Introduction to Algorithms Chapter 1: Basics on algorithms

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## Outline

1 A brief introduction to algorithms

2 Common data structures

3 Basic algorithm paradigms

# Algorithm

**Algorithm:** Recipe telling the computer how to solve a problem.

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Example.

I am the "computer", detail an algorithm such that I can prepare a jam sandwich.

Actions: cut, listen, spread, sleep, read, take, eat, dip *Things:* knife, guitar, bread, honey, jam jar, sword

# Algorithm

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## Example.

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## Algorithm. (Sandwich making)

**Input**: 1 bread, 1 jamjar, 1 knife

Output: 1 jam sandwich

- 1 take the knife and cut 2 slices of bread;
- 2 dip the knife into the jamjar;
- 3 spread the jam on the bread, using the knife;
- 4 assemble the 2 slices together, jam on the inside;

## A more formal view

An algorithm systematically solves a well-defined problem:

- The *Input* is clearly expressed
- The *Output* solves the problem
- The Algorithm provides a precise step-by-step procedure starting from the Input and leading to the Output

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Algorithms can be described using one of the three following ways:

- English
- Pseudocode
- Programming language

# A first example

# Algorithm. (Insertion Sort)

6

```
Input: a_1, \ldots, a_n, n unsorted elements
   Output: the a_i, 1 < i < n, in increasing order
1 for i \leftarrow 2 to n do
   while a_i > a_i do i \leftarrow i + 1;
  for k \leftarrow 0 to j - i - 1 do a_{i-k} \leftarrow a_{i-k-1};
      a_i \leftarrow m
7 end for
8 return (a_1,\ldots,a_n)
```

# A first problem

**Setup:** a robot arm solders chips on a board in n contact points

Goal: minimize the time to attach a chip to the board

#### **Assumptions:**

- The arm moves at constant speed
- Once a chip has been attached another one is soldered

# A first problem

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Goal: minimize the time to attach a chip to the board

#### **Assumptions:**

- The arm moves at constant speed
- Once a chip has been attached another one is soldered

#### Defining the Input and Output:

- Input: a set *S* of *n* points in the plane
- Output: the shortest path visiting all the points in S

#### A first solution

# Algorithm. (Nearest neighbor)

```
Input: a set S = \{s_0, \cdots, s_{n-1}\} of n points in the plane Output: the shortest cycle visiting all the points in S

1 p_0 \leftarrow s_0;

2 for i \leftarrow 1 to n-1 do

3 p_i \leftarrow c posest unvisited neighbor to p_{i-1};

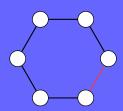
4 Visit p_i;

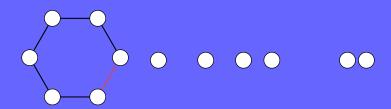
5 end for

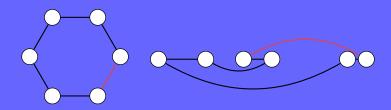
6 return \langle p_0, \dots, p_{n-1} \rangle
```

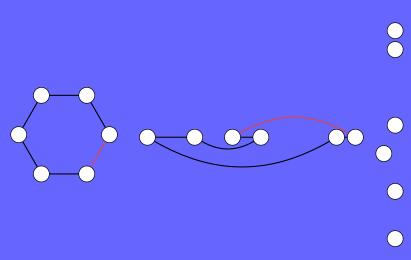


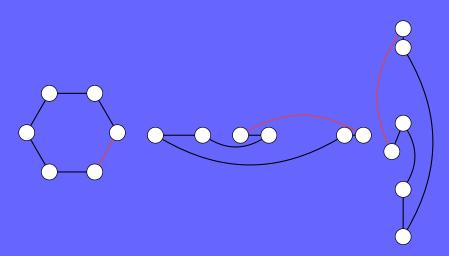












## A second solution

# Algorithm. (Closest pair)

```
Input: a set S of n points in the plane
  Output: the shortest cycle visiting all the points in S
1 for i \leftarrow 1 to n-1 do
      d \leftarrow \infty:
       foreach pair of end points \langle s, t \rangle from distinct vertex chains
        do
           if dist(s, t) \leq d then
               s_m \leftarrow s; t_m \leftarrow t; d \leftarrow dist(s, t);
           end if
       end foreach
       Connect s_m and t_m by an edge;
```

end for

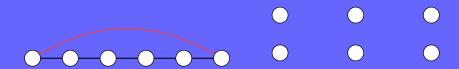
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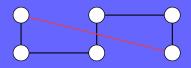
10 return all the points starting from one of the two end points



