

# **Algorithms & Data Structures Notes - SoSe 24**

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# Preface

This is a Quarto book.

To learn more about Quarto books visit <https://quarto.org/docs/books>.

# **Part I**

## **Introduction**

# 1 Program Run-time Analysis

## 1.1 Recurrence Relations

Consider a very simple recurrence relation:

$$T(n) := \begin{cases} 1 & n = 1 \\ n + T(n-1), & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

With **mathematical induction** we can formally show that  $T(n)$  is quadratic. But there is a simpler & more intuitive way:

$$\begin{aligned} T(n) &= n + T(n-1) && \text{(Def } T(\cdot)\text{)} \\ &= n + n - 1 + T(n-2) \\ &= \dots && \text{(Repeat } n-2 \text{ times)} \\ &= n + n - 1 + \dots + T(1) \\ &= n + n - 1 + \dots + 1 && \text{(Def } T(1)\text{)} \\ &= \frac{n(n+1)}{2} && \text{(Gauss)} \\ &\in \mathcal{O}(n^2) \end{aligned}$$

This method can be applied to the more complex divide-and-conquer recurrence relation from the lecture:

$$R(n) := \begin{cases} a, & n = 1 \\ cn + d \cdot R(\frac{n}{b}), & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Applying the above method we expand  $R(\cdot)$  repetitively according to its definition until we reach the base case, rearranging terms when necessary:

$$\begin{aligned}
R(n) &= c \cdot n + d \cdot R\left(\frac{n}{b}\right) && \text{(Def } R(\cdot)\text{)} \\
&= c \cdot n + d\left(c \frac{n}{b} + d \cdot R\left(\frac{n}{b^2}\right)\right) \\
&= c \cdot n + d\left(c \frac{n}{b} + d \cdot \left(c \cdot \frac{n}{b^2} + d \cdot R\left(\frac{n}{b^3}\right)\right)\right) \\
&= c \cdot n + d \cdot c \frac{n}{b} + d^2 c \frac{n}{b^2} + d^3 \cdot R\left(\frac{n}{b^3}\right) && \text{(Rearrange)} \\
&= c \cdot n \left(1 + \frac{d}{b} + \frac{d^2}{b^2}\right) + d^3 \cdot R\left(\frac{n}{b^3}\right) \\
&= \dots && \text{(Repeat } k\text{-times)} \\
&= c \cdot n \left(1 + \frac{d}{b} + \dots + \frac{d^{k-1}}{b^{k-1}}\right) + d^k \cdot R\left(\frac{n}{b^k}\right) \\
&= c \cdot n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \left(\frac{d}{b}\right)^i + d^k \cdot R\left(\frac{n}{b^k}\right) \\
&= c \cdot n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \left(\frac{d}{b}\right)^i + d^k \cdot R(1) && \text{(Ass } \frac{n}{b^k} = 1\text{)} \\
&= c \cdot n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \left(\frac{d}{b}\right)^i + a \cdot d^k && \text{(Def } R(1)\text{)}
\end{aligned}$$

See lecture slides for the complexity analysis of final expression.

## 1.2 Master Theorem

For recurrence relations of the form:

$$T(n) := \begin{cases} a, & n = 1 \\ b \cdot n + c \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{d}\right), & n > 1 \end{cases}$$

Master theorem gives the solutions:

$$T(n) = \begin{cases} \Theta(n), & c < d \\ \Theta(n \log(n)), & c = d \\ \Theta(n^{\log_b(d)}), & c > d \end{cases}$$

Example: **Merge Sort**.

Complexity of merge sort satisfies the recurrence relation:

$$T(1) = 1$$

$$T(n) = \mathcal{O}(n) + 2 \cdot T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right)$$

Thus with  $c = 2 = d$  the second case of MT applies:  $T(n) = \Theta(n \log n)$

### **1.3 Amortized Analysis**

**Part II**

**Data Structures**



## 2 Lists

### 2.1 Sequences as Arrays and Lists

Many terms for same thing: sequence, field, list, stack, string, **file**... Yes, files are simply sequences of bytes!

three views on lists:

- **abstract**: (2, 3, 5, 7)
- **functionality**: stack, queue, etc... What operations does it support?
- **representation**: How is the list represented in a given programming model/language/paradigm?

### 2.2 Applications of Lists

- Storing and processing any kinds of data
- Concrete representation of abstract data types such as: set, graph, etc...

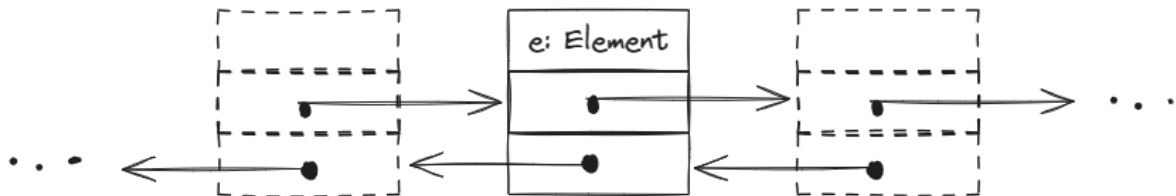
### 2.3 Linked and Doubly Linked Lists

	simply linked	doubly linked
lecture	<code>SList</code>	<code>List</code>
c++	<code>std::forward_list</code>	<code>std::list</code>

Doubly linked lists are usually **simpler** and require “only” double the space at most. Therefore their use is more widespread.

