

An alternative implementation of a priority queue uses a positional list, yet maintaining entries sorted by nondecreasing keys. This ensures that the first element of the list is an entry with the smallest key. Our `SortedPriorityQueue` class is given in Code Fragment 9.3. The implementation of `minAndRemove`

minare rather straightforward given knowledge that the  
 .rst element of a list has a minimum key. We rely on the .rst method of the posi-  
 tional list to .nd the position of the .rst item, and the delete method to remove the  
 entry from the list. Assuming that the list is implemented with a doubly linked list, operations min and remove  
 mintake  $O(1)$  time.

This benefit comes at a cost, however, for the `add` method requires that we scan the list to find the appropriate position to insert the new item. Our implementation starts at the end of the list, walking backward until the new key is smaller than an existing item; in the worst case, it progresses until reaching the front of the list. Therefore, the `add` method takes  $O(n)$  time, where  $n$  is the number of entries in the priority queue at the time the method is executed. In summary, when using a sorted list to implement a priority queue, insertion runs in linear time, whereas finding and removing the minimum can be done in constant time.

## Comparing the Two List-Based Implementations

Table 9.2 compares the running times of the methods of a priority queue realized by means of a sorted and unsorted list. It is clear that the sorted list is more efficient than the unsorted list when we use a list to implement the priority queue ADT. An unsorted list supports fast insertions but slow queries and deletions, whereas a sorted list allows fast queries and deletions, but slow insertions.

Operation	Unsorted List	Sorted List
len	$O(1)$	$O(1)$
is empty	$O(1)$	$O(1)$
add	$O(1)$	$O(n)$
min	$O(n)$	$O(1)$
remove	min $O(n)$	$O(1)$

Table 9.2: Worst-case running times of the methods of a priority queue of size  $n$ , realized by means of an unsorted or sorted list, respectively. We assume that the list is implemented by a doubly linked list. The space requirement is  $O(n)$ .

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R-10.24 Give a pseudo-code description of the `delitem`

`map` operation when using a skip list.

R-10.25 Give a concrete implementation of the `pop` method, in the context of a `MutableSet` abstract base class, that relies only on the core set behaviors described in Section 10.5.2.

R-10.26 Give a concrete implementation of the `isdisjoint` method in the context of the `MutableSet` abstract base class, relying only on the primary abstract methods of that class. Your algorithm should run in  $O(\min(n, m))$  where  $n$  and  $m$  denote the respective cardinalities of the two sets.

R-10.27 What abstraction would you use to manage a database of friends' birthdays in order to support efficient queries such as "find all friends whose birthday is today" and "find the friend who was born on this day"? Creativity

C-10.28 On page 406 of Section 10.1.3, we give an implementation of the `methodsetdefault` as it might appear in `UnsortedTableMap`. While that method accomplishes the goal in a general fashion, its efficiency is less than ideal. In particular, when `getitem`

`getitem`, and then a subsequent insertion via `setitem`

`setitem`. For a concrete implementation, such as `theUnsortedTableMap`, this is twice the work because a complete scan of the table will take place during the failed `getitem`

`getitem`, and then another complete scan of the table takes place due to the implementation of `setitem`

`setitem`. A better solution is for the `UnsortedTableMap` class to override `setdefault` to provide a direct solution that performs a single search. Give such an implementation of `UnsortedTableMap.setdefault`.

C-10.29 Repeat Exercise C-10.28 for the `ProbeHashMap` class.

C-10.30 Repeat Exercise C-10.28 for the `ChainHashMap` class.

C-10.31 For an ideal compression function, the capacity of the bucket array for a hash table should be a prime number. Finding such a prime by using the sieve algorithm. In this algorithm, we allocate a 2M-cell Boolean array  $A$ , such that cell  $i$  is associated with the integer  $i$ . We then initialize the array cells to all be `true` and we mark off all the cells that are multiples of 2, 3, 5, 7, and so on. This process can stop after it reaches a number larger than  $2M$ . (Hint: Consider a bootstrapping method for finding the primes up to  $2M$ .)