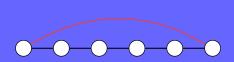


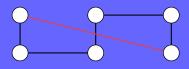






Applying the closest pair algorithm (1.9) on the following vertices arrangement yields the two graphs:





Possible strategy to ensure the most optimal path:

- Enumerate all the possible paths
- Select the one that minimizes the total length

**Drawback:** for only 20 vertices 20! = 2432902008176640000 paths have to be explored...

#### The first few lessons

#### A difference:

- Algorithm: always output a correct result
- Heuristic: idea serving as a guide to solve a problem with no guarantee of always providing a good solution

#### Correctness and efficiency:

- An algorithm working on a set of input does not imply it will work on all instances
- Efficient algorithm totally solving a problem might not exist

# Solving problems using algorithms

Common traps when defining the Input and Output:

- Are they precise enough?
- Can all the Input be easily and efficiently generated?
- Could there be any confusion on the expected Output?

Example.

For an Output, what does it mean to "find the best route"?

# Solving problems using algorithms

Common traps when defining the Input and Output:

- Are they precise enough?
- Can all the Input be easily and efficiently generated?
- Could there be any confusion on the expected Output?

## Example.

For an Output, what does it mean to "find the best route"?

The shortest in distance, the fastest in time, or the one minimizing the number of turns?

**Conclusion:** where to start (Input) and where to go (Ouput) must be expressed in simple, precise, and clear terms.

#### Incorrectness

#### Finding good counter-examples:

- Seek simplicity: make it clear why the algorithm fails
- Think small: algorithms failing for large Input often fail for smaller one
- Test the extremes: study special cases, e.g. inputs equal, tiny, huge...
- Think exhaustively: test whether all the possible cases are covered by the algorithm
- Track weaknesses: check if the underlying idea behind the algorithm has any "unexpected" impact on the output

## Outline

1 A brief introduction to algorithms

2 Common data structures

3 Basic algorithm paradigms

#### Continuous vs. linked

Data structures can be split into two main categories:

- **Continuous:** a single piece of memory e.g. array, matrices, hash tables...
- Linked data structures: distinct chunks of memory connected together
   e.g. linked list, trees, graph adjacency lists...

Each type has some relative advantages. Choosing the proper data type is of a major importance when designing algorithms.

# **Arrays**

Each element can be efficiently located using its index:

- Constant access time: each index maps to a memory address
- Space efficiency: no space wasted with links or information on the data
- Memory locality: data is contiguous so cache can be used to speed up successive data accesses

**Downside:** the size cannot be easily adjusted during the program's execution

#### Linked structures

A linked structure is composed of nodes. Each one contains:

- One or more fields on data
- A pointer to at least another node

The most common operations are:

- Search: find an item in the list
- Insert: add an item to the list
- Delete: remove an item from the list

Search can be implemented either iteratively or recursively

# Comparison

#### Linked structure

- Overflow only occurs when memory is full
- Insertion/deletion are simple and fast
- Moving pointers is faster than moving the actual data

#### **Array**

- No extra space wasted for the pointer field
- Efficient random access is possible
- Better memory locality and cache performance

#### **Containers**

Common data structures allowing the storage and retrieval of data independently of the content:

- Stack:
  - LIFO order
  - Simple to implement and very efficient
- Queue:
  - FIFO order
  - Minimize the maximum waiting time
  - Trickier to implement than stacks

Both can be implemented using either linked lists or arrays, depending if the size of the container is known in advance

#### **Dictionaries**

Data type allowing access by content. Primary operations:

- Search: search a value in a given dictionary
- Insert: add an element to the dictionary
- Delete: remove an element from the dictionary

Most common operations:

- Max/Min: retrieve the largest/smallest element from the dictionary
- Predecessor/Successor: retrieve the element just before/after a given element; before/after are defined with respect to a sorted order

