Summary & Review

Dr. 何明昕, He Mingxin, Max

program06 @ yeah.net

Email Subject：CS203B + *ID* + *Name*: *TOPIC*

Sakai: CS203B Fall 2022

数据结构与算法分析B

Data Structures and Algorithm Analysis

Key Terms

Algorithm

- A problem-solving method suitable for implementation as a computer program

Data structures

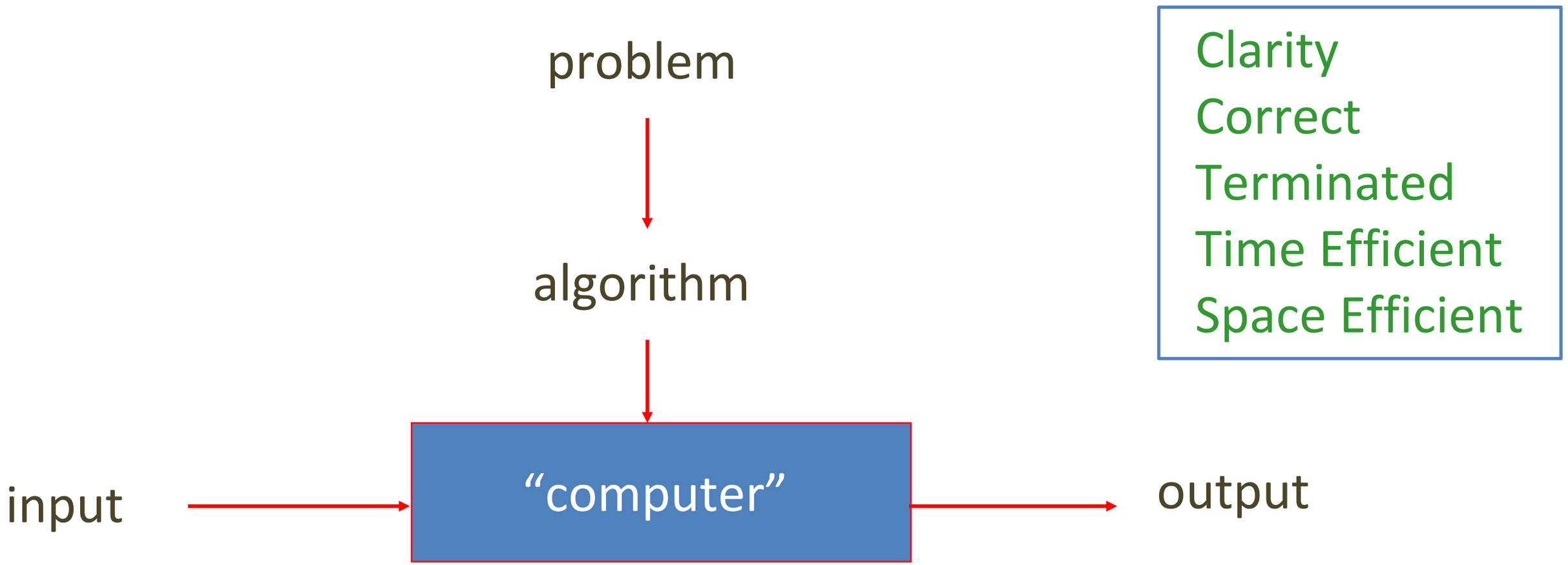
- Objects created to organize data used in computation
- A way to store and organize data in order to facilitate access and modifications

Data structure exist as the by-product or end product of algorithms

- Understanding data structure is essential to understanding algorithms and hence to problem-solving
- Simple algorithms can give rise to complicated data-structures
- Complicated algorithms can use simple data structures

What is an Algorithm?

An *algorithm* is a sequence of unambiguous instructions for solving a computation problem, i.e., for obtaining a required output for any legitimate input in a finite amount of time.



Why study Data Structures and algorithms?

Using a computer?

- Solve computational problems?
- Want it to go faster?
- Ability to process more data?

Technology vs. Performance/cost factor

- Technology can improve things by a constant factor
- Good algorithm design can do much better and may be cheaper
- Supercomputer cannot rescue a bad algorithm

Data structures and algorithms as a field of study

- Old enough to have basics known
- New discoveries
- Burgeoning application areas
- Philosophical implications?

Data Structures covered in the course

Data Structures	Advantages	Disadvantages
Array	Quick insertion, very fast access if index known	Slow search (fast after sorting), slow deletion, fixed size.
Ordered array	Quicker search than unsorted array.	Slow insertion and deletion, fixed size.
Stack	Provides last-in, first-out access.	Slow access to other items.
Queue	Provides first-in, first-out access.	Slow access to other items.
Linked list	Quick insertion, quick deletion.	Slow search.
Binary tree	Quick search, insertion, deletion	Deletion algorithm is complex.
Graph	Models real-world situations.	Some algorithms are slow and complex.
Hashing	Quick search, insertion, and deletion	Collision

Topics Covered:

15UnionFind

14AnalysisOfAlgorithms

13StacksAndQueues

21ElementarySorts

22Mergesort

23Quicksort

24PriorityQueues

A31ElementarySymbolTables

B32BinarySearchTrees

33BalancedSearchTrees

41UndirectedGraphs

42DirectedGraphs

43MinimumSpanningTrees

51StringSorts

53SubstringSearch

Course Evaluation:

- Class participation/quiz 10%
- Lab 20%
- Course project 20%
- Mid term exam 20%
- Final exam 30%

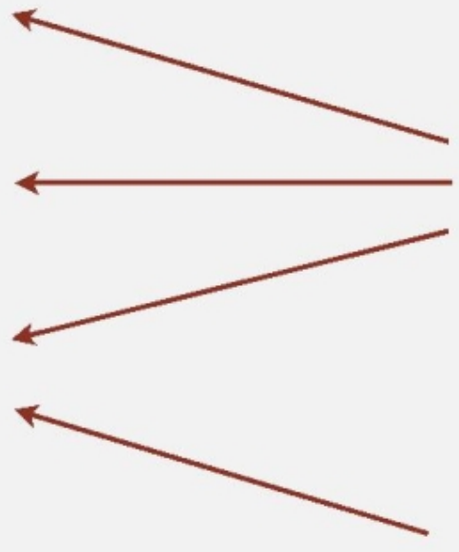
Reasons to analyze algorithms

Predict performance.

Compare algorithms.

Provide guarantees.

Understand theoretical basis.



this course

theory of algorithms (minor topics)

Primary practical reason: avoid performance bugs.

client gets poor performance because programmer did not understand performance characteristics

Scientific method applied to analysis of algorithms

A framework for predicting performance and comparing algorithms.

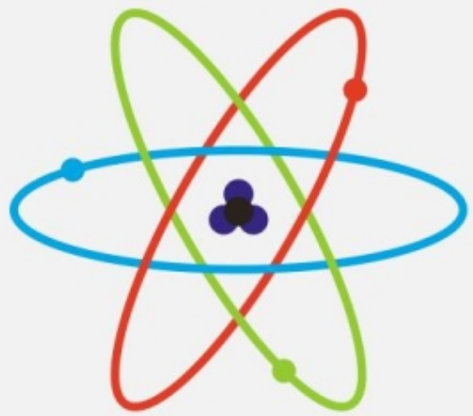
Scientific method.

- Observe some feature of the natural world.
- Hypothesize a model that is consistent with the observations.
- Predict events using the hypothesis.
- Verify the predictions by making further observations.
- Validate by repeating until the hypothesis and observations agree.

Principles.

- Experiments must be reproducible.
- Hypotheses must be falsifiable.

Feature of the natural world. Computer itself.



Experimental algorithmics

System independent effects.

- Algorithm.
- Input data.

} determines exponent in power law

System dependent effects.

- Hardware: CPU, memory, cache, ...
- Software: compiler, interpreter, garbage collector, ...
- System: operating system, network, other apps, ...

} determines constant in power law

Bad news. Difficult to get precise measurements.

Good news. Much easier and cheaper than other sciences.

e.g., can run huge number of experiments

Simplification 1: cost model

Cost model. Use some basic operation as a proxy for running time.

```
int count = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
   for (int j = i+1; j < N; j++)
      if (a[i] + a[j] == 0)
         count++;
```

$$0 + 1 + 2 + \ldots + (N-1) \;=\; \frac{1}{2} N (N-1)$$

$$= \binom{N}{2}$$

operation	frequency
variable declaration	$N + 2$
assignment statement	$N + 2$
less than compare	$\frac{1}{2} (N + 1) (N + 2)$
equal to compare	$\frac{1}{2} N (N - 1)$
array access	$N (N - 1)$
increment	$\frac{1}{2} N (N - 1)$ to $N (N - 1)$

cost model = array accesses

(we assume compiler/JVM do not optimize any array accesses away!)

Simplification 2: tilde notation

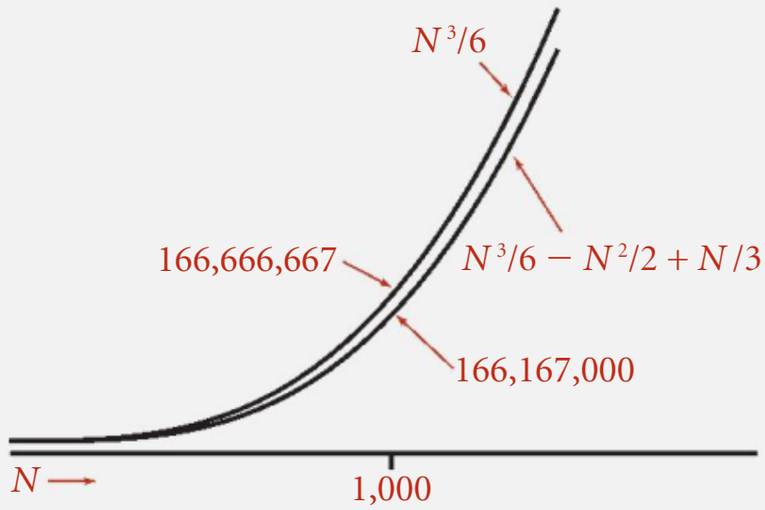
- Estimate running time (or memory) as a function of input size N.
- Ignore lower order terms.
  - when N is large, terms are negligible
  - when N is small, we don't care

Ex 1. $\frac{1}{6} N^3 + 20 N + 16 \sim \frac{1}{6} N^3$

Ex 2. $\frac{1}{6} N^3 + 100 N^{4/3} + 56 \sim \frac{1}{6} N^3$

Ex 3. $\frac{1}{6} N^3 - \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} N^2 + \frac{1}{3} N}_{\text{discard lower-order terms}} \sim \frac{1}{6} N^3$

(e.g., N = 1000: 166.67 million vs. 166.17 million)



Leading-term approximation

Technical definition. $f(N) \sim g(N)$ means $\lim_{N \to \infty} \frac{f(N)}{g(N)} = 1$

Simplification 2: tilde notation

- Estimate running time (or memory) as a function of input size N.
- Ignore lower order terms.
  - when N is large, terms are negligible
  - when N is small, we don't care

operation	frequency	tilde notation
variable declaration	$N + 2$	$\sim N$
assignment statement	$N + 2$	$\sim N$
less than compare	$\frac{1}{2}(N + 1)(N + 2)$	$\sim \frac{1}{2} N^2$
equal to compare	$\frac{1}{2} N (N - 1)$	$\sim \frac{1}{2} N^2$
array access	$N (N - 1)$	$\sim N^2$
increment	$\frac{1}{2} N (N - 1)$ to $N (N - 1)$	$\sim \frac{1}{2} N^2$ to $\sim N^2$

Diversion: estimating a discrete sum

Q. How to estimate a discrete sum?

A1. Take a discrete mathematics course.

A2. Replace the sum with an integral, and use calculus!

Ex 1. $1 + 2 + \ldots + N.$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} i \sim \int_{x=1}^{N} x\,dx \sim \frac{1}{2} N^2$$

Ex 2. $1^k + 2^k + \ldots + N^k.$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} i^k \sim \int_{x=1}^{N} x^k dx \sim \frac{1}{k+1} N^{k+1}$$

Ex 3. $1 + 1/2 + 1/3 + \ldots + 1/N.$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{i} \sim \int_{x=1}^{N} \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln N$$

Ex 4. 3-sum triple loop.

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{j=i}^{N} \sum_{k=j}^{N} 1 \sim \int_{x=1}^{N} \int_{y=x}^{N} \int_{z=y}^{N} dz\,dy\,dx \sim \frac{1}{6} N^3$$

Mathematical models for running time

In principle, accurate mathematical models are available.

In practice,

- Formulas can be complicated.
- Advanced mathematics might be required.
- Exact models best left for experts.

costs (depend on machine, compiler)

$$T_N = c_1 A + c_2 B + c_3 C + c_4 D + c_5 E$$

$A =$ array access
$B =$ integer add
$C =$ integer compare
$D =$ increment
$E =$ variable assignment

frequencies
(depend on algorithm, input)

Bottom line. We use approximate models in this course: $T(N) \sim c\,N^3$.

Common order-of-growth classifications

Definition. If $f(N) \sim c\, g(N)$ for some constant $c > 0$, then the order of growth of $f(N)$ is $g(N)$.

- Ignores leading coefficient.
- Ignores lower-order terms.

Ex. The order of growth of the running time of this code is N^3.

```
int count = 0;
for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
   for (int j = i+1; j < N; j++)
      for (int k = j+1; k < N; k++)
         if (a[i] + a[j] + a[k] == 0)
            count++;
```

Typical usage. With running times.

