# **Algorithm Analysis**

#### **Attribute**

- Input
- Output
- Definiteness
- Finiteness
- Effectiveness

#### **Notation**

$$T(N) = O(f(N)): for N \ge n_0, T(N) \le c \cdot f(N) \ T(N) = \Omega(f(N)): for N \ge n_0, T(N) \ge c \cdot f(N) \ T(N) = \Theta(f(N)): T(N) = O(f(N)) \& T(N) = \Omega(f(N)) \ T(N) = o(f(N)): T(N) = O(f(N)) \& T(N) \ne \Theta(f(N))$$

### **Checking**

1. function, like:

$$T(N) = O(N^2), rac{T(2N)}{T(N)} pprox 4$$

2. limit:

$$T(N) = O(f(N)), \lim_{N o \infty} rac{T(N)}{f(N)} pprox Constant$$

### List

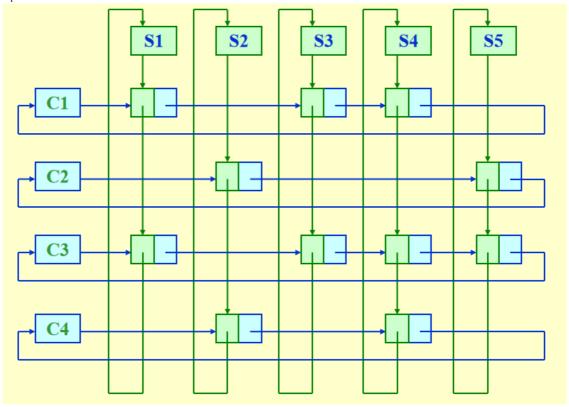
### **Data Type**

$$\{Objects\}\bigcup\{Operations\}$$

### **Implementation**

- 1. Simple array using sequential mapping
  - o easy for random access
  - o limited size
  - o inconvenient for insertion and deletion
- 2. Linked lists
  - easy to insert and delete(with a dummy head)

- o flexible size
- o linear search to find the k<sup>th</sup> element
- 3. Doubly linked circular list
  - a list that is more convenient for random access
- 4. Sparse matrix

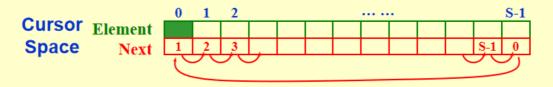


5. Cursor implementation

In some languages not supporting pointers, cursor implementation is adopted.

#### Features that a linked list must have:

- a) The data are stored in a collection of structures. Each structure contains data and a pointer to the next structure.
- b) A new structure can be obtained from the system's global memory by a call to malloc and released by a call to free.



Usually, the implementation depends on the **desired operations**.

### Stack

#### FILO

- The stack model must be well encapsulated. That is, no part of your code, except for the stack routines, can attempt to access the Array or Top variable.
- Error check must be done before Push or Pop (Top).

#### Infix to Postfix

- Add parentheses if necessary
- If a letter is read, output the letter
- If a operand is read:
  - If the stack is empty, push the operand
  - $\circ$  If the last operand  $\geq$  current operand, output the stack and then push the current
  - o If a right parenthesis is read, output all the operands between the parentheses
  - If the end is reached, output all the operands
- Observe that when ( is not in the stack, its precedence is the highest; but when it is in the stack, its precedence is the lowest. Define in-stack precedence and incoming precedence for symbols, and each time use the corresponding precedence for comparison.

### Queue

#### **FIFO**

- 1. Linked list
- 2. Array implementation

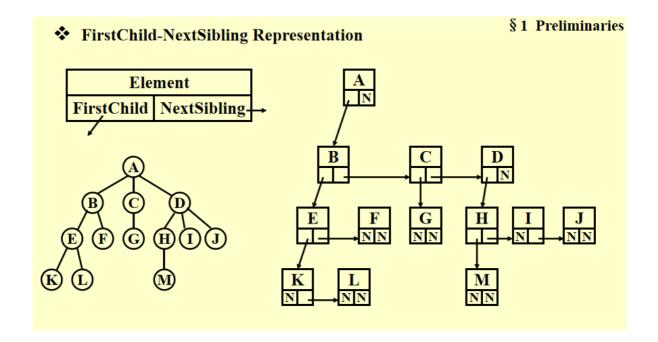
To differentiate FULL and EMPTY:

- one space is abandoned, that is, EMPTY means font == rear+1 and no elements; FULL means font == rear+2 and N-1 elements
- o add a SIZE field filed to signal the size
- o add a FULL boolean variable

### **Tree**

- degree of a node: number of subtrees of the node. For example, degree(A) = 3, degree(F) =
- degree of a node: max degree of all the nodes
- depth of  $n_i$ : length of the unique path from the root to  $n_i$ . Depth(root) = 0.
- height of  $n_i$ : length of the longest path from  $n_i$  to a leaf. Height(leaf) = 0
- level: level(root)=1
- Right and Left matters!!