# Dictionary using arrays

Let *n* be the number of elements in the array

| Operation                   | Unsorted array     | Sorted array          |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|
| search(D,k)                 | $\mathcal{O}(n)$   | $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ |
| insert(D,k)                 | $\mathcal{O}(1)$   | $\mathcal{O}(n)$      |
| delete(D,k)                 | $\mathcal{O}(1)^*$ | $\mathcal{O}(n)$      |
| <pre>predecessor(D,k)</pre> | $\mathcal{O}(n)$   | $\mathcal{O}(1)$      |
| <pre>successor(D,k)</pre>   | $\mathcal{O}(n)$   | $\mathcal{O}(1)$      |
| minimum(D)                  | $\mathcal{O}(n)$   | $\mathcal{O}(1)$      |
| maximum(D)                  | $\mathcal{O}(n)$   | $\mathcal{O}(1)$      |

<sup>\*</sup> Assuming a pointer to the key k is given how to get  $\mathcal{O}(1)$ ? Just delete the entry of k, the empty address can be used later with no consequence.

# Dictionary using linked structures

Let *n* be the number of elements in the list

| 0                           | Unsorted         |                  | Sc                         | Sorted           |  |
|-----------------------------|------------------|------------------|----------------------------|------------------|--|
| Operation                   | Single           | Double           | Single                     | Double           |  |
| search(D,k)                 | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(n)$           | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ |  |
| insert(D,k)                 | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ | $\mathcal{O}(n)$           | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ |  |
| delete(D,k)                 | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ | $\mathcal{O}(n)^*$         | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ |  |
| <pre>predecessor(D,k)</pre> | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(n)^*$         | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ |  |
| successor(D,k)              | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(1)$           | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ |  |
| minimum(D)                  | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(1)$           | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ |  |
| maximum(D)                  | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(n)$ | $\mathcal{O}(1)^{\dagger}$ | $\mathcal{O}(1)$ |  |

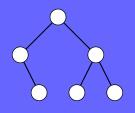
<sup>\*</sup> Why are singly linked lists slower?

Need to be shifted after removing one element.

Use a pointer to record the minimum element each time when we insert elements.

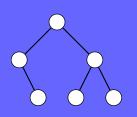
<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup> How to achieve  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  for singly sorted lists?

# Binary search trees

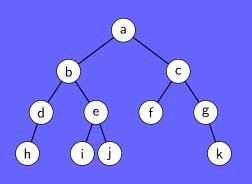


- Constructed from doubly linked list
- First object is the root of the tree
- Second object is a left child if it precedes the root and a right child if it succeeds it
- Third and further object are sorted along the tree following a similar pattern

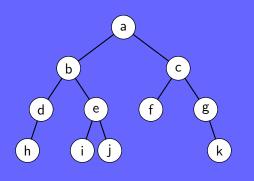
# Binary search trees



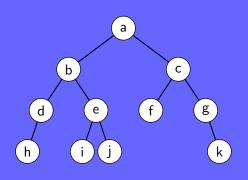
- Constructed from doubly linked list
- First object is the root of the tree
- Second object is a left child if it precedes the root and a right child if it succeeds it
- Third and further object are sorted along the tree following a similar pattern
- The three primary dictionary operations take  $\mathcal{O}(h)$ , with h the height of the tree
- Binary search trees balance the search time and flexible update
- How to handle deletion?
   Need further rearranging the whole tree



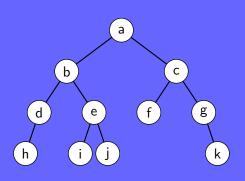
• Preorder traversal:



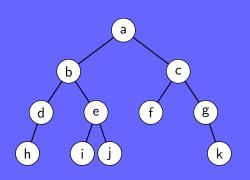
- Preorder traversal:a, b, d, h, e, i, j, c, f, g, k
- Inorder traversal:



- Preorder traversal:a, b, d, h, e, i, j, c, f, g, k
- Inorder traversal:h, d, b, i, e, j, a, f, c, g, k
- Postorder traversal:



- Preorder traversal:a, b, d, h, e, i, j, c, f, g, k
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How to implement inorder tree traversal?

