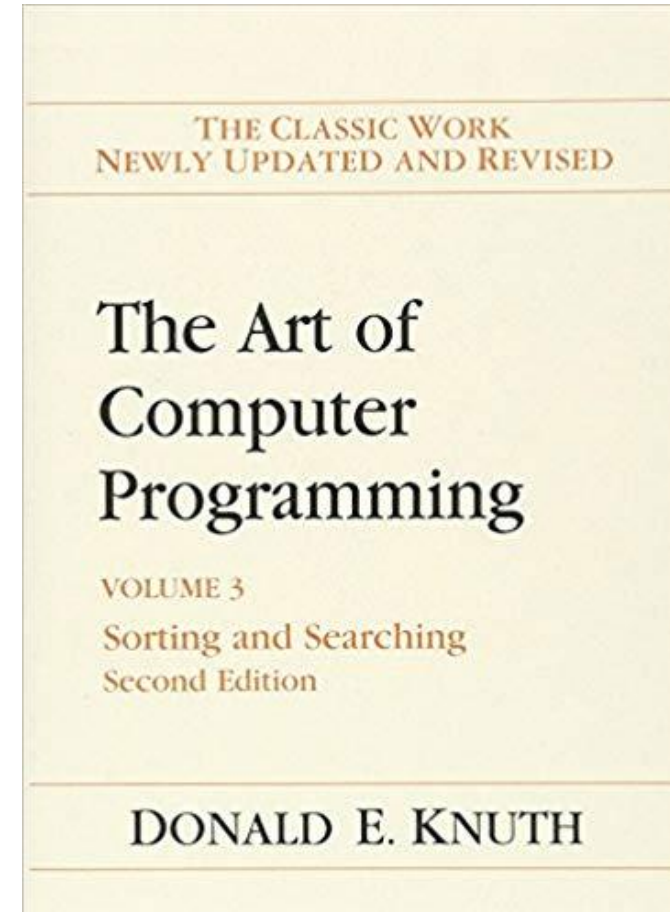


Some Simple Algorithms and Data Structures

Chapter 12

Donald E Knuth



Keys to efficiency

- Modern computers are fast
 - So sometimes doing things the hard way is okay
- But not that fast
 - So, we need to be wise
 - Choose efficient algorithms
 - Not clever coding tricks
 - A “wise man” once said “you read code more than you write it”
- Learn from the array of past work to your benefit
 - Develop an understanding of to complexity of a problem
 - Think about how to decompose it
 - Relate those sub-problems to existing solutions

Search Algorithms

- “A **search algorithm** is a method for finding an item or group of items with specific properties within a collection of items. We refer to the collection of items as a **search space**.” (p. 234)
- Search space can be
 - A fixed collection such as a list, string, tuple or dictionary
 - A more abstract collection like the set of all integers

Linear Search

- How does Python search a list?

```
def search(L, e):  
    for i in range(len(L)):  
        if L[i] == e:  
            return True  
    return False
```

- Is this efficient?
 - We don't know if the list is sorted
 - Will check every element until found
 - $O(\text{len}(L))$ – “at best”
 - Assumes fetching elements is a constant step
 - Remember a list can contain multiple types of elements