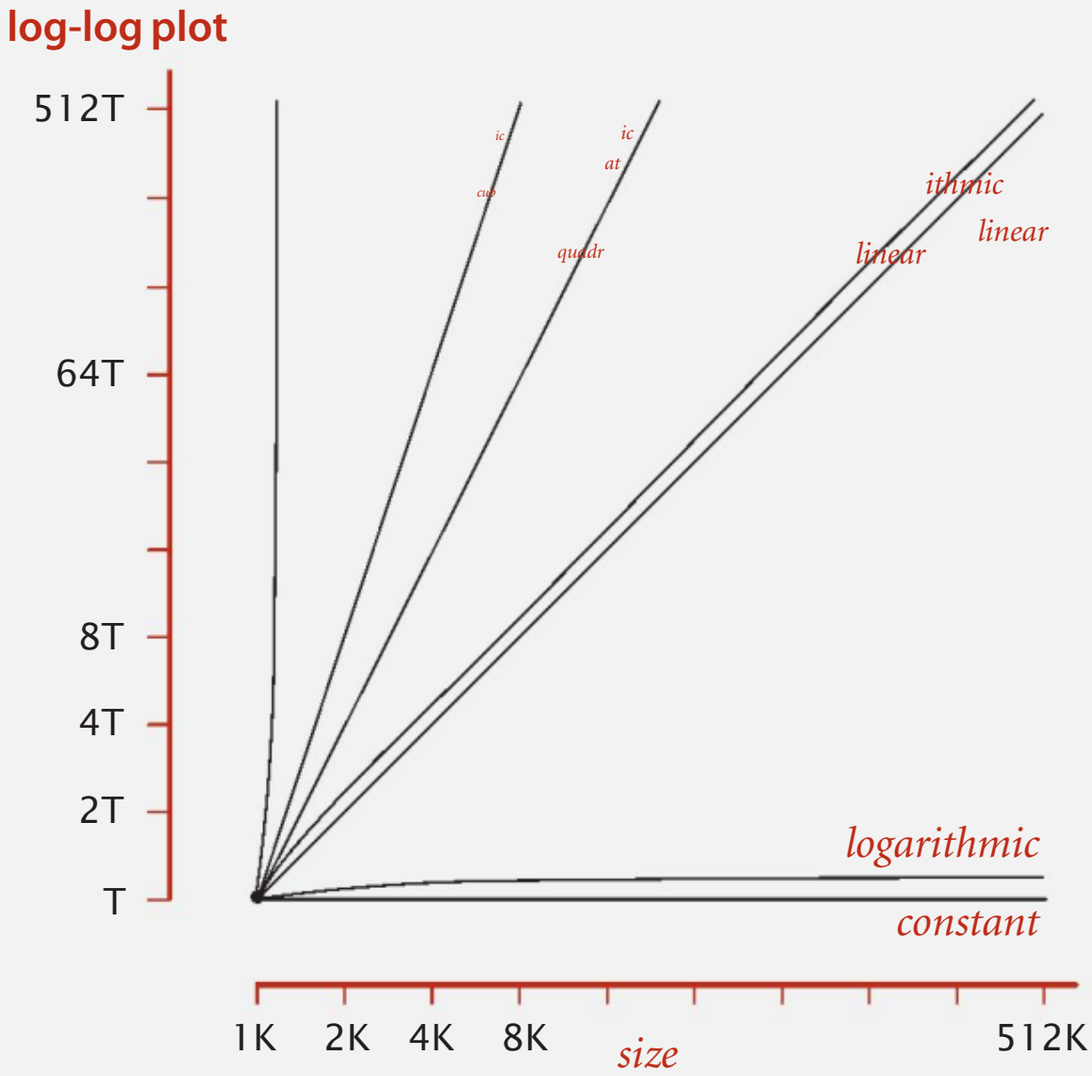
where leading coefficient depends on machine, compiler, JVM, ...

Common order-of-growth classifications

Good news. The set of functions

$$1, \log N, N, N \log N, N^2, N^3, \text{ and } 2^N$$

suffices to describe the order of growth of most common algorithms.



Typical orders of growth

Common order-of-growth classifications

order of growth	name	typical code framework	description	example	$T(2N)$ / T(N)
1	**constant**	`a = b + c;`	statement	add two numbers	1
$\log N$	**logarithmic**	`while (N > 1) { N = N / 2; ... }`	divide in half	binary search	~ 1
N	**linear**	`for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) { ... }`	loop	find the maximum	2
$N \log N$	**linearithmic**	[see mergesort lecture]	divide and conquer	mergesort	~ 2
N^2	**quadratic**	`for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) for (int j = 0; j < N; j++) { ... }`	double loop	check all pairs	4
N^3	**cubic**	`for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) for (int j = 0; j < N; j++) for (int k = 0; k < N; k++) { ... }`	triple loop	check all triples	8
2^N	**exponential**	[see combinatorial search lecture]	exhaustive search	check all subsets	$T(N)$

Binary search: mathematical analysis

Proposition. Binary search uses at most $1 + \lg N$ key compares to search in a sorted array of size N.

Def. $T(N)$ = # key compares to binary search a sorted subarray of size $\leq N$.

Binary search recurrence. $T(N) \leq T(N/2) + 1$ for $N > 1$, with $T(1) = 1$.

left or right half (floored division)

possible to implement with one 2-way compare (instead of 3-way)

Pf sketch. [assume N is a power of 2]

$$
\begin{aligned}
T(N) &\leq T(N/2) + 1 && \text{[given]} \\
&\leq T(N/4) + 1 + 1 && \text{[apply recurrence to first term]} \\
&\leq T(N/8) + 1 + 1 + 1 && \text{[apply recurrence to first term]} \\
&\vdots \\
&\leq T(N/N) + 1 + 1 + \ldots + 1 && \text{[stop applying, T(1) = 1]} \\
&= 1 + \lg N
\end{aligned}
$$

Types of analyses

Best case. Lower bound on cost.

- Determined by "easiest" input.
- Provides a goal for all inputs.

Worst case. Upper bound on cost.

- Determined by "most difficult" input.
- Provides a guarantee for all inputs.

Average case. Expected cost for random input.

- Need a model for "random" input.
- Provides a way to predict performance.

this course

Ex 1. Array accesses for brute-force 3-SUM.

Best: $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$

Average: $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$

Worst: $\sim \frac{1}{2} N^3$

Ex 2. Compares for binary search.

Best: ~ 1

Average: $\sim \lg N$

Worst: $\sim \lg N$

Theory of algorithms

Goals.

- Establish "difficulty/complexity" of a problem.
- Develop "optimal" algorithms.

Approach.

- Suppress details in analysis: analyze "to within a constant factor."
- Eliminate variability in input model: focus on the worst case.

Upper bound. Performance guarantee of algorithm for any input.

Lower bound. Proof that no algorithm can do better.

Optimal algorithm. Lower bound = upper bound (to within a constant factor).

Commonly-used notations in the theory of algorithms

notation	provides	example	shorthand for	used to
Big Theta	asymptotic order of growth	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$ $10 N^2$ $5 N^2 + 22 N \log N + 3N$ ⋮	classify algorithms
Big Oh	$\Theta(N^2)$ and smaller	$O(N^2)$	$10 N^2$ $100 N$ $22 N \log N + 3 N$ ⋮	develop upper bounds
Big Omega	$\Theta(N^2)$ and larger	$\Omega(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$ N^5 $N^3 + 22 N \log N + 3 N$ ⋮	develop lower bounds

Asymptotic notation (渐近记号)

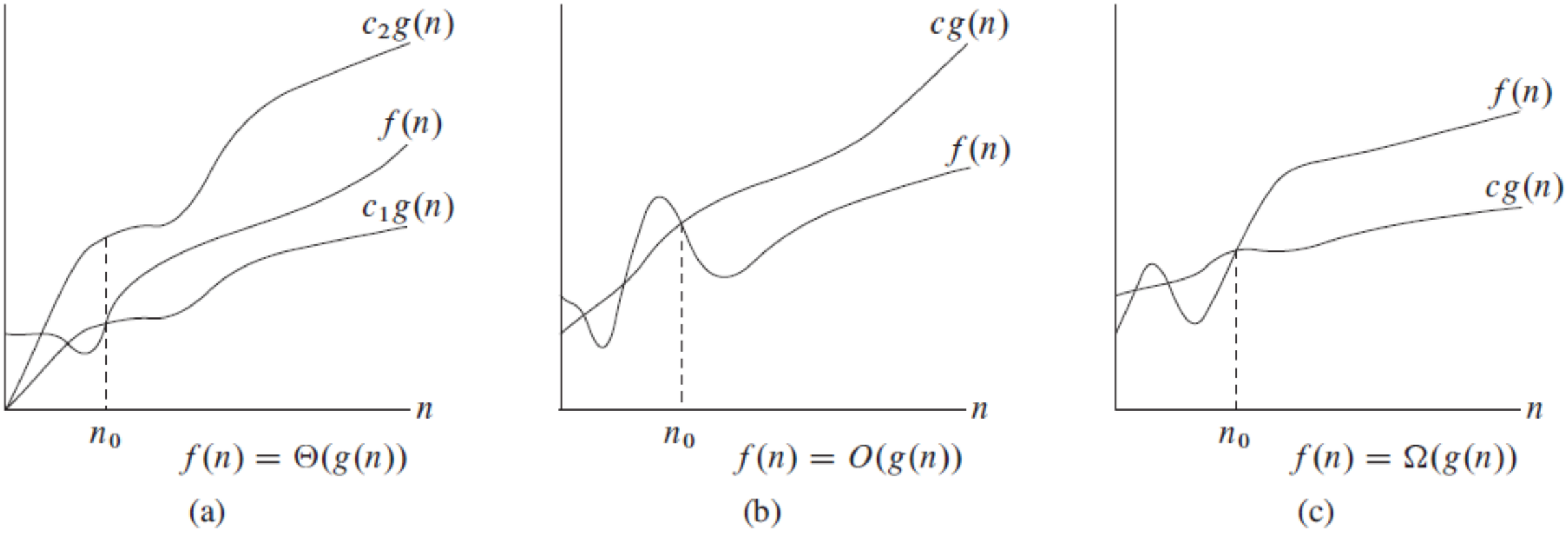


Figure 3.1 Graphic examples of the Θ, O, and Ω notations. In each part, the value of n_0 shown is the minimum possible value; any greater value would also work. **(a)** Θ-notation bounds a function to within constant factors. We write $f(n) = \Theta(g(n))$ if there exist positive constants n_0, c_1, and c_2 such that at and to the right of n_0, the value of $f(n)$ always lies between $c_1 g(n)$ and $c_2 g(n)$ inclusive. **(b)** O-notation gives an upper bound for a function to within a constant factor. We write $f(n) = O(g(n))$ if there are positive constants n_0 and c such that at and to the right of n_0, the value of $f(n)$ always lies on or below $cg(n)$. **(c)** Ω-notation gives a lower bound for a function to within a constant factor. We write $f(n) = \Omega(g(n))$ if there are positive constants n_0 and c such that at and to the right of n_0, the value of $f(n)$ always lies on or above $cg(n)$.

Theory of algorithms: example 1

Goals.

- Establish "difficulty" of a problem and develop "optimal" algorithms.
- Ex. 1-SUM = "*Is there a* 0 *in the array?* "

Upper bound. A specific algorithm.

- Ex. Brute-force algorithm for 1-SUM: Look at every array entry.
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 1-SUM is $O(N)$.

Lower bound. Proof that no algorithm can do better.

- Ex. Have to examine all N entries (any unexamined one might be 0).
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 1-SUM is $\Omega(N)$.

Optimal algorithm.

- Lower bound equals upper bound (to within a constant factor).
- Ex. Brute-force algorithm for 1-SUM is optimal: its running time is $\Theta(N)$.

Commonly-used notations in the theory of algorithms

notation	provides	example	shorthand for	used to
Tilde	leading term	$\sim 10\,N^2$	$10\,N^2$ $10\,N^2 + 22\,N \log N$ $10\,N^2 + 2\,N + 37$	provide approximate model
Big Theta	asymptotic order of growth	$\Theta(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2}\,N^2$ $10\,N^2$ $5\,N^2 + 22\,N \log N + 3N$	classify algorithms
Big Oh	$\Theta(N^2)$ and smaller	$O(N^2)$	$10\,N^2$ $100\,N$ $22\,N \log N + 3\,N$	develop upper bounds
Big Omega	$\Theta(N^2)$ and larger	$\Omega(N^2)$	$\frac{1}{2}\,N^2$ N^5 $N^3 + 22\,N \log N + 3\,N$	develop lower bounds

Common mistake. Interpreting big-Oh as an approximate model.

This course. Focus on approximate models: use Tilde-notation

Basics

Bit. 0 or 1.

Byte. 8 bits.

Megabyte (MB). 1 million or 2^{20} bytes.

Gigabyte (GB). 1 billion or 2^{30} bytes.

NIST

most computer scientists

64-bit machine. We assume a 64-bit machine with 8-byte pointers.

- Can address more memory.
- Pointers use more space.

some JVMs "compress" ordinary object pointers to 4 bytes to avoid this cost

Typical memory usage for primitive types and arrays

type	bytes
`boolean`	1
`byte`	1
`char`	2
`int`	4
`float`	4
`long`	8
`double`	8

primitive types

type	bytes
`char[]`	$2N + 24$
`int[]`	$4N + 24$
`double[]`	$8N + 24$

one-dimensional arrays

type	bytes
`char[][]`	$\sim 2MN$
`int[][]`	$\sim 4MN$
`double[][]`	$\sim 8MN$

two-dimensional arrays

Typical memory usage for objects in Java

Object overhead. 16 bytes.

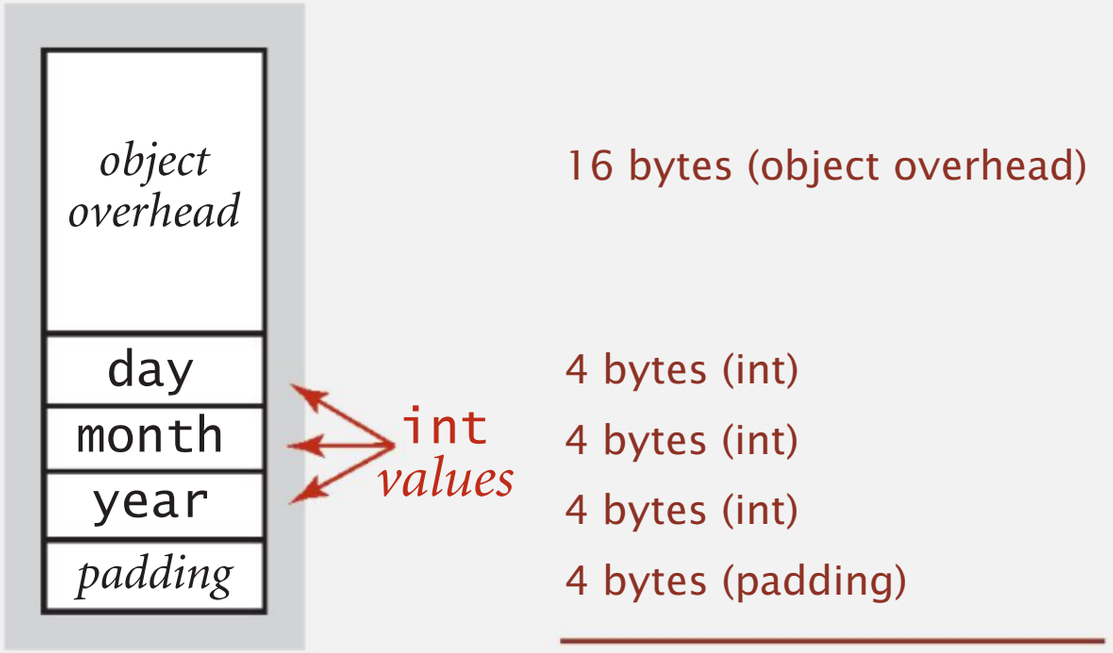
Reference. 8 bytes.