### FirstChild-NextSibling Representation



#### **Traversal**

#### **Preorder**

- Use stack implicitly. (System stack)
- visit the node before a push
- depth-first search

#### **Postorder**

- Use stack implicitly. (System stack)
- visit the node after a push

#### **Inorder**

• visit the node right after the first push(if left child exists)

#### **Level order**

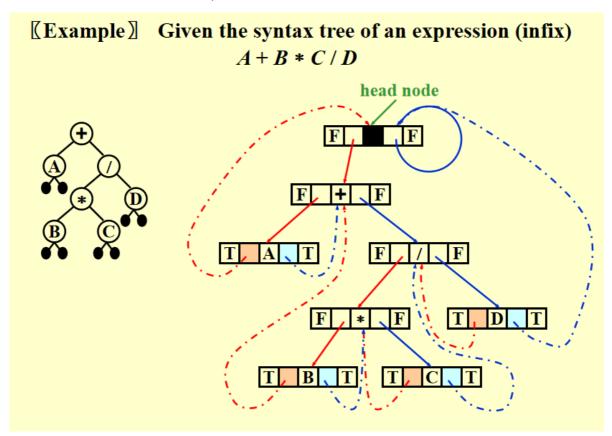
- use a queue instead of a stack
- visit a node and then push its children until the traversal ends
- breadth-first search

### **Threaded Binary Tree**

Rule 1: If Tree->Left is null, replace it with a pointer to the **inorder** predecessor of Tree.

Rule 2: If Tree->Right is null, replace it with a pointer to the **inorder** successor of Tree.

Rule 3: **There must not be any loose threads.** Therefore a threaded binary tree must have a head node of which the left child points to the first node.



### **Binary Search Tree**

- **I** The maximum number of nodes on level i is  $2^{i-1}$ ,  $i \ge 1$ . The maximum number of nodes in a binary tree of depth k is  $2^{k}-1$ ,  $k \ge 1$ .
- $\square$  For any nonempty binary tree,  $n_0 = n_2 + 1$  where  $n_0$  is the number of leaf nodes and  $n_2$  the number of nodes of degree 2.

A binary search tree is a binary tree. It may be empty. If it is not empty, it satisfies the following properties:

- 1. Every node has a key which is an integer, and the keys are **distinct**.
- 2. The keys in a nonempty left subtree must be **smaller** than the key in the root of the subtree.
- 3. The keys in a nonempty right subtree must be larger than the key in the root of the subtree.
- 4. The left and right **subtrees** are also binary search trees.
- 5. From the above, the leftmost element is the smallest; the rightmost element is the largest.

```
Position Find(ElementType X, Tree T)
{
    while(T)
    {
        if(X == T->Element)
        {
            return T;
        }
}
```

```
}
else if(X < T->Element)
{
    T = T->Left;
}
else
{
    T = T->Right;
}
return NULL;
}
```

```
Tree Insert(ElementType X, Tree T)
   if(T == NULL)
   {
       T = malloc(sizeof(struct treenode));
       if(T == NULL)
           Error();
        }
       else
           T->Elment = X;
           T->Left = T->Right = NULL;
       }
   }
   else
       if(X < T->Element)
           T->Left = Insert(X, T->Left);
        }
        else if(X > T->Element)
           T->Right = Insert(X, T->Right);
       // else X == T->Element, do nothing
   }
   return T;
}
```

```
/* Replace with smallest in right subtree */
    TmpCell = FindMin( T->Right );
    T->Element = TmpCell->Element;
    T->Right = Delete( T->Element, T->Right );
} /* End if */
else {    /* One or zero child */
    TmpCell = T;
    if ( T->Left == NULL ) /* Also handles 0 child */
        T = T->Right;
    else if ( T->Right == NULL )
        T = T->Left;
    free( TmpCell );
} /* End else 1 or 0 child */
    return T;
}
```

# **Heap (Priority Queue)**

#### **Perfect Binary Tree:**

A tree of height h has  $2^{h+1}-1$  nodes.

#### **Complete Binary Tree:**

A binary tree with n nodes and height h is complete iff its nodes correspond to the nodes numbered from 1 to n in the perfect binary tree of height h.

Then, in an array representing the complete binary tree sequentially, for a node with index i:

$$egin{aligned} parent(i) &= egin{cases} \lfloor rac{i}{2} 
floor & i 
eq 1 \ none & i = 1 \end{cases} \ leftchild(i) &= egin{cases} 2i & 2i \le n \ none & 2i > n \end{cases} \ rightchild(i) &= egin{cases} 2i + 1 & 2i + 1 \le n \ none & 2i + 1 > n \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

For the perfect binary tree of height h containing  $2^{h+1}-1$  nodes, the sum of the heights of the nodes is  $2^{h+1}-1-(h+1)$ .

### **Order property**

A min tree is a tree in which the key value in each node is **no larger than the key values in its children (if any)**. A min heap is a **complete binary tree** that is also a min tree.

height of the heap:  $h = log\lfloor N \rfloor$ 

```
void Insert( ElementType X, PriorityQueue H )
{
  int i;
```

```
if ( IsFull( H ) ) {
    Error( "Priority queue is full" );
    return;
}

// percolate up
for ( i = ++H->Size; H->Elements[ i / 2 ] > X; i /= 2 )
    H->Elements[ i ] = H->Elements[ i / 2 ];

// faster than swap in the loop
H->Elements[ i ] = X;
}
```

```
ElementType DeleteMin( PriorityQueue H )
{
   int i, Child;
   ElementType MinElement, LastElement;
   if ( IsEmpty( H ) ) {
        Error( "Priority queue is empty" );
        return H->Elements[ 0 ];
   }
    /* save the min element */
   MinElement = H->Elements[ 1 ];
    /* take last and reset size */
   LastElement = H->Elements[ H->Size-- ];
   for ( i = 1; i * 2 <= H->Size; i = Child ) { /* Find smaller child */
        Child = i * 2;
        if (Child != H->Size && H->Elements[Child+1] < H->Elements[Child])
          Child++;
        if ( LastElement > H->Elements[ Child ] ) /* Percolate one level */
          H->Elements[ i ] = H->Elements[ Child ];
         else break; /* find the proper position */
   H->Elements[ i ] = LastElement;
   return MinElement;
}
```

```
Heap *Build(Heap *H, Size N)
{
    // H[1]~H[N] contains the original sequence
    if(N!=1){
        int i=N/2; // the first subroot that needs adjust
        for(; i>=1; i--){
            PercolateDown(i);
        }
    }
    return H;
}
```

