Algorithms

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ANALYSIS OF ALGORITHMS

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Predict performance.

Compare algorithms.

Provide guarantees.

Primary practical reason: avoid performance bugs.



client gets poor performance because programmer did not understand performance characteristics



Q. Will my program be able to solve a large practical input?



Scientific method applied to analysis of algorithms

A framework for predicting performance and comparing algorithms.

Scientific method.

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

Feature of the natural world. Computer itself.



3-SUM. Given *N* distinct integers, how many triples sum to exactly zero?

% more 8ints.txt		a[i]	a[j]	a[k]	sum
8		30	-40	10	0
30 -40 -20 -10 40 0 10 5	1	30	-20	-10	0
% java ThreeSum 8ints.txt	2	-40	40	0	0
4	3	-10	0	10	0
	4				

Context. Deeply related to problems in computational geometry.

```
public class ThreeSum
{
   public static int count(int[] a)
   {
      int N = a.length;
      int count = 0;
      for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
         for (int j = i+1; j < N; j++)
                                                           check each triple
             for (int k = j+1; k < N; k++)
                                                           for simplicity, ignore
                if (a[i] + a[j] + a[k] == 0)
                                                           integer overflow
                   count++;
      return count;
   }
   public static void main(String[] args)
   {
      In in = new In(args[0]);
      int[] a = in.readAllInts();
      StdOut.println(count(a));
   }
```

public class Stopwatch	h (part of stdlib.jar)	
Stopwatch()	create a new stopwatch	
double elapsedTime	time since creation (in seconds)	

```
public static void main(String[] args)
{
    In in = new In(args[0]);
    int[] a = in.readAllInts();
    Stopwatch stopwatch = new Stopwatch();
    StdOut.println(ThreeSum.count(a));
    double time = stopwatch.elapsedTime();
    StdOut.println("elapsed time " + time);
}
```

}

Run the program for various input sizes and measure running time.

N	time (seconds) †		
250	0		
500	0		
1,000	0.1		
2,000	0.8		
4,000	6.4		
8,000	51.1		
16,000	?		

Standard plot. Plot running time T(N) vs. input size N.



Log-log plot. Plot running time T(N) vs. input size N using log-log scale.



Hypothesis. The running time is about $1.006 \times 10^{-10} \times N^{2.999}$ seconds.

Hypothesis. The running time is about $1.006 \times 10^{-10} \times N^{2.999}$ seconds.

Predictions.

- 51.0 seconds for N = 8,000.
- 408.1 seconds for *N* = 16,000.

Observations.

Ν	time (seconds) †
8,000	51.1
8,000	51
8,000	51.1
16,000	410.8

validates hypothesis!

System independent effects.

- Algorithm.Input data.

determines exponent in power law

System dependent effects.

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

determines constant in power law

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Total running time: sum of cost × frequency for all operations.

- Need to analyze program to determine set of operations.
- Cost depends on machine, compiler.
- Frequency depends on algorithm, input data.





Donald Knuth 1974 Turing Award

In principle, accurate mathematical models are available.

Challenge. How to estimate constants.

operation	example	nanoseconds †
integer add	a + b	2.1
integer multiply	a * b	2.4
integer divide	a / b	5.4
floating-point add	a + b	4.6
floating-point multiply	a * b	4.2
floating-point divide	a / b	13.5
sine	Math.sin(theta)	91.3
arctangent	Math.atan2(y, x)	129

† Running OS X on Macbook Pro 2.2GHz with 2GB RAM

Cost of basic operations

Observation. Most primitive operations take constant time.

operation	example	nanoseconds †
variable declaration	int a	\mathcal{C}_1
assignment statement	a = b	С2
integer compare	a < b	C3
array element access	a[i]	С4
array length	a.length	C5
1D array allocation	new int[N]	$c_6 N$
2D array allocation	new int[N][N]	$c_7 N^2$

Caveat. Non-primitive operations often take more than constant time.

Q. How many instructions as a function of input size *N*?



operation	frequency
variable declaration	2
assignment statement	2
less than compare	N+1
equal to compare	N
array access	N
increment	$N { m to} 2 N$

Q. How many instructions as a function of input size *N*?



Simplification 1: cost model

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



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

Ex 1.
$$\frac{1}{6}N^3 + 20N + 16$$
 ~ $\frac{1}{6}N^3$
Ex 2. $\frac{1}{6}N^3 + 100N^{4/3} + 56$ ~ $\frac{1}{6}N^3$
Ex 3. $\frac{1}{6}N^3 - \frac{1}{2}N^2 + \frac{1}{3}N$ ~ $\frac{1}{6}N^3$

discard lower-order terms

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



Leading-term approximation

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

operation	frequency	tilde notation
variable declaration	<i>N</i> +2	$\sim N$
assignment statement	<i>N</i> +2	$\sim N$
less than compare	$\frac{1}{2}(N+1)(N+2)$	\sim ½ N^2
equal to compare	$\frac{1}{2}N(N-1)$	\sim ½ N^2
array access	N(N-1)	$\sim N^2$
increment	$\frac{1}{2}N(N-1)$ to $N(N-1)$	$\sim \frac{1}{2} N^2$ to $\sim N^2$

Q. Approximately how many array accesses as a function of input size *N*?



A. ~ N^2 array accesses.

Bottom line. Use cost model and tilde notation to simplify counts.

Q. Approximately how many array accesses as a function of input size *N*?



Bottom line. Use cost model and tilde notation to simplify counts.

In principle, accurate mathematical models are available.

In practice,

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





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

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

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

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

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

Typical usage. With running times.

Common order-of-growth classifications

Good news. The set of functions

1, $\log N$, N, $N \log N$, N^2 , N^3 , and 2^N

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



Common order-of-growth classifications

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

Practical implications of order-of-growth

growth	problem size solvable in minutes			
rate	1970s	1980s	1990s	2000s
1	any	any	any	any
log N	any	any	any	any
Ν	millions	tens of millions	hundreds of millions	billions
N log N	hundreds of thousands	millions	millions	hundreds of millions
N ²	hundreds	thousand	thousands	tens of thousands
N ³	hundred	hundreds	thousand	thousands
2 ^N	20	20s	20s	30

Bottom line. Need linear or linearithmic alg to keep pace with Moore's law.

Binary search. Compare key against middle entry.

- Too small, go left.
- Too big, go right.
- Equal, found.





Binary search. Compare key against middle entry.

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- Equal, found.



Binary search. Compare key against middle entry.

- Too small, go left.
- Too big, go right.
- Equal, found.