## 10.3.2 Two Applications of Sorted Maps

In this section, we explore applications in which there is particular advantage to using a sorted map rather than a traditional (unsorted) map. To apply a sorted map, keys must come from a domain that is totally ordered. Furthermore, to take advantage of the inexact or range searches afforded by a sorted map, there should be some reason why nearby keys have relevance to a search.

## Flight Databases

There are several Web sites on the Internet that allow users to perform queries on flight databases to find flights between two cities and to buy a ticket. To make a query, a user specifies origin and destination cities, a departure date, and a departure time. To support such queries, we can model the flight database as a map, where keys are tuples of these four parameters. That is, a key is a tuple  $k = (\text{origin}, \text{destination}, \text{date}, \text{time})$ .

Additional information about a flight, such as the flight number, the number of seats still available in first (F) and coach (C) class, can be stored in the value object.

Finding a requested flight is not simply a matter of finding an exact match for a requested query. Although a user typically wants to exactly match the origin and destination cities, he or she may have flexibility for the departure date, and certainly will have some flexibility for the departure time. We can handle such a query by ordering our keys lexicographically. Then, an efficient implementation for a sorted map would be a good way to satisfy users' queries. For instance, given a user query  $q$ , we can use  $\text{range}(k)$  to return

the first flight between the desired cities, having a departure date and time matching the desired query or later. Because the keys are ordered lexicographically, we can use  $\text{range}(k)$  to find all flights within a given range of times. For example, if  $k_1 = (\text{ORD}, \text{PVD}, \text{05May}, \text{09:30})$ , and  $k_2 = (\text{ORD}, \text{PVD}, \text{05May}, \text{20:00})$ , a respective call to  $\text{range}(k_1, k_2)$  might result in the following sequence of key-value pairs:

$\text{range}(k_1, k_2)$  might result in the following sequence of key-value pairs:

(ORD, PVD, 05May, 09:53):(AA 1840, F5, Y15, 02:05, 251),

(ORD, PVD, 05May, 13:29):(AA 600, F2, Y0, 02:16, 713),

(ORD, PVD, 05May, 17:39):(AA 416, F3, Y9, 02:09, 365),

(ORD, PVD, 05May, 19:50):(AA 1828, F9, Y25, 02:13, 186)

## 12.7. Selection 571

### 12.7 Selection

As important as it is, sorting is not the only interesting problem dealing with a total order relation on a set of elements. There are a number of applications in which we are interested in identifying a maximum element, but we may also be interested in, say, identifying the median element, that is, the element such that half of the other elements are smaller and the remaining half are larger. In general, queries that ask for an element with a given rank are called order statistics.

#### Defining the Selection Problem

In this section, we discuss the general order-statistic problem of selecting the  $k$ th smallest element from an unsorted collection of  $n$  comparable elements. This is known as the selection problem. Of course, we can solve this problem by sorting the collection and then indexing into the sorted sequence at index  $k+1$ . Using the best comparison-based sorting algorithms, this approach would take  $O(n \log n)$  time, which is obviously an overkill for the cases where  $k=1$  or  $k=n$  (or even  $k=2, k=3, k=n-1$ , or  $k=n-5$ ), because we can easily solve the selection problem for these values of  $k$  in  $O(n)$  time. Thus, a natural question to ask is whether we can achieve an  $O(n)$  running time for all values of  $k$  (including the interesting case of finding the median, where  $k=n/2$ ).

#### 12.7.1 Prune-and-Search

We can indeed solve the selection problem in  $O(n)$  time for any value of  $k$ . Moreover, the technique we use to achieve this result involves an interesting algorithmic design pattern. This design pattern is known as prune-and-search or decrease-and-conquer. In applying this design pattern, we solve a given problem that is defined on a collection of objects by pruning away a fraction of the objects and recursively solving the smaller problem. When we have finally reduced the problem to one defined on a constant number of objects, we solve the problem using some brute-force method. Returning back from all the recursive calls completes the construction. The construction in Section 4.1.3 is an example of the prune-and-search design pattern.