Visit the left/right subtree in-order recursively

# Priority queue

#### Primary operations for priority queues:

- Insert: add an element to the queue
- Find minimum/maximum: return the last/first element in the queue
- **Delete minimum/maximum:** remove the last/first element in the queue

| Operation                | Ar                 | ray                        | Delevered tree                               |
|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
|                          | Unsorted           | Sorted                     | Balanced tree                                |
| insert(Q,x)              | $\mathcal{O}(1)$   | $\mathcal{O}(n)$           | $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$                        |
| find_min(Q)              | $\mathcal{O}(1)^*$ | $\mathcal{O}(1)$           | $\mathcal{O}(1)^*$                           |
| <pre>delete_min(Q)</pre> | $\mathcal{O}(n)$   | $\mathcal{O}(1)^{\dagger}$ | Just exchange the min and the max, then dele |
|                          |                    |                            | and remove the min slo                       |

Add a pointer to record the minimum each time insert.

 $_{_{_{_{_{}}}}}^{*}$  How to reach  $\mathcal{O}(1)$  for an unsorted array and a balanced tree?

 $<sup>^\</sup>dagger$  How to reach  $\overline{\mathcal{O}(1)}$  when deleting the min in a sorted array?

#### Hash tables

Practical way to maintain a dictionary where:

- The data is stored in an array
- Each key is hashed and stored at index "the hash of the key"
- Keys with a similar hash are store in a linked list

Good hash function: all indices occur with equiprobability

#### Hash tables

Practical way to maintain a dictionary where:

- The data is stored in an array
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Good hash function: all indices occur with equiprobability

#### Example.

A common choice is  $H(k) = k \mod m$ , with m a prime not too close from a power of 2.

For n = 2000, 701 would be a good choice if one desires to have about three keys stored at each index.

#### Other common data structures

- **Strings:** array of characters; use suffix trees/arrays for pattern matching
- **Geometric element:** define regions as polygons using segments and points in an array or a tree
- Graphs: consider the adjacency matrix or an adjacency list;
   graph algorithms vary depending on the structure
- **Sets:** bit vector where the element in the set is the index and the value store is 1 or 0 depending whether the element is in the set; dictionaries can be used for fast membership queries

## Summary

A few points to remember when selecting a data structure:

- Data can be represented in many ways
- No data structure is fast in all aspects
- Choosing the wrong data structure can be disastrous in terms of performance
- Several choices are often possible
- Identifying the best data structure is often not critical
- Always aim for clear, simple, and efficient data structures

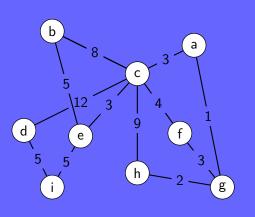
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# A first graph problem



#### Simple problem:

- We have *n* computers connected by wires
- Using different wires implies different costs
- We want:
  - All the computers to be connected to the network
  - Minimize the cost

# Minimum spanning tree

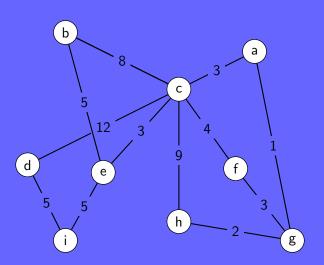
#### **Problem** (Minimum Spanning Tree (MST))

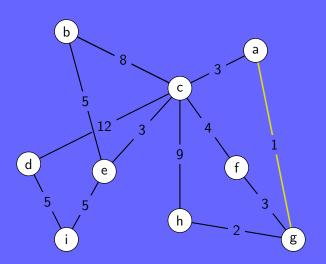
Given a weighted graph G, find a subgraph T such that:

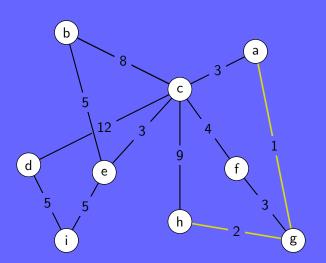
- $oldsymbol{0}$  All the vertices on G are connected on T,
- 2 The total weight, defined as the sum of the weight of all the edges in T, is minimized.

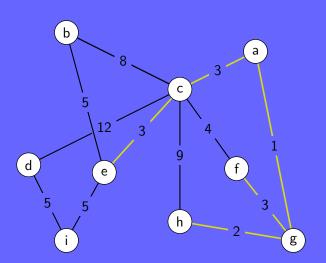
The graph T is a minimum spanning tree for G.