### **Union and Find**

#### **Equivalence Relation**:

- reflexive
- symmetric
- transitive

#### **Partial Order:**

- reflexive
- anti-symmetric
- transitive

```
void SetUnion ( DisjSet S, SetType Rt1, SetType Rt2 )
{    S [ Rt2 ] = Rt1 ; }
```

```
SetType Find ( ElementType X, DisjSet S )
{    for ( ; S[X] > 0; X = S[X] ) ;
    return X ;
}
```

### **Smart Union**

Union by size: S[root]=-size(initialized as -1)

Always change the smaller tree

$$height(T) \leq \lfloor log_2 N \rfloor + 1$$

N Union and M Find:  $O(N+Mlog_2N)$ 

#### Union by height:

Always change the shallow tree

### **Path Compression**

```
SetType Find ( ElementType X, DisjSet S )
{
   if ( S[ X ] <= 0 )      return X;
   else    return S[ X ] = Find( S[ X ], S );
}</pre>
```

```
SetType Find ( ElementType X, DisjSet S )
{    ElementType root, trail, lead;
    for ( root = X; S[ root ] > 0; root = S[ root ] )
        ; /* find the root */
    for ( trail = X; trail != root; trail = lead ) {
        lead = S[ trail ] ;
        S[ trail ] = root ;
    } /* collapsing */
    return root ;
}
```

# Graph

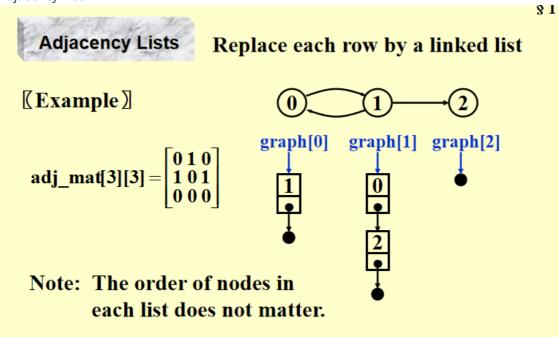
Simple path ::=  $v_{i1}, v_{i2}, \dots, v_{in}$  are distinct

For undirected G:

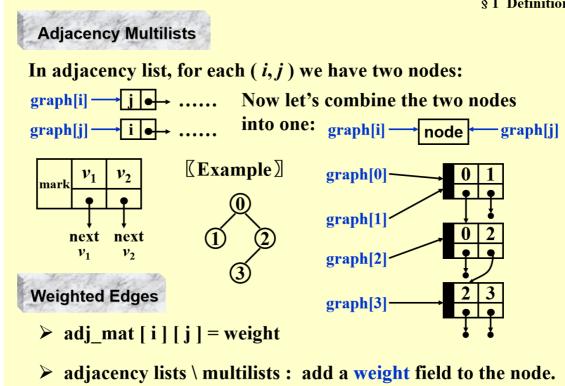
Cycle ::= simple path with  $v_p=v_q$ 

### Representation

- Adjacency Matrix
- Adjacency List

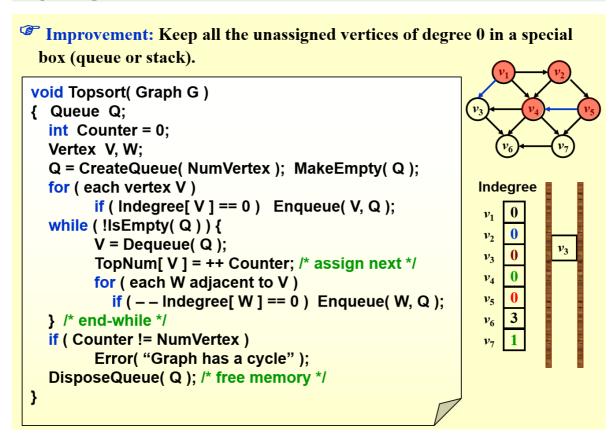


S = n heads + 2e nodes = (n+2e) ptrs+2e ints



When the program needs to mark the edge

### **Topological Sort**



### Shortest Path Problem

### **Unweighted Shortest Path**

Breadth-first search

```
Table[i].Dist ::= distance from s to v<sub>i</sub> /* initialized to be ∞ except for s */
Table[i].Known ::= 1 if v<sub>i</sub> is checked; or 0 if not
Table[i].Path ::= for tracking the path /* initialized to be 0 */
```

```
void Unweighted( Table T )
{ /* T is initialized with the source vertex S given */
   Queue Q;
   Vertex V, W;
   Q = CreateQueue (NumVertex ); MakeEmpty( Q );
   Enqueue( S, Q ); /* Enqueue the source vertex */
   while ( !IsEmpty( Q ) ) {
       V = Dequeue( Q );
       T[ V ].Known = true; /* not really necessary */
       for ( each W adjacent to V )
   if ( T[ W ].Dist == Infinity ) {
       T[W].Dist = T[V].Dist + 1;
       T[W].Path = V;
        Enqueue( W, Q );
   } /* end-if Dist == Infinity */
   } /* end-while */
   DisposeQueue( Q ); /* free memory */
}
```