## 13.5 Tries

The pattern-matching algorithms presented in Section 13.2 speed up the search in a text by preprocessing the pattern (to compute the failure function in the Knuth-Morris-Pratt algorithm or the last array in the Boyer-Moore algorithm). A series of queries is performed on a fixed text, so that the initial cost of preprocessing the text is compensated by a speedup in each subsequent query (for example, a Web site that offers pattern matching on Web pages on the Hamlet topic).

A trie (pronounced "try") is a tree-based data structure for storing strings in order to support fast pattern matching. The main application for tries is in information retrieval. Indeed, the name "trie" comes from "retrieval". In an information retrieval application, such as a search for a certain DNA sequence in a genomic database, we are given a set of strings  $S$  over an alphabet  $\Sigma$ . The primary query operations that tries support are pattern matching and prefix matching. The latter operation returns all the strings in  $S$  that contain  $X$  as a prefix.

## 13.5.1 Standard Tries

Let  $S$  be a set of strings from alphabet  $\Sigma$  such that no string in  $S$  is a prefix of another string. A standard trie for  $S$  is an ordered tree  $T$  with the following properties (see Figure 13.10):

- Each node of  $T$ , except the root, is labeled with a character of  $\Sigma$ .
- The children of an internal node of  $T$  have distinct labels.
- There are leaves, each associated with a string of  $S$ , such that the concatenation of the labels of the nodes on the path from the root to a leaf  $v$  of  $T$  yields the string of  $S$  associated with  $v$ .

Thus, a trie  $T$  represents the strings of  $S$  with paths from the root to the leaves of  $T$ . Note the importance of assuming that no string in  $S$  is a prefix of another string. This ensures that each string of  $S$  is uniquely associated with a leaf of  $T$ .

(This is similar to the restriction for prefix codes with Huffman coding, as described in Section 13.4.) We can always add a special character that is not in the original alphabet  $\Sigma$  at the end of each string.

An internal node in a standard trie  $T$  can have anywhere between 1 and  $|\Sigma|$  children. There is an edge going from the root  $r$  to one of its children for each character that is first in some string in the collection  $S$ . In addition, a path from the root of  $T$  to an internal node  $v$  at depth  $k$  corresponds to a  $k$ -character prefix  $X[0:k]$

### 13.5. Tries 611

e

zeze

mizei

nimize ze nimizemi nimize

(a)

0:2 6:8

6:8 2:8 2:82:8 1:2

6:87:8

4:8

e01234567

minimiz

(b)

Figure 13.14: (a) Suf-x trie  $T$  for the string  $X = \text{"minimize"}$ . (b) Compact representation of  $T$ , where pair  $j:k$  denotes slice  $X[j:k]$  in the reference string.

Using a Suf-x Trie

The suf-x trie  $T$  for a string  $X$  can be used to efficiently perform pattern-matching queries on text  $X$ . Namely, we can determine whether a pattern  $P$  is a substring of  $X$  by trying to trace a path associated with  $P$  in  $T$ .  $P$  is a substring of  $X$  if and only if such a path can be traced. The search down the trie  $T$  assumes that nodes in  $T$  store some additional information, with respect to the compact representation of the suf-x trie:

If node  $v$  has label  $(j,k)$  and  $Y$  is the string of length  $y$  associated with the path from the root to  $v$  (included), then  $X[k-y:k] = Y$ .

This property ensures that we can easily compute the start index of the pattern in the text when a match occurs.

## 14.2. Data Structures for Graphs 629

### Performance of the Edge List Structure

The performance of an edge list structure in fulfilling the graph ADT is summarized in Table 14.2. We begin by discussing the space usage, which is  $O(n+m)$  for representing a graph with  $n$  vertices and  $m$  edges. Each individual vertex or edge instance uses  $O(1)$  space, and the additional lists `V` and `E` use space proportional to their number of entries.

In terms of running time, the edge list structure does as well as one could hope in terms of reporting the number of vertices or edges, or in producing an iteration of those vertices or edges. By querying the respective list `V` or `E`, the vertex

`count`

and `edge`

`count` methods run in  $O(1)$  time, and by iterating through the appropriate

list, the methods `vertices` and `edges` run respectively in  $O(n)$  and  $O(m)$  time.