Trivial to implement?

- First binary search published in 1946.
- First bug-free one in 1962.
- Bug in Java's Arrays.binarySearch() discovered in 2006.

```
public static int binarySearch(int[] a, int key)
       {
          int lo = 0, hi = a.length-1;
          while (lo <= hi)</pre>
          {
               int mid = 10 + (hi - 10) / 2;
                                                                         one "3-way compare"
                   (\text{key} < a[\text{mid}]) hi = mid - 1;
               if
               else if (\text{key} > a[\text{mid}]) lo = mid + 1;
               else return mid;
         }
         return -1;
Invariant. If key appears in the array a[], then a[10] \leq key \leq a[hi].
```
Proposition. Binary search uses at most $1 + \log N$ key compares to search in a sorted array of size *N*.

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

Binary search recurrence. $T(N) \leq T(N/2) + 1$ for N > 1, with T(1) = 1. left or right half possible to implement with one (floored division) 2-way compare (instead of 3-way) **Pf sketch.** [assume *N* is a power of 2] [given] $\leq T(N/2) + 1$ T(N)[apply recurrence to first term] $\leq T(N/4) + 1 + 1$ [apply recurrence to first term] $\leq T(N/8) + 1 + 1 + 1$: T(N/N) + 1 + 1 + ... + 1 [stop applying, T(1) = 1] < $1 + \log N$ =

Algorithm.

- Step 1: Sort the *N* (distinct) numbers.
- Step 2: For each pair of numbers a[i] and a[j], binary search for -(a[i] + a[j]).

Analysis. Order of growth is $N^2 \log N$.

- Step 1: N^2 with insertion sort.
- Step 2: $N^2 \log N$ with binary search.

input

30	-40	-20	-10	40	0	10	5
sort							

-40 -20 -10 0 5 10 30 40

binary search



Hypothesis. The sorting-based $N^2 \log N$ algorithm for 3-SUM is significantly faster in practice than the brute-force N^3 algorithm.

Ν	time (seconds)		Ν	time (seconds)
1,000	0.1		1,000	0.14
2,000	0.8		2,000	0.18
4,000	6.4		4,000	0.34
8,000	51.1		8,000	0.96
ThreeSum.java		16,000	3.67	
			32,000	14.88
			64,000	59.16

ThreeSumDeluxe.java

Guiding principle. Typically, better order of growth \Rightarrow faster in practice.

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Best case. Lower bound on cost.

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

Worst case. Upper bound on cost.

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

Average case. Expected cost for random input.

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

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

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

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

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

this course

Ex 2. Compares for binary search.Best: ~ 1 Average: $\sim \lg N$ Worst: $\sim \lg N$

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

Goals.

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

Upper bound.

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

Lower bound.

- Ex. Have to examine all *N* entries.
- Running time of the algorithm for 1-SUM is $\Omega(N)$.

Optimal algorithm.

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

Goals.

- Establish "difficulty" of a problem and develop "optimal" algorithms.
- Ex. 3-Sum.

Upper bound. A specific algorithm.

- Ex. Brute-force algorithm for 3-Suм.
- Running time of the optimal algorithm for 3-SUM is $O(N^3)$.

Goals.

- Establish "difficulty" of a problem and develop "optimal" algorithms.
- Ex. 3-Sum.

Upper bound. A specific algorithm.

- Ex. Improved algorithm for 3-Suм.
- Running time of the improved algorithm for 3-SUM is $O(N^2 \log N)$.

Lower bound.

- Running time of the improved algorithm for 3-SUM is $\Omega(N^2)$.
- Running time of a magical optimal algorithm for solving 3-SUM is Ω(N).
 (why?)

Open problems.

- Optimal algorithm for 3-SUM?
- Subquadratic algorithm for 3-SUM?

Algorithm design approach

Start.

- Develop an algorithm.
- Prove a lower bound.

Gap?

- Lower the upper bound (discover a new algorithm).
- Raise the lower bound (more difficult).

Golden Age of Algorithm Design.

- 1970s-.
- Steadily decreasing upper bounds for many important problems.
- Many known optimal algorithms.

Caveats.

- Overly pessimistic to focus on worst case?
- Need better than "to within a constant factor" to predict performance.

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Basics

Bit. 0 or 1.
Byte. 8 bits.
Megabyte (MB). 1 million or 2²⁰ bytes.
Gigabyte (GB). 1 billion or 2³⁰ bytes.



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

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

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



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

primitive types

type	bytes
char[]	2 <i>N</i> + 24
int[]	4 <i>N</i> + 24
double[]	8 <i>N</i> + 24

one-dimensional arrays

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

two-dimensional arrays

Object overhead. 16 bytes.

Reference. 8 bytes.

Padding. Each object uses a multiple of 8 bytes.

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



Object overhead. 16 bytes.

Reference. 8 bytes.

Padding. Each object uses a multiple of 8 bytes.

Ex 2. A virgin String of length N uses $\sim 2N$ bytes of memory.



Total memory usage for a data type value:

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

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

Shallow memory usage: Don't count referenced objects.

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

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STACKS AND QUEUES

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Stacks and queues

Fundamental data types.

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



Stack. Examine the item most recently added. \leftarrow LIFO = "last in first out" Queue. Examine the item least recently added. \leftarrow FIFO = "first in first out"



Warmup API. Stack of strings data type.

			pusii pop
public class	StackOfStrings		17
	<pre>StackOfStrings()</pre>	create an empty stack	
void	<pre>push(String item)</pre>	insert a new string onto stack	
String	pop()	remove and return the string most recently added	
boolean	isEmpty()	is the stack empty?	
int	size()	number of strings on the stack	

Warmup client. Reverse sequence of strings from standard input.

- Maintain pointer first to first node in a singly-linked list.
- Push new item before first.
- Pop item from first.



Stack: linked-list representation

Maintain pointer to first node in a linked list; insert/remove from front.



Stack: linked-list implementation in Java

```
public class LinkedStackOfStrings
{
  private Node first = null;
  private class Node
   {
                                                              private inner class
      String item;
                                                              (access modifiers for instance
      Node next;
                                                              variables don't matter)
   }
  public boolean isEmpty()
  { return first == null; }
  public void push(String item)
   {
      Node oldfirst = first;
      first = new Node();
      first.item = item;
      first.next = oldfirst;
   }
  public String pop()
   {
      String item = first.item;
      first = first.next;
      return item;
   }
}
```

Stack push: linked-list implementation







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

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



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

Fixed-capacity stack: array implementation

- Use array s[] to store N items on stack.
- push(): add new item at s[N].
- pop(): remove item from s[N-1].