Padding. Each object uses a multiple of 8 bytes.

Ex 1. A `Date` object uses 32 bytes of memory.

```
public class Date {

   private int day;
   private int month;
   private int year;
   ...
}
```



Typical memory usage summary

Total memory usage for a data type value:

- Primitive type: 4 bytes for `int`, 8 bytes for `double`, ...
- Object reference: 8 bytes.
- Array: 24 bytes + memory for each array entry.
- Object: 16 bytes + memory for each instance variable.
- Padding: round up to multiple of 8 bytes.

+ 8 extra bytes per inner class object
(for reference to enclosing class)

Shallow memory usage: Don't count referenced objects.

Deep memory usage: If array entry or instance variable is a reference, count memory (recursively) for referenced object.

Example

Q. How much memory does `WeightedQuickUnionUF` use as a function of N?
Use tilde notation to simplify your answer.

```
public class WeightedQuickUnionUF {

   private int[] id;
   private int[] sz;
   private int count;

   public WeightedQuickUnionUF(int N) {

      id = new int[N];
      sz = new int[N];
      for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) id[i] = i;
      for (int i = 0; i < N; i++) sz[i] = 1;
   }
   ...
}
```

16 bytes
(object overhead)

8 + (4N + 24) bytes each
(reference + `int[]` array)

4 bytes (`int`)

4 bytes (padding)

8N + 88 bytes

A. $8N + 88 \sim 8N$ bytes.

Algorithm Design Methods: Techniques/Strategies

Brute Force

Divide and Conquer

Decrease and Conquer

Transform and Conquer

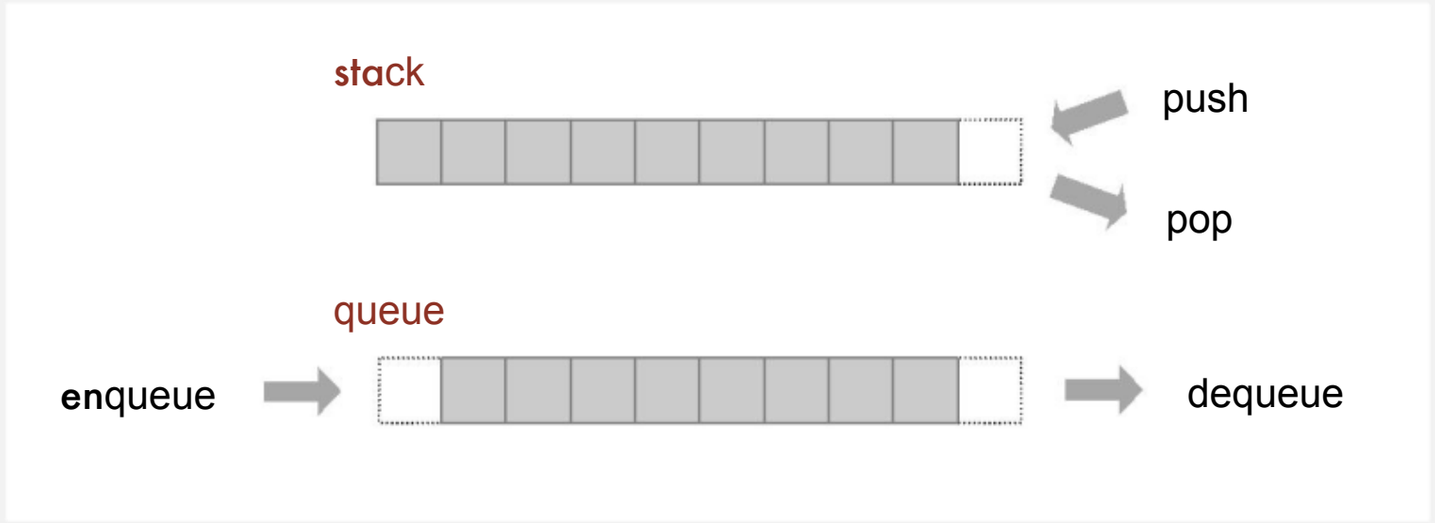
Space & Time Tradeoffs

- Greedy Approach
- Dynamic Programming
- Iterative improvement
- Backtracking
- Branch and bound

Stacks and queues

Fundamental data types.

- Value: collection of objects.
- Operations: insert, remove, iterate, test if empty.
- Intent is clear when we insert.
- Which item do we remove?



Stack. Examine the item most recently added. ← LIFO = "last in first out"

Queue. Examine the item least recently added. ← FIFO = "first in first out"

Stack: linked-list implementation in Java

```
public class LinkedStackOfStrings
{
      private Node first = null;

      private class Node
      {
            String item;
            Node next;
      }

      public boolean isEmpty()
      {   return first == null;   }

      public void push(String item)
      {
            Node oldfirst = first;
            first = new Node();
            first.item = item;
            first.next = oldfirst;
      }

      public String pop()
      {
            String item = first.item;
            first = first.next;
            return item;
      }
}
```

private inner class
(access modifiers for instance variables don't matter)

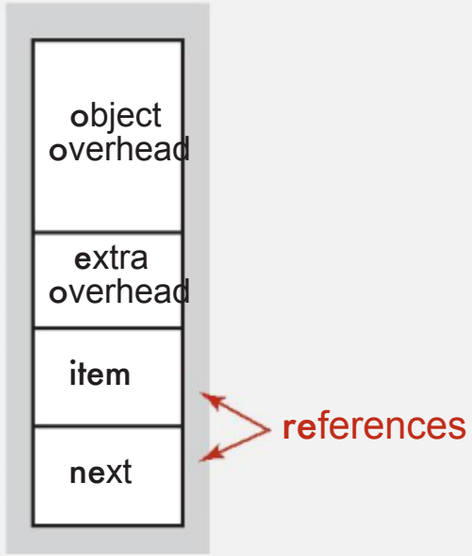
Stack: linked-list implementation performance

Proposition. Every operation takes constant time in the worst case.

Proposition. A stack with N items uses ~ 40 N bytes.

inner class

```
private class Node
{
      String item;
      Node next;
}
```



16 bytes (object overhead)

8 bytes (inner class extra overhead)

8 bytes (reference to String)

8 bytes (reference to Node)

40 bytes per stack node

Remark. This accounts for the memory for the stack
(but not the memory for strings themselves, which the client owns).

Queue dequeue: linked-list implementation

inner class

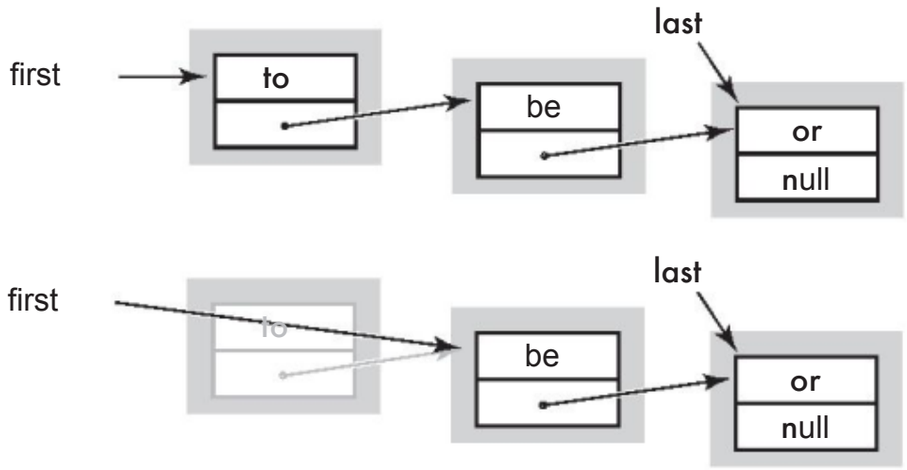
```
private class Node
{
    String item;
    Node next;
}
```

save item to return

```
String item = first.item;
```

delete first node

```
first = first.next;
```



return saved item

```
return item;
```

Remark. Identical code to linked-list stack pop().

Generic stack: array implementation

```
public class FixedCapacityStackOfStrings
{
   private String[] s;
   private int N = 0;

   public ..StackOfStrings(int capacity)
   {  s = new String[capacity];  }

   public boolean isEmpty()
   {  return N == 0;  }

   public void push(String item)
   {  s[N++] = item;  }

   public String pop()
   {  return s[--N];  }
}
```

the way it should be

```
public class FixedCapacityStack <Item>
{
   private Item[] s;
   private int N = 0;

   public FixedCapacityStack(int capacity)
   {  s = new Item[capacity];  }

   public boolean isEmpty()
   {  return N == 0;  }

   public void push(Item item)
   {  s[N++] = item;  }

   public Item pop()
   {  return s[--N];  }
}
```

@#$*! generic array creation not allowed in Java

Generic stack: array implementation

```
public class FixedCapacityStackOfStrings
{
   private String[] s;
   private int N = 0;

   public ..StackOfStrings(int capacity)
   {  s = new String[capacity];  }

   public boolean isEmpty()
   {  return N == 0;  }

   public void push(String item)
   {  s[N++] = item;  }

   public String pop()
   {  return s[--N];  }
}
```

the way it is

```
public class FixedCapacityStack<Item>
{
   private Item[] s;
   private int N = 0;

   public FixedCapacityStack(int capacity)
   {  s = (Item[]) new Object[capacity]; }

   public boolean isEmpty()
   {  return N == 0;  }

   public void push(Item item)
   {  s[N++] = item;  }

   public Item pop()
   {  return s[--N];  }
}
```

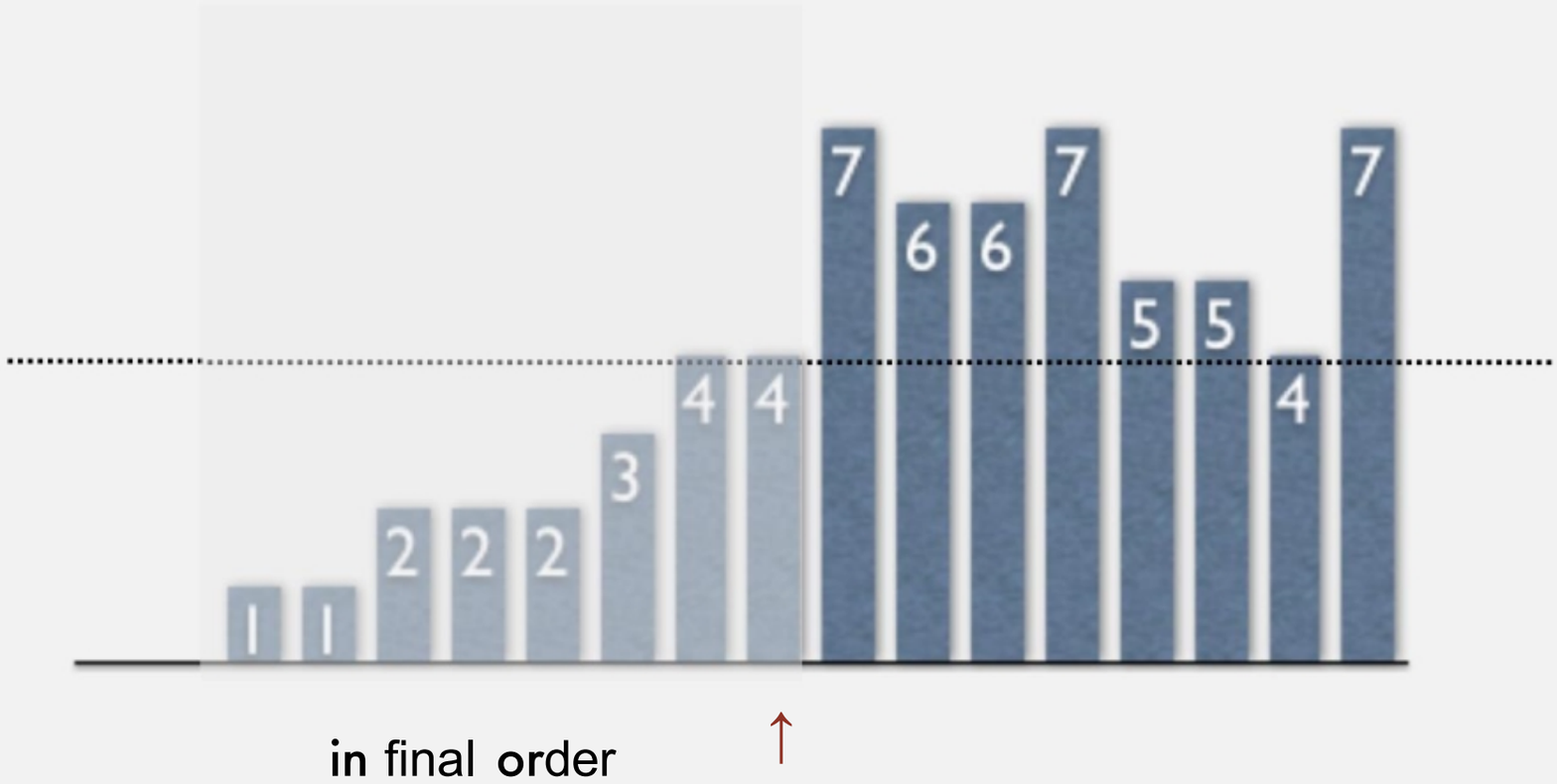
the ugly cast

Selection sort

Algorithm. ↑ scans from left to right.

Invariants.

- Entries the left of ↑ (including ↑) fixed and in ascending order.
- No entry to right of ↑ is smaller than any entry to the left of ↑.



Insertion sort

Algorithm. ↑ scans from left to right.

Invariants.

- Entries to the left of ↑ (including ↑) are in ascending order.
- Entries to the right of ↑ have not yet been seen.