### **Weighted Shortest Path**

```
void Dijkstra( Table T )
{ /* T is initialized by Figure 9.30 on p.303 */
   Vertex V, W;
    for (;;) {
        V = smallest unknown distance vertex;
       if ( V == NotAVertex )
    break;
        T[ V ].Known = true;
        for ( each W adjacent to V )
    if ( !T[ W ].Known )
        if ( T[ V ].Dist + Cvw < T[ W ].Dist ) {</pre>
            Decrease( T[ W ].Dist to T[ V ].Dist + Cvw );
            T[W].Path = V;
        } /* end-if update W */
    } /* end-for(;;) */
}
/* not work for edge with negative cost */
```

```
* Implementation 1
    V = smallest unknown distance vertex;
   /* simply scan the table – O( |V| ) */
                                     Good if the graph is dense
    T = O(|V|^2 + |E|)
* Implementation 2
    V = smallest unknown distance vertex;
    /* keep distances in a priority queue and call DeleteMin – O( log|V| ) */
    Decrease( T[ W ].Dist to T[ V ].Dist + Cvw );
                                                            Good if the
      /* Method 1: DecreaseKey - O( log|V| ) */
                                                          graph is sparse
      T = O(|V| \log |V| + |E| \log |V|) = O(|E| \log |V|)
      /* Method 2: insert W with updated Dist into the priority queue */
      /* Must keep doing DeleteMin until an unknown vertex emerges */
       T = O(|E| \log |V|) but requires |E| DeleteMin with |E| space
Other improvements: Pairing heap (Ch.12) and Fibonacci heap (Ch. 11)
```

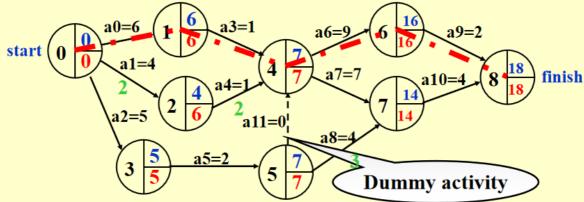
### **Negative Cost**

```
void WeightedNegative( Table T )
  /* T is initialized by Figure 9.30 on p.303 */
   Queue Q;
   Vertex V, W;
   Q = CreateQueue (NumVertex ); MakeEmpty( Q );
   Enqueue( S, Q ); /* Enqueue the source vertex */
   while ( !IsEmpty( Q ) ) {
       V = Dequeue(Q);
       for ( each W adjacent to V )
   if ( T[ V ].Dist + Cvw < T[ W ].Dist ) {</pre>
       T[ W ].Dist = T[ V ].Dist + Cvw;
       T[W].Path = V;
       if (W is not already in Q)
           Enqueue( W, Q );
   } /* end-if update */
   } /* end-while */
   DisposeQueue( Q ); /* free memory */
/* negative-cost cycle will cause indefinite loop */
```

each vertex is visited more than once

### **Acyclic Graph**

**[Example]** AOE network of a hypothetical project



- > Calculation of EC: Start from v0, for any  $a_i = \langle v, w \rangle$ , we have  $EC[w] = \max_{(v,w) \in E} \{EC[v] + C_{v,w}\}$
- > Calculation of LC: Start from the last vertex v8, for any  $a_i = < v$ , w>, we have  $LC[v] = \min_{(v,w) \in E} \{LC[w] C_{v,w}\}$
- ightharpoonup Slack Time of  $\langle v, w \rangle = LC[w] EC[v] C_{v,w}$
- > Critical Path ::= path consisting entirely of zero-slack edges.

Those nodes with zero slack are critical, and called critical path. If their values change, the aggregate time changes.

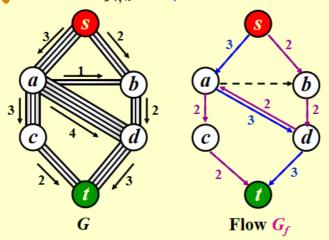
$$T = O(|E| + |V|)$$

### **Network Flow**

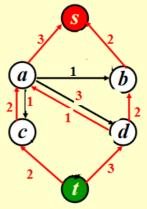
2. A Solution – allow the algorithm to undo its decisions



For each edge (v, w) with flow  $f_{v, w}$  in  $G_f$ , add an edge (w, v) with flow  $f_{v, w}$  in  $G_r$ .



[Proposition] If the edge capabilities are rational numbers, this algorithm always terminate with a maximum flow.



