;
50         node->next = nullptr;
51
52         if(first == nullptr){
53             first = node;
54         }
55
56         if(last == nullptr){
57             last = node;
58         } else {
59             last->next = node;
60             last = node;
61         }
62     }

```

Dequeue action:

1. Set the first to the current first's next attribute.
2. Return the value of now the old head node.

```

66     T dequeue() {
67         if(isEmpty()) {
68             throw logic_error("Cannot dequeue from empty queue.
69         ");
70         }
71         Node<T>* trash = first;
72         T value = first->data;
73         first = first->next;
74         delete trash;
75
76         if (first == nullptr) {
77             last = nullptr;
78         }
79         return value;

```

isEmpty action:

1. Returns if the head is currently points to a node.

1.3 A Simple Stack & Queue Use Case

A palindrome is phrase that is the same forward and backwards often only including alphanumeric characters and casing. "Race car" is a palindrome because the letters read the same front to back and back to front.

$$R_0 a_1 c_2 e_3 c_4 a_5 r_6 == r_6 a_5 c_4 e_3 c_2 a_1 R_0$$

This applies to stack and queues as if the letters of race car were pushed to a stack as well as enqueued to a queue, comparing, in order, the dequeued elements with the popping elements will render all equal comparisons. If any of these comparisons are false then the phrase is not a palindrome.

2 Sorting

2.1 Introduction

An array of data (say n with length x) is said to be sorted when comparable elements are arranged in an order such that:

$$n_0 \leq n_1 \leq n_2 \leq n_3 \dots \leq n_{x-1}$$

or

$$n_0 \geq n_1 \geq n_2 \geq n_3 \dots \geq n_{x-1}$$

For future algorithms such as binary search, this relationship is foundational.

2.2 The "Opposite" of Sorted

Conceptually, the opposite of a sorted array is one in which the elements are randomly positioned. This does not mean the array is not sorted, just that the elements are placed randomly. One of the most intuitive random shuffling algorithms is the Fisher Yates Shuffle. It iterates through each index of the array picking a random index of out the current index and all indexes not yet iterated through.

```

225 void fisherYatesShuffle(string* items, int length = DEVILS_NUMBER){
226     int swapIndex;
227
228     // Reseeding the number generator with the psuedo random time
229     // This means that multiple shuffles within the program can be
230     // linked through their delay between shuffle invocations
231     // If "better" randomness is desired the random library could
232     // be considered
233     srand(static_cast<unsigned>(time(nullptr)));
234
235     for(int end = length-1; end > 0; end--){
236         // +1 to include current index
237         swapIndex = rand() % (end + 1);
238         if(swapIndex == end) { continue; }
239         // probably internally done using an XOR swap https://en.
240         // wikipedia.org/wiki/XOR_swap_algorithm
241         // of the chars in the string
242         // Using the inbuilt swap is more elegant since we can
243         // interface an object type into this sort if needed
244         swap(items[end], items[swapIndex]);

```

2.3 Selection Sort

Selection sort puts an array in an order using nested loops. The idea is to iterate through the array and each time find the minimal value from that index to the end index. After the minimal element is found swap it with the current index. This algorithm works in quadratic time because each the upper loop with have to carry out an inner loop relative to the size of the array. Even though the inner loop decreases in iterations as the sort progresses this is still quadratic time because number of the inner iterations depends in the size of the input; thus $n * n$ comparisons (when n is size of the array), even if there are other constant factors.

```
247 int selectionSort(string* items, int length=DEVILS_NUMBER) {
248     int comparisonCounter = 0;
249     int minIndex;
250     for(int i = 0; i < length; i++){
251         minIndex = i;
252         // finds the min index from i to length -
253         for(int j = i + 1; j < length; j++){
254             comparisonCounter++;
255             if(items[j] < items[minIndex]){
256                 minIndex = j;
257             }
258         }
259         if(minIndex == i){ continue; }
260         swap(items[i], items[minIndex]);
261         // items 0 to i is now sorted
262     }
263
264     return comparisonCounter;
```

2.4 Insertion Sort

Insertion sort utilizes an adaptive approach with nested loops. The idea is to iterate through the array starting at the second item and move each value down the array until the correct previous item is found (this comparison changes depends on what type of ordering). This is adaptive as the second loop only continues until the a correctly positioned item is found. The time complexity of this algorithm is difficult to calculate directly as it depends on the order the items are in, but the worst case is that the inner loop will have to iterate all the back to the start each time. This places this algorithm in its worst case at the same situation as selection sort since both nested loops depend on the length of the array making this sort also have quadratic time complexity.