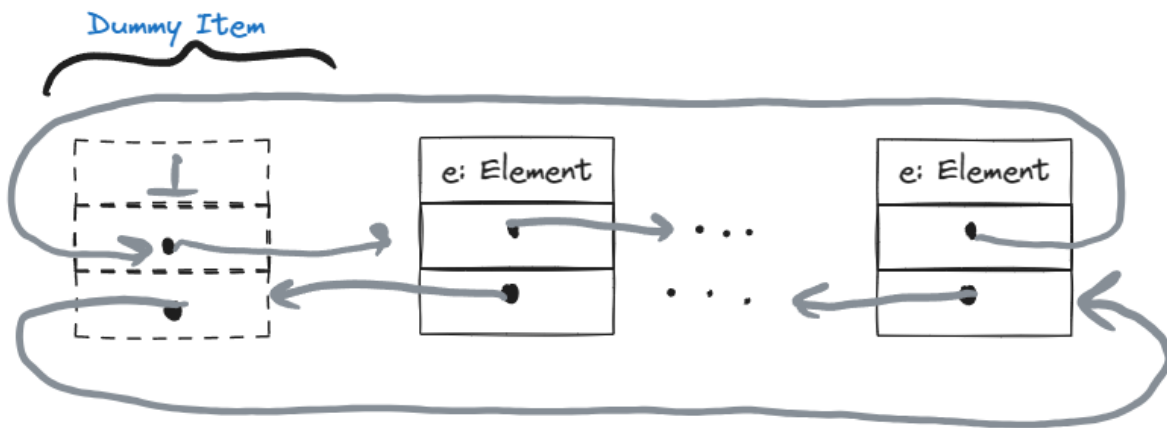
### 2.3.1 List Items

```
Class Item of T :=  
  e: T //Data item of type T  
  next: *Item //Pointer to Item  
  prev: *Item //Pointer to Item  
  invariant next->prev = this = prev->next
```



**Problem:** \* predecessor of first list element? \* successor of last list element?

**Solution:** Dummy Item with an empty data field as follows:



Advantages of this solution:

- **Invariant** is always satisfied
- Exceptions are avoided, thus making the coding more:
  - simple
  - readable
  - faster
  - elegant

Disadvantages: a little more storage space.

### 2.3.2 The List Class

```
Class List of T :=
  dummy := (
    Null : T
    &dummy : *T // initially list is empty, therefore next points to the
    ↪ dummy itself
    &dummy : *T // initially list is empty, therefore prev points to the
    ↪ dummy itself
  ) : Item

  // returns the address of the dummy, which represents the head of the
  ↪ list
  Function head() : *Item :=
    return address of dummy

  // simple access functions
  // returns true iff list empty
  Function is_empty() : Bool :=
    return dummy.next == dummy

  // returns pointer to first Item of the list, given list is not empty
  Function first() : *Item :=
    assert (not is_empty())
    return dummy.next

  // returns pointer to last Item of the list, given list is not empty
  Function last() : *Item :=
    assert (not is_empty())
    return dummy.prev

  /* Splice is an all-purpose tool to cut out parts from a list
     Cut out (a, ... b) from this list and insert after t */
  Procedure splice(a, b, t : *Item) :=
    assert (
      b is not before a
      and
      t not between a and b
    )
    // Cut out (a, ... , b)
    a->prev->next := b->next
    b->next->prev := a->prev
```

```

    // insert (a, ... b) after t
    t->next->prev := b
    b->next := t->next
    t->next := a
    a->prev := t

// Moving items by utilising splice
//Move item a after item b
Procedure move_after(a, b: *Item) :=
    splice(a, a, b)

// Move item a to the front of the list
Procedure move_to_front(a: *Item) :=
    move_after(a, dummy)

Procedure move_to_back(a: *Item) :=
    move_after(b, last())

// Deleting items by moving them to a global freeList
// remove item a
Procedure remove(a: *Item) :=
    move_after(b, freeList.dummy)

// remove first item
Procedure pop_front() :=
    remove(first())

//remove last item
Procedure pop_back() :=
    remove(last())

// Inserting Elements
// Insert an item with value x after item a
Function insert_after(x : T, a : *Item) : *Item :=
    checkFreeList() //make sure freeList is non empty
    b := freeList.first() // obtain an item b to hold x
    move_after(b, a) // insert b after a
    b->e := x // set the data item value of b to x
    return b

// Manipulating whole lists

```

```

Procedure concat(L : List) :=
    splice(L.first(), L.last(), last()) //move whole of L after last
↪ element of this list

Procedure clear()
    freeList.concat(this) //after this operation from from first to last
↪ element of this
                                // list are concatenated to the freeList,
↪ leaving only the
                                // dummy element in this list.

Fuction get(i )

```

## Splicing

The code for splicing of the List class:

```

/* Splice is an all-purpose tool to cut out parts from a list
   Cut out (a, ... b) form this list and insert after t */
Procedure splice(a, b, t : *Item) :=
    assert (
        b is not before a
        and
        t not between a and b
    )
    // Cut out (a, ... , b)
    a->prev->next := b->next
    b->next->prev := a->prev

    // insert (a, ... b) after t
    t->next->prev := b
    b->next := t->next
    t->next := a
    a->prev := t

```

- Dlist cut-out ( $a, \dots, b$ ) (see Figure 2.1):
- Dlist insert ( $a, \dots, b$ ) after  $t$  (see Figure 2.2):

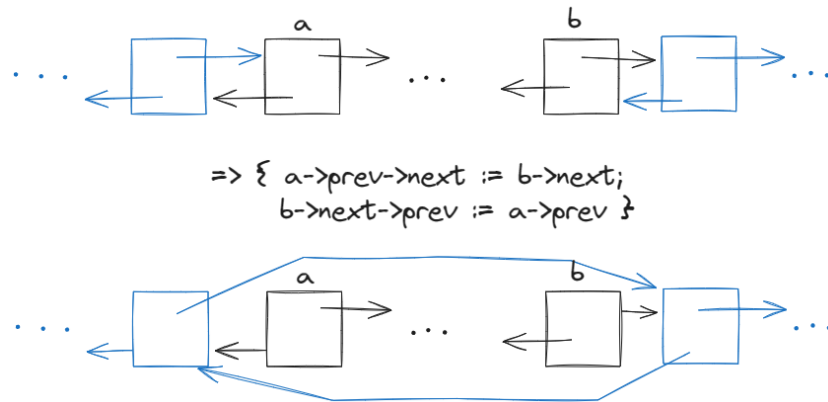


Figure 2.1: cutout

## Speicherverwaltung ./FreeList

Methods (?):