Residual G,

Note: The algorithm works for G with cycles as well.

https://www.cnblogs.com/ecjtuacm-873284962/p/7113635.html

$$T = O(f \cdot |E|)$$

### **Minimum Spanning Tree**

#### Prim's Algorithm:

- Start from a vertex,  $S = \{s_0\}$
- ullet for  $s_i \in S$ , find w such that  $min < s_i, w>$ , and add w to S

#### Kruskal's Algorithm:

```
void Kruskal ( Graph G )
{    T = { };
    while ( T contains less than |V| -1 edges && E is not empty ) {
        choose a least cost edge (v, w) from E;
        delete (v, w) from E;
        if ( (v, w) does not create a cycle in T )
            add (v, w) to T;
        else
            discard (v, w);
    }
    if ( T contains fewer than |V|-1 edges )
        Error ( "No spanning tree" );
}
```

- Start from an edge,  $E=\{e_0\}$
- find e 
  otin E such that  $min < e > \&not \ cycle$ , and add e to E

$$T = O(|E|log|E|)$$

#### **DFS**

```
void DFS ( Vertex V )  /* this is only a template */
{  visited[ V ] = true;  /* mark this vertex to avoid cycles */
  for ( each W adjacent to V )
      if ( !visited[ W ] )
            DFS( W );
} /* T = O( |E| + |V| ) as long as adjacency lists are used */
```

$$T = O(|E| + |V|)$$

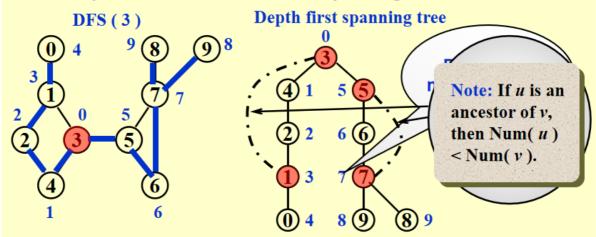
```
void ListComponents ( Graph G )
{    for ( each V in G )
        if ( !visited[ V ] ) {
        DFS( V );
            printf("\n");
        }
}
```

### **Biconnectivity**

- v is an articulation point if G' = DeleteVertex(G, v) has at least 2 connected components.
- *G* is a biconnected graph if *G* is connected and has no articulation points.
- A biconnected component is a maximal biconnected subgraph.
- E(G) is partitioned by the biconnected components of G.

#### Finding the biconnected components of a connected undirected G

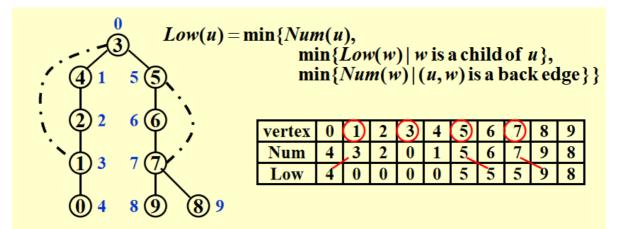
Use depth first search to obtain a spanning tree of G



- > Find the articulation points in G
  - **The root is an articulation point iff it has at least 2 children**
  - Any other vertex u is an articulation point iff u has at least 1 child, and it is impossible to move down at least 1 step and then jump up to u's ancestor.

 $\it Num$ : the order produced when a spanning tree is generated. The smaller, the more superior

If u is missed, the superior and the subordinate can not get in touch.



Therefore, u is an articulation point iff

- (1) u is the root and has at least 2 children; or
- (2) u is not the root, and has at least 1 child such that  $Low(child) \ge Num(u)$ .

Please read the pseudocodes on p.327 and p.329 for more details.

Low represents the highest level that u can get in touch, with an exception(back edge)

If  $Low(child) \geq Num(u)$ , at least one child must get in touch with the superior by u, so u is critical

### **Euler Circuit**



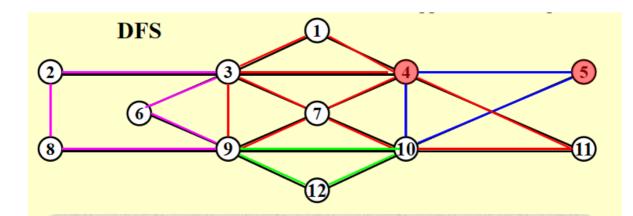
Draw each line exactly once without lifting your pen from the paper – *Euler tour* 



Draw each line exactly once without lifting your pen from the paper, AND finish at the starting point – *Euler curcuit* 

[Proposition] An Euler circuit is possible only if the graph is connected and each vertex has an even degree.

[Proposition] An Euler tour is possible if there are exactly two vertices having odd degree. One must start at one of the odd-degree vertices.



#### Note:

- > The path should be maintained as a linked list.
- For each adjacency list, maintain a pointer to the last edge scanned.

$$T = O(|E| + |V|)$$



Find a simple cycle in an undirected graph that visits every vertex – *Hamilton cycle* 

### Sort

### **Shellsort**

### § 4 Shellsort ---- by Donald Shell

### **[**Example] Sort:

- $\mathcal{N}$  Define an *increment sequence*  $h_1 < h_2 < ... < h_t$  (  $h_1 = 1$  )
- **Proof:** Define an  $h_k$ -sort at each phase for k = t, t 1, ..., 1

Note: An  $h_k$ -sorted file that is then  $h_{k-1}$ -sorted remains  $h_k$ -sorted.

The sequence is critical:

### **Hibbard's Increment Sequence:**

 $h_k = 2^k - 1$  ---- consecutive increments have no common factors.

**Theorem** The worst-case running time of Shellsort, using Hibbard's increments, is  $\Theta$  ( $N^{3/2}$ ).



### **Conjectures:**

$$\mathcal{O} T_{\text{avg-Hibbard}}(N) = O(N^{5/4})$$

Shellsort is a very simple algorithm, yet with an extremely complex analysis. It is good for sorting up to moderately large input (tens of thousands).