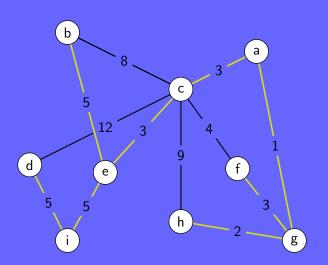
Note that T is a tree: if it contained a cycle, at least one edge could be removed, allowing a lower weight while preserving the connected property of  $T_{\mathbf{z}}$ .











# Kruskal's algorithm

```
Algorithm. (Kruskal)
  Input: A graph G = \langle V, E \rangle
  Output: A minimum spanning tree T for G
1 Sort the edges G.E by weight:
2 T \leftarrow \emptyset:
3 for edges (u, v) in G.E, in non-decreasing order do
     if adding (u, v) does not create a cycle then
         add edge (u, v) to T
    end if
6
7 end for
8 return T
```

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```

What needs to be specified?

# Correctness of Kruskal's algorithm

#### **Theorem**

Assuming the previous notations, Kruskal's algorithm produces a minimum spanning tree for G.

#### Proof.

Let  $G = \langle V, E \rangle$  be a graph and let v and w be two vertices connected by an edge. If S is the set of all the vertices with a path to v before e is added, then  $w \notin S$ , otherwise this would define a cycle. Moreover if there was an edge with smaller weight than e, connecting S and V - S, then it would have already been added. Therefore e is the cheapest edge connecting V - S to S, and as such belongs to a minimum spanning tree of G. Clearly by design the algorithm will not generate any cycle. Moreover as G is connected and all the edges are explored V - S and S will be linked at some stage. Hence T is connected.  $\Box$ 

## Back to the algorithm

**Issue:** how to represent the data such that whether or not adding an edge creates a cycle can be efficiently tested?

For each edge joining two vertices v and w:

- Identify all the connected components of v and w
- If the edge is to be included, merge the two components

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**Issue:** how to represent the data such that whether or not adding an edge creates a cycle can be efficiently tested?

For each edge joining two vertices v and w:

- Identify all the connected components of v and w
- If the edge is to be included, merge the two components

#### Extra notes:

- No edge needs to be removed
- No component needs to be split
- Everything must be done efficiently

#### Toward a new data structure

#### Representing data using:

- An array: testing can be done in constant time; merging requires linear time
- A graph: merging is only adding an edge; testing requires a full graph traversal

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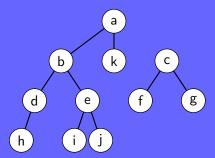
#### Implement a new data structure containing:

- A pointer to the parent
- The rank, or depth, of the sub-tree

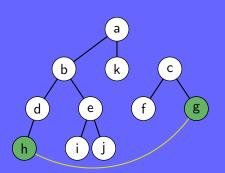
#### The two operations are:

- Find(v): find the root of the tree for vertex v
- Union(v,w): link the root of the tree containing v to the root of the tree containing w (or the other way around)

We have two sub-trees

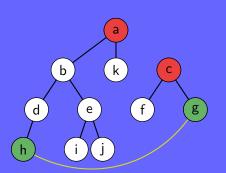


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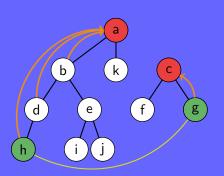
- We have two sub-trees
- On the graph an edge joins the vertices *h* and *g*

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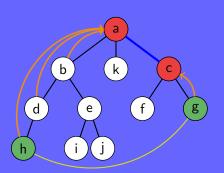
- We have two sub-trees
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- We have two sub-trees
- On the graph an edge joins the vertices h and g
- Find on h and g returns a and c respectively
- Update parents for h, d, b and g

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- We have two sub-trees
- On the graph an edge joins the vertices h and g
- Find on h and g returns a and c respectively
- Update parents for h, d, b and g
- Union connects c to a

# Handling a union-find structure

#### Algorithm.

```
1 Function GenSet(x):
      x.parent \leftarrow x; x.rank \leftarrow 0;
 3 end
 4 Function Find(x):
       if x.parent \neq x then x.parent \leftarrow Find(x.parent);
       return x.parent
 7 end
   Function Union(x,y):
       X \leftarrow \text{Find}(x); Y \leftarrow \text{Find}(y);
 9
       if X.rank > Y.rank then Y.parent \leftarrow X;
10
       else X.parent \leftarrow Y:
       if X.rank = Y.rank then Y.rank++:
12
13 end
```