Defect. Stack overflows when N exceeds capacity. [stay tuned]

```
public class FixedCapacityStackOfStrings
                       {
                                                                       a cheat
                                                                     (stay tuned)
                          private String[] s;
                          private int N = 0;
                          public FixedCapacityStackOfStrings(int capacity)
                          { s = new String[capacity]; }
                          public boolean isEmpty()
                           { return N == 0; }
                          public void push(String item)
use to index into array;
                           {__s[N++] = item; }
then increment N
                          public String pop()
                          { return s[--N]; } decrement N;
                       }
                                                 then use to index into array
```

Overflow and underflow.

- Underflow: throw exception if pop from an empty stack.
- Overflow: use resizing array for array implementation. [stay tuned]

Null items. We allow null items to be inserted.

Loitering. Holding a reference to an object when it is no longer needed.

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

loitering

public String pop()
{
 String item = s[--N];
 s[N] = null;
 return item;
}
this version avoids "loitering":

garbage collector can reclaim memory for an object only if no outstanding references



resizing arrays

stacks

gueues

generics

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Problem. Requiring client to provide capacity does not implement API!Q. How to grow and shrink array?

First try.

- push(): increase size of array s[] by 1.
- pop(): decrease size of array s[] by 1.



Challenge. Ensure that array resizing happens infrequently.

Stack: resizing-array implementation

```
Q. How to grow array?
A. If array is full, create a new array of twice the size, and copy items.
     public ResizingArrayStackOfStrings()
     { s = new String[1]; }
     public void push(String item)
     {
        if (N == s.length) resize(2 * s.length);
        s[N++] = item;
     }
     private void resize(int capacity)
      {
        String[] copy = new String[capacity];
        for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
           copy[i] = s[i];
        s = copy;
     }
```

Array accesses to insert first N = 2^i items. $N + (2 + 4 + 8 + ... + N) \sim 3N$.

1 array access per push

k array accesses to double to size k (ignoring cost to create new array)

"repeated doubling"

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Stack: amortized cost of adding to a stack



Q. How to shrink array?

First try.

- push(): double size of array s[] when array is full.
- pop(): halve size of array s[] when array is one-half full.

Too expensive in worst case.

- Consider push-pop-push-pop-... sequence when array is full.
- Each operation takes time proportional to N.



Q. How to shrink array?

Efficient solution.

- push(): double size of array s[] when array is full.
- pop(): halve size of array s[] when array is one-quarter full.

```
public String pop()
{
   String item = s[--N];
   s[N] = null;
   if (N > 0 && N == s.length/4) resize(s.length/2);
   return item;
```

}

Invariant. Array is between 25% and 100% full.

Amortized analysis. Starting from an empty data structure, average running time per operation over a worst-case sequence of operations.

Proposition. Starting from an empty stack, any sequence of *M* push and pop operations takes time proportional to *M*.



order of growth of running time for resizing stack with N items
Stack resizing-array implementation: memory usage

Proposition. Uses between $\sim 8 N$ and $\sim 32 N$ bytes to represent a stack with *N* items.

- ~ 8 N when full.
- $\sim 32 N$ when one-quarter full.

```
public class ResizingArrayStackOfStrings
{
    private String[] s; 8 bytes × array size
    private int N = 0;
    ...
}
```

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

Stack implementations: resizing array vs. linked list

Tradeoffs. Can implement a stack with either resizing array or linked list; client can use interchangeably. Which one is better?

Linked-list implementation.

- Every operation takes constant time in the worst case.
- Uses extra time and space to deal with the links.

Resizing-array implementation.

- Every operation takes constant amortized time.
- Less wasted space.





			enqueue
public class	QueueOfStrings		
	QueueOfStrings()	create an empty queue	
void	<pre>enqueue(String item)</pre>	insert a new string onto queue	
String	dequeue()	remove and return the string least recently added	
boolean	isEmpty()	is the queue empty?	
int	size()	number of strings on the queue	





Maintain pointer to first and last nodes in a linked list;

remove from front; insert at end.



Queue: linked-list implementation in Java

```
public class LinkedQueueOfStrings
{
   private Node first, last;
   private class Node
   { /* same as in LinkedStackOfStrings */ }
   public boolean isEmpty()
   { return first == null; }
   public void enqueue(String item)
   {
      Node oldlast = last;
      last = new Node();
      last.item = item;
      last.next = null;
                                                               special cases for
      if (isEmpty()) first = last;
                                                                 empty queue
      else
                     oldlast.next = last;
   }
   public String dequeue()
   {
      String item = first.item;
      first
                  = first.next;
      if (isEmpty()) last = null;
      return item;
   }
}
```

Queue enqueue: linked-list implementation



Queue dequeue: linked-list implementation



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

Queue: resizing-array implementation

- Use array q[] to store items in queue.
- enqueue(): add new item at q[tail].
- dequeue(): remove item from q[head].
- Update head and tail modulo the capacity.
- Add resizing array.





We implemented: StackOfStrings.

We also want: StackOfURLs, StackOfInts, StackOfVans,

Attempt 1. Implement a separate stack class for each type.

- Rewriting code is tedious and error-prone.
- Maintaining cut-and-pasted code is tedious and error-prone.

@#\$*! most reasonable approach until Java 1.5.



We implemented: StackOfStrings.

We also want: StackOfURLs, StackOfInts, StackOfVans,

Attempt 2. Implement a stack with items of type Object.

- Casting is required in client.
- Casting is error-prone: run-time error if types mismatch.

```
StackOfObjects s = new StackOfObjects();
Apple a = new Apple();
Orange b = new Orange();
s.push(a);
s.push(b);
a = (Apple) (s.pop());
```



We implemented: StackOfStrings.

We also want: StackOfURLs, StackOfInts, StackOfVans,

Attempt 3. Java generics.

- Avoid casting in client.
- Discover type mismatch errors at compile-time instead of run-time.



Guiding principles. Welcome compile-time errors; avoid run-time errors.