The most significant limitations of an edge list structure, especially when compared to the other graph representations, are the  $O(m)$  running times of methods `get`

`edge(u,v)`, `degree(v)`, and `incident`

`edges(v)`. The problem is that with all

edges of the graph in an unordered list `E`, the only way to answer those queries

is through an exhaustive inspection of all edges. The other data structures introduced in this section will implement these methods more efficiently.

Finally, we consider the methods that update the graph. It is easy to add a new vertex or a new edge to the graph in  $O(1)$  time. For example, a new edge can be added to the graph by creating an `Edge` instance storing the given element as data, adding that instance to the positional list `E`, and recording its resulting `Position` within `E` as an attribute of the edge. That stored position can later be used to locate and remove this edge from `E` in  $O(1)$  time, and thus implement the method

`remove`

`edge(e)`

It is worth discussing why the `remove`

`vertex(v)` method has a running time of

$O(m)$ . As stated in the graph ADT, when a vertex `v` is removed from the graph, all edges incident to `v` must also be removed (otherwise, we would have a contradiction of edges that refer to vertices that are not part of the graph). To locate the incident edges to the vertex, we must examine all edges of `E`.

Operation

Running Time

`vertex`

`count()`, `edge`

`count()`

$O(1)$

`vertices()`

$O(n)$

`edges()`

$O(m)$

`get`

`edge(u,v)`, `degree(v)`, `incident`

`edges(v)`

$O(m)$

## 14.4. Transitive Closure 651

### 14.4 Transitive Closure

We have seen that graph traversals can be used to answer basic questions of reachability in a directed graph. In particular, if we are interested in knowing whether there is a path from vertex  $u$  to vertex  $v$  in a graph, we can perform a DFS or BFS traversal starting at  $u$  and observe whether  $v$  is discovered. If representing a graph with an adjacency list or adjacency map, we can answer the question of reachability for  $u$  and  $v$  in  $O(n+m)$  time (see Propositions 14.15 and 14.17).

In certain applications, we may wish to answer many reachability queries more efficiently, in which case it may be worthwhile to precompute a more convenient representation of a graph. For example, driving directions from an origin to a destination might be to assess whether the destination is reachable. Similarly, in an electricity network, we may wish to be able to quickly determine whether the transitive closure of a directed graph  $G$  is itself a directed graph  $G^*$  such that the

vertices of  $G^*$  are the same as the vertices of  $G$ , and  $G^*$  has an edge  $(u,v)$ , whenever  $G$  has a directed path from  $u$  to  $v$  (including the case where  $(u,v)$  is an edge of the original  $G$ ).

If a graph is represented as an adjacency list or adjacency map, we can compute its transitive closure in  $O(n(n+m))$  time by making use of  $n$  graph traversals, one from each starting vertex. For example, a DFS starting at vertex  $u$  can be used to determine all vertices reachable from  $u$ , and thus a collection of edges originating with  $u$  in the transitive closure.

In the remainder of this section, we explore an alternative technique for computing the transitive closure of a directed graph that is particularly well suited for when a directed graph is represented by a data structure that supports  $O(1)$ -time lookup for the `get`

`edge(u,v)` method (for example, the adjacency-matrix structure). Let  $G$  be a directed graph with  $n$  vertices and  $m$  edges. We compute the transitive closure of  $G$  in a series of rounds. We initialize  $G_0 = G$ . We also arbitrarily number the vertices of  $G$  as  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ . We then begin the computation of the rounds, beginning with round 1. In a generic round  $k$ , we construct directed graph  $G_k$  starting with  $G_k = G_{k-1}$  and adding to  $G_k$  the directed edge  $(v_i, v_j)$  if directed graph  $G_{k-1}$  contains both the edges  $(v_i, v_k)$  and  $(v_k, v_j)$ . In this way, we will enforce a simple rule embodied in the proposition that follows.

**Proposition 14.18:** For  $i=1, \dots, n$ , directed graph  $G_k$  has an edge  $(v_i, v_j)$  if and only if directed graph  $G$  has a directed path from  $v_i$  to  $v_j$ , whose intermediate vertices (if any) are in the set  $\{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ . In particular,  $G_n$  is equal to  $G^*$ , the transitive closure of  $G$ .