Indirection

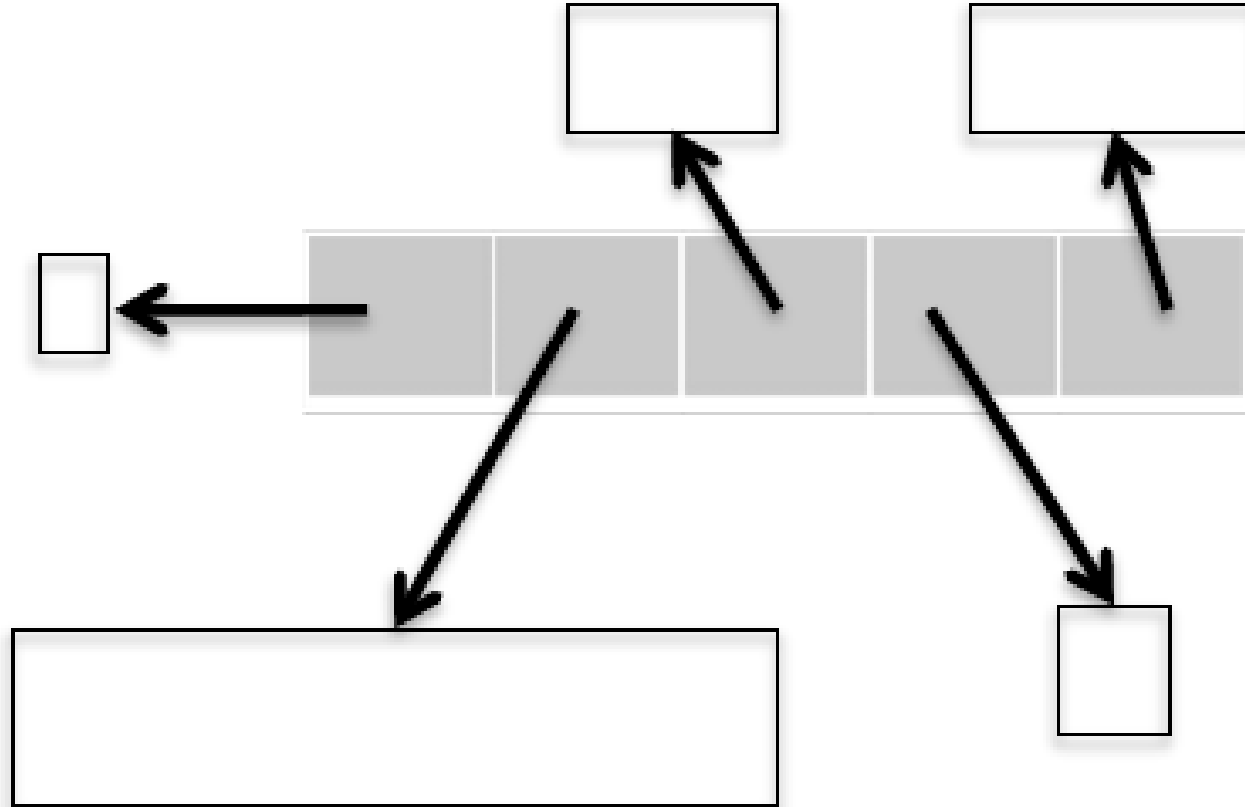


Figure 10.1 Implementing lists

Searching a sorted list

```
# Linear Search on a sorted list
def search(L, e):
    """Assumes L is a list, the elements of which are in
    ascending order.
    Returns True if e is in L and False otherwise"""
    for i in range(len(L)):
        if L[i] == e:
            return True
        if L[i] > e:
            return False
    return False
```

Bisection Search

- We have already done something like this
 - Chapter 3 – binary search for square root
- 4 simple steps
 1. Pick an index, i , that divides the list L roughly in half.
 2. Ask if $L[i] == e$.
 3. If not, ask whether $L[i]$ is larger or smaller than e .
 4. Depending upon the answer, search either the left or right half of L for e .
- Step 4 looks recursive to me
- Let's look at an implementation


```

def search(L, e):
    """Assumes L is a list, the elements of which are
in
        ascending order.
        Returns True if e is in L and False otherwise"""

def bin_search(L, e, low, high):
    #Decrements high - low
    if high == low:
        return L[low] == e
    mid = (low + high)//2
    if L[mid] == e:
        return True
    elif L[mid] > e:
        if low == mid: #nothing left to search
            return False
        else:
            return bin_search(L, e, low, mid - 1)
    else:
        return bin_search(L, e, mid + 1, high)

if len(L) == 0:
    return False
else:
    return bin_search(L, e, 0, len(L) - 1)