Generic stack: linked-list implementation

```
public class LinkedStackOfStrings
{
   private Node first = null;
   private class Node
      String item;
     Node next;
   public boolean isEmpty()
   { return first == null; }
   public void push(String item)
     Node oldfirst = first;
      first = new Node();
      first.item = item;
      first.next = oldfirst;
   public String pop()
      String item _ first item
      first = first.next;
      return item;
```



```
public class FixedCapacityStackOfStrings
{
   private String[] s;
   private int N = 0;
   public ...StackOfStrings(int capacity)
   { s = new String[capacity]; }
   public boolean isEmpty()
   { return N == 0; }
   public void push(String item)
   { s[N++] = item: }
   public String pop()
    return s[--N]; }
```

the way it should be

```
public class FixedCapacityStack<Item>
{
   private Item[] s;
   private int N = 0;
   public FixedCapacityStack(int
capacity)
   { s = new Item[capacity]; }
   public boolean isEmpty()
   { return N == 0; }
  public void push(Item item)
   { s[N++] = item; }
```

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

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

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```
public class FixedCapacityStackOfStrings
{
   private String[] s;
   private int N = 0;
   public ...StackOfStrings(int capacity)
   { s = new String[capacity]; }
   public boolean isEmpty()
   { return N == 0; }
   public void push(String item)
   { s[N++] = item; }
   public String pop()
   { return s[--N]; }
```

the way it is

```
public class FixedCapacityStack<Item>
          {
             private Item[] s;
             private int N = 0;
             public FixedCapacityStack(int
          capacity)
             { s = /Item[]) new Object[capacity];
          }
             public boolean isEmpty()
               return N == 0; }
             public void push(Item item)
             { s[N++] = item; }
             public Item pop()
             { return s[--N]; }
the ugly cast 2
```

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Q. What to do about primitive types?

Wrapper type.

- Each primitive type has a wrapper object type.
- Ex: Integer is wrapper type for int.

Autoboxing. Automatic cast between a primitive type and its wrapper.

Stack<Integer> s = new Stack<Integer>(); s.push(17); // s.push(Integer.value0f(17)); int a = s.pop(); // int a = s.pop().intValue();

Bottom line. Client code can use generic stack for any type of data.

List interface. java.util.List is API for a sequence of items.

<pre>public interface List<item> implements Iterable<item></item></item></pre>						
	List()	create an empty list				
boolean	isEmpty()	is the list empty?				
int	size()	number of items				
void	add(Item item)	append item to the end				
Item	get(int index)	return item at given index				
Item	<pre>remove(int index)</pre>	return and delete item at given index				
boolean	contains(Item item)	does the list contain the given item?				
Iterator <item></item>	iterator()	iterator over all items in the list				

Implementations. java.util.ArrayList uses resizing array; java.util.LinkedList uses linked list.

operations are efficient

java.util.Stack.

- Supports push(), pop(), and iteration.
- Extends java.util.Vector, which implements java.util.List interface from previous slide, including get() and remove().

Java 1.3 bug report (June 27, 2001)

The iterator method on java.util.Stack iterates through a Stack from the bottom up. One would think that it should iterate as if it were popping off the top of the Stack.

status (closed, will not fix)

It was an incorrect design decision to have Stack extend Vector ("is-a" rather than "has-a"). We sympathize with the submitter but cannot fix this because of compatibility.

java.util.Stack.

- Supports push(), pop(), and iteration.
- Extends java.util.Vector, which implements java.util.List interface from previous slide, including get() and remove().



java.util.Queue. An interface, not an implementation of a queue.

Algorithms

ROBERT SEDGEWICK | KEVIN WAYNE

ELEMENTARY SORTS

Modified by: Dr. Fahed Jubair and Dr. Ramzi Saifan

Computer Engineering Department

University of Jordan

Robert Sedgewick | Kevin Wayne

Algorithms

 \checkmark

http://algs4.cs.princeton.edu

Ex. Student records in a university.



Sort. Rearrange array of *N* items into ascending order.

Andrews	3	А	664-480-0023	097 Little
Battle	4	С	874-088-1212	121 Whitman
Chen	3	А	991-878-4944	308 Blair
Furia	1	А	766-093-9873	101 Brown
Gazsi	4	В	766-093-9873	101 Brown
Kanaga	3	В	898-122-9643	22 Brown
Rohde	2	А	232-343-5555	343 Forbes

Sorting applications



Library of Congress numbers



FedEx packages





contacts

Goal. Sort any type of data (for which sorting is well defined).

A total order is a binary relation \leq that satisfies:

- Antisymmetry: if both $v \le w$ and $w \le v$, then v = w.
- Transitivity: if both $v \le w$ and $w \le x$, then $v \le x$.
- Totality: either $v \le w$ or $w \le v$ or both.

Ex.

- Standard order for natural and real numbers.
- Chronological order for dates or times.
- Alphabetical order for strings.

No transitivity. Rock-paper-scissors. No totality. PU course prerequisites.



Comparable interface

Comparable interface: sort using a type's natural order.



Implement compareTo() so that v.compareTo(w)

- Defines a total order.
- Returns a negative integer, zero, or positive integer
 if v is less than, equal to, or greater than w, respectively.
- Throws an exception if incompatible types (or either is null).



Built-in comparable types. Integer, Double, String, Date, File, ... User-defined comparable types. Implement the Comparable interface.

ELEMENTARY SORTS

selection sort

insertion sort

Algorithms

ROBERT SEDGEWICK | KEVIN WAYNE

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- In iteration i, find index min of smallest remaining entry.
- Swap a[i] and a[min].







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in final order

- In iteration i, find index min of smallest remaining entry.
- Swap a[i] and a[min].



in final order

remaining entries

- In iteration i, find index min of smallest remaining entry.
- Swap a[i] and a[min].



remaining entries

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in final order

- In iteration i, find index min of smallest remaining entry.
- Swap a[i] and a[min].





Helper functions. Refer to data through compares and exchanges.

Less. Is item v less than w?

private static boolean less(Comparable v, Comparable w)
{ return v.compareTo(w) < 0; }</pre>

Exchange. Swap item in array a[] at index i with the one at index j.