Sedgewick's best sequence is  $\{1, 5, 19, 41, 109, ...\}$  in which the terms are either of the form  $9 \times 4^{i} - 9 \times 2^{i} + 1$  or  $4^{i} - 3 \times 2^{i} + 1$ .  $T_{\text{avg}}(N) = O(N^{7/6})$  and  $T_{\text{worst}}(N) = O(N^{4/3})$ .

### **Heap Sort**

```
void Heapsort( ElementType A[ ], int N )
{   int i;
   for ( i = N / 2; i >= 0; i - - ) /* BuildHeap */
        PercDown( A, i, N );
   for ( i = N - 1; i > 0; i - - ) {
        Swap( &A[ 0 ], &A[ i ] ); /* DeleteMax */
        PercDown( A, 0, i );
}
```

maintain a max heap

Heapsort data start from position 0.

### Mergesort

```
void MSort( ElementType A[ ], ElementType TmpArray[ ],
        int Left, int Right )
{ int Center;
    if ( Left < Right ) { /* if there are elements to be sorted */
        Center = ( Left + Right ) / 2;
        MSort( A, TmpArray, Left, Center ); /* T( N / 2 ) */
        MSort( A, TmpArray, Center + 1, Right ); /* T( N / 2 ) */
        Merge( A, TmpArray, Left, Center + 1, Right ); /* O( N ) */
    }
}
void Mergesort( ElementType A[ ], int N )
   ElementType *TmpArray; /* need O(N) extra space */
    TmpArray = malloc( N * sizeof( ElementType ) );
    if ( TmpArray != NULL ) {
        MSort(A, TmpArray, 0, N - 1);
        free( TmpArray );
    else FatalError( "No space for tmp array!!!" );
}
void Merge( ElementType A[ ], ElementType TmpArray[ ],
          int Lpos, int Rpos, int RightEnd )
   int i, LeftEnd, NumElements, TmpPos;
    LeftEnd = Rpos -1;
    TmpPos = Lpos;
    NumElements = RightEnd - Lpos + 1;
    while( Lpos <= LeftEnd && Rpos <= RightEnd ) /* main loop */</pre>
        if ( A[ Lpos ] <= A[ Rpos ] )</pre>
            TmpArray[TmpPos++] = A[Lpos++];
        else
            TmpArray[TmpPos++] = A[Rpos++];
    while( Lpos <= LeftEnd ) /* Copy rest of first half */</pre>
        TmpArray[TmpPos++] = A[Lpos++];
    while( Rpos <= RightEnd ) /* Copy rest of second half */</pre>
        TmpArray[TmpPos++] = A[Rpos++];
    for( i = 0; i < NumElements; i++, RightEnd - - )</pre>
         /* Copy TmpArray back */
        A[ RightEnd ] = TmpArray[ RightEnd ];
}
```

It is hardly ever used for internal sorting, but is quite useful for external sorting, since Mergesort requires linear **extra memory**, and **copying an array is slow**.

$$T = O(NlogN)$$

### Quicksort

```
ElementType Median3( ElementType A[ ], int Left, int Right )
   int Center = ( Left + Right ) / 2;
   if ( A[ Left ] > A[ Center ] )
        Swap( &A[ Left ], &A[ Center ] );
    if ( A[ Left ] > A[ Right ] )
        Swap( &A[ Left ], &A[ Right ] );
   if ( A[ Center ] > A[ Right ] )
        Swap( &A[ Center ], &A[ Right ] );
    /* Invariant: A[ Left ] <= A[ Center ] <= A[ Right ] */</pre>
    Swap( &A[ Center ], &A[ Right - 1 ] ); /* Hide pivot */
    /* only need to sort A[ Left + 1 ] ... A[ Right - 2 ] */
   return A[ Right - 1 ]; /* Return pivot */
}
void Qsort( ElementType A[ ], int Left, int Right )
  int i, j;
    ElementType Pivot;
    if ( Left + Cutoff <= Right ) { /* if the sequence is not too short */</pre>
        Pivot = Median3( A, Left, Right ); /* select pivot */
        i = Left;
                     j = Right - 1; /* why not set Left+1 and Right-2? */
        for(;;) {
     while (A[++i] < Pivot) {} /* scan from left */
    while (A[--j] > Pivot) {} /* scan from right */
     if ( i < j )
        Swap( &A[ i ], &A[ j ] ); /* adjust partition */
            break; /* partition done */
        Swap( &A[ i ], &A[ Right - 1 ] ); /* restore pivot */
        Qsort( A, Left, i - 1 );  /* recursively sort left part */
       Qsort( A, i + 1, Right ); /* recursively sort right part */
    } /* end if - the sequence is long */
    else /* do an insertion sort on the short subarray */
        InsertionSort( A + Left, Right - Left + 1 );
}
```

i=Left;j=Right-1; because of the loop uses (++i) and (--j). And that is because the sequent swap and sequent recursion.

If equal, make the swap happen to make two balanced arrays.

$$T_{AVG} = O(NlogN) \ T_{WORST} = O(N^2)$$

### **Sorting Large Structures**

### § 8 Sorting Large Structures

**Problem:** Swapping large structures can be very much expensive.

Solution: Add a pointer field to the structure and swap pointers instead

- indirect sorting. Physically rearrange the structures at last

if it is really necessary.