```

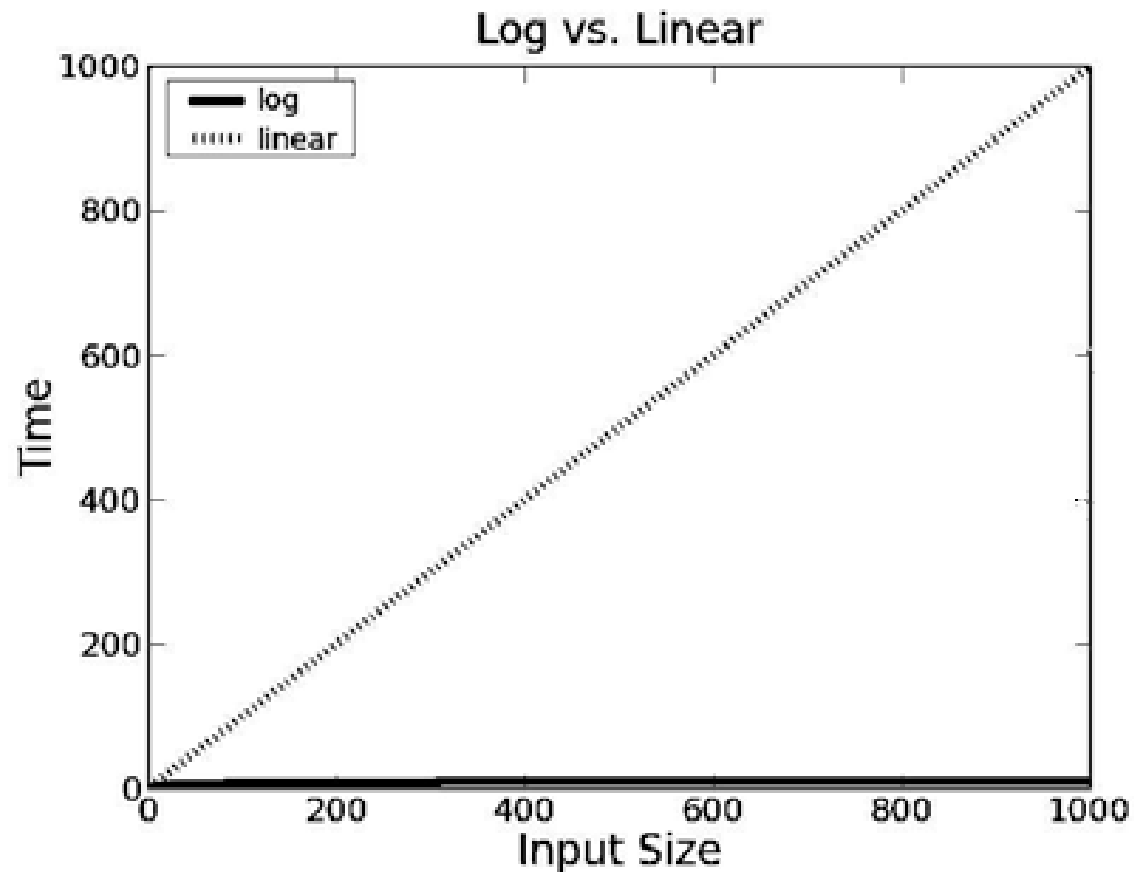
Binary Search implementation

- `search()` is a **wrapper function**
 - Provides the interface to the client
 - Hides the implementation in `bin_search()`
- What is the complexity
 - Depends on the number of levels of recursion
 - When does it stop?
 - `e found OR low == high`
 - So `high-low` is the decrementing function
 - $O(\log(\text{len}(L)))$

Binary Search lingering questions

- Why does the code use `mid+1` rather than `mid` in the second recursive call?
- Why use the `bin_search()` with the `low` and `high` parameters rather than just using slices of `L`?

$$O(\text{len}(L)) \stackrel{?}{=} O(\log(\text{len}(L)))$$



A dialog

- Q: Should I always sort a list before searching so I can use a binary sort?
- A: Is it faster to sort a list and then do that binary search – than to just do a linear search?
 - If $O_s(L)$ = the complexity of the search
 - Is $O_s(L) + O(\log(\text{len}(L))) < O(\text{len}(L))$
- Q: I dunno, is it?
- A: Sadly, no – a sort algorithm has to look at every element in a list
- Q: So why did we just learn about binary search?
- A: Because, Grasshopper, it depends

It depends?

- Are we going to search more frequently than we add elements to the list or alter elements in the list?
 - If k = the number of times we expect to sort the list
 - Is $O_s(\text{len}(L)) + k * O(\log(\text{len}(L))) < k * O(\text{len}(L))$
 - It still depends on O_s
- Do deletes matter?