```
private static void exch(Comparable[] a, int i, int j)
{
    Comparable swap = a[i];
    a[i] = a[j];
    a[j] = swap;
```

```
public class Selection
{
   public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
   {
      int N = a.length;
      for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
      {
         int min = i;
         for (int j = i+1; j < N; j++)
            if (less(a[j], a[min]))
               min = j;
         exch(a, i, min);
      }
   }
   private static boolean less(Comparable v, Comparable w)
   { /* as before */ }
   private static void exch(Comparable[] a, int i, int j)
   { /* as before */ }
}
```

Proposition. Selection sort uses $(N-1) + (N-2) + ... + 1 + 0 \sim N^2/2$ compares and *N* exchanges.

a[]													
i	min	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	are examined to find
		S	0	R	Т	Е	Х	Α	Μ	Ρ	L	Е	the minimum
0	6	S	0	R	Т	Е	Х	Α	Μ	Ρ	L	Е	<i>K</i>
1	4	Α	0	R	Т	Е	Х	S	Μ	Ρ	L	Е	entries in red
2	10	Α	Е	R	Т	0	Х	S	Μ	Ρ	L	E	
3	9	Α	Е	Е	Т	0	Х	S	Μ	Ρ	L	R	
4	7	Α	Е	Е	L	0	Х	S	Μ	Ρ	Т	R	
5	7	Α	Е	Е	L	М	Х	S	0	Ρ	Т	R	
6	8	Α	Е	Е	L	М	0	S	Х	Ρ	Т	R	
7	10	Α	Е	Е	L	М	0	Ρ	Х	S	Т	R	
8	8	Α	Е	Е	L	М	0	Ρ	R	S	Т	Х	antrias in arou aro
9	9	Α	Е	Е	L	М	0	Ρ	R	S	Т	Х	/ in final position
10	10	А	Е	Е	L	Μ	0	Ρ	R	S	Т	X	
		Α	Е	Е	L	М	0	Ρ	R	S	Т	Х	

Trace of selection sort (array contents just after each exchange)

Running time insensitive to input. Quadratic time, even if input is sorted. Data movement is minimal. Linear number of exchanges.

Selection sort: animations



http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/selection-sort

Selection sort: animations



http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/selection-sort

ELEMENTARY SORTS

'selection sort

insertion sort

Algorithms

ROBERT SEDGEWICK | KEVIN WAYNE

http://algs4.cs.princeton.edu

In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.





In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.



In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.



in ascending order

In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.



In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.



in ascending order

In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.



In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.



In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.



not yet seen

In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.


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not yet seen



not yet seen



not yet seen



not yet seen



not yet seen



not yet seen



not yet seen

In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.



in ascending order



not yet seen



not yet seen

In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.



in ascending order











In iteration i, swap a[i] with each larger entry to its left.



sorted

```
public class Insertion
{
  public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
   {
     int N = a.length;
      for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
         for (int j = i; j > 0; j--)
            if (less(a[j], a[j-1]))
              exch(a, j, j-1);
            else break;
  }
  private static boolean less(Comparable v, Comparable w)
   { /* as before */ }
  private static void exch(Comparable[] a, int i, int j)
  { /* as before */ }
}
```

Insertion sort: mathematical analysis

Proposition. To sort a randomly-ordered array with distinct keys, insertion sort uses ~ $\frac{1}{4} N^2$ compares and ~ $\frac{1}{4} N^2$ exchanges on average.

Pf. Expect each entry to move halfway back.



Trace of insertion sort (array contents just after each insertion)

Best case. If the array is in ascending order, insertion sort makes N-1 compares and 0 exchanges.

A E E L M O P R S T X

Worst case. If the array is in descending order (and no duplicates), insertion sort makes ~ $\frac{1}{2}N^2$ compares and ~ $\frac{1}{2}N^2$ exchanges.

X T S R P O M L F E A

Insertion sort: animation





http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/insertion-sort

Insertion sort: animation



http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/insertion-sort
Insertion sort: animation

40 partially-sorted items algorithm position in order not yet seen

http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/insertion-sort



How to shuffle an array

Goal. Rearrange array so that result is a uniformly random permutation.





How to shuffle an array

Goal. Rearrange array so that result is a uniformly random permutation.





Shuffle sort

- Generate a random real number for each array entry.
- Sort the array.

useful for shuffling columns in a spreadsheet



Shuffle sort

- Generate a random real number for each array entry.
- Sort the array.





- Generate a random real number for each array entry.
- Sort the array.





Proposition. Shuffle sort produces a uniformly random permutation.

assuming real numbers uniformly at random (and no ties)

Knuth shuffle demo

- In iteration i, pick integer r between 0 and i uniformly at random.
- Swap a[i] and a[r].





- In iteration i, pick integer r between 0 and i uniformly at random.
- Swap a[i] and a[r].



not yet seen

- In iteration i, pick integer r between 0 and i uniformly at random.
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not yet seen

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shuffled

- In iteration i, pick integer r between 0 and i uniformly at random.
- Swap a[i] and a[r].



shuffled

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shuffled

- In iteration i, pick integer r between 0 and i uniformly at random.
- Swap a[i] and a[r].



Proposition. [Fisher-Yates 1938] Knuth shuffling algorithm produces a uniformly random permutation of the input array in linear time.

assuming integers uniformly at random
Knuth shuffle

- In iteration i, pick integer r between 0 and i uniformly at random.
- Swap a[i] and a[r].

```
public class StdRandom
{
   public static void shuffle(Object[] a)
   {
      int N = a.length;
      for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
      {
         int r = StdRandom.uniform(i + 1);
                                                            between 0 and i
         exch(a, i, r);
      }
   }
}
```

Algorithms

ROBERT SEDGEWICK | KEVIN WAYNE

MERGESORT AND QUICKSORT

Modified by: Dr. Fahed Jubair and Dr. Ramzi Saifan

Computer Engineering Department

University of Jordan

Robert Sedgewick | Kevin Wayne

Algorithms

 \checkmark

http://algs4.cs.princeton.edu

Two classic sorting algorithms: mergesort and quicksort

Critical components in the world's computational infrastructure.

- Full scientific understanding of their properties has enabled us to develop them into practical system sorts.
- Quicksort honored as one of top 10 algorithms of 20th century in science and engineering.



MERGESORT AND QUICKSORT

mergesort

quicksort

comparators

Algorithms

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http://algs4.cs.princeton.edu

Mergesort

Basic plan.

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





John von Neumann



```
public class Merge
{
   private static void merge(...)
   { /* as before */ }
     private static void sort(Comparable[] a, Comparable[] aux, int lo, int hi)
   {
      if (hi <= lo) return;</pre>
      int mid = 10 + (hi - 10) / 2;
      sort(a, aux, lo, mid);
      sort(a, aux, mid+1, hi);
      merge(a, aux, lo, mid, hi);
   }
   public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
   {
      Comparable[] aux = new Comparable[a.length];
      sort(a, aux, 0, a.length - 1);
   }
}
                    10
                                  mid
                                                     hi
```



G

G

Η

Ι

L

A

Α

aux[]

a[]