- Naively: allocate memory for each new element, deallocate memory after deleting each element:
  - advantage: simplicity
  - disadvantage: requires a good implementation of memory management: potentially very slow
- “global” `freeList` (e.g. `static` member in C++)
  - doubly linked list of all not used elements
  - transfer ‘deleted’ elements in `freeList`.
  - `checkFreeList` allocates, in case the list is empty

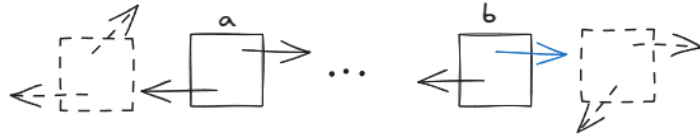
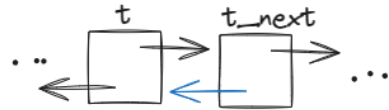
Real implementations: \* naiv but with well implemented, efficient memory management \*  
 refined Free List Approach (class-agnostic, release) \* implementation-specific.

## Deleting Elements

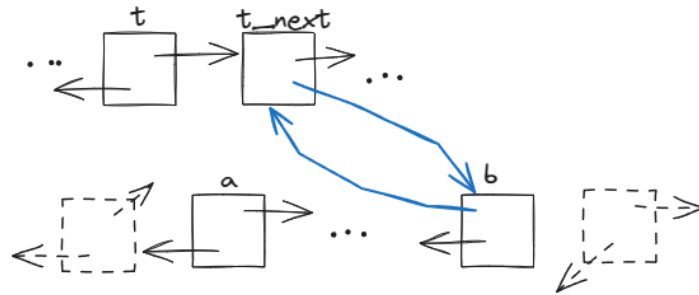
Deleting elements realised by moving them to the global `freeList`:

```
Procedure remove(a: *Item) :=
    move_after(a, freeList.dummy) // item a is now a 'free' item.
```

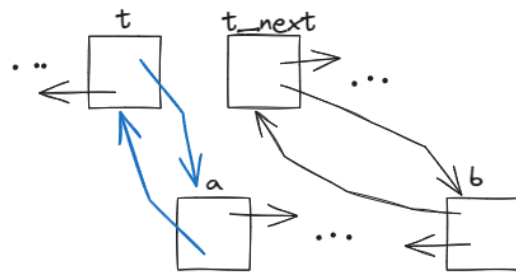
```
Procedure pop_front() :=
    remove(first())
```



$\Rightarrow \{ t \rightarrow \text{next} \rightarrow \text{prev} := b; \\ b \rightarrow \text{next} := t \rightarrow \text{next} \}$



$\Rightarrow \{ t \rightarrow \text{next} := a \\ a \rightarrow \text{prev} := t \}$



$\Rightarrow$

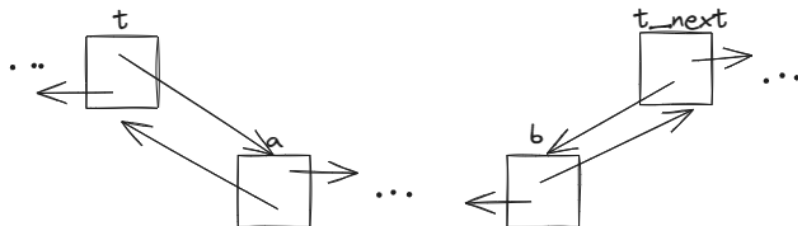


Figure 2.2: insert

```

Procedure pop_back() :=
    remove(last())

```

## Inserting Elements

Inserting elements into a list  $l$  also utilizes `freeList`, by fetching its first element and moving it into  $l$ .

```

Function insert_after(x : T, a : *Item) : *Item :=
    checkFreeList() //make sure freeList is non empty
    b := freeList.first() // obtain an item b to hold x
    move_after(b, a) // insert b after a
    b->e := x // set the data item value of b to x
    return b

```

```

Function insert_before(x : T, b : *Item) : *Item :=
    return insert_after(x, b->prev)

```

```

Procedure push_front(x : T) :=
    insert_after(x, dummy)

```

```

Procedure push_back(x : T) :=
    insert_after(x, last())

```

## Manipulating whole Lists

```

// Manipulating whole lists
Procedure concat(L : List) :=
    splice(L.first(), L.last(), last()) //move whole of L after last element
    ↪ of this list

Procedure clear()
    freeList.concat(this) //after this operation from first to last
    ↪ element of this
                                // list are concatenated to the freeList, leaving
    ↪ only the
                                // dummy element in this list.

```

This operations require **constant time** - indeendent of the list size!



## 3 Arrays

An array is a contiguous sequence of memory cells.

### 3.1 Bounded Arrays

Bounded arrays have fixed size and are an efficient data structure.

- Size must be known during compile time and is fixed.
- Its memory location in the stack allows many compiler optimizations.

### 3.2 Unbounded Arrays

The size of an **unbounded array** can dynamically change during run-time. From the user POV it provides the same behaviour as a linked list.

It allows the operations:

- `pushBack(e: T)`: insert an element at the end of the array
- `popBack(e: T)`: remove an element at the end of the array

#### 3.2.1 Memory Management

- `allocate(n)`: request a  $n$  contiguous blocks of memory words and returns the address value of the first block. This we have the memory blocks:

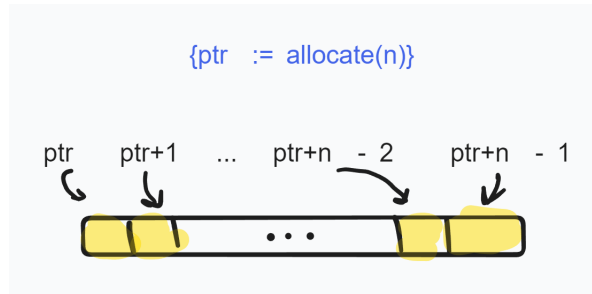


Figure 3.1: array memory allocation

where  $\text{ptr} + i$  addresses are determined by pointer arithmetic.