```
268 int insertionSort(string* items, int length=DEVILS_NUMBER){
269     int comparisonCounter = 0;
270     string selectedItem;
271     int prevIndex;
272     for(int i=1; i < length; i++){
273         selectedItem = items[i];
274         prevIndex = i - 1;
275         // finding the correct index to insert into array
```

```

276     while(prevIndex >= 0) {
277         // used to have this check reversed as a condition for
the while
278         // put here just to ensure that comparisons are
counted only for comparison between elements
279         comparisonCounter++;
280         if(items[prevIndex] <= selectedItem){
281             break;
282         }
283         items[prevIndex + 1] = items[prevIndex];
284         prevIndex--;
285     }
286     items[prevIndex + 1] = selectedItem;
287     // items 0 to i are relatively in order that is items0 <
items1... < itemsi
288     // 0 to i might not be in the right order for the whole
list
289 }
290
291 return comparisonCounter;
292 }

```

2.5 Merge Sort

Merge sort utilizes a divide and conquer paradigm. It recursively splits the array in halves there are only subarrays of length 0 or 1. This guarantees that the subarrays start a sorted state since an array with length 0 or 1 is already in order. Now the algorithm can merge these subarrays back together creating large and larger subarrays at each step until it has merged the entire array together. Every divide step is constant time and there are $\log_2 n$ because the array is halved each time. Each divide step must also be merged back together. There are n items to merge back together at each divide depth. Therefore, the time complexity is big oh of $n \log_2 n$.

The following code is an example merge function which purposefully uses more memory allocation to allow two individual lists to be taken as arguments and merged into one array. This approach may be helpful when the entire list will not be able to fit in memory.

```

300 pair<string*, int> mergeSorted(string* items1, string* items2, int
size1, int size2){
301     int count = 0;
302     int mergedLength = size1 + size2;
303     string* mergedItems = new string[mergedLength];
304     int i1 = 0;
305     string item1;
306     int i2 = 0;
307     string item2;
308     for(int iMerged = 0; iMerged < mergedLength; iMerged++){
309         // check for out of bounds
310         if(i1 == size1){
311             mergedItems[iMerged] = items2[i2];
312             i2++;

```

```

313         continue;
314     }
315     if(i2 == size2){
316         mergedItems[iMerged] = items1[i1];
317         i1++;
318         continue;
319     }
320
321     // compare items to find min of the two and place in new
array
322     // only iterates the the array index of the one that is
added
323     item1 = items1[i1];
324     item2 = items2[i2];
325     count++;
326     if(item1 < item2){
327         mergedItems[iMerged] = item1;
328         i1++;
329     } else {
330         mergedItems[iMerged] = item2;
331         i2++;
332     }
333 }
334 return make_pair(mergedItems, count);
335 }

```

The following code is an example recursive case for merge sort which splits the array. Usually the subarrays would be done in the previous function but since this implementation receives the subarrays as arguments it must be done in this step.

```

338 void mergeSort(string* items, int* count, int istart=0, int iend=
DEVILS_NUMBER-1){
339     // base case as we have reached our sorted array of at 1 or 0
elements!
340     if (istart >= iend){
341         return;
342     }
343
344     int imiddle = istart + (iend - istart) / 2;
345     int leftLength = imiddle - istart + 1;
346     string left[leftLength];
347     int rightLength = iend - imiddle;
348     string right[rightLength];
349     // recursively call mergeSort to ensure that we are using the
sorted array when we merge
350     // with the two other half of the array
351     mergeSort(items, count, istart, imiddle);
352     mergeSort(items, count, imiddle + 1, iend);
353
354
355     // populating left and right sub arrays to be merged
356     for(int i = 0; i < leftLength; i++){
357         left[i] = items[istart + i];
358     }
359     for(int i = 0; i < rightLength; i++){
360         right[i] = items[imiddle + 1 + i];

```