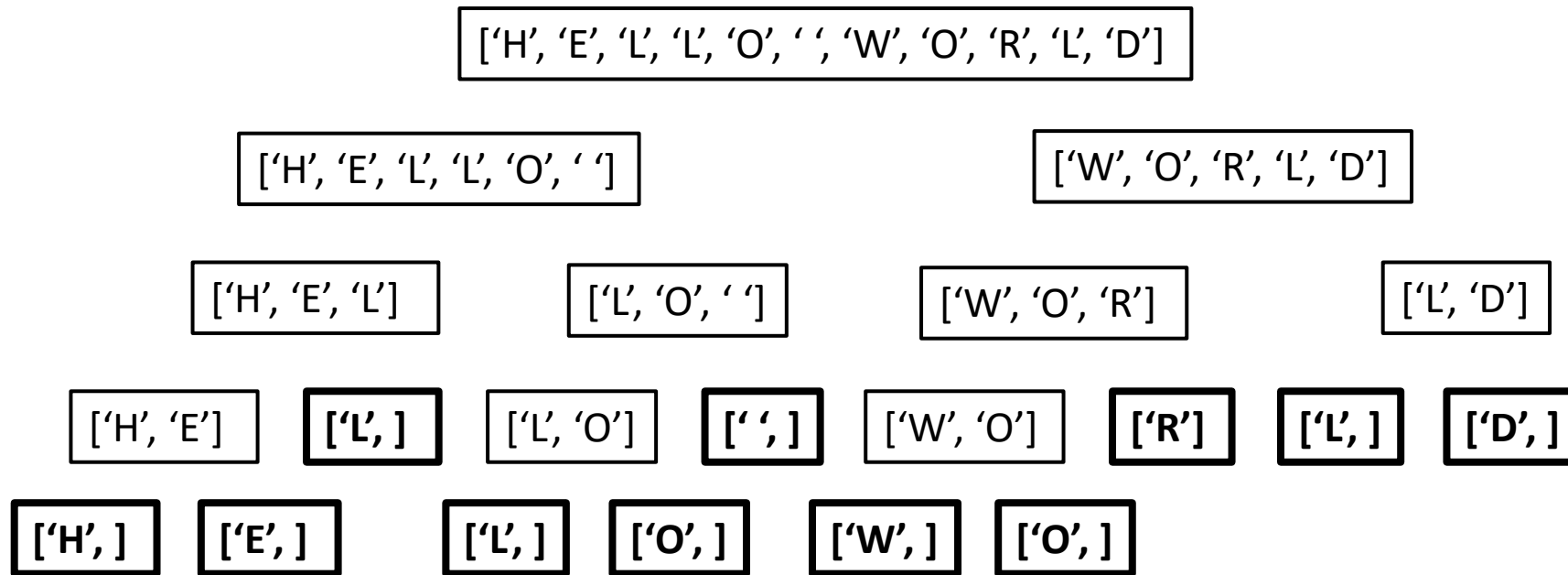
Selection sort

- Simple but **inefficient** sorting algorithm
- **Loop invariant**
 - Condition that is true at the beginning and end of each loop
 - List contains two partitions
 - $L[0:i]$ (prefix) and $L[i+1:\text{len}(L)]$
 - Prefix is sorted and all elements are less than any elements in suffix
- Base case – $i = 0$ so prefix is empty, suffix is full list
- Each iteration (Induction) – move the smallest element in suffix to last position of prefix
- Termination – prefix is full list sorted, suffix is null
- $\theta(\text{len}(L)^2)$