- `dispose(ptr)` marks the memory address value held in `ptr` as free, effectively deleting the object held there.

In general, the allocated memory can't grow dynamically during life time, since the immediate memory block after the last one might get unpredictably occupied  $\Rightarrow$  If we need a new memory block of size  $n' > n$ , we must allocate a new block, copy the old block contents, and finally free it.

### 3.2.2 Implementation

First we consider a slow variant:

```

Class UArraySlow<T>:=
  c := 0 : Nat // capacity
  b : Array[0..c-1]<T> // the array itself

  pushBack(el : T) : void :=
    // c++
    // allocate new array on heap with new capacity
    // copy elements over from the old array
    // insert el at the last location

  popBack() : void :=
    // analagous

```

**Problem:**  $n$  `pushBack` operations require  $1 + \dots + n \in \mathcal{O}(n^2)$  time  $\Rightarrow$  slow.

Solution:

## Unbounded Arrays with Extra Memory

**Idea:** Request more memory than initial capacity. Reallocate memory only when array gets full or too empty:

**Algorithm design principle:** make common case fast.

```
Class UArray<T> :=
  c := 1 : Nat // capacity
  n := 0 : Nat // number of elements in the array

  //invariant  $n \leq c < 2n$  || ( $n == 0 \ \&\& \ c < 2$ )
  b : Array[0..c-1]<T>

  // Array access
  Operator [i : Nat] : T :=
    assert(0 <= i < n)
    return b[i]

  // accessor method for n
  Function size() : Nat := return n

  Procedure pushBack(e : T) :=
    if n == c :
      reallocate(2*n) // see definition below
    b[n] := e
    n++

  // reallocates a new memory with a given capacity c_new
  Procedure reallocate(c_new : Nat) :=
    c := c_new
    b_new := new Array[0..c_new - 1]<T>
    //copy elements over to new array
    for (i = 1 to n - 1) :
      b_new[i] := b[i]
    dispose(b)
    b := b_new

  Procedure popBack() :=
    // don't do anything for empty arrays
    assert n > 0
    n--
```

```
if 4*n <= c && n > 0 :  
    reallocate(2*n)
```

## 4 Sorting and Priority Queues

### 4.1 Sorting Algorithms

#### 4.1.1 Insertion Sort

```
def insertion_sort(a) :
    n = len(a)
    # i = 1
    # sorted a[0..i-1]
    for i in range(1, n) :
        # insert i in the right position
        j = i - 1
        el = a[i]
        while el < a[j] and j > 0 :
            a[j + 1] = a[j]
            j = j - 1
        # el >= a[j] or j == 0
        if el < a[j] : # j == 0
            a[1] = a[0]
            a[0] = el
        else : # el >= a[j]
            a[j + 1] = el
    return a
```

testing insertion sort for some inputs:

```
import numpy as np
for i in range(2, 8) :
    randarr = np.random.randint(1, 20, i)
    print("in: ", randarr)
    print("out: ", insertion_sort(randarr))
```

```
in:  [18 17]
out:  [17 18]
in:  [14  7 16]
```

```

out: [ 7 14 16]
in:  [9 8 9 6]
out: [6 8 9 9]
in:  [ 3  5  9  1 13]
out: [ 1  3  5  9 13]
in:  [ 6 12  3  7  9  7]
out: [ 3  6  7  7  9 12]
in:  [ 5  6  9 11  2  5 14]
out: [ 2  5  5  6  9 11 14]

```

Following illustrates the state after each insertion (ith iteration):

```

def insertion_sort_print(a) :
    n = len(a)
    # i = 1
    # sorted a[0..i-1]
    for i in range(1, n) :
        # insert i in the right position
        j = i - 1
        el = a[i]
        while el < a[j] and j > 0 :
            a[j + 1] = a[j]
            j = j - 1
        # el >= a[j] or j == 0
        if el < a[j] : # j == 0
            a[1] = a[0]
            a[0] = el
        else : # el >= a[j]
            a[j + 1] = el
        print("after insertion ", i, ": ", a)
    # return a

a = np.random.randint(-20, 20, 8)
print("input:          ", a)
insertion_sort_print(a)

```

```

input:          [-2 17  8 -7  8  1 -8 -3]
after insertion 1 : [-2 17  8 -7  8  1 -8 -3]
after insertion 2 : [-2  8 17 -7  8  1 -8 -3]
after insertion 3 : [-7 -2  8 17  8  1 -8 -3]
after insertion 4 : [-7 -2  8  8 17  1 -8 -3]
after insertion 5 : [-7 -2  1  8  8 17 -8 -3]
after insertion 6 : [-8 -7 -2  1  8  8 17 -3]

```

after insertion 7 : [-8 -7 -3 -2 1 8 8 17]

### 4.1.2 Selection Sort

explanation:

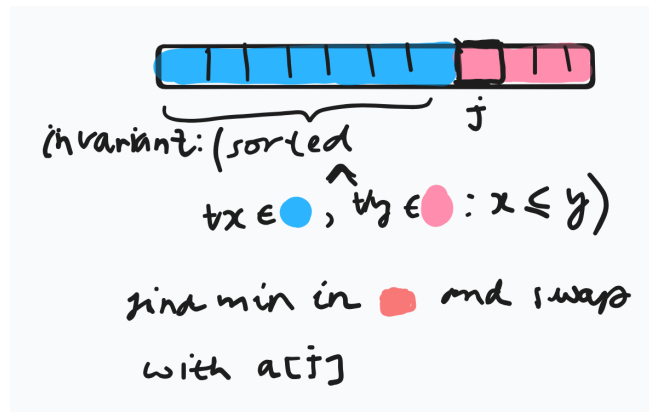


Figure 4.1: selection sort

python implementation:

```
def selection_sort(a) :  
    N = len(a)  
    j = 0  
    # sorted a[0..j-1] && a[0..j-1] <= a[j..N-1]  
    while (j < N) :  
        # find min a[j..N-1]  
        k = j  
        min = a[k]  
        i = j + 1  
        # a[k] == min == min(a[j .. i - 1])  
        while (i < N) :  
            if a[i] < min :  
                min = a[i]  
                k = i  
            i = i + 1  
        # k = j + find_min(a[j :])  
        a[j], a[k] = a[k], a[j]  
        j = j + 1  
    return a
```