## 15.3. External Searching and B-Trees 711

### 15.3 External Searching and B-Trees

Consider the problem of maintaining a large collection of items that does not fit in main memory, such as a typical database. In this context, we refer to the secondary-memory blocks as disk blocks. The difference between secondary memory and primary memory is a disk transfer. Recalling the great time difference that exists between main memory accesses and disk accesses, the main goal of maintaining such a collection is to minimize the number of disk transfers. The number of disk transfers count as the I/O complexity of the algorithm involved.

#### Some Inefficient External-Memory Representations

A typical operation we would like to support is the search for a key in a map. If we were to store items unordered in a linked list, the search for a key within the list requires  $n$  transfers in the worst case, since each link hop we perform on the linked list might access a different block of memory.

We can reduce the number of block transfers by using an array-based sequence.

A sequential search of an array can be performed using only  $O(n/B)$  block transfers because of spatial locality of reference, where  $B$  denotes the number of elements that fit into a block. This is because the block transfer when accessing the  $i$ -th element of the array actually retrieves the  $i$ -th  $B$  elements, and so on with each successive block. It is worth noting that the bound of  $O(n/B)$  transfers is only achieved when using a compact array representation (see Section 5.2.2). The standard Python list class is a referential container, and so even though the sequence of references are stored in an array, the actual elements that must be examined during a search are not generally contiguous, resulting in  $O(n)$  transfers in the worst case.

We could alternately store a sequence using a sorted array. In this case, a search performs  $O(\log n)$  transfers.

via binary search, which is a nice improvement. But we do not get significant benefit from block transfers because each query during a binary search is likely in a different block. Thus, block transfers are expensive for a sorted array.

Since these simple implementations are I/O inefficient, we should consider the logarithmic-time internal-memory strategies that use balanced binary trees (for example, AVL trees or red-black trees) or other search structures with logarithmic average-case query and update time. In these structures, each node accessed for a query or update is in one of these structures will be in a different block. Thus, these methods all require  $O(\log n)$  transfers in the worst case.

to perform a query or update operation. But we can do better! We can perform map queries and updates using  $O(\log n / \log B)$  transfers.

## 582 Chapter 13. Text Processing

### 13.1 Abundance of Digitized Text

Despite the wealth of multimedia information, text processing remains one of the dominant functions of computers. Computers are used to edit, store, and display documents, and to transport documents. Documents are used to archive a wide range of textual information, and new data is being generated at a rapidly increasing pace. A large corpus can readily surpass a petabyte of data (which is equivalent to 1,000 gigabytes).

- Snapshots of the World Wide Web, as Internet document formats HTML and XML are primarily text formats, with some images and other non-textual elements.
- All documents stored locally on a user's computer
- Email archives
- Customer reviews
- Compilations of status updates on social networking sites such as Facebook
- Feeds from microblogging sites such as Twitter and Tumblr

These collections include written text from hundreds of international languages.

Furthermore, there are large data sets (such as DNA) that can be viewed computationally as "strings" even though they are not language.

In this chapter we explore some of the fundamental algorithms that can be used to efficiently analyze and process large textual data sets. In addition to having interesting applications, text-processing algorithms also highlight some important algorithmic design patterns.

We begin by examining the problem of searching for a pattern as a substring of a larger piece of text, for example, when searching for a word in a document.

The pattern-matching problem gives rise to the brute-force method, which is often inefficient but has wide applicability.

Next, we introduce an algorithmic technique known as dynamic programming, which can be applied in certain settings to solve a problem in polynomial time that appears at first to require exponential time to solve. We demonstrate the application of this technique to the problem of sequence alignment, which is similar but not perfectly aligned. This problem arises when making suggestions for a misspelled word, or when trying to match related genetic samples.

Because of the massive size of textual data sets, the issue of compression is important, both in minimizing the number of bits that need to be communicated through a network and to reduce the long-term storage requirements for archives.

For text compression, we can apply the greedy method, which often allows us to approximate solutions to hard problems, and for some problems (such as in text compression) actually gives rise to efficient solutions.

Finally, we examine several special-purpose data structures that can be used to better organize textual data in order to support more efficient run-time queries.