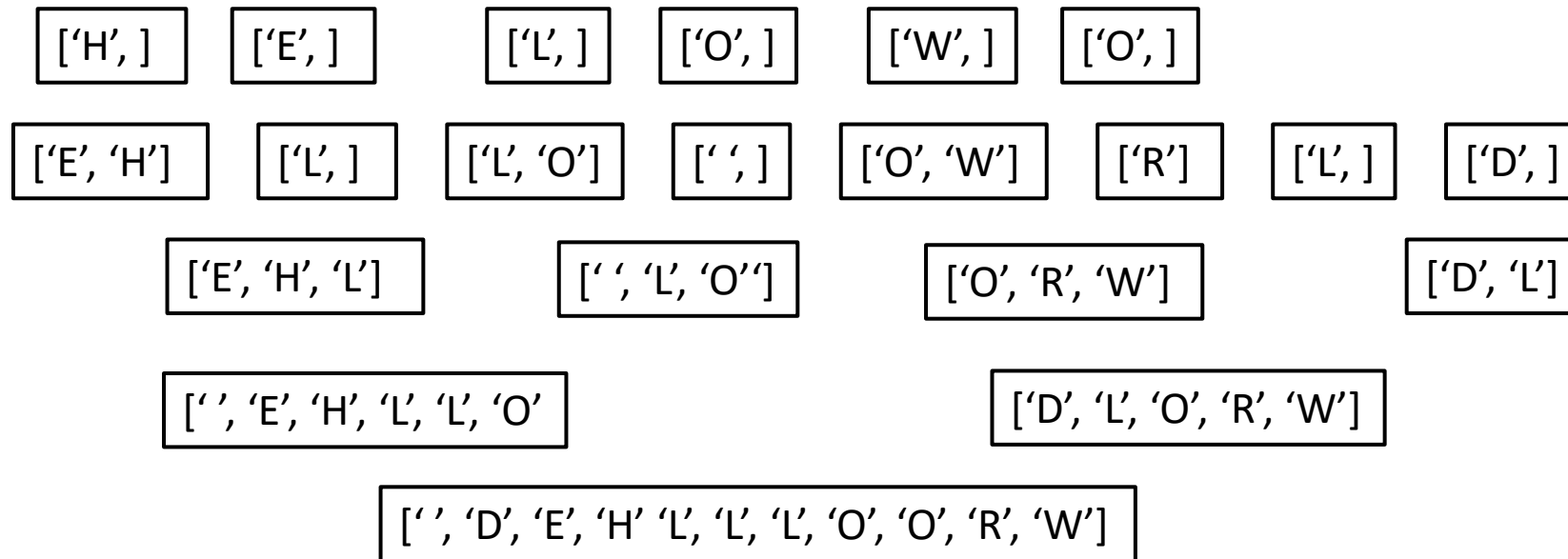
Merge Sort

- An example of a **divide-and-conquer** algorithm
 - Continue to divide until a threshold (minimum) problem size is reached
 - A size and number of sub problems
 - An algorithm to combine the results of the sub solutions
- Applying divide-and-conquer to sorting
 - A list with 0 or 1 elements is intrinsically sorted
 - If a list has more than one element – split and merge sort each half
 - Merge the resulting
 - Merging can take advantage of the fact the partitions are already sorted

Merge Sort – first divide



Merge Sort – now conquer



Determining Complexity

- What is the **Computational Complexity** of our implementation?
- We will divide and conquer this

Complexity of merge()

```
def merge(left, right, compare):
    result = []
    i, j = 0, 0
    while i < len(left) and j < len(right):
        if compare(left[i], right[j]):
            result.append(left[i])
            i += 1
        else:
            result.append(right[j])
            j += 1
    while (i < len(left)):
        result.append(left[i])
        i += 1
    while (j < len(right)):
        result.append(right[j])
        j += 1
    return result
```

- Looking at the inner – what is the complexity of `merge()`
 - How many times will we compare `a[0] < b[0]`
 - Length of the longer list
 - We'll still have same `len(L)`
 - How many times will we copy an element to `c`
 - Once per element
 - We'll say `len(L1) + len(L2)`
- So the whole thing is linear ($O(\text{len}(L))$)

Complexity of merge_sort()

```
def merge_sort(L, compare = lambda x, y: x < y):  
    if len(L) < 2:  
        return L[:]  
    else:  
        middle = len(L)//2  
        left = merge_sort(L[:middle], compare)  
        right = merge_sort(L[middle:], compare)  
        return merge(left, right, compare)
```

- How many times do we recurse into `merge_sort()`?
 - $\log(\text{len}(L))$

Putting it all together

- `merge()` is called once per execution of `merge_sort()`
 - Overall complexity is $O(\text{merge_sort}) * O(\text{merge})$
 - Complexity of `merge_sort()` is $O(\log(n))$
 - Complexity of `merge()` is $O(\text{len}(L))$
- Computational Complexity is $O(n \log(n))$

What is the deal with `compare`?