**[Example]** Table Sort

The sorted list is

list	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
key	d	b	f	c	a	e
table	4	1	3	0	<u>(S)</u>	2

list [ table[0] ], list [ table[1] ], ......, list [ table[n-1] ]

Note: Every permutation is made up of disjoint cycles.

list	[0]	[1]	[2]	[3]	[4]	[5]
key	a	b	c	d	e	f
table	0	1	2	3	4	5

In the worst case there are  $\lfloor N/2 \rfloor$  cycles and requires  $\lfloor 3N/2 \rfloor$  record moves.

T = O(mN) where m is the size of a structure.

table[i] records the current position of the element that is supposed to be here

like,  $a,b,c,\ldots$  is mapped to  $1,2,3,\ldots e$  is supposed to mapped to 4 and its **current position** is 5, so table[4]=5

### A General Lower Bound for Sorting

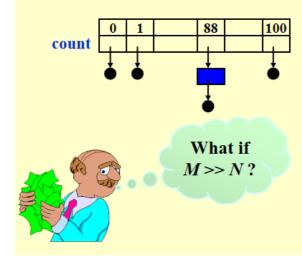
Any algorithm that sorts by comparisons only must have a worst case computing time of  $\Omega(NlogN)$ .

### **Bucket Sort and Radix Sort**

### § 10 Bucket Sort and Radix Sort

#### **Bucket Sort**

**Example** Suppose that we have N students, each has a grade record in the range 0 to 100 (thus there are M = 101 possible distinct grades). How to sort them according to their grades in linear time?



```
Algorithm
{
    initialize count[];
    while (read in a student's record)
        insert to list count[stdnt.grade];
    for (i=0; i<M; i++) {
        if (count[i])
            output list count[i];
    }
}

T(N, M) = O( M+N)
```

What if we sort

according to the Most Significant Digit first?

**Example** Given N = 10 integers in the range 0 to 999 (M = 1000) Is it possible to sort them in linear time?

#### Radix Sort

**Input:** 64, 8, 216, 512, 27, 729, 0, 1, 343, 125

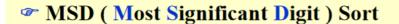
Sort according to the Least Significant Digit first.

Bucket	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Pass 1	0	1	<b>512</b>	343	64	125	216	27	8	729
	0	512	125		343		64			
Pass 2	1	216	27							
	8		<b>729</b>							
	0	125	<b>216</b>	343		512		729		
	1									
Pass 3	8									
	27									
	64									

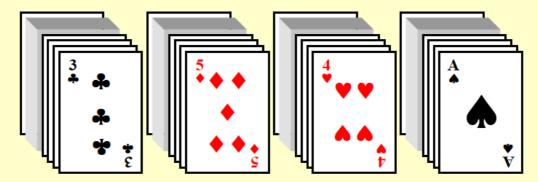
T=O(P(N+B))
where P is the
number of
passes, N is the
number of
elements to sort,
and B is the
number of
buckets.

Output: 0, 1, 8, 27, 64, 125, 216, 343, 512, 729

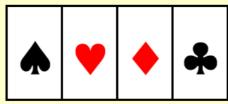
Sample:



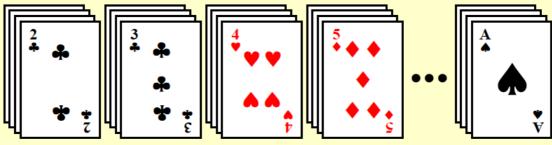
① Sort on  $K^0$ : for example, create 4 buckets for the suits



② Sort each bucket independently (using any sorting technique)

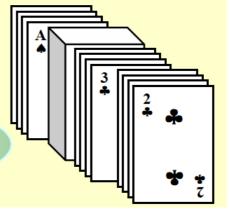


- LSD ( Least Significant Digit ) Sort
- ① Sort on K<sup>1</sup>: for example, create 13 buckets for the face values

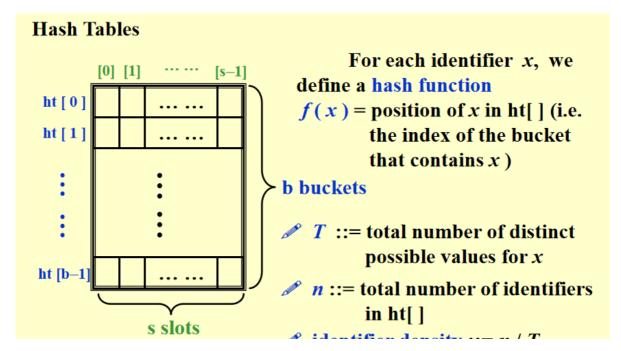


- ② Reform them into a single pile
- ③ Create 4 buckets and resort

# Question: Is LSD always faster than MSD?



# Hashing



- identifier density ::= n/T
- loading density  $\lambda := n/(sb)$

Tablesize should be a prime number!