Shellsort overview

Idea. Move entries **more than one** position at a time by h-sorting **the array**.

an h-sorted array is h interleaved sorted subsequences

h = 4

Shellsort. [Shell 1959] h-sort **array** for decreasing sequence of values of h.

input	S H E L L S O R T E X A M P L E
13-sort	P H E L L S O R T E X A M S L E
4-sort	L E E A M H L E P S O L T S X R
1-sort	A E E E H L L L M O P R S S T X

Key of Divide and Conquer

Divide into smaller parts (subproblems)

Solve the smaller parts **recursively**

Merge the result of the smaller parts

```
ResultType DandC(Problem p) {
    if (p is trivial) {
        solve p directly                          t_s
        return the result
    } else {
        divide p into p_1,p_2,...,p_n             t_d
        for (i = 1 to n)                          t_r
            r_i = DandC(p_i)
        combine r_1,r_2,...,r_n into r            t_c
        return r
    }
}
```

Trivial Case

Divide

Recursive

Combine

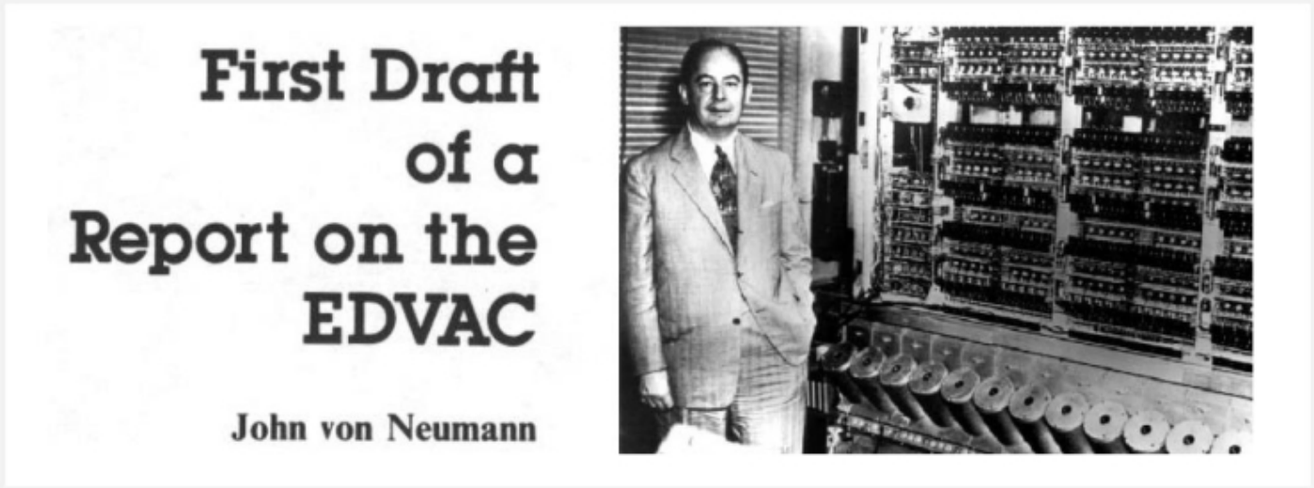
Mergesort

Basic plan.

- Divide array into two halves.
- Recursively sort each half.
- Merge two halves.

input	M	E	R	G	E	S	O	R	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
sort left half	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	T	E	X	A	M	P	L	E
sort right half	E	E	G	M	O	R	R	S	A	E	E	L	M	P	T	X
merge results	A	E	E	E	E	G	L	M	M	O	P	R	R	S	T	X

Mergesort overview



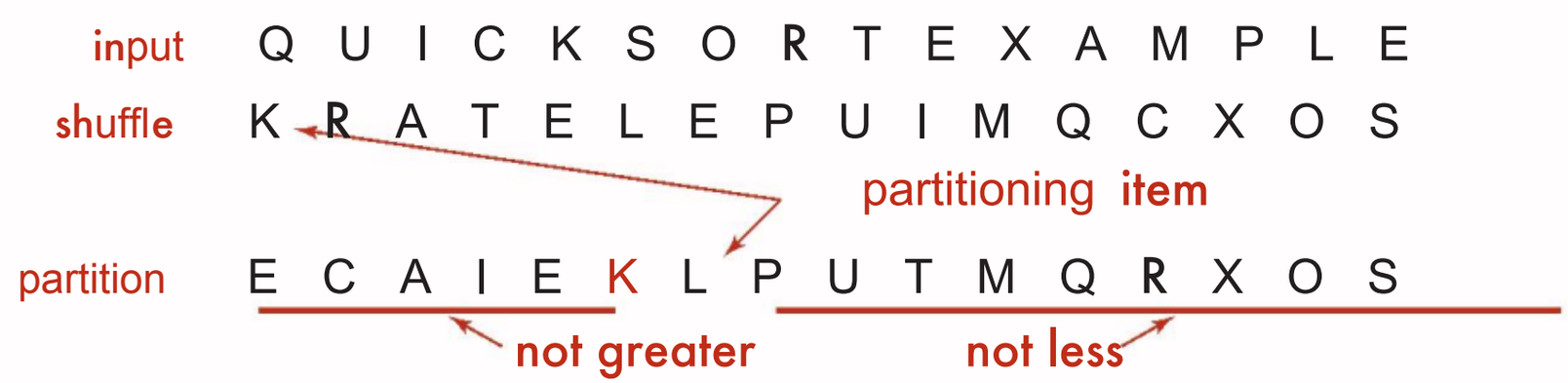
Quicksort overview

Step 1. Shuffle the array.

Step 2. Partition the array so that, for some j

- Entry a[j] is in place.
- No larger entry to the left of j.
- No smaller entry to the right of j.

Step 3. Sort each subarray recursively.

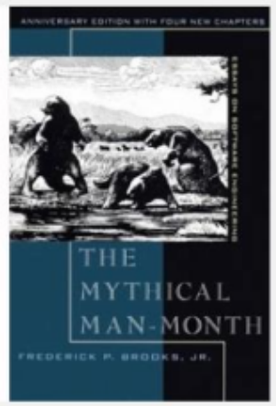


Collections

A collection is a data type that stores a group of items.

data type	core operations	data structure
stack	PUSH, POP	linked list, resizing array
queue	ENQUEUE, DEQUEUE	linked list, resizing array
priority queue	INSERT, DELETE-MAX	binary heap
symbol table	PUT, GET, DELETE	binary search tree, hash table
set	ADD, CONTAINS, DELETE	binary search tree, hash table

" Show me your code and conceal your data structures, and I shall continue to be mystified. Show me your data structures, and I won't usually need your code; it'll be obvious." — Fred Brooks



Priority queue

Collections. Insert and delete items. Which item to delete?

Stack. **Remo**ve the item most recently added.

Queue. **Remo**ve the item least recently added.

Randomized queue. **Remo**ve a random item.

Priority queue. **Remo**ve the largest (or smallest) item.

Generalizes: **sta**ck, queue, randomized queue.

operation	argument	return value
insert	P	
insert	Q	
insert	E	
remove max		Q
insert	X	
insert	A	
insert	M	
remove max		X
insert	P	
insert	L	
insert	E	
remove max		P

Binary heap: representation

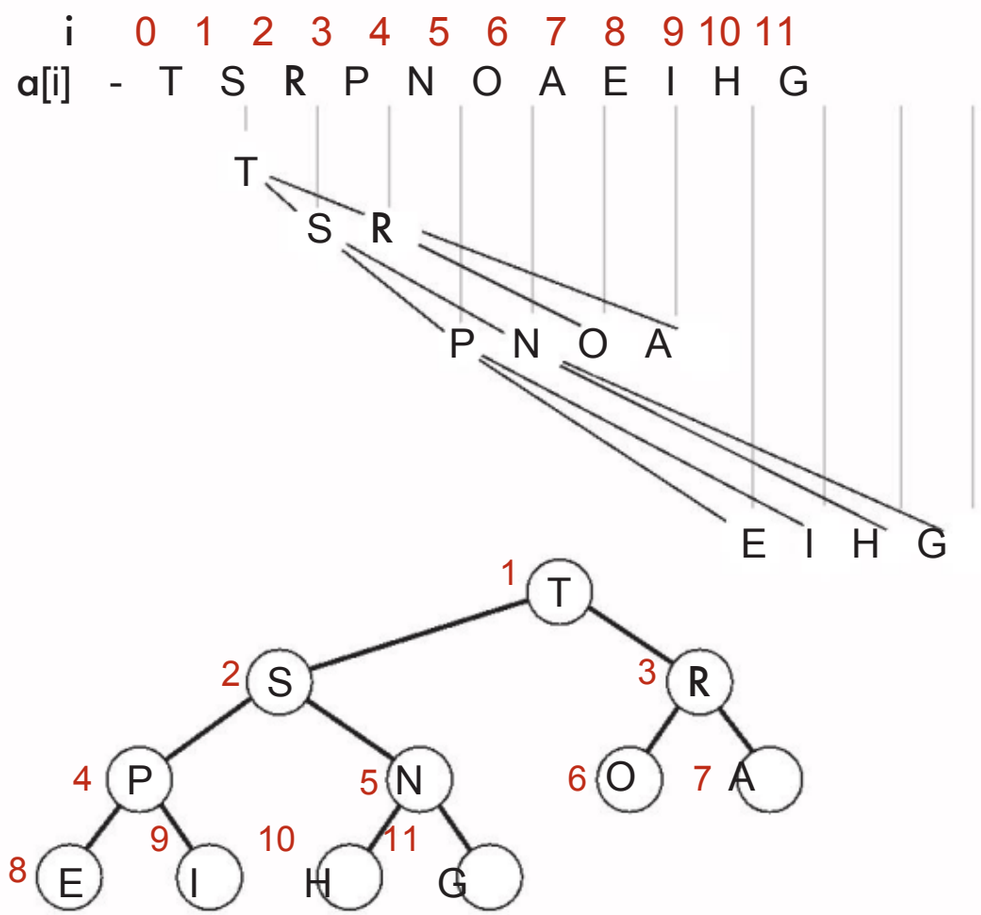
Binary heap. Array representation of a heap-ordered complete binary tree.

Heap-ordered binary tree.

- Keys in nodes.
- Parent's key no smaller than children's keys.

Array representation.

- Indices start at 1.
- Take nodes in level order.
- No explicit links needed!



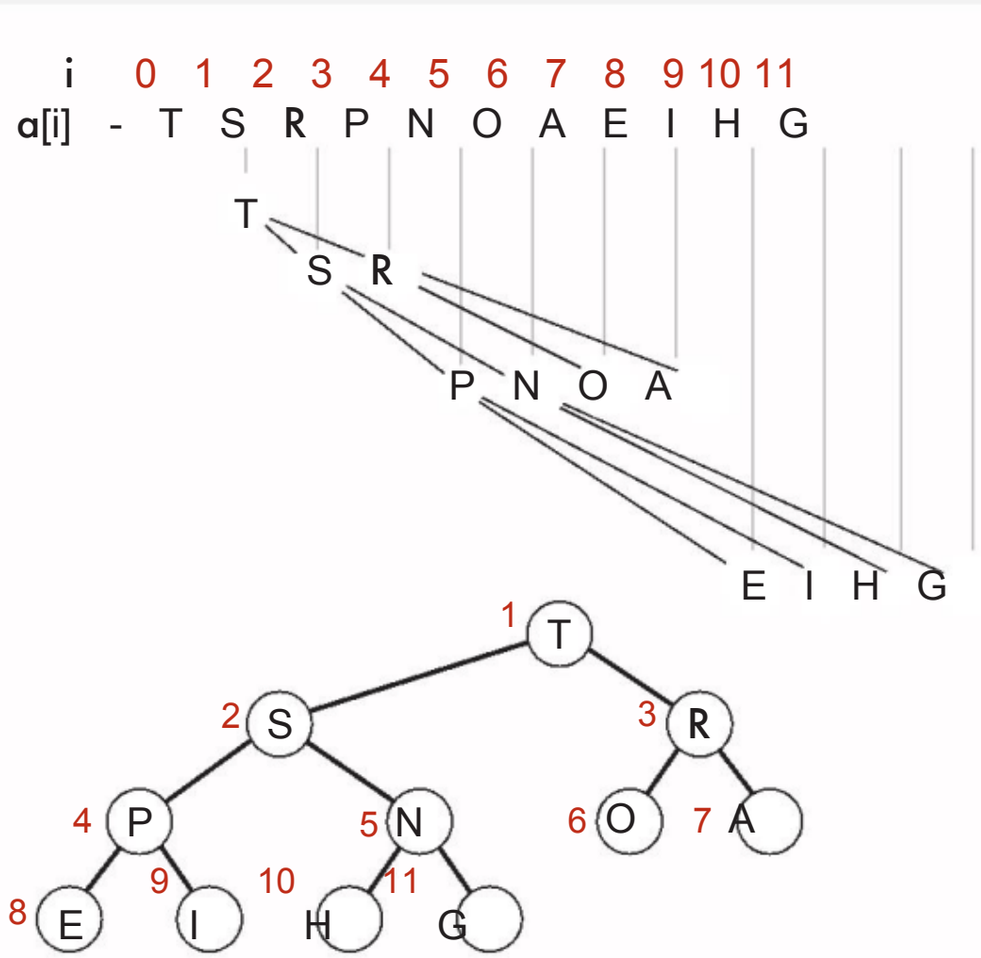
Heap representations

Binary heap: properties

Proposition. Largest key is a[1], which is root of binary tree.

Proposition. Can use array indices to move through tree.

- Parent of node at k is at k/2.
- Children of node at k are at 2k and 2k+1.



Heap representations

Symbol tables: context

Also known as: maps, dictionaries, associative arrays.

Generalizes arrays. Keys need not be between 0 and N – 1.

Language support.

- External libraries: C, VisualBasic, Standard ML, bash, ...
- Built-in libraries: Java, C#, C++, Scala, ...
- Built-in to language: Awk, Perl, PHP, Tcl, JavaScript, Python, Ruby, Lua.

every array is an associative array

every object is an associative array

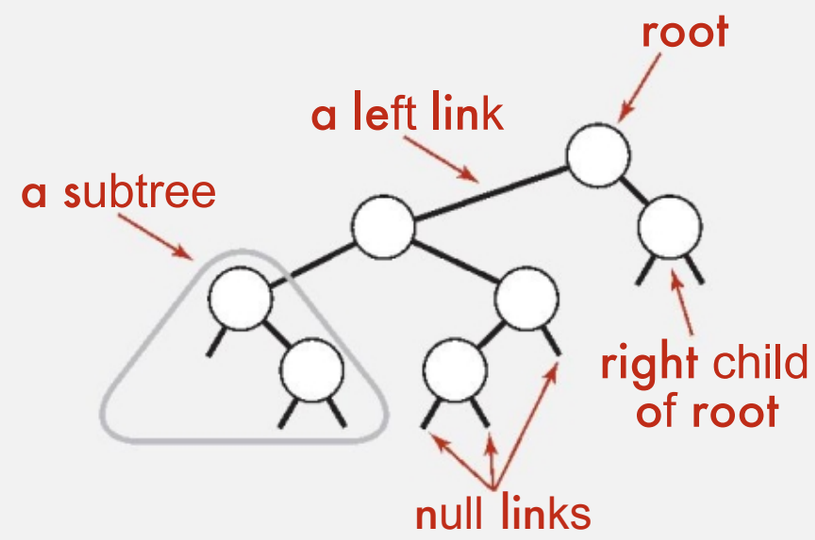
table is the only primitive data structure

```
hasNiceSyntaxForAssociativeArrays["Python"] = true
hasNiceSyntaxForAssociativeArrays["Java"]   = false
```

legal Python code

Binary search trees

Definition. A BST is a binary tree in symmetric order.