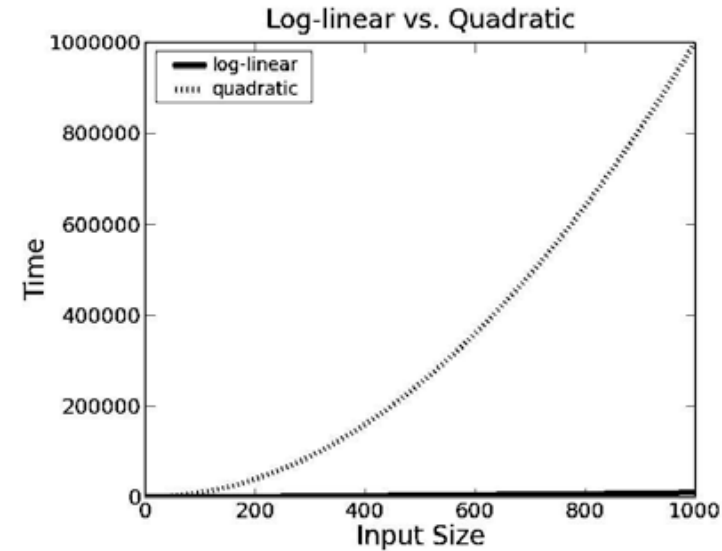
- Recall `compare = lambda x, y: x < y`
- Functions are 'first class' objects
- This allows us to drive the sort
 - Reverse order `lambda x, y: x > y`
 - Can define our own sort order
 - Names – last, first or first, last
 - Addresses – zip code, street name, street #

Sort algorithms

- **Exchange sorts** – Bubble, Cocktail Shaker, Odd-Even, Comb, Gnome, Quicksort, Slowsort, Stooge, Bogo
- **Selection sorts** – Selection, Heapsort, Smoothsort, Cartesian Tree, Tournament, Cycle, Weak-heap
- **Insertion sorts** – Insertion, Shellsort, Splaysort, Tree, Library, Patience Sorting
- **Merge sorts** – Merge, Cascade, Oscillating, Polyphase
- **Distribution sorts** – American Flag, Bead, Bucket, Burtsort, Counting, Pigeonhole, Proxmap, Radix, Flashsort
- **Concurrent sorts** – Bitonic, Batchmer-odd-even-mergesort, Pairwise sorting network
- **Hybrid sorts** – Block merge, Timsort, Intosort, Spreadsort, Merge-Insertion
- **Other** – Topological sorting, Pancake sorting, Spaghetti

Comparing Selection and Merge Sorts

- Computational Complexity
 - Selection Sort $\in O(n^2)$
 - Merge Sort $\in O(n \log(n))$
- Space Complexity
 - Selection Sort is in-line so Constant
 - Merge Sort $\in O(\text{len}(L))$



Sorting in Python

- `L.sort()`
 - sorts list L
- `L2 = sorted(L1)`
 - L2 gets a sorted copy of L1
 - L1 remains unchanged
 - Can be used on other collections

More sorting in Python

- Python uses **timsort** which is a hybrid algorithm
 - Assumes most cases a list is partially sorted
 - Worst case performance – same as **merge_sort** $O(n \log(n))$
 - Named for Tim Peters who developed it.
- `sorted` method

Help on built-in function sorted in module builtins:

```
sorted(iterable, /, *, key=None, reverse=False)
```

Return a new list containing all items from the iterable in ascending order.

A custom key function can be supplied to customize the sort order, and the reverse flag can be set to request the result in descending order.

Hash Tables

- Remember dictionaries (`dict`) from Chapter 5?
- The key is must be **hashable** converted to an integer
 - Needs to be a *reasonable* integer **hash value**
 - Hash values are used to index into a list
 - Access time is nearly constant
- A **hash function** takes data from a large problems space and converts them to indices within a small index space
 - Hash values may be **many-to-one** (i.e. non-unique)
 - This can cause **collisions**
 - A good hash function will have a **uniform distribution**

Int_Dict – A simple dictionary for integers

- The **dictionary** is implemented as a list of lists of tuples
 - Each **tuple** is a key/value pair
 - Each **inner list** represents a **collision set**
 - Each **outer list** represents a **bucket**
 - The number of **buckets** is defined when IntDict is instantiated
- Our **hash function** is the key 'modulo' (%) the number of available buckets
- Access depends on the ratio between number of buckets and size of the dictionary
 - And of course – the efficiency of the hash function

Other Hash Keys?

- Checksum
 - Exclusive Or (XOR) bytes or words
- `Object.__hash__()` method