we test this on some random arrays:

```
for i in range (2, 8) :
    randarr = np.random.randint(-50, 50, i)
    print("in: ", randarr)
    print("out: ", selection_sort(randarr))
```

```
in:  [-31 -12]
out:  [-31 -12]
in:  [-35 -31 33]
out:  [-35 -31 33]
in:  [ 16 -27  1 -19]
out:  [-27 -19  1 16]
in:  [-35 -29 16 40 -7]
out:  [-35 -29 -7 16 40]
in:  [ 17 12 31 49 34 -46]
out:  [-46 12 17 31 34 49]
in:  [-23 -37 12 11 34 -38 -18]
out:  [-38 -37 -23 -18 11 12 34]
```

### 4.1.3 Bubble Sort

Let  $a : \text{Array}[0..N-1] \langle \text{Nat} \rangle$ . The bubble operation pushes the largest element to the end of the array:

```
def bubble(a) :
    N = len(a)
    i = 0
    # a[i] == max(a[0..i])
    while i < N - 1:
        if a[i] > a[i + 1] :
            a[i], a[i+1] = a[i+1], a[i]
        i = i + 1
    # post-loop: i == N - 1
    return a
```

```
bubble([-5, 10, 1, 3, 7, -2])
```

```
[-5, 1, 3, 7, -2, 10]
```

The code of this function is used inside `bubble_sort()`:



```

def bubble_sort(a) :
    N = len(a)
    j = N
    swapped = False
    while True : # emulate do while loop
        # sorted a[j .. N - 1] and a[0..j-1] <= a[j .. N - 1]
        while j > 0 :
            i = 0
            while i < j - 1 :
                if a[i] > a[i + 1] :
                    a[i], a[i + 1] = a[i + 1], a[i]
                i = i + 1
            j = j - 1
        if not swapped : break # if no swaps performed at all, array already
                                # sorted

    return a

```

We test on some arrays:

```

for i in range (2, 8) :
    randarr = np.random.randint(-50, 50, i)
    print("in:  ", randarr)
    print("out: ", bubble_sort(randarr))

```

```

in:  [ 40 -37]
out: [-37  40]
in:  [ 20  8 -26]
out: [-26  8  20]
in:  [  0 -15  25  40]
out: [-15  0  25  40]
in:  [-38  0 -37  10  36]
out: [-38 -37  0  10  36]
in:  [ 28  44 -27 -48  46  41]
out: [-48 -27  28  41  44  46]
in:  [ 37 -25 -50 -46  19  -2 -12]
out: [-50 -46 -25 -12  -2  19  37]

```

Visual expalantion:

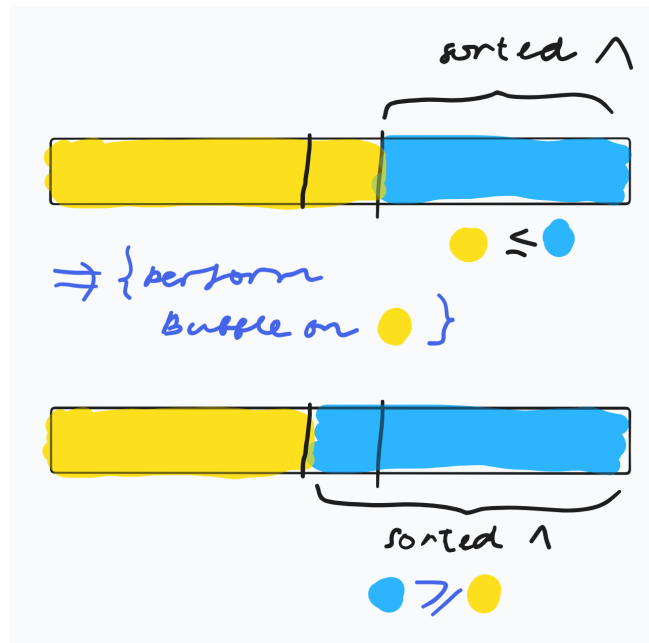


Figure 4.2: bubble sort

#### 4.1.4 Merge Sort

Given by the following python implementation:

```
def merge(a, b) :
    # assert: a and b are sorted
    c = []
    n1 = len(a)
    n2 = len(b)
    k1 = 0
    k2 = 0
    i = 0
    # invariant: merged a[0..k1 - 1] with b[0..k2 - 2]
    while k1 < n1 and k2 < n2 :
        if a[k1] <= b[k2] :
            c.append(a[k1])
            k1 = k1 + 1
        else :
            c.append(b[k2])
            k2 = k2 + 1
    # k1 >= n1 or k2 >= n2
    if k1 == n1 :
```

```

        while k2 < n2 :
            c.append(b[k2])
            k2 = k2 + 1
    if k2 == n2 :
        while k1 < n1 :
            c.append(a[k1])
            k1 = k1 + 1
    return c

def merge_sort(a) :
    if len(a) == 1 : return a[0:1]
    n = len(a)
    a1 = a[0 : n // 2]
    a2 = a[n // 2 : ]
    return merge(merge_sort(a1), merge_sort(a2))

```

We test on some arrays:

```

for i in range (2, 8) :
    randarr = np.random.randint(-20, 20, i)
    print("in:  ", randarr)
    print("out: ", merge_sort(randarr))

```

```

in:   [ 7 -5]
out:  [-5, 7]
in:   [-10 -15 -2]
out:  [-15, -10, -2]
in:   [10 17 19 -9]
out:  [-9, 10, 17, 19]
in:   [ 3 -8 -8 0 -16]
out:  [-16, -8, -8, 0, 3]
in:   [ 13 16 -15 -4 10 4]
out:  [-15, -4, 4, 10, 13, 16]
in:   [ 3 2 -19 12 15 11 -20]
out:  [-20, -19, 2, 3, 11, 12, 15]