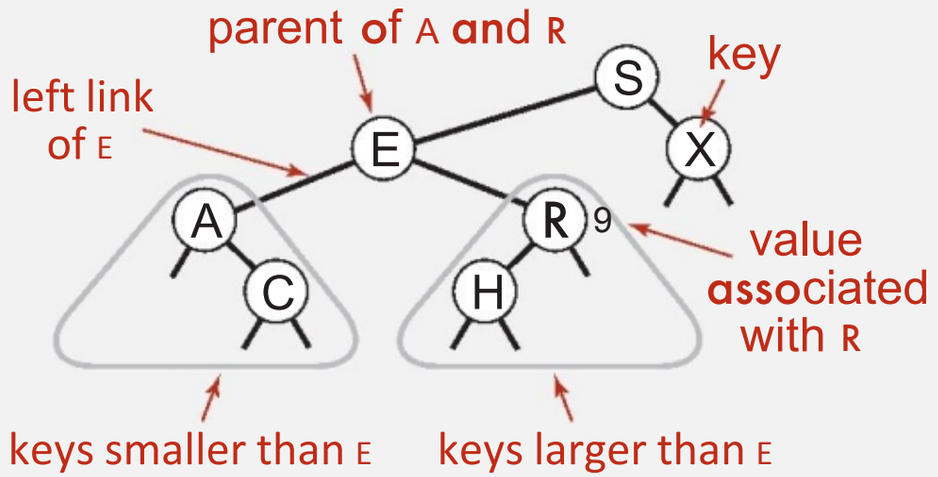


A binary tree is either:

- Empty.
- Two disjoint binary trees (left and right).

Symmetric order. Each node has a key, and every node's key is:

- Larger than all keys in its left subtree.
- Smaller than all keys in its right subtree.



2-3 tree

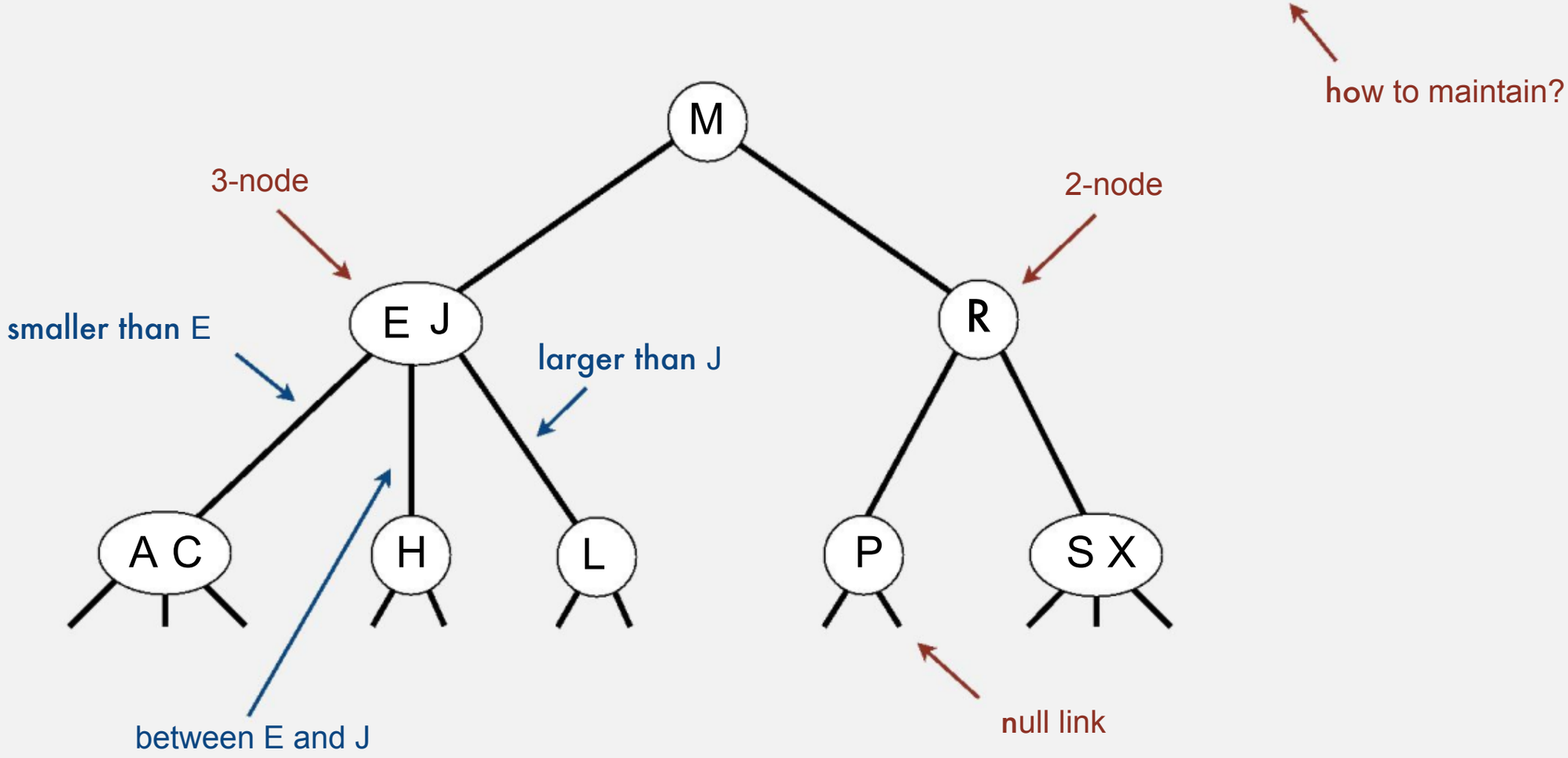
Allow 1 or 2 keys per node.

- 2-node: **one** key, **two** children.
- 3-node: **two** keys, **three** children.

Symmetric **order**. Inorder traversal yields keys in ascending **order**.

Perfect balance. Every path from **root to n**ull link has same length.

how to maintain?



Global properties in a 2-3 tree

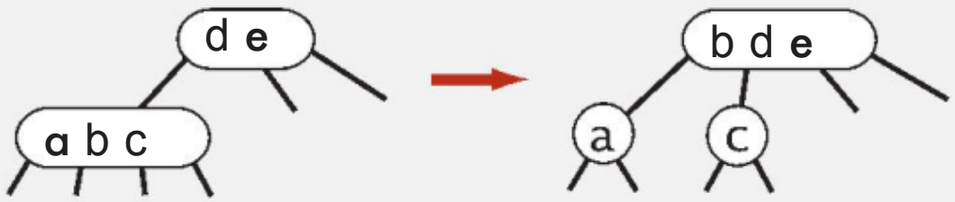
Invariants. Maintains symmetric order and perfect balance.

Pf. Each transformation maintains symmetric order and perfect balance.

root

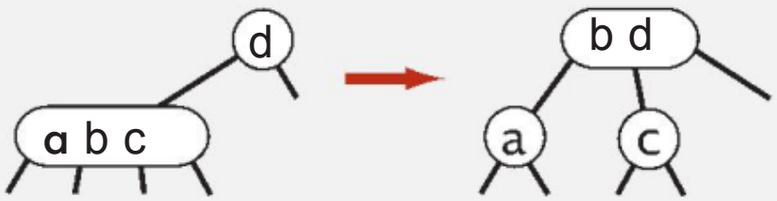
parent is a 3-node

left



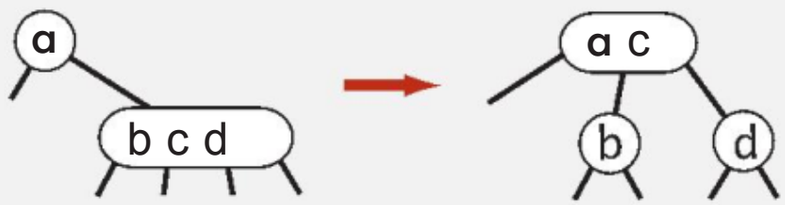
parent is a 2-node

left

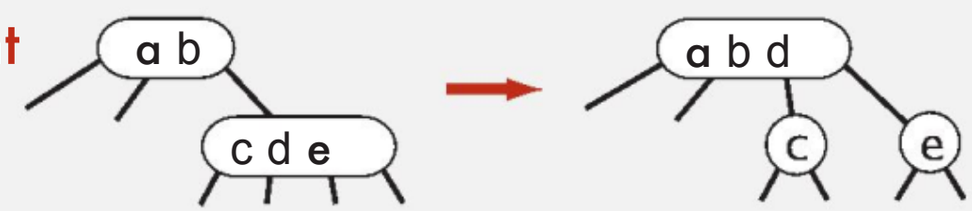


middle

right



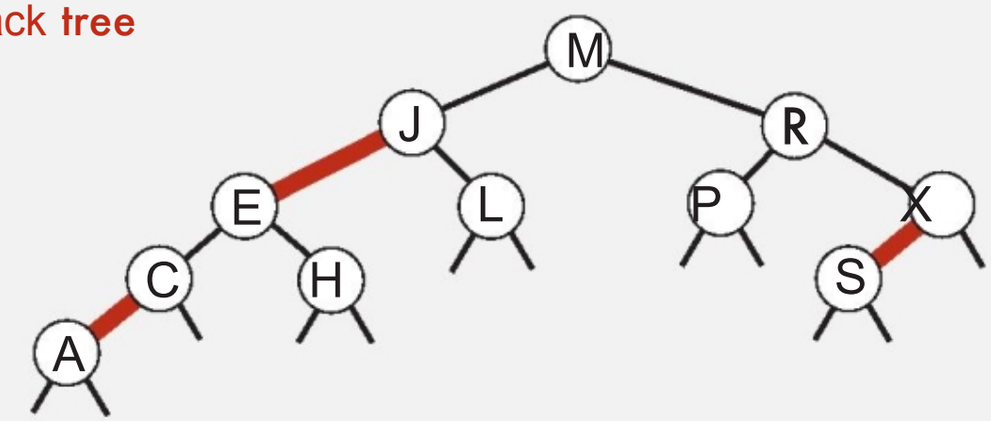
right



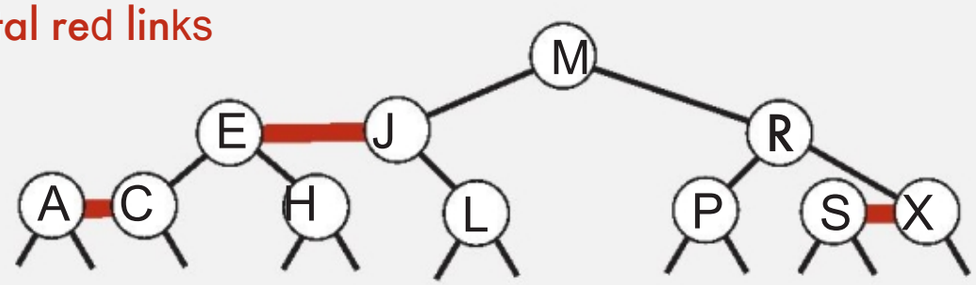
Left-leaning red-black BSTs: 1-1 correspondence with 2-3 trees

Key property. 1–1 correspondence between 2–3 and LLRB.

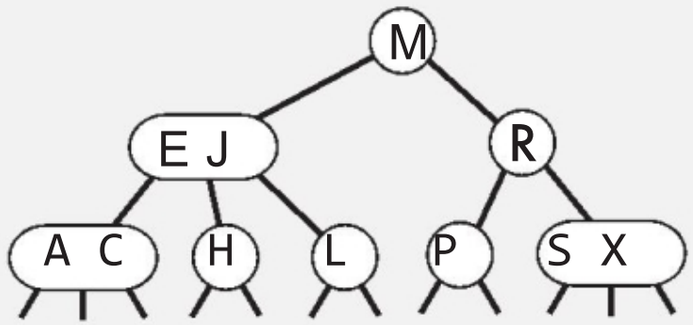
red–black tree



horizontal red links



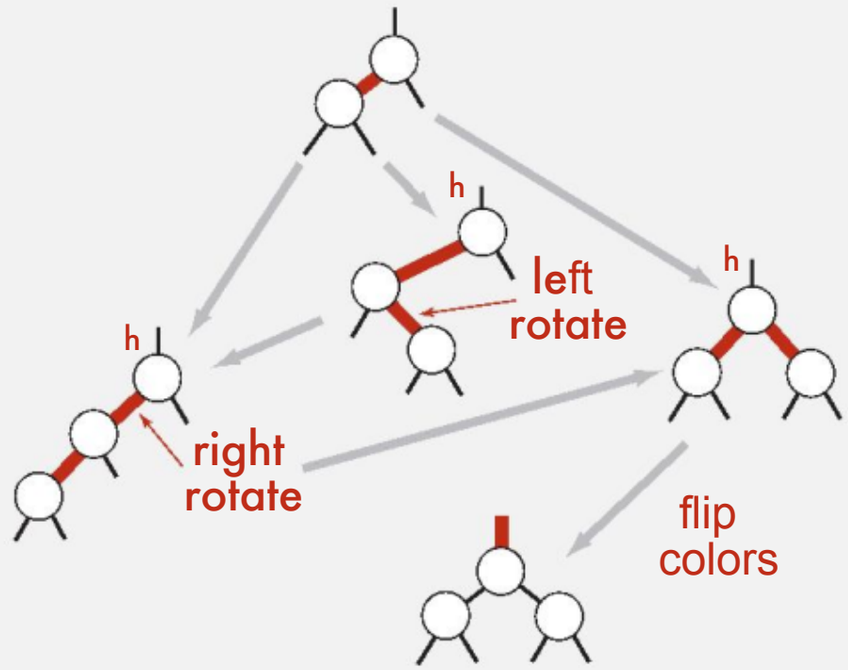
2-3 tree



Insertion in a LLRB tree: Java implementation

Same code for all cases.