```

361     }
362
363     auto mergedResult = mergeSorted(left, right, leftLength,
364                                     rightLength);
365     string* mergedArray = mergedResult.first;
366
367     // this is the syntax to increment the value of the pointer
368     (*count) += mergedResult.second;
369     int mergedLength = leftLength + rightLength;
370
371     for(int imerged = 0; imerged < mergedLength; imerged++){
372         items[istart + imerged] = mergedArray[imerged];
373     }
374     delete[] mergedArray;
375 }

```

2.6 Quick Sort

Quick sort also utilizes a divide and conquer (at the same time) paradigm. It recursively divides the array around a pivot value and during each partition arranges the subarrays in their correct order relative to only the pivot (not relative to the rest of the array or the other elements in the array). Once the sufficiently small partitions (length 1-3) have been sorted the array is now sorted because each value is relatively placed in the correct partition after each recursive call (ideally the correct half of the subarrays but it will often not be perfect halves). It may be helpful to think the best case quick sort as a binary search for the correct position of the value for each element in the array. The time complexity for quick sort is also big oh of $n \log_2 n$ because there are a little more than $\log_2 n$ partitions (when a decent pivot value is chosen) and n comparisons for each partition to order the element around the partition at each depth.

The following code is used to obtain the median value of three indexes. This is needed to determine a pivot value that will not degrade the quick sort algorithm to a quadratic time complexity. Picking a pivot value that is either the smallest value of the partition or the largest will order the rest of the elements to one side of the partition which essentially only orders a single element. Thus, the median element of three elements from the partition ensure at least one item will be each side. Since the three pivot candidates are psuedo random on a shuffled array, the number of comparisons will change depending on the close the chosen pivot is to the true median of the partition.

```

377 int getMiddleOfThree(string* items, int istart, int iend, int*
378     counter){
379     int iMedianOfThree;
380     int imiddle = (istart + iend) / 2;
381     // partial ordering shown after each comparison
382     (*counter)++;
383     if(items[istart] < items[iend]){
384         // istart, iend
385         (*counter)++;
386         if (items[istart] >= items[imiddle]){

```



```

386         // imiddle, istart, iend
387         iMedianOfThree = istart;
388     } else if (items[iend] < items[imiddle]){
389         (*counter)++;
390         // istart, iend, imiddle
391         iMedianOfThree = iend;
392     } else {
393         (*counter)++;
394         // istart, imiddle, iend
395         iMedianOfThree = imiddle;
396     }
397 } else {
398     // iend, istart
399     (*counter)++;
400     if (items[istart] < items[imiddle]){
401         // iend, istart, imiddle
402         iMedianOfThree = istart;
403     } else if (items[iend] > items[imiddle]) {
404         (*counter)++;
405         // imiddle, iend, istart
406         iMedianOfThree = iend;
407     } else {
408         (*counter)++;
409         // iend, imiddle, istart
410         iMedianOfThree = imiddle;
411     }
412 }

```

The following code partitions a range of the array ordering it relative to the pivot point.

```

418 int partition(string* items, int* counter, int istart, int iend){
419     int ipivot = getMiddleOfThree(items, istart, iend, counter);
420     string pivotVal = items[ipivot];
421
422     // arbitrarily Swapping pivot to end to ignore it when swapping
423     // around pivot value
424     swap(items[ipivot], items[iend]);
425
426     // index to put the lesser elements compared to the pivot
427     int ilesser = istart - 1;
428
429     for(int i = istart; i < iend; i++){
430         (*counter)++;
431         if(items[i] <= pivotVal){
432             // preincrement since we start at istart - 1
433             ilesser++;
434             swap(items[i], items[ilesser]);
435         }
436         // do nothing if element is already less than pivot since
437         // it is in the correct place
438     }
439
440     // swapping pivot back to correct spot
441     swap(items[ilesser + 1], items[iend]);
442     return ilesser + 1;
443 }

```

The following code recursively calls itself to partition each partition until sorted.

```
445 void quickSort(string* items, int* counter, int istart=0, int iend=
    DEVILS_NUMBER-1){
446     if (istart >= iend){
447         return;
448     }
449
450     int ipivot = partition(items, counter, istart, iend);
451
452     // Recursive calls for all elements around the pivot point
453     quickSort(items, counter, istart, ipivot-1);
454     quickSort(items, counter, ipivot+1, iend);
455 }
```

2.7 Sort Overview

Each sort has its own advantages for certain scenarios: selection sort has low overhead and minimal swapping, insertion sort works great on sorted or almost sorted arrays, merge sort looks cool, and quick sort is simply the GOAT. Merge sort and quick sort are both significantly better on large arrays because of their time complexity. Merge sort has more overhead than quick sort, but takes less comparisons. Most inbuilt sorting algorithms end of using a hybrid of quick sort and insertion sort.

Type of Sort	Time Complexity	Number of Comparisons
Selection Sort	$O(n^2)$	221,445
Insertion Sort	$O(n^2)$	109,540*
Merge Sort	$O(n\log_2 n)$	5,399
Quick Sort	$O(n\log_2 n)$	6,348*

*denotes adaptive comparison number