```

### 4.1.5 Quick Sort

Naively:

```

def quicksort(s) :
    if len(s) <= 1 : return s

```

```

p = s[len(s) // 2]
a = []
b = []
c = []
for i in range(0, len(s)) :
    if s[i] < p : a.append(s[i])
for i in range(0, len(s)) :
    if s[i] == p : b.append(s[i])
for i in range(0, len(s)) :
    if s[i] > p : c.append(s[i])
return quicksort(a) + b + quicksort(c)

```

testing this naive implementation for some arrays:

```

for i in range (2, 8) :
    randarr = np.random.randint(-10, 20, i)
    print("in: ", randarr)
    print("out: ", quicksort(randarr))

```

```

in:  [-8 -5]
out: [-8, -5]
in:  [ 0 -4 12]
out: [-4, 0, 12]
in:  [ 7  9 -8  3]
out: [-8, 3, 7, 9]
in:  [-3 -4  1 13 -9]
out: [-9, -4, -3, 1, 13]
in:  [-6 17 18 10 11  9]
out: [-6, 9, 10, 11, 17, 18]
in:  [-3 10 11 10 18 -3 -7]
out: [-7, -3, -3, 10, 10, 11, 18]

```

## Quicksort Refinements

pseudocode:

```

Procedure qSort(a : Array<T>; l, r : Nat) :=
    while r - l + 1 > n0 :
        j := pick_pivot_pos(a, l, r)
        swap(a[l], a[j]) // pivot is at the first position
        p := a[l] // p is the value of the pivot
        i := l; j := r

```

```

do
    while a[i] < p : i++; //skip over the elements
    while a[j] > p : j--; // already in the correct subarray
    if i <= j :
        swap(a[i], a[j])
        i++
        j--
    while i <= j
    qSort(a, l, j)
    qSort(a, i, r)

```

cpp implementation including testing for {3, 6, 8, 1, 0, 7, 2, 4, 5, 9}

```

#include <iostream>

void qSort(int* a, int l, int r)
{
    if (r <= l) return;
    int p = a[0]; // first element is pivot
    int i = l;
    int j = r;
    do {
        while (a[i] < p) i++;
        while (a[j] > p) j--;
        if (i <= j) {// partitioning is not complete
            int temp = a[i];
            a[i] = a[j];
            a[j] = temp;
            i++;
            j--;
        }
    } while (i <= j);
    // i > j
    qSort(a, l, j);
    qSort(a, i, r);
}

int main(int argc, const char** argv) {
    int a[] = {3, 6, 8, 1, 0, 7, 2, 4, 5, 9};
    for (int i = 0; i < 9; i++)
        std::cout << a[i] << ", ";
    std::cout << a[9] << std::endl;
    return 0;
}

```

}

## 4.2 Priority Queues and Heap Data Structure

A set  $M$  of Elements  $e : T$  with Keys supporting two operations:

- `insert(e)`: Insert  $e$  into  $M$ .
- `delete_min()`: remove the min element from  $M$  and return it.

### 4.2.1 Applications

- Greedy algorithms (selecting the optimal local optimal solution)
- Simulation of discrete events
- branch-and-bound search
- time forward processing.

### 4.2.2 Binary Heaps

**Heap Property:**

- For any leaf  $a \in M$   $a$  is a heap.
- Let  $T_1, T_2$  be heaps. If  $a \leq x, \forall x \in T_1, T_2$ , then  $T_1 \circ a \circ T_2$  is also a heap.

**Complete Binary Tree:**

- A **complete** binary tree is a binary tree in which ever lebel, except possibly the last, is completely filled, and all nodes in the last level are as far left as possible.

**Heap:**

- A **heap** is a complete binary tree that satisfies the heap property:
- A heap can be succinctly represented as an array:

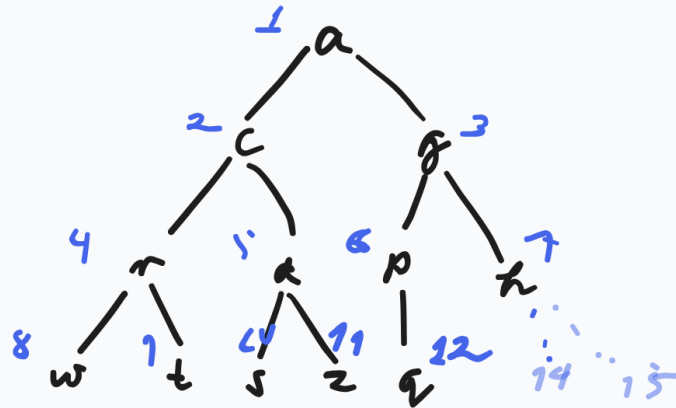
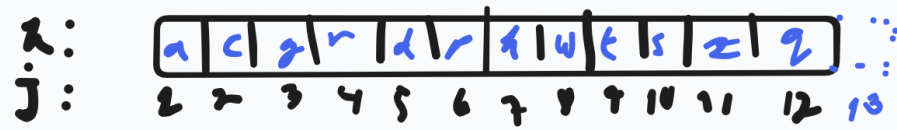


Figure 4.3: heap

- Array  $h[1..n]$
- for any given node with the number  $j$ :
  - left child:  $2*j$
  - right child  $2*j + 1$
  - parent:  $\text{bottom}(j/2)$

Pseudocode:

```

Class BinaryHeapPQ(capacity: Nat)<T> :=
  h : Array[1..capacity]<T>
  size := 0 : Nat // current amount of elements

  // Heap-property
  // invariant:  $h[\text{bottom}(j/2)] \leq h[j]$ , for all  $j == 2..n$ 

  Function min() :=
    assert size > 0 // heap non-emptpy
    return h[1]

  Procedure insert(e : T) :=