# Revisiting Kruskal's algorithm

```
Algorithm. (Kruskal with find-union)
```

```
Input: A graph G = \langle V, E \rangle
  Output: A minimum spanning tree T
1 Sort the edges G.E by weight;
2 T \leftarrow \emptyset:
 for edges (u, v) in G.E, in non-decreasing order do
     if Find(u) \neq Find(v) then
          add edge (u, v) to T;
         Union(u,v)
6
      end if
8 end for
9 return T
```

# Counting inversions

#### **Problem** (Counting inversions)

Given a list of n elements  $a_0, \dots, a_{n-1}$ , determine how many pairs  $(a_i, a_j)_{0 \le i, j \le n}$  are not in ascending order. Such pairs are called inversions.

#### Remark.

This problem has numerous applications such as

- Voting theory
- Analysis of search engines ranking
- Collaborative filtering

# Example

Given 6 movies compare the ranking of two users:

| Movie       | А | В | С | D | Е | F |
|-------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| First user  | 1 | _ | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| Second user | 1 |   | 5 | 2 | 4 | 6 |

# Example

Given 6 movies compare the ranking of two users:

| Movie       | А | В   | С | D | Е | F |
|-------------|---|-----|---|---|---|---|
| First user  | 1 | 2 3 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
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Inversions: (3,2), (5,2), (5,4)

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Inversions: (3,2), (5,2), (5,4)

A simple geometrical view:

How many crosses and how many inversions



# Divide and conquer approach

Strategy for solving the counting inversions problem (1.40):

- **1** Divide: split the list L into two halves  $L_1$  and  $L_2$
- 2 Conquer: recursively count inversions in each list
- **3 Combine:** count inversions for the pairs  $(l_i, l_j)$  with  $l_i$  and  $l_j$  belonging to  $L_1$  and  $L_2$  respectively

The sum of the three counts is the total number of inversion in L Example.

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```
      1
      5
      4
      8
      10
      2
      6
      9
      3
      7

      1
      5
      4
      8
      10
      2
      6
      9
      3
      7

      (5,4)
      (6,3),(9,3),(9,7)

      1
      4
      5
      8
      10
      2
      3
      6
      7
      9
```

(4,2), (4,3), (5,2), (5,3), (8,2), (8,3), (8,6), (8,7), (10,2), (10,3), (10,6), (10,7), (10,9)

# Merge and count

# Algorithm. (Merge and count)

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```
Input: Two sorted lists: L_1 = (l_{1,1}, \dots, l_{1,n_1}) and
            L_2 = (l_{21}, \cdots, l_{2n_2})
Output: The number of inversions count, and L_1 and L_2 merged
            into L
Function MergeCount (L_1, L_2):
     count \leftarrow 0: L \leftarrow \emptyset: i \leftarrow 1: i \leftarrow 1:
     while i \le n_1 and j \le n_2 do
         if l_{1,i} \leq l_{2,i} then
          append l_{1,i} to L; i++; all > l_{2,j}, and to count else (l_{1,i}, l_{1,i+1}, \dots, l_{1,i+1})
         else
              append l_{2,j} to L; count \leftarrow count + n_1 - i + 1; j++;
         end if
     end while
     if i > n_1 then append l_{2,i}, \dots, l_{2,n_2} to L;
     else append l_{1,i}, \dots, l_{1,n_1} to L;
     return count and L
```

#### Sort and count

## Algorithm. (Sort and count)

```
Input: A list L = (l_1, \dots, l_n)
   Output: The number of inversions count and L sorted
   Function SortCount(L):
        if n=1 then return 0 and L;
        else
            Split L into L_1=(l_1,\cdots,l_{\lceil n/2\rceil}) and L_2=
 4
             (I_{\lceil n/2 \rceil+1}, \cdots, I_n);
            count_1, L_1 \leftarrow SortCount(L_1);
            count_2, L_2 \leftarrow SortCount(L_2);
            count, L \leftarrow MergeCount(L_1, L_2);
        end if
 8
 9
        count \leftarrow count_1 + count_2 + count;
        return count and L
10
11 end
```

### Key points

- How to present pseudocode?
- What are the two main categories of data structure?
- What is a greedy algorithm?
- Describe the divide and conquer strategy
- How is the Union-Find data structure working?

# Thank you!