```
private static void merge(Comparable[] a, Comparable[] aux, int lo, int mid, int hi)
{
  for (int k = lo; k \le hi; k++)
     aux[k] = a[k];
                                                                copy
  int i = lo, j = mid+1;
  for (int k = lo; k \le hi; k++)
  {
     if (i > mid)
                      a[k] = aux[j++];
                                                                merge
     else if (j > hi) a[k] = aux[i++];
     else if (less(aux[j], aux[i])) a[k] = aux[j++];
                                  a[k] = aux[i++];
     else
  }
}
                   10
                                i mid
                                                      hi
                                   R H I
                                              M S
                              0
```

k

Μ

Т



































































k

both subarrays exhausted, done





private static void merge(Comparable[] a, Comparable[] aux, int lo, int mid, int hi)
{

```
for (int k = lo; k <= hi; k++)
    aux[k] = a[k];

int i = lo, j = mid+1;
for (int k = lo; k <= hi; k++)
{
    if (i > mid) a[k] = aux[j++];
    else if (j > hi) a[k] = aux[i++];
    else if (less(aux[j], aux[i])) a[k] = aux[j++];
    else a[k] = aux[i++];
}
```





	a[]															
lo hi	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
	Μ	Е	R	G	Е	S	0	R	Т	Ε	Х	Α	Μ	Ρ	L	Ε
merge(a, aux, <mark>0</mark> , 0, 1)	Е	Μ	R	G	Е	S	0	R	Т	Е	Х	Α	M	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, <mark>2</mark> , 2, <mark>3</mark>)	Е	М	G	R	Е	S	0	R	Т	Ε	Х	Α	Μ	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, <mark>0</mark> , 1, <mark>3</mark>)	Е	G	Μ	R	Е	S	0	R	Т	Ε	Х	Α	М	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, 4 , 4, <mark>5</mark>)	Ε	G	Μ	R	Ε	S	0	R	Т	Е	Х	Α	М	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, <mark>6</mark> , 6, 7)	Е	G	Μ	R	Е	S	0	R	Т	Е	Х	Α	М	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, <mark>4</mark> , 5, 7)	Е	G	Μ	R	Е	0	R	S	Т	Е	Х	Α	М	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, <mark>0</mark> , 3, 7)	Е	Е	G	Μ	0	R	R	S	Т	Е	Х	Α	М	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, <mark>8</mark> , 8, <mark>9</mark>)	Ε	Е	G	М	0	R	R	S	Е	Т	Х	Α	М	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, <mark>10</mark> , 10, <mark>11</mark>)	Е	Е	G	М	0	R	R	S	Е	Т	Α	Х	М	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, <mark>8</mark> , 9, <u>11</u>)	Е	Е	G	М	0	R	R	S	Α	Е	Т	Х	М	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, <mark>12</mark> , 12, <mark>13</mark>)	Ε	Е	G	М	0	R	R	S	Α	Е	Т	Х	Μ	Ρ	L	Е
merge(a, aux, <mark>14</mark> , 14, <mark>15</mark>)	Е	Е	G	М	0	R	R	S	Α	Е	Т	Х	М	Ρ	Е	L
merge(a, aux, <mark>12</mark> , 13, <mark>15</mark>)	Е	Е	G	Μ	0	R	R	S	Α	Е	Т	Х	Ε	L	Μ	Ρ
merge(a, aux, <mark>8</mark> , 11, <mark>15</mark>)	Ε	E	G	М	0	R	R	S	Α	Е	Е	L	Μ	Ρ	Т	Х
merge(a, aux, <mark>0</mark> , 7, 15)	Α	Е	Е	Е	Е	G	L	Μ	Μ	0	Ρ	R	R	S	Т	Х

result after recursive call

Mergesort: animation

50 random items



http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/merge-sort

Mergesort: animation

50 reverse-sorted items



http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/merge-sort
Proposition. Mergesort uses $\leq N \lg N$ compares to sort an array of length *N*.

Pf sketch. The number of compares C(N) to mergesort an array of length N satisfies the recurrence:

$$C(N) \leq C(\lceil N/2 \rceil) + C(\lfloor N/2 \rfloor) + N \text{ for } N > 1, \text{ with } C(1) = 0.$$

$$\uparrow \qquad \uparrow \qquad \uparrow$$

$$\text{left half} \qquad \text{right half} \qquad \text{merge}$$

We solve the recurrence when N is a power of 2: \leftarrow result holds for all N

(analysis cleaner in this case)

D(N) = 2 D(N/2) + N, for N > 1, with D(1) = 0.

Divide-and-conquer recurrence: proof by picture

Proposition. If D(N) satisfies D(N) = 2 D(N/2) + N for N > 1, with D(1) = 0, then $D(N) = N \lg N$.

Pf 1. [assuming *N* is a power of 2]



Mergesort: empirical analysis

Running time estimates:

- Laptop executes 10⁸ compares/second.
- Supercomputer executes 10¹² compares/second.

	ins	ertion sort (N ²)	mergesort (N log N)			
computer	thousand	million	billion	thousand	million	billion	
home	instant	2.8 hours	317 years	instant	1 second	18 min	
super	instant	1 second	1 week	instant	instant	instant	

Bottom line. Good algorithms are better than supercomputers.

Proposition. Mergesort uses $\leq 6 N \lg N$ array accesses to sort an array of length *N*.

Pf sketch. The number of array accesses *A*(*N*) satisfies the recurrence:

 $A(N) \leq A([N/2]) + A([N/2]) + 6N$ for N > 1, with A(1) = 0.

Key point. Any algorithm with the following structure takes $N \log N$ time:



Notable examples. FFT, hidden-line removal, Kendall-tau distance, ...

Proposition. Mergesort uses extra space proportional to *N*.

Pf. The array aux[] needs to be of length *N* for the last merge.



Def. A sorting algorithm is in-place if it uses $\leq c \log N$ extra memory. **Ex.** Insertion sort, selection sort.

Challenge 1 (not hard). Use aux[] array of length ~ $\frac{1}{2}N$ instead of N. Challenge 2 (very hard). In-place merge. [Kronrod 1969] Use insertion sort for small subarrays.

- Mergesort has too much overhead for tiny subarrays.
- Cutoff to insertion sort for ≈ 10 items.