- Right child red, left child black: rotate left.
- Left child, left-left grandchild red: rotate right.
- Both children red: flip colors.




```
private Node put(Node h, Key key, Value val)
{
   if (h == null) return new Node(key, val, RED);
   int cmp = key.compareTo(h.key);
   if      (cmp  < 0) h.left  = put(h.left,  key, val);
   else if (cmp  > 0) h.right = put(h.right, key, val);
   else if (cmp == 0) h.val = val;

   if (isRed(h.right) && !isRed(h.left))      h = rotateLeft(h);
   if (isRed(h.left)  && isRed(h.left.left)) h = rotateRight(h);
   if (isRed(h.left)  && isRed(h.right))      flipColors(h);

   return h;
}
```

insert at bottom (and color it red)

lean left

balance 4-node

split 4-node

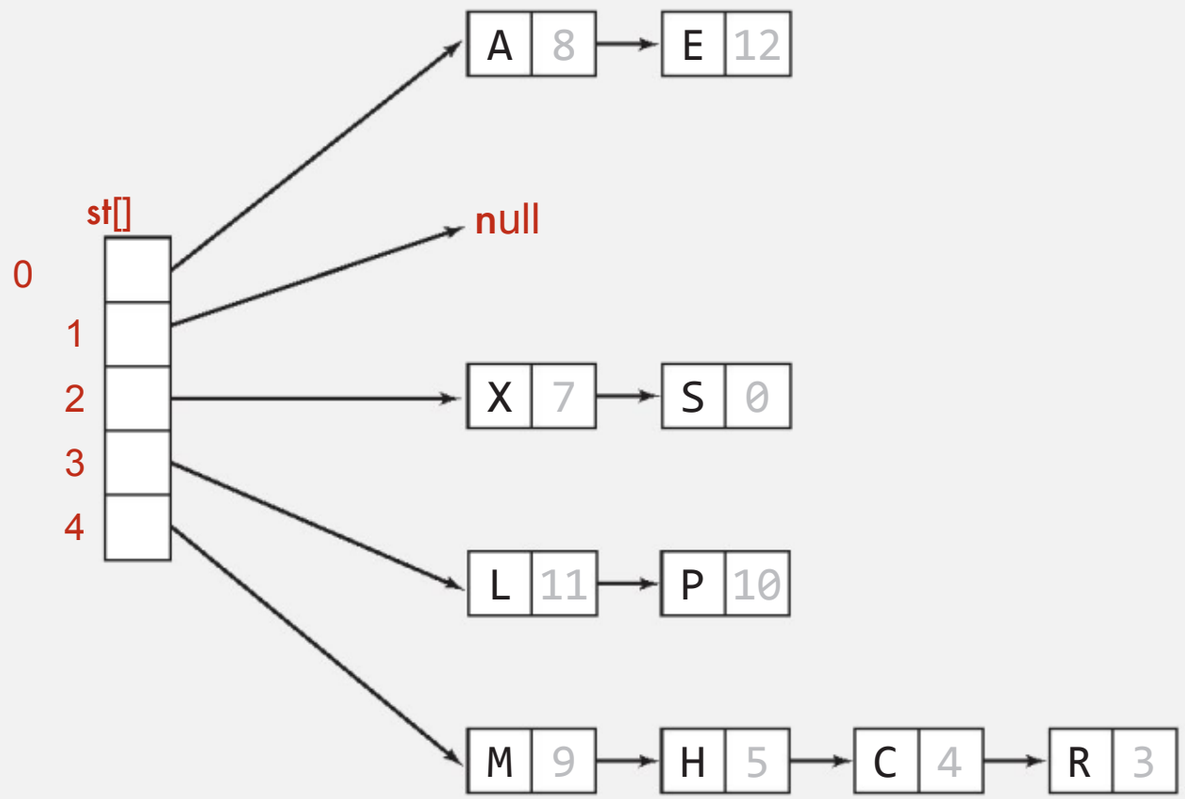
only a few extra lines of code provides near-perfect balance

Separate-chaining symbol table

Use an array of M < N linked lists. [H. P. Luhn, IBM 1953]

- Hash: map key to integer i between 0 and M - 1.
- Insert: put at front of i th chain (if not already there).
- Search: need to search only i th chain.

key	hash	value
S	2	0
E	0	1
A	0	2
R	4	3
C	4	4
H	4	5
E	0	6
X	2	7
A	0	8
M	4	9
P	3	10
L	3	11
E	0	12



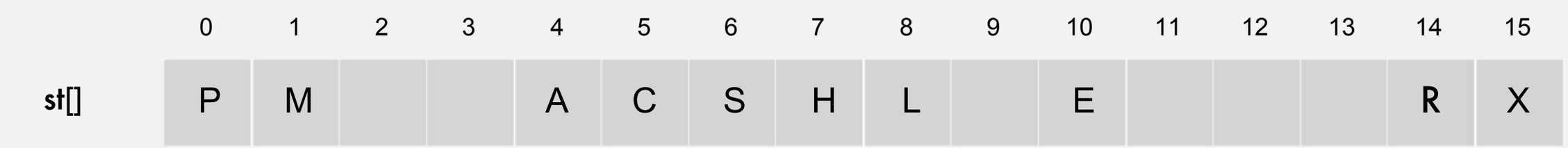
Linear-probing hash table summary

Hash. Map key to integer i between 0 and M-1.

Insert. Put at table index i if free; if not try i+1, i+2, etc.

Search. Search table index i; if occupied but no match, try i+1, i+2, etc.

Note. Array size M must be greater than number of key-value pairs N.



ST implementations: summary

implementation	guarantee			average case			ordered ops?	key interface
	search	insert	delete	search hit	insert	delete		
sequential search (unordered list)	N	N	N	½ N	N	½ N		equals()
binary search (ordered array)	lg N	N	N	lg N	½ N	½ N	✔	compareTo()
BST	N	N	N	1.39 lg N	1.39 lg N	√N	✔	compareTo()
red-black BST	2 lg N	2 lg N	2 lg N	1.0 lg N	1.0 lg N	1.0 lg N	✔	compareTo()
separate chaining	N	N	N	3-5 *	3-5 *	3-5 *		equals() hashCode()
linear probing	N	N	N	3-5 *	3-5 *	3-5 *		equals() hashCode()

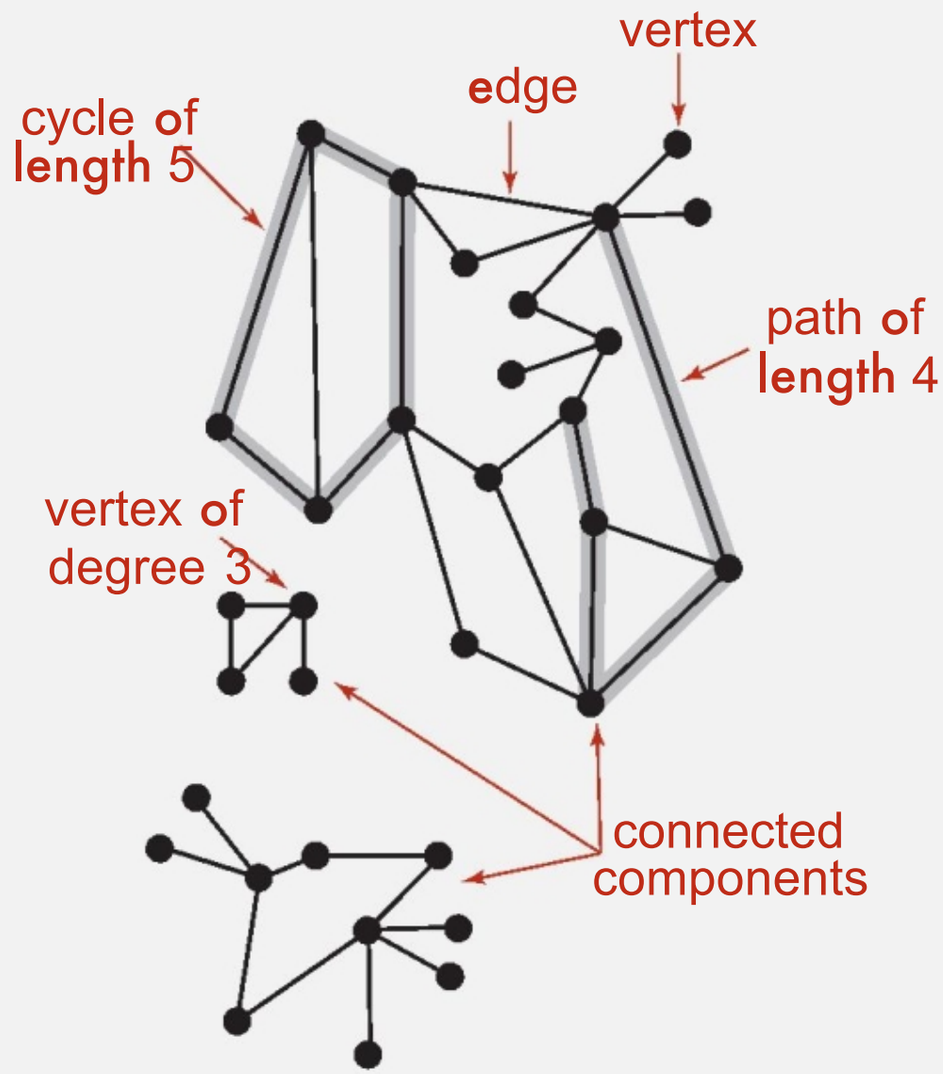
* under uniform hashing assumption

Graph terminology

Path. Sequence of vertices connected by edges.

Cycle. Path whose first and last vertices are the same.

Two vertices are connected if there is a path between them.



Depth-first search

Goal. Systematically traverse a graph.

Idea. Mimic maze exploration. ← function-call stack acts as ball of string

DFS (to visit a vertex v)

Mark v as visited.

Recursively visit all unmarked vertices w adjacent to v.

Typical applications.

- Find all vertices connected to a given source vertex.
- Find a path between two vertices.

Design challenge. How to implement?

Design pattern for graph processing

Design pattern. Decouple graph data type from graph processing.

- Create a Graph object.
- Pass the Graph to a graph-processing routine.
- Query the graph-processing routine for information.

public class Paths	
Paths(Graph G, int s)	find paths in G from source s
boolean hasPathTo(int v)	is there a path from s to v?
Iterable<Integer> pathTo(int v)	path from s to v; null if no such path

```
Paths paths = new Paths(G, s);
for (int v = 0; v < G.V(); v++)
    if (paths.hasPathTo(v))
        StdOut.println(v);
```

print all vertices connected to s

Depth-first search: data structures

To visit a vertex v :

- Mark vertex v as visited.
- Recursively visit all unmarked vertices adjacent to v.

Data structures.

- Boolean array marked[] to mark visited vertices.
- Integer array edgeTo[] to keep track of paths.

  (edgeTo[w] == v) means that edge v-w taken to visit w for first time
- Function-call stack for recursion.

Depth-first search: Java implementation

```
public class DepthFirstPaths
{
   private boolean[] marked;
   private int[] edgeTo;
   private int s;

   public DepthFirstPaths(Graph G, int s)
   {
      ...
      dfs(G, s);
   }

   private void dfs(Graph G, int v)
   {
      marked[v] = true;
      for (int w : G.adj(v))
         if (!marked[w])
         {
            dfs(G, w);
            edgeTo[w] = v;
         }
   }
}
```

marked[v]= true if v connected to s

edgeTo[v]= previous vertex on path from s to v

initialize data structures

find vertices connected to s

recursive DFS does the work

Breadth-first search

Repeat until queue is empty:

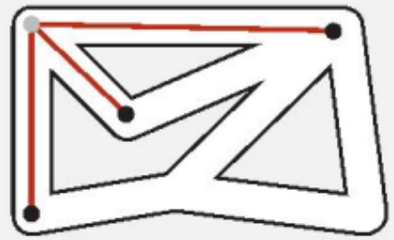
- Remove vertex v from queue.
- Add to queue all unmarked vertices adjacent to v and mark them.

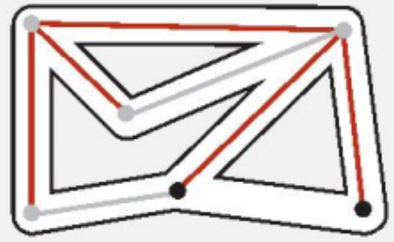
BFS (from source vertex s)

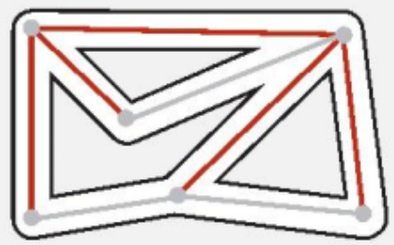
Put s onto a FIFO queue, and mark s as visited.

Repeat until the queue is empty:

- remove the least recently added vertex v
- add each of v's unvisited neighbors to the queue, and mark them as visited.







Finding connected components with DFS

```
public class CC
{
   private boolean[] marked;
   private int[] id;
   private int count;

   public CC(Graph G)
   {
      marked = new boolean[G.V()];
      id = new int[G.V()];
      for (int v = 0; v < G.V(); v++)
      {
         if (!marked[v])
         {
            dfs(G, v);
            count++;
         }
      }
   }

   public int count()
   public int id(int v)
   public boolean connected(int v, int w)
   private void dfs(Graph G, int v)
}
```

id[v] = id of component containing v

number of components

run DFS from one vertex in each component

see next slide

Finding connected components with DFS (continued)

```
public int count()
{   return count;   }

public int id(int v)
{   return id[v];   }

public boolean connected(int v, int w)
{ return id[v] == id[w];    }
```