```

```

    assert size < capacity
    size++
    h[size] := e
    siftUp(size)

Procedure siftUp(i : Nat) :=
    // assert Heap-property violated at most at position i
    if i == 1 or h[bottom(i / 2)] <= h[i] then return
    swap(h[i], h[bottom(i/2)])
    siftUp(bottom(i/2))

Procedure popMin : T :=
    result = h[1] : T
    h[1] := h[size]
    size--
    siftDown(1)
    return result

Procedure siftDown (i : Nat) :=
    // assert: Heap property is at most at position 2*i or 2*i + 1
    ↪ violated
    if 2i > n then return // i is a leaf

    // select the appropriate child
    if 2*i + 1 > n or h[2*i] <= h[2*i + 1] :
    //no right child exists or left child is smaller than right
        m := 2*i
    else : m := 2*i + 1
    if h[i] > h[m] :
        swap(h[i], h[m])
        siftDown(m)

Procedure buildHeap(a[1..n]<T>) :=
    h := a
    buildRecursive(1)

Procedure buildHeapRecursive(i : Nat) :=
    if 4*i <= size : // children are not leaves
        buildHeapRecursive(2*i) // assert: heap property holds for left
    ↪ subtree
        buildHeapRecursive(2*i + 1) // assert: heap property holds for
    ↪ right subtree
        siftDown(i) //assert Heap property holds for subtree starting at i

```



```

//alternatively
Procudure buildHeapBackwards :=
  for i := n/2 downto 1 :
    siftDown(i)

Procedure heapSort(a[1..n]<T>) :=
  buildHeap(a) // O(n)
  for i := n downto 2 do :
    h[i] := deleteMin(); // O(log(n))

```

## Heap Insert

```

Procedure insert(e : T) :=
  assert size < capacity
  size++
  h[n] := e
  siftUp(n)

Procedure siftUp(i : Nat) :=
  // assert Heap-property violated at most at position i
  if i == 1 or h[bottom(i / 2)] <= h[i] then return
  swap(h[i], h[bottom(i/2)])
  siftUp(bottom(i/2))

```

Illustration of heap insert:

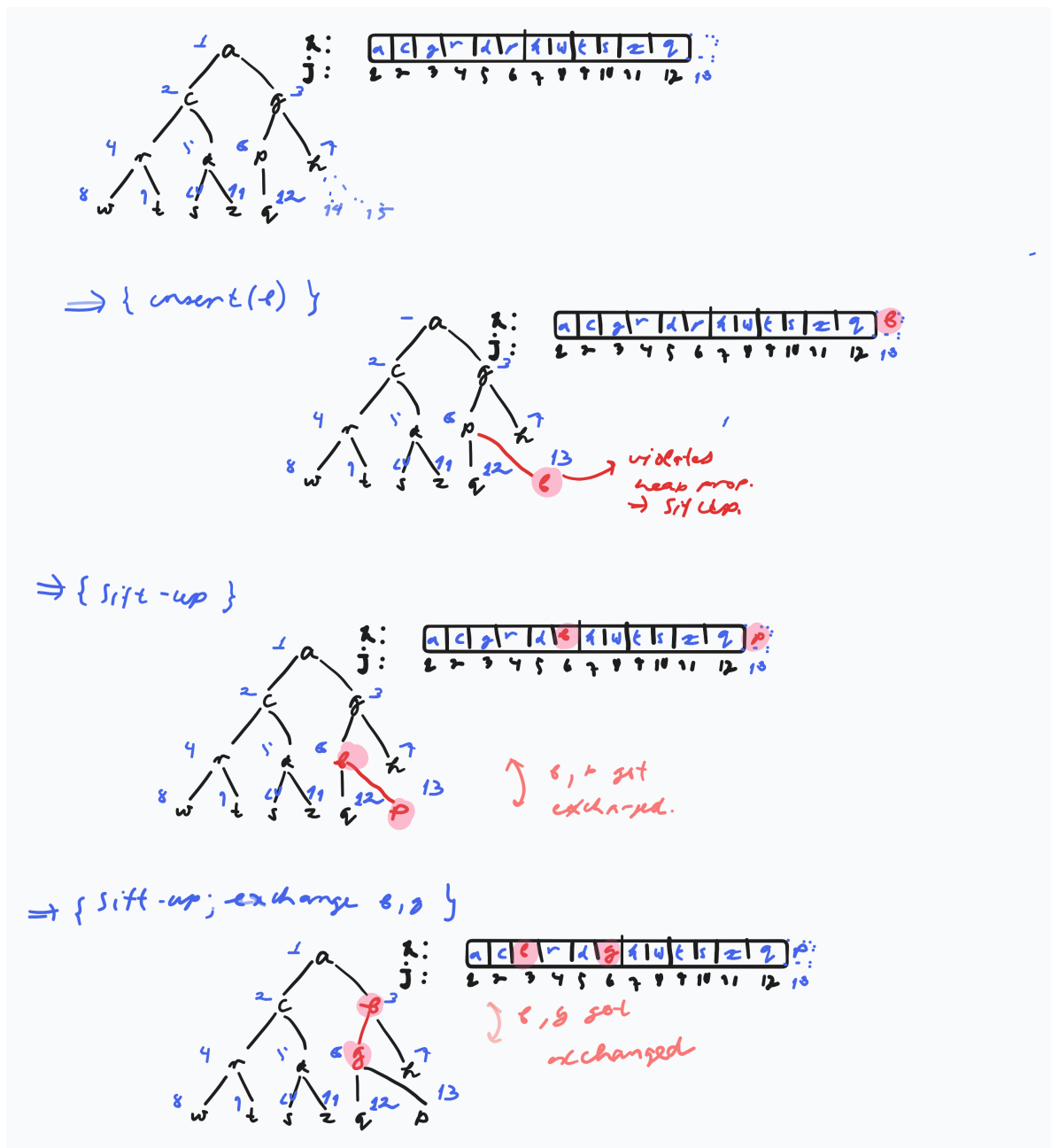


Figure 4.4: heap insert

## Heap Pop Min (or Delete Min)

```
Procedure popMin : T :=  
  result = h[1] : T  
  h[1] := h[n]  
  n--  
  siftDown(1)  
  return result
```

```
Procedure siftDown (i : Nat)  
  // assert: Heap property is at most at position 2*i or 2*i + 1 violated  
  if 2i > n then return // i is a leaf  
  
  // select the appropriate child  
  if 2*i + 1 > n or h[2*i] <= h[2*i + 1] :  
    //no right child exists or left child is smaller than right  
    m := 2*i  
  if h[i] > h[m] :  
    swap(h[i], h[m])  
    siftDown(m)  else : m := 2*i + 1
```