```
private static void sort(Comparable[] a, Comparable[] aux, int lo, int hi)
{
    if (hi <= lo + CUTOFF - 1)
    {
        Insertion.sort(a, lo, hi);
        return;
    }
    int mid = lo + (hi - lo) / 2;
    sort (a, aux, lo, mid);
    sort (a, aux, mid+1, hi);
    merge(a, aux, lo, mid, hi);</pre>
```

Stop if already sorted.

- Is largest item in first half < smallest item in second half?</p>
- Helps for partially-ordered arrays.

А	В	С	D	E	F	G	Η	Ι	J	М	Ν	0	Ρ	Q	R	S	Т	U	V
А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	I	J	Μ	Ν	0	Ρ	Q	R	S	Т	U	V

```
private static void sort(Comparable[] a, Comparable[] aux, int lo, int hi)
{
    if (hi <= lo) return;
    int mid = lo + (hi - lo) / 2;
    sort (a, aux, lo, mid);
    sort (a, aux, mid+1, hi);
    if (!less(a[mid+1], a[mid])) return;
    merge(a, aux, lo, mid, hi);</pre>
```

MERGESORT AND QUICKSORT

comparators

mergesor

quicksort-

Algorithms

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Sort countries by gold medals

NOC ¢	Gold 🗢	Silver 🗢	Bronze 🗢	Total 🗢
United States (USA)	46	29	29	104
China (CHN)§	38	28	22	88
Great Britain (GBR)*	29	17	19	65
Russia (RUS)§	24	25	32	81
South Korea (KOR)	13	8	7	28
Germany (GER)	11	19	14	44
France (FRA)	11	11	12	34
Italy (ITA)	8	9	11	28
Hungary (HUN)§	8	4	6	18
Australia (AUS)	7	16	12	35

Sort countries by total medals

NOC ¢	Gold 🗢	Silver 🗢	Bronze 🗢	Total 🔫
United States (USA)	46	29	29	104
China (CHN)§	38	28	22	88
Russia (RUS)§	24	25	32	81
Great Britain (GBR)*	29	17	19	65
Germany (GER)	11	19	14	44
Japan (JPN)	7	14	17	38
Kalia (AUS)	7	16	12	35
France (FRA)	11	11	12	34
South Korea (KOR)	13	8	7	28
Italy (ITA)	8	9	11	28

Comparator interface: sort using an alternate order.

public interf	ace Comparator <key></key>	
int	compare(Key v, Key w)	compare keys v and w

Required property. Must be a total order.

string order	example	
natural order	Now is the time	pre-1994 order for
case insensitive	is Now the time	digraphs ch and II and rr
Spanish language	caf <mark>é</mark> cafetero cuarto <mark>ch</mark> urro	nube ñoño
British phone book	M <mark>cK</mark> inley M <mark>ac</mark> kintosł	ı

To use with Java system sort:

- Create Comparator object.
- Pass as second argument to Arrays.sort().

```
string[] a; uses natural order uses alternate order defined by Comparator<String> object
...
Arrays.sort(a); ...
Arrays.sort(a, String.CASE_INSENSITIVE_ORDER); ...
Arrays.sort(a, Collator.getInstance(new Locale("es"))); ...
Arrays.sort(a, new BritishPhoneBookOrder()); ...
```

Bottom line. Decouples the definition of the data type from the definition of what it means to compare two objects of that type.

To implement a comparator:

}

- Define a (nested) class that implements the Comparator interface.
- Implement the compare() method.

```
public class Student
{
   private final String name;
   private final int section;
   public static class ByName implements Comparator<Student>
   {
     public int compare(Student v, Student w)
        return v.name.compareTo(w.name); }
      {
   }
   public static class BySection implements Comparator<Student>
   {
      public int compare(Student v, Student w)
        return v.section - w.section; }
      {
   }
```

To implement a comparator:

- Define a (nested) class that implements the Comparator interface.
- Implement the compare() method.

Arrays.sort(a, new Student.ByName());

Andrews	3	А	664-480-0023	097 Little
Battle	4	С	874-088-1212	121 Whitman
Chen	3	А	991-878-4944	308 Blair
Fox	3	А	884-232-5341	11 Dickinson
Furia	1	А	766-093-9873	101 Brown
Gazsi	4	В	766-093-9873	101 Brown
Kanaga	3	В	898-122-9643	22 Brown
Rohde	2	А	232-343-5555	343 Forbes

Arrays.sort(a, new Student.BySection());

Furia	1	А	766-093-9873	101 Brown
Rohde	2	А	232-343-5555	343 Forbes
Andrews	3	А	664-480-0023	097 Little
Chen	3	А	991-878-4944	308 Blair
Fox	3	А	884-232-5341	11 Dickinson
Kanaga	3	В	898-122-9643	22 Brown
Battle	4	С	874-088-1212	121 Whitman
Gazsi	4	В	766-093-9873	101 Brown

Comparator interface: implementing

To implement a comparator:

- Define a (nested) class that implements the Comparator interface.
- Implement the compare() method.