number of components

id of component containing v

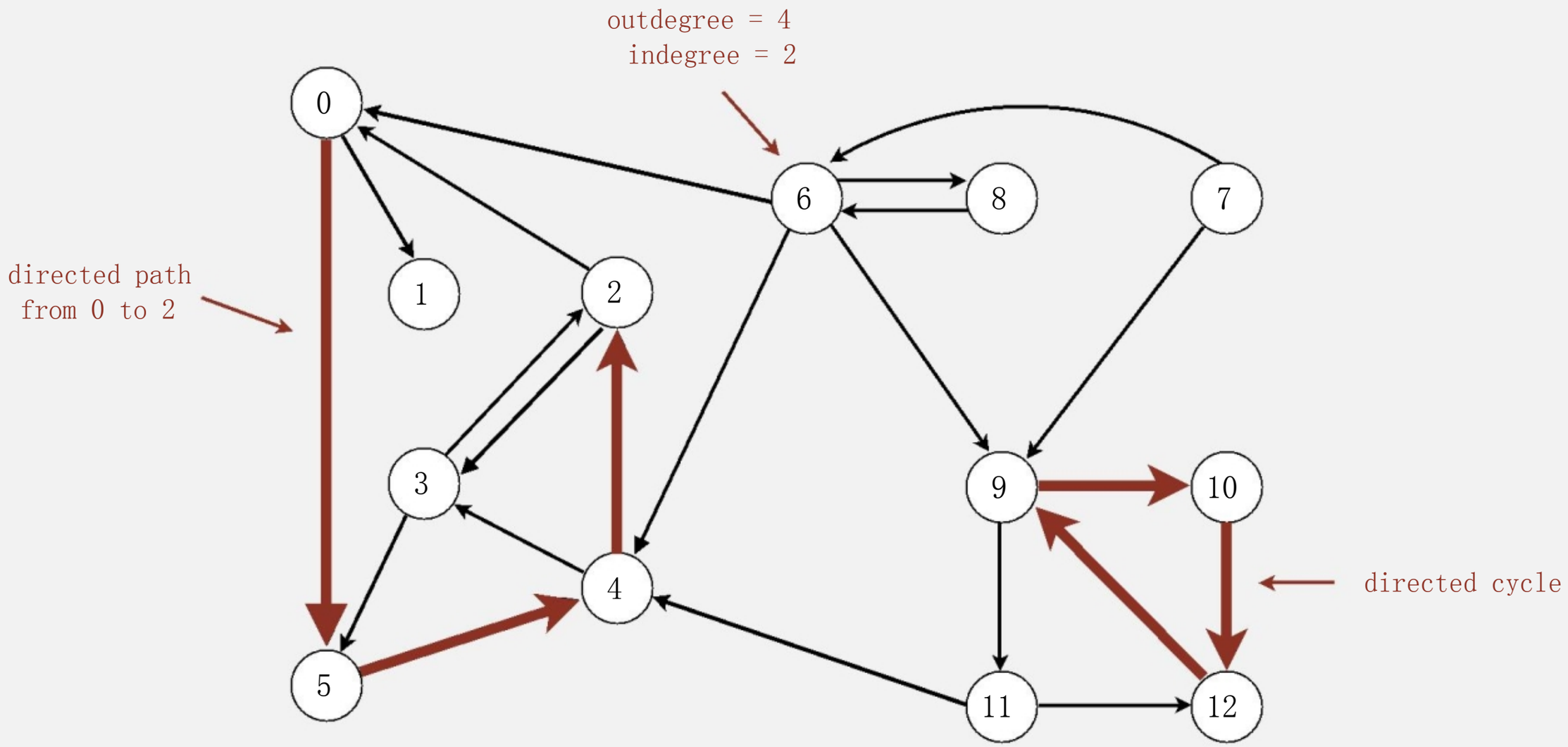
v and w connected iff same id

```
private void dfs(Graph G, int v)
{
      marked[v] = true;
      id[v] = count;
      for (int w : G.adj(v))
            if (!marked[w])
                  dfs(G, w);
}
```

all vertices discovered in same call of dfs have same id

Directed graphs

Digraph. Set of vertices connected pairwise by directed edges.



Digraph representations

In practice. Use adjacency-lists representation.

- Algorithms based on iterating over vertices pointing from v.
- Real-world digraphs tend to be sparse.

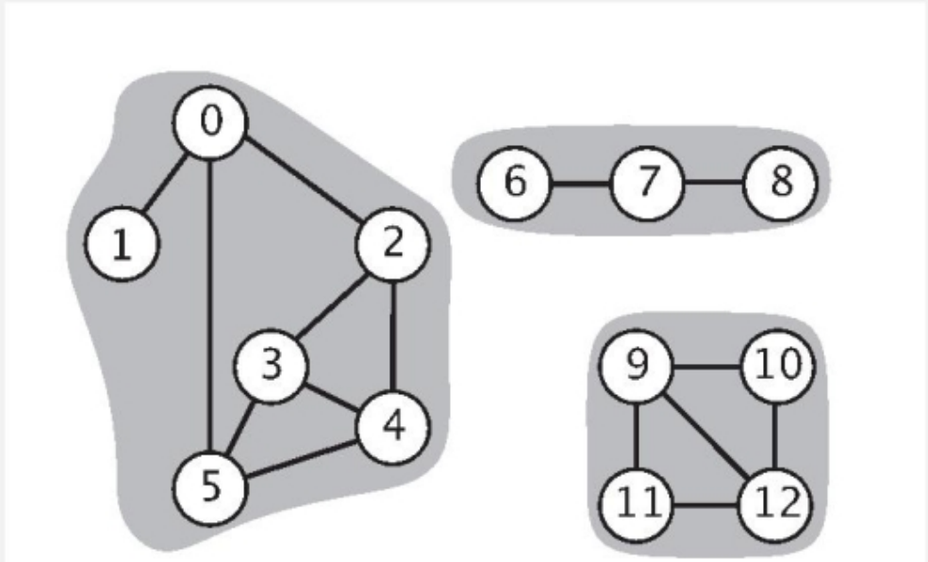
huge number of vertices,
small average vertex degree

representation	space	insert edge from v to w	edge from v to w?	iterate over vertices pointing from v?
list of edges	E	1	E	E
adjacency matrix	V^2	1†	1	V
adjacency lists	E + V	1	outdegree(v)	outdegree(v)

† disallows parallel edges

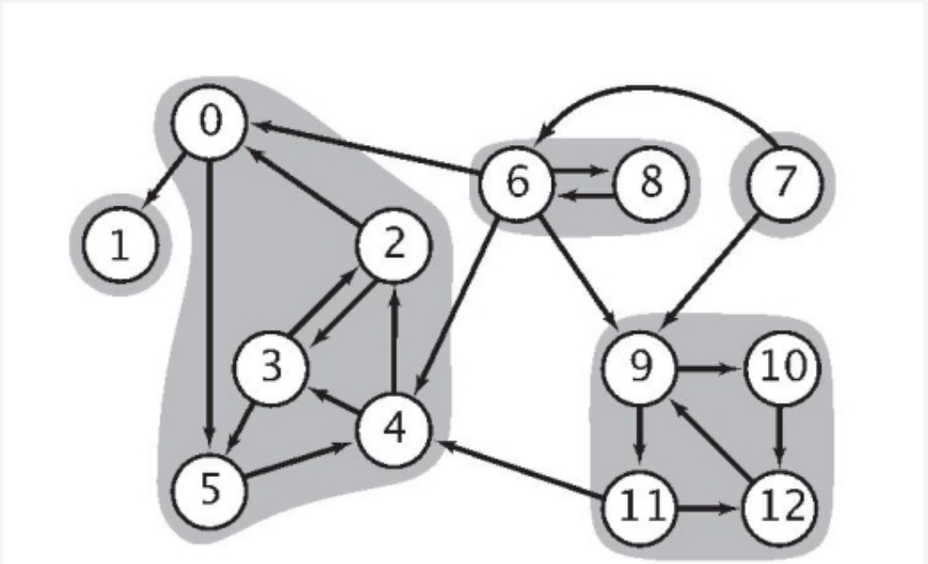
Connected components vs. strongly-connected components

v and w are connected if there is a path between v and w



3 connected components

v and w are strongly connected if there is both a directed path from v to w and a directed path from w to v



5 strongly-connected components

connected component id (easy to compute with DFS)

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
id[]	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	2	2

```
public boolean connected(int v, int w)
{  return id[v] == id[w];  }
```

constant-time client connectivity query

strongly-connected component id (how to compute?)

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
id[]	1	0	1	1	1	1	3	4	3	2	2	2	2

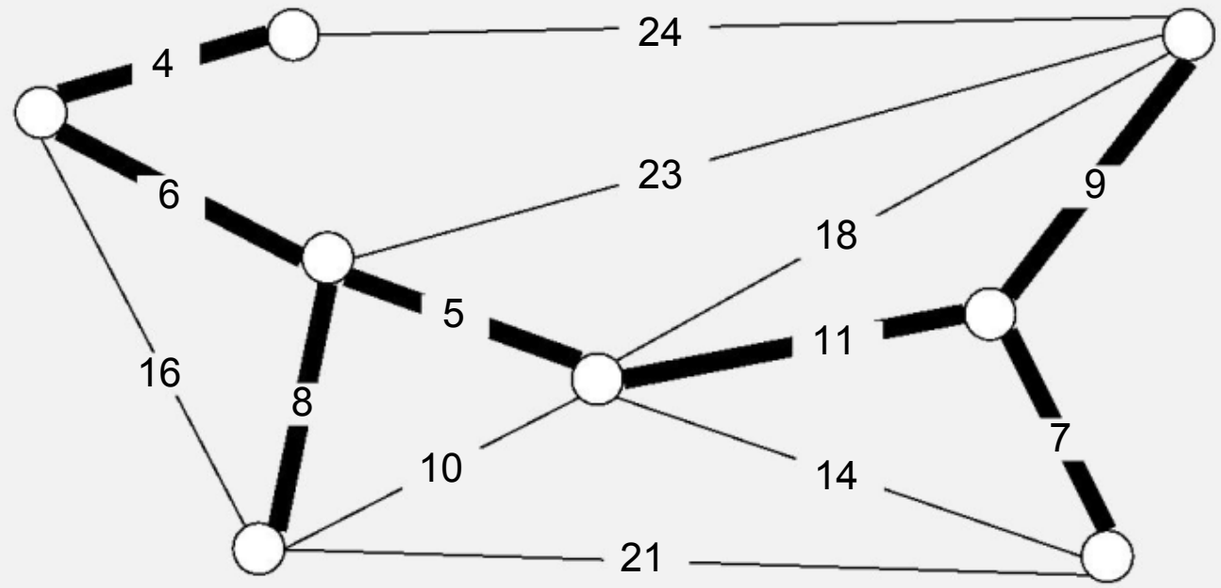
```
public boolean stronglyConnected(int v, int w)
{  return id[v] == id[w];  }
```

constant-time client strong-connectivity query

Minimum spanning tree

Given. Undirected graph G with positive edge weights (connected).

Goal. Find a min weight spanning **tree**.

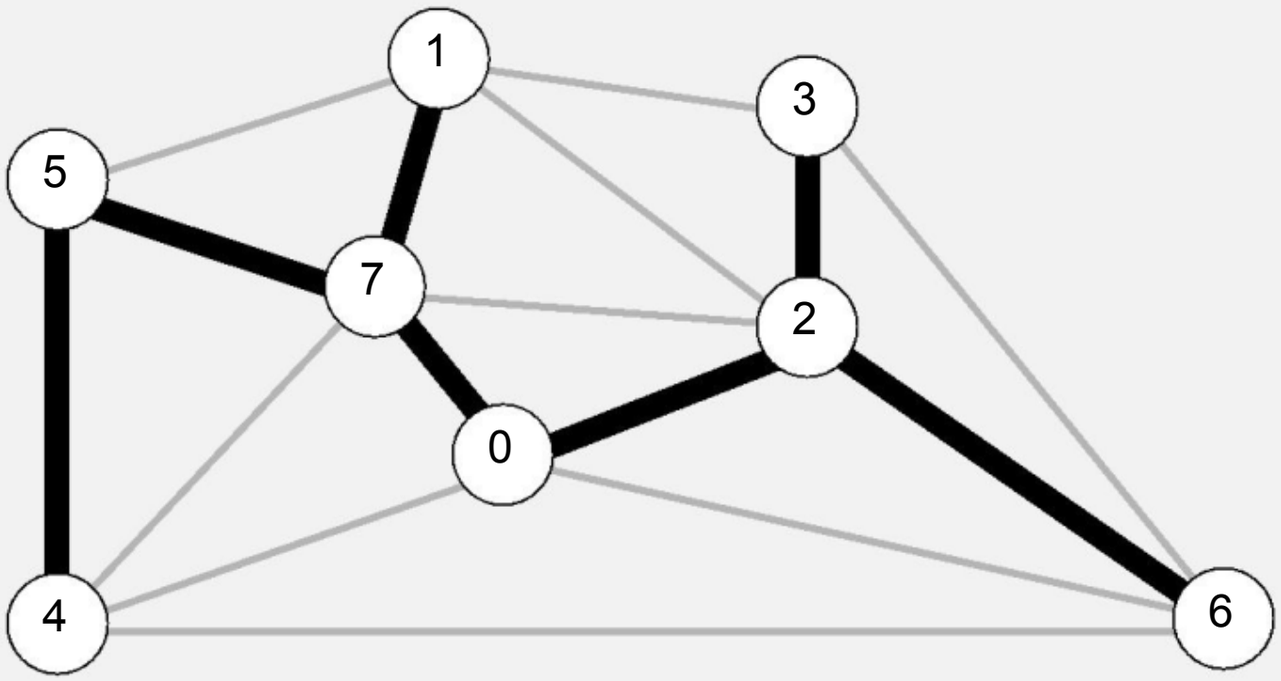


minimum spanning tree T
(cost = 50 = 4 + 6 + 8 + 5 + 11 + 9 + 7)

Brute force. Try **all spanning trees**?

Greedy MST algorithm demo

- Start with all edges colored gray.
- Find cut with no black crossing edges; color its min-weight edge black.
- Repeat until V - 1 edges are colored black.



MST edges

0-2 5-7 6-2 0-7 2-3 1-7 4-5

Key-indexed counting demo

Goal. Sort an array a[] of N integers between 0 and R - 1.