Without overflow:

$$T_{search} = T_{insert} = T_{delete} = O(1)$$

### a number

$$f(x) = x\%Tablesize$$

### a string

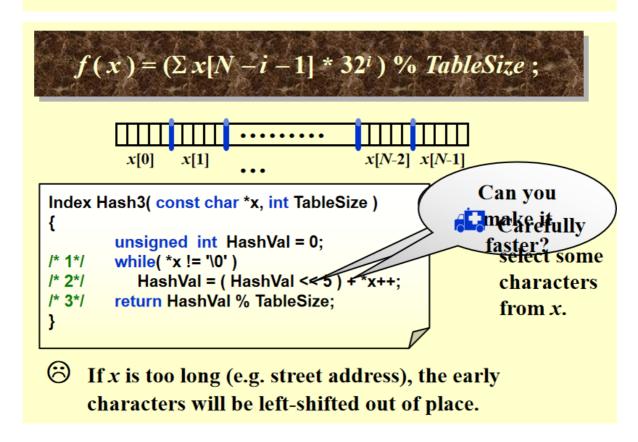
# $f(x) = (\sum x[i]) \%$ TableSize; /\* if x is a string \*/

[Example] TableSize = 10,007 and string length of  $x \le 8$ . If  $x[i] \in [0, 127]$ , then  $f(x) \in [0, 1016]$ 

$$f(x) = (x[0] + x[1]*27 + x[2]*27^2)$$
 % TableSize;

Total number of combinations =  $26^3 = 17,576$ 

**⊘** Actual number of combinations < 3000



### For collision

### **Separate Chaining**

keep a list of all keys that hash to the same value

```
HashTable InitializeTable( int TableSize )
{ HashTable H;
  int i;
  if ( TableSize < MinTableSize ) {</pre>
           Error( "Table size too small" ); return NULL;
  H = malloc( sizeof( struct HashTbl ) ); /* Allocate table */
  if ( H == NULL ) FatalError( "Out of space!!!" );
  H->TableSize = NextPrime( TableSize ); /* Better be prime */
  H->TheLists = malloc( sizeof( List ) * H->TableSize ); /*Array of lists*/
  if (H->TheLists == NULL) FatalError("Out of space!!!");
  for(i = 0; i < H->TableSize; i++) { /* Allocate list headers */
        H->TheLists[i] = malloc( sizeof( struct ListNode ) ); /* Slow! */
        if ( H->TheLists[ i ] == NULL ) FatalError( "Out of space!!!" );
        else H->TheLists[i]->Next = NULL;
  }
                           TheLists
  return H;
```

```
Position Find ( ElementType Key, HashTable H )
{
    Position P;
    List L;

L = H->TheLists[ Hash( Key, H->TableSize ) ];

P = L->Next;
    while( P != NULL && P->Element != Key ) /* Probably need strcmp */
    P = P->Next;
    return P;
}
```

```
void Insert ( ElementType Key, HashTable H )
{
   Position
              Pos, NewCell;
   List L;
   Pos = Find( Key, H );
   if ( Pos == NULL ) { /* Key is not found, then insert */
   NewCell = malloc( sizeof( struct ListNode ) );
   if ( NewCell == NULL )
                             FatalError( "Out of space!!!" );
   else {
         L = H->TheLists[ Hash( Key, H->TableSize ) ];
         NewCell->Next = L->Next;
        NewCell->Element = Key; /* Probably need strcpy! */
         L->Next = NewCell;
   }
   }
```

Insertion happens right after the hear node.

### **Open Addressing**

find another empty cell to solve collision (avoiding pointers)

```
Algorithm: insert key into an array of hash table
{
  index = hash(key);
  initialize i = 0 ----- the counter of probing;
  while ( collision at index ) {
    index = ( hash(key) + f(i) ) % TableSize;
    if ( table is full ) break;
    else i ++;
  }
  if ( table is full )
    ERROR ("No space left");
  else
    insert key at index;
}

Collision
resolving
function.
f(0) = 0.
```

#### **Linear Probing**

$$f(i) = i$$

Cause primary clustering:

any key that hashes into the cluster will add to the cluster after several attempts to resolve the collision.

#### **Quadratic Probing**

$$f(i) = i^2$$

If quadratic probing is used, and the table size is prime, then a new element can always be inserted if the table is at least half empty.

If the table size is a prime of the form 4k+3, then the quadratic probing  $f(i)=\pm i^2$  can probe the **entire** table

For each collision, try from i=1

```
Position Find ( ElementType Key, HashTable H )
{    Position CurrentPos;
    int CollisionNum;
    CollisionNum = 0;
    CurrentPos = Hash( Key, H->TableSize );
    while( H->TheCells[ CurrentPos ].Info != Empty &&
    H->TheCells[ CurrentPos ].Element != Key ) {
        CurrentPos += 2 * ++CollisionNum- 1;
        if ( CurrentPos >= H->TableSize ) CurrentPos - = H->TableSize; //faster
than mod
    }
    return CurrentPos;
}
```

```
void Insert ( ElementType Key, HashTable H )
{
    Position Pos;
    Pos = Find( Key, H );
    if ( H->TheCells[ Pos ].Info != Legitimate ) { /* OK to insert here */
        H->TheCells[ Pos ].Info = Legitimate;
        H->TheCells[ Pos ].Element = Key; /* Probably need strcpy */
    }
}
```

Although primary clustering is solved, secondary clustering occurs – that is, keys that hash to the same position will probe the same alternative cells.

#### **Double Hashing**

$$f(i) = i * hash_2(x)$$

 $hash_2(x) = R - (x\%R)$  with R a prime smaller than TableSize, will work well.

### Rehashing

- Build another table that is **about twice** as big
- Scan down the entire original hash table for non-deleted elements
- Use a new function to hash those elements into the new table

When to rehash?

- 1. As soon as the table is **half full**
- 2. When an insertion fails
- 3. When the table reaches a certain load factor

The new position of an element is decided by the new hash function!

0	1	2	3
null	21 and 9	null	7

#### after rehash:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
null	9	null	null	null	21	null	7