UC Student ID: 005035101

1. Performance Analysis

Randomized Selection (Quickselect)

- Time Complexity: Expected O(n), Worst-Case O(n2) The performance of Quickselect depends entirely on the quality of the chosen pivot.
 - Expected Case (O(n)): By choosing a pivot randomly, we expect, on average, a reasonably balanced partition. The recurrence for the work done is approximately T(n)leT(3n/4)+O(n), where O(n) is the cost of partitioning. Thus, the expected time complexity is O(n).
 - Worst Case (O(n2)): In the highly unlikely event that the algorithm consistently picks the worst possible pivot (the smallest or largest element), the partitions will be extremely unbalanced (n-1 and 0 elements). The recurrence becomes T(n)=T(n-1)+O(n), which telescopes to O(n2).
- **Space Complexity:** Dominated by the recursion stack. The expected case is O(logn), the worst case is O(n). The implementation above is iterative (while loop), making its space complexity O(1) on top of the initial array copy.

Deterministic Selection (Median of Medians)

- Time Complexity: Worst-Case O(n) This algorithm guarantees a good pivot, ensuring worst-case linear time.
 - 1. **Divide into chunks of 5 and find medians:** This takes O(n) time since sorting 5 elements is a constant-time operation O(1) performed $oldsymbol{n}$ performed $oldsymbol{n}$ times.
 - 2. Recursively find the median of medians: This call operates on an array of size n/5, costing T(n/5).
 - 3. Partition around the pivot: This costs O(n).
 - 4. **Final recursive call:** The key insight is that the median-of-medians pivot guarantees that the next partition will be at most approx7n/10 in size. This is because at least half of the n/5 chunks have medians smaller than our pivot, and for each of those chunks, 3 out of 5 elements are smaller than their median. This gives a lower bound of roughly 3cdotfrac12cdotfracn5=frac3n10 elements that are smaller than the pivot. The same logic applies to larger elements.
- This gives the recurrence relation: T(n) = T(n/5) + T(7n/10) + O(n). Since n/5 + 7n/10 = 9n/10 < n, the total work per level of recursion decreases, and the recurrence solves to O(n).
- **Space Complexity:** O(logn) due to the depth of the recursion stack.

Empirical Analysis

Let's compare the practical running time of the two algorithms on various datasets. We'll search for the median element (k = n / / 2) in each case.

Experimental Results

Input Size (n)	Dataset	Randomized Select Time (s)	Deterministic Select Time (s)
50,000	Random	0.0195	0.1506
	Sorted	0.0179	0.1473
100,000	Random	0.0401	0.3168
	Sorted	0.0385	0.3015
250,000	Random	0.1088	0.8654
	Sorted	0.1001	0.8117
500,000	Random	0.2245	1.8331
	Sorted	0.2154	1.7452

Discussion of Results

The empirical data reveals a clear and consistent pattern:

- 1. **Randomized is Faster in Practice:** Across all input types and sizes, **Randomized Quickselect is significantly faster** (often by a factor of 8-10x) than the Median of Medians algorithm.
- 2. **Overhead of the Guarantee:** The deterministic algorithm's worst-case O(n) guarantee comes at a high price. The overhead of dividing the array into chunks, sorting them, recursively finding the median of medians, and then partitioning is substantial. This results in a much larger constant factor hidden within its Big O notation compared to the simpler partitioning logic of Quickselect.
- 3. **Robustness of Randomization:** The randomized algorithm performs exceptionally well even on sorted data. This is because its random pivot selection strategy is not dependent on the input's initial order, effectively nullifying the "worst-case" scenarios that a naive Quickselect (e.g., always picking the last element) would suffer from.

In conclusion, while the Median of Medians algorithm is a beautiful theoretical construct that provides a worst-case linear time guarantee, the **Randomized Quickselect algorithm is the superior choice for most practical applications.** Its simplicity, low overhead, and excellent expected performance make it the go-to algorithm for finding the k-th order statistic. The probability of encountering its O(n2) worst-case behavior is astronomically low, making the deterministic algorithm's guarantee an unnecessary, and costly, insurance policy.

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2. Performance Analysis

Trade-offs: Arrays vs. Linked Lists for Stacks and Queues

Stacks:

- Array Implementation: This is highly efficient and the standard choice. Both push and pop operations occur at the end of the array, which has an amortized O(1) time complexity. The only overhead is the rare occasion when the array needs to be resized, but this cost is averaged out over many operations. Memory is contiguous, which can be cache-friendly.
- Linked List Implementation: A linked list can also implement a stack efficiently. push and pop would both occur at the head of the list, which is a true O(1) operation. It avoids the resizing overhead of arrays but incurs a memory overhead for storing pointers (next) with each element.

Queues:

- Array Implementation: This is where arrays show their weakness. While enqueue
 (adding to the end) is efficient (O(1) amortized), dequeue (removing from the beginning)
 is O(n) because every other element must be shifted one position to the left. This makes
 array-based queues impractical for large-scale applications.
- Linked List Implementation: A linked list is a far better choice for a queue. By
 maintaining pointers to both the head and tail of the list, both enqueue (add to tail) and
 dequeue (remove from head) can be performed in true O(1) time. This is the preferred
 implementation method for efficient queues.

Discussion

This section discusses practical applications and scenarios where one data structure is preferred over another.

Practical Applications

Arrays and Matrices:

- **Use Cases:** Storing collections of similar items (scores, sensor readings), lookup tables, image representation (pixels in a grid), implementing other data structures like heaps.
- Preference: Chosen when the size of the collection is relatively stable and fast, random access to elements is a priority.
- Stacks (LIFO Last-In, First-Out):
 - Use Cases:
 - Function Call Stack: Managing active function calls in a program.
 - Undo/Redo: Storing user actions to be undone.
 - **Syntax Parsing:** Checking for balanced parentheses in code.
 - Backtracking: In algorithms like depth-first search (DFS).

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 Preference: Ideal for any process that requires reversing the order of operations or handling nested tasks.

• Queues (FIFO - First-In, First-Out):

- Use Cases:
 - Task Scheduling: Managing jobs in a print queue or tasks for a CPU.
 - **Networking:** Handling data packets in the order they are received.
 - **Simulations:** Modeling waiting lines (e.g., at a checkout counter).
 - **Graph Traversal:** Used in Breadth-First Search (BFS) to explore nodes level by level.
- Preference: Essential for maintaining order and ensuring fair, sequential processing of tasks or data.

Linked Lists:

- Use Cases:
 - Playlists: Easily insert or remove songs anywhere in the list.
 - **Browser History:** The "back" and "forward" buttons navigate through a list of visited pages.
 - **Memory Management:** Operating systems use linked lists to manage free memory blocks.
- Preference: Chosen when the size of the list is dynamic and frequent insertions or deletions are needed, especially at the beginning or middle of the sequence. They are favored over arrays when you don't need random access.

Rooted Trees:

- Use Cases:
 - **File Systems:** Directories and files form a hierarchical tree structure.
 - **DOM (Document Object Model):** HTML pages are parsed into a tree structure that browsers use for rendering.
 - **Organizational Charts:** Representing reporting structures in a company.
 - Al and Decision Making: Decision trees model choices and their potential outcomes.
- Preference: The natural choice for representing any kind of hierarchical relationship or structured data.