- Count frequencies of each letter using key as index.
- Compute frequency cumulates which specify destinations.
- Access cumulates using key as index to move items.
- Copy back into original array.

```
int N = a.length;
int[] count = new int[R+1];

for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
   count[a[i]+1]++;

for (int r = 0; r < R; r++)
   count[r+1] += count[r];

for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
   aux[count[a[i]]++] = a[i];

for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
   a[i] = aux[i];
```

copy back

i	a[i]
0	a
1	a
2	b
3	b
4	b
5	c
6	d
7	d
8	e
9	f
10	f
11	f

r	count[r]
a	2
b	5
c	6
d	8
e	9
f	12
-	12

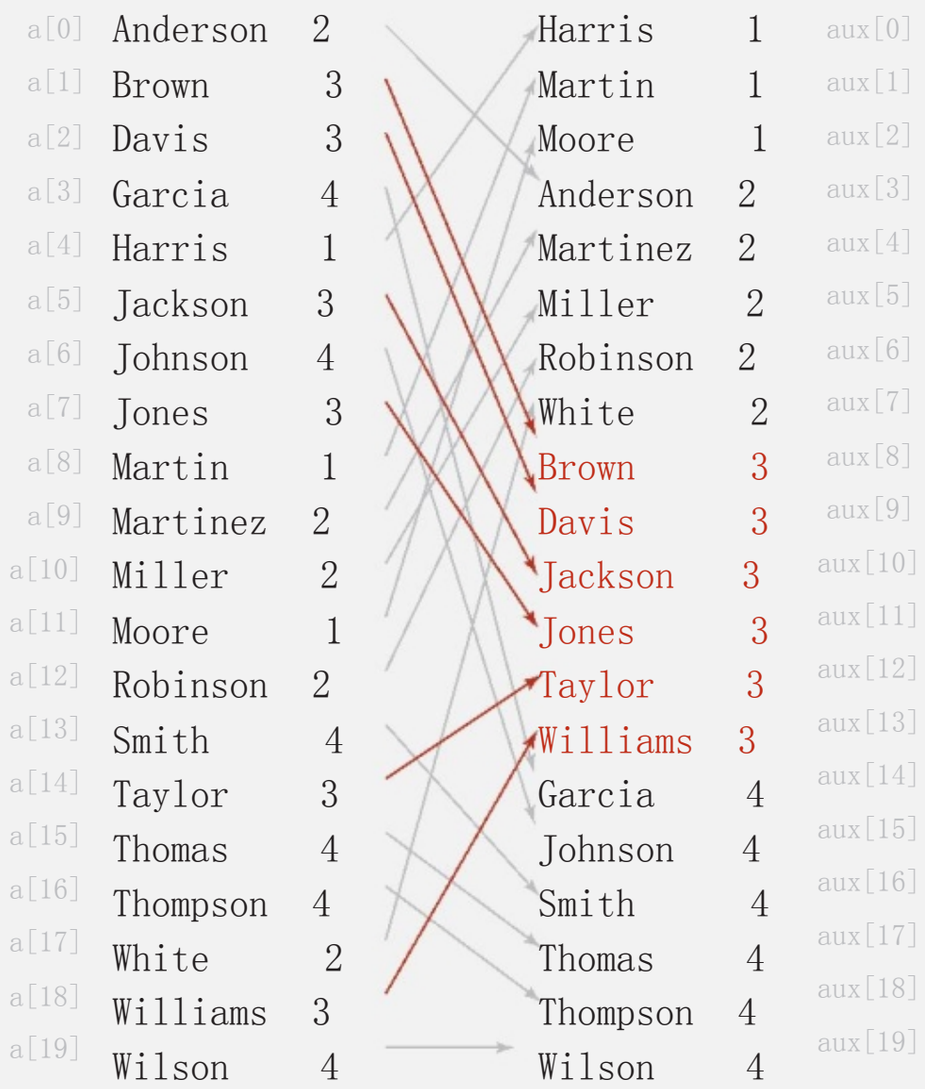
i	aux[i]
0	a
1	a
2	b
3	b
4	b
5	c
6	d
7	d
8	e
9	f
10	f
11	f

Key-indexed counting: analysis

Proposition. Key-indexed takes time proportional to N + R.

Proposition. Key-indexed counting uses extra space proportional to N + R.

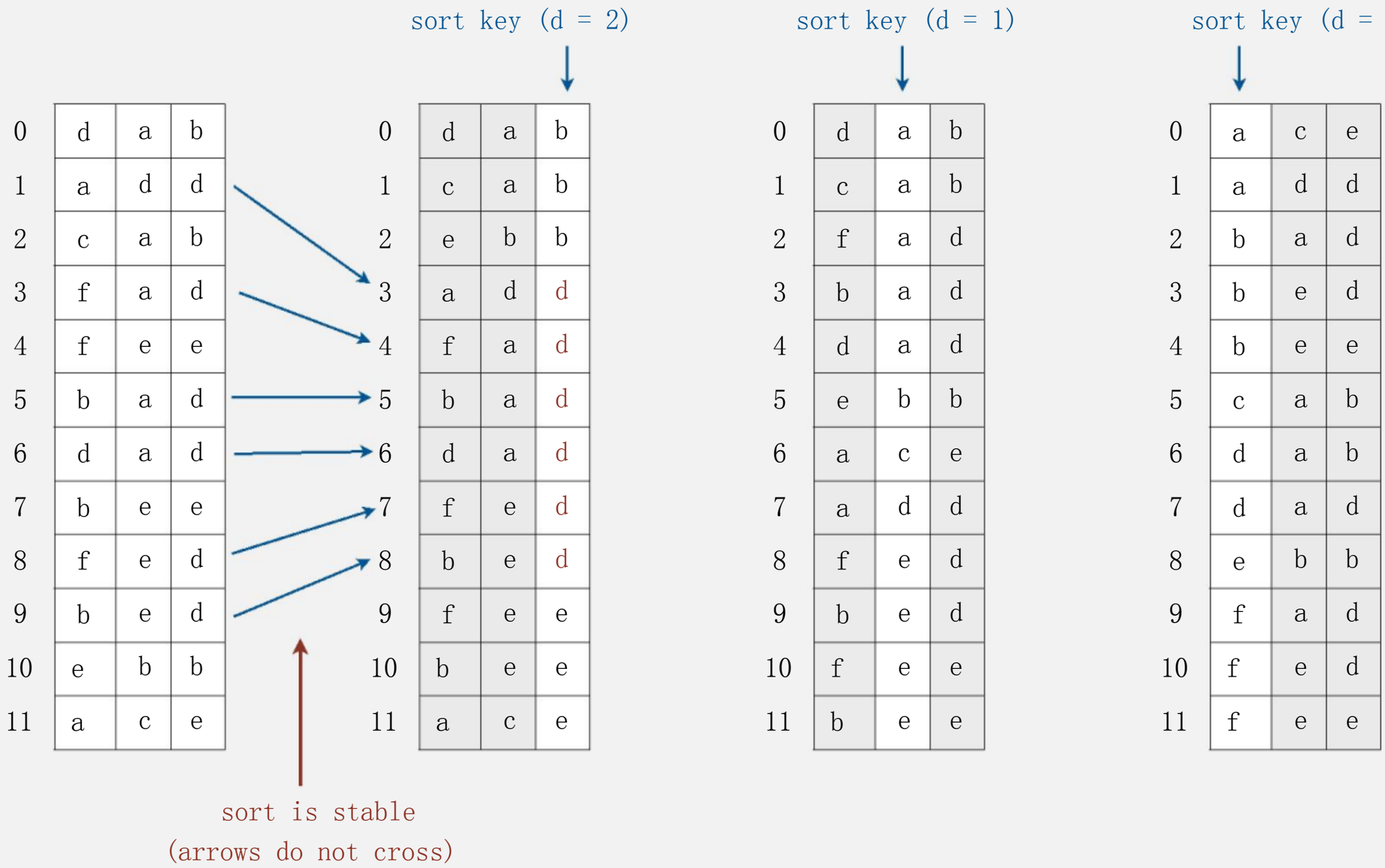
Stable? ✔



Least-significant-digit-first string sort

LSD string (radix) sort.

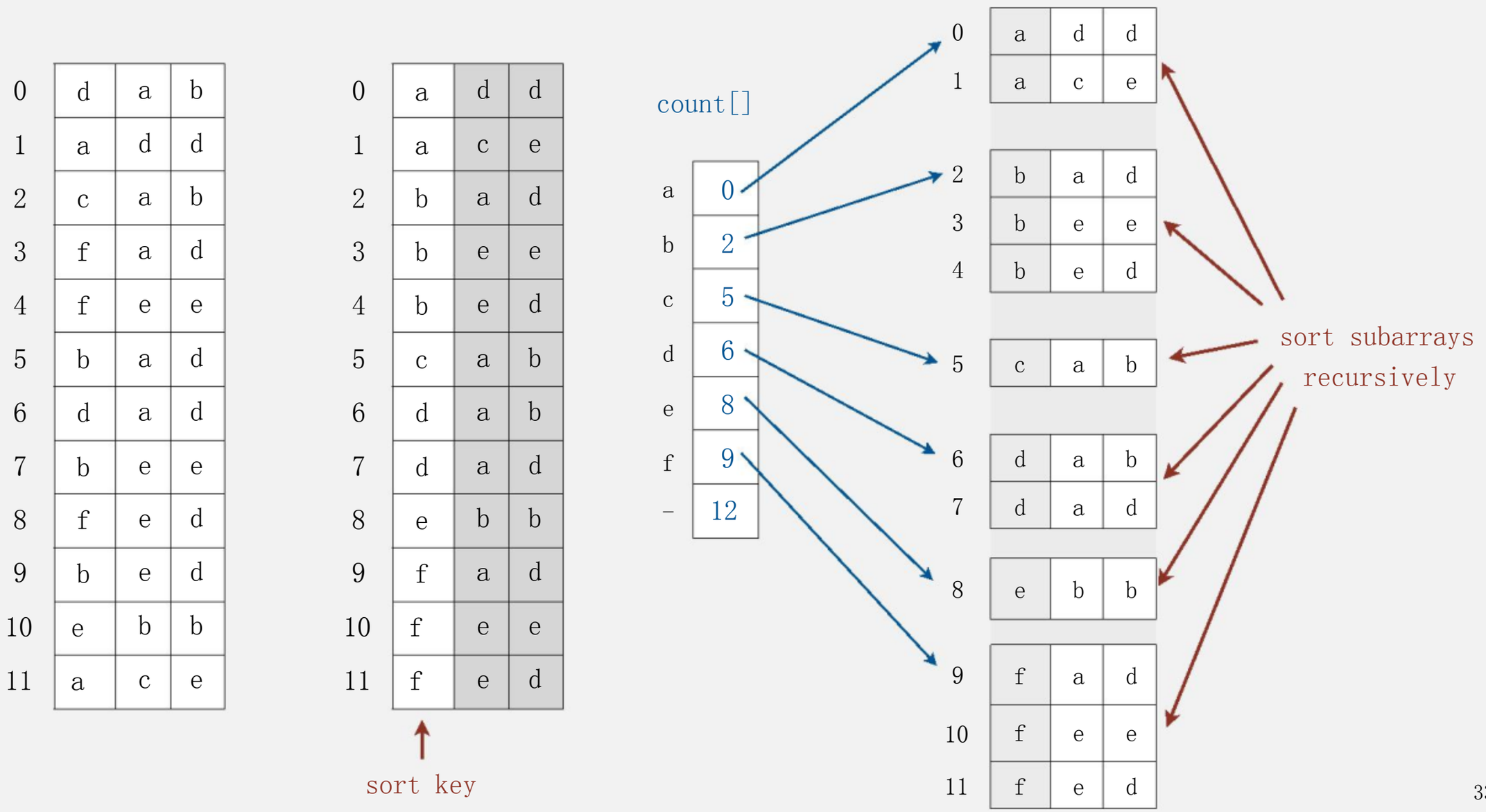
- Consider characters from right to left.
- Stably sort using d^{th} character as the key (using key-indexed counting).



Most-significant-digit-first string sort

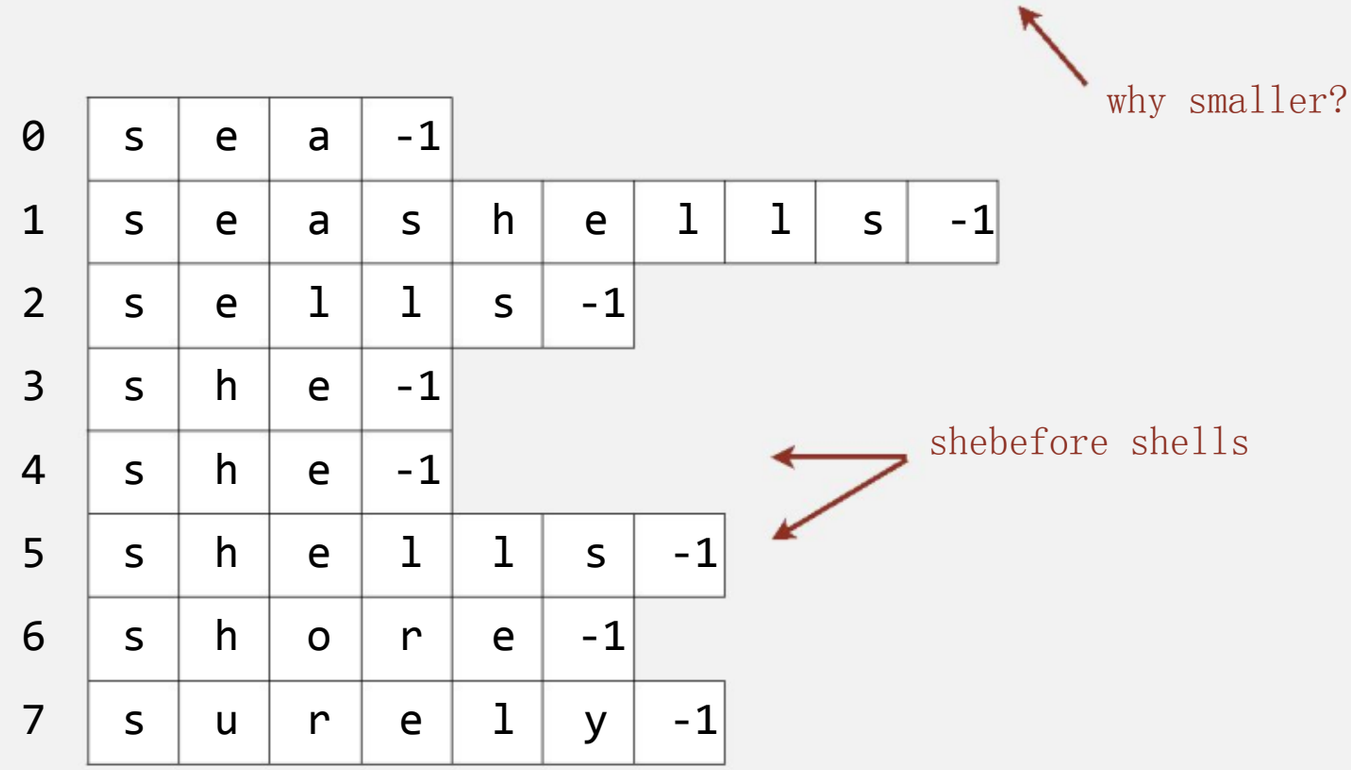
MSD string (radix) sort.

- Partition array into R pieces according to first character (use key-indexed counting).
- Recursively sort all strings that start with each character (key-indexed counts delineate subarrays to sort).



Variable-length strings

Treat strings as if they had an extra char at end (smaller than any char).




```
private static int charAt(String s, int d)
{
   if (d < s.length()) return s.charAt(d);
   else return -1;
}
```

C strings. Have extra char '\0' at end ⇒ no extra work needed.

Summary of the performance of sorting algorithms

Frequency of operations.

algorithm	guarantee	random	extra space	stable?	operations on keys
insertion sort	½ N^2	¼ N^2	1	✔	compareTo()
mergesort	N lg N	N lg N	N	✔	compareTo()
quicksort	1.39 N lg N *	1.39 N lg N	c lg N		compareTo()
heapsort	2 N lg N	2 N lg N	1		compareTo()
LSD sort †	2 W (N + R)	2 W (N + R)	N + R	✔	charAt()
MSD sort ‡	2 W (N + R)	N $\log_R$ N	N + D R	✔	charAt()

D = function-call stack depth
(length of longest prefix match)

* probabilistic
† fixed-length W keys
‡ average-length W keys