Illustration of pop min:

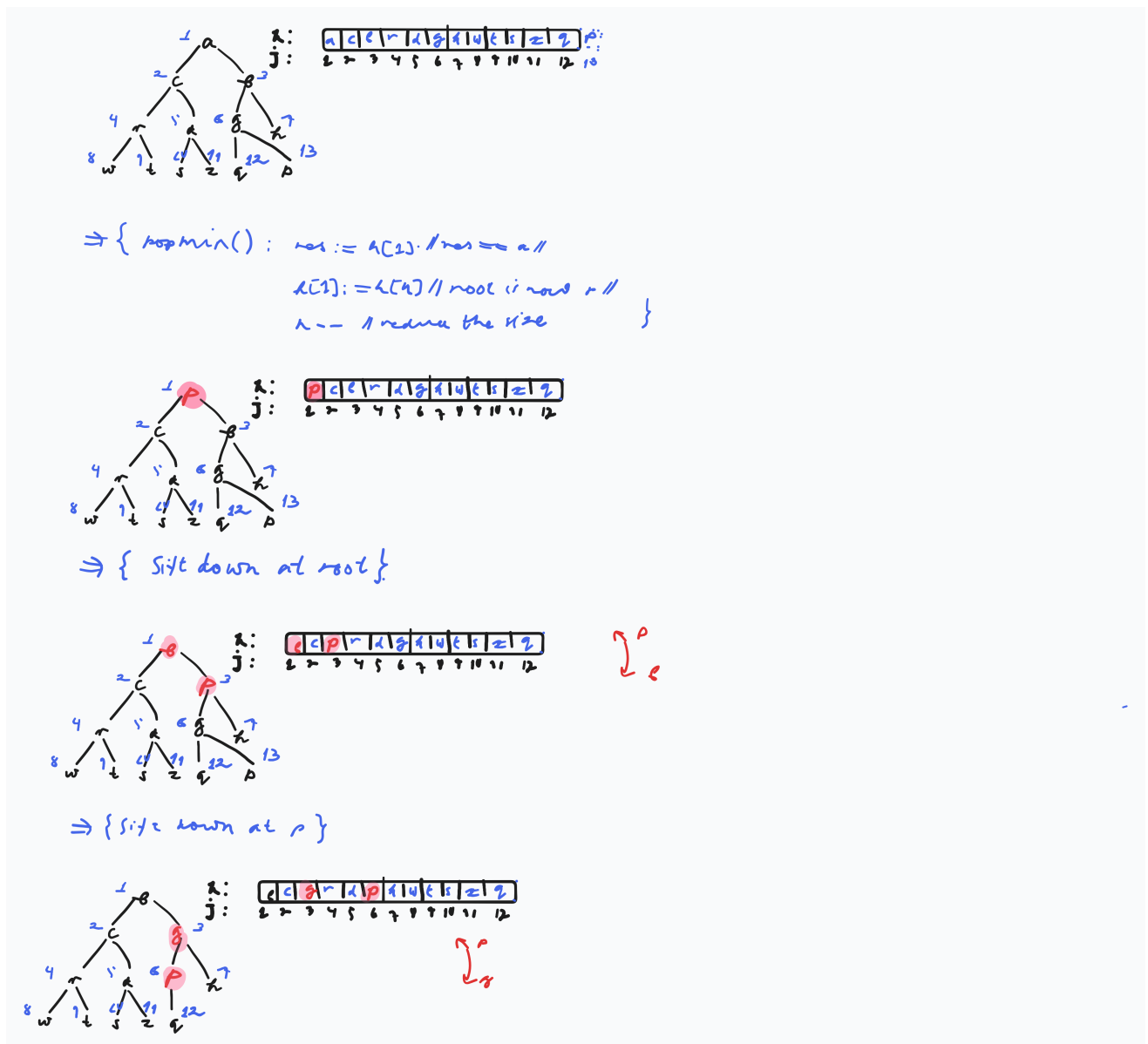


Figure 4.5: heap pop min

### Construction of a Binary Heap

- Given are  $n$  numbers. Construct a heap from these numbers
- **Naive Solution:**  $n$  calls to `insert()`  $\Rightarrow \mathcal{O}(n \log(n))$ 
  - Problem: If numbers are given in an array, we can't perform the construction in

place.  
 – It is slow

- we can do faster and in place in  $\mathcal{O}(n)$  time.

Pseudocode for recursive implementation:

```

Procedure buildHeap(a[1..n] : T) :=
  h := a
  buildRecursive(1)

Procedure buildHeapRecursive(i : Nat) :=
  if 4*i <= n : // children are not leaves
    buildHeapRecursive(2*i) // assert: heap property holds for left
  ↪ subtree
    buildHeapRecursive(2*i + 1) // assert: heap property holds for right
  ↪ subtree
    siftDown(i) //assert Heap property holds for subtree starting at i

```

A simpler iterative one-liner:

```

Procedure buildHeapBackwards :=
  for i := n/2 downto 1 :
    siftDown(i)

```

$\lfloor i/2 \rfloor$  is the last non-leaf node.

Time complexity of these binary heap construction algorithms is  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ .

## Heapsort

```

Procedure heapSort(a[1..n]<T>) :=
  buildHeap(a) //  $\mathcal{O}(n)$ 
  for i := n downto 2 do :
    h[i] := deleteMin(); //  $\mathcal{O}(\log(n))$ 

```

Sorts in decreasing order in  $\mathcal{O}(n \log(n))$ , by removing the minimal element and writing the return value to the end of the array in place.