```
public class Student
{
   public static final Comparator<Student> BY_NAME = new ByName();
   public static final Comparator <Student> BY_SECTION = new BySection();
   private final String name;
   private final int section;
                                    > one Comparator for the class
   private static class ByName implements Comparator<Student>
   {
      public int compare(Student v, Student w)
         return v.name.compareTo(w.name); }
   }
   private static class BySection implements Comparator<Student>
   {
      public int compare(Student v, Student w)
      { return v.section - w.section; }
   }
                               this technique works here since no danger of overflow
}
```

To implement a comparator:

- Define a (nested) class that implements the Comparator interface.
- Implement the compare() method.
- Provide access to Comparator.

Arrays.sort(a, Student.BY_NAME);

Andrews	3	А	664-480-0023	097 Little
Battle	4	С	874-088-1212	121 Whitman
Chen	3	А	991-878-4944	308 Blair
Fox	3	А	884-232-5341	11 Dickinson
Furia	1	А	766-093-9873	101 Brown
Gazsi	4	В	766-093-9873	101 Brown
Kanaga	3	В	898-122-9643	22 Brown
Rohde	2	А	232-343-5555	343 Forbes

Arrays.sort(a, Student.BY_SECTION);

Furia	1	А	766-093-9873	101 Brown
Rohde	2	А	232-343-5555	343 Forbes
Andrews	3	А	664-480-0023	097 Little
Chen	3	А	991-878-4944	308 Blair
Fox	3	А	884-232-5341	11 Dickinson
Kanaga	3	В	898-122-9643	22 Brown
Battle	4	С	874-088-1212	121 Whitman
Gazsi	4	В	766-093-9873	101 Brown



A typical application. First, sort by name; then sort by section.

Selection.sort(a, new Student.ByName());

Selection.sort(a, new Student.BySection());

Andrews	3	А	664-480-0023	097 Little	Furia	1	А	766-093-9873	101 Brown
Battle	4	С	874-088-1212	121 Whitman	Rohde	2	А	232-343-5555	343 Forbes
Chen	3	А	991-878-4944	308 Blair	Chen	3	А	991-878-4944	308 Blair
Fox	3	А	884-232-5341	11 Dickinson	Fox	3	А	884-232-5341	11 Dickinson
Furia	1	А	766-093-9873	101 Brown	Andrews	3	А	664-480-0023	097 Little
Gazsi	4	В	766-093-9873	101 Brown	Kanaga	3	В	898-122-9643	22 Brown
Kanaga	3	В	898-122-9643	22 Brown	Gazsi	4	В	766-093-9873	101 Brown
Rohde	2	А	232-343-5555	343 Forbes	Battle	4	С	874-088-1212	121 Whitman

@#%&@! Students in section 3 no longer sorted by name.

A stable sort preserves the relative order of items with equal keys.

Stability

- Q. Which sorts are stable?
- A. Need to check algorithm (and implementation).

sorted by time sorted by location (not stable) Chicago 09:00:00 Chicago 09:25:52 Chicago 09:03:13 Phoenix 09:00:03 Chicago 09:21:05 Houston 09:00:13 Chicago 09:19:46 Chicago 09:00:59 Chicago 09:19:32 Houston 09:01:10 Chicago 09:00:00 Chicago 09:03:13 Chicago 09:35:21 Seattle 09:10:11 Chicago 09:00:59 Seattle 09:10:25 Houston 09:01:10 Phoenix 09:14:25 *no* Chicago 09:19:32 Houston 09:00:13 longer sorted 09:19:46 Phoenix 09:37:44 Chicago by time Phoenix 09:00:03 Chicago 09:21:05 Phoenix 09:14:25 Seattle 09:22:43 Seattle 09:22:54 Seattle 09:10:25 Chicago 09:25:52 Seattle 09:36:14 Chicago 09:35:21 Seattle 09:22:43 Seattle 09:36:14 Seattle 09:10:11 Phoenix 09:37:44 Seattle 09:22:54

sorted by location (stable)

Chicago 09:00:00 Chicago 09:00:59 Chicago 09:03:13 Chicago 09:19:32 Chicago 09:19:46 Chicago 09:21:05 Chicago 09:25:52 Chicago 09:35:21 Houston 09:00:13 still Houston 09:01:10 sorted Phoenix 09:00:03 by time Phoenix 09:14:25 Phoenix 09:37:44 Seattle 09:10:11 Seattle 09:10:25 Seattle 09:22:43 Seattle 09:22:54 Seattle 09:36:14

Stability: selection sort

Proposition. Selection sort is not stable.

```
public class Selection
{
   public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
   {
      int N = a.length;
      for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
      {
         int min = i;
         for (int j = i+1; j < N; j++)
            if (less(a[j], a[min]))
               min = j;
         exch(a, i, min);
      }
   }
}
```

i	min	0	1	2
0	2	B1	B ₂	A 3
1	1	A 3	B ₂	B1
2	2	A 3	B ₂	B1
		A 3	B ₂	Bı

Pf by counterexample. Long-distance exchange can move one equal item past another one.

Stability: insertion sort

Proposition. Insertion sort is stable.

```
public class Insertion
{
    public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
    {
        int N = a.length;
        for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
            for (int j = i; j > 0 \& less(a[j], a[j-1]); j--)
                 exch(a, j, j-1);
                                                    j 0 1 2 3 4
                                              i
    }
                                                    0 \qquad B_1 \qquad A_1 \qquad A_2 \qquad A_3 \qquad B_2
}
                                              0
                                                    0 \quad A_1 \quad B_1 \quad A_2 \quad A_3 \quad B_2
                                              1
                                              2 \quad 1 \quad A_1 \quad A_2 \quad B_1 \quad A_3 \quad B_2
                                               3 \qquad 2 \qquad A_1 \qquad A_2 \qquad A_3 \qquad B_1 \qquad B_2
                                                    4 A_1 A_2 A_3 B_1 B_2
                                              4
                                                          A_1 A_2 A_3 B_1 B_2
```

Pf. Equal items never move past each other.

Stability: mergesort

Proposition. Mergesort is stable.

```
public class Merge
{
   private static void merge(...)
   { /* as before */ }
   private static void sort(Comparable[] a, Comparable[] aux, int lo, int hi)
   {
     if (hi <= lo) return;</pre>
      int mid = 10 + (hi - 10) / 2;
      sort(a, aux, lo, mid);
      sort(a, aux, mid+1, hi);
      merge(a, aux, lo, mid, hi);
   }
   public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
   { /* as before */ }
}
```

Pf. Suffices to verify that merge operation is stable.

Stability: mergesort

Proposition. Merge operation is stable.

```
private static void merge(...)
{
   for (int k = lo; k \le hi; k++)
      aux[k] = a[k];
   int i = lo, j = mid+1;
   for (int k = lo; k \le hi; k++)
   {
                                a[k] = aux[j++];
      if (i > mid)
      else if (j > hi) a[k] = aux[i++];
      else if (less(aux[j], aux[i])) a[k] = aux[j++];
      else
                                      a[k] = aux[i++];
}
       0
         1
              2 3 4
                               5 6 7 8
                                              9
                                                  0
      A<sub>1</sub> A<sub>2</sub> A<sub>3</sub> B D
                                                  G
                                              F
                               A<sub>4</sub> A<sub>5</sub> C E
```

Pf. Takes from left subarray if equal keys.

MERGESORT AND QUICKSORT

mergesor

quicksort

comparators

Algorithms

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http://algs4.cs.princeton.edu

Quicksort

Basic plan.

- Shuffle the array.
- Partition so that, for some j
 - entry a[j] is in place
 - no larger entry to the left of j
 - no smaller entry to the right of j
- Sort each subarray recursively.





```
public class Quick
{
   private static int partition(Comparable[] a, int lo, int hi)
   { /* see previous slide */ }
   public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
   {
      StdRandom.shuffle(a);
                                                                         shuffle needed for
      sort(a, 0, a.length - 1);
                                                                       performance guarantee
   }
                                                                           (stay tuned)
   private static void sort(Comparable[] a, int lo, int hi)
   {
      if (hi <= lo) return;
      int j = partition(a, lo, hi);
      sort(a, lo, j-1);
      sort(a, j+1, hi);
  }
}
```

- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].





- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



stop j scan and exchange a[i] with a[j]

- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[10]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[10]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



stop i scan because a[i] >= a[lo]

- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



stop j scan and exchange a[i] with a[j]
- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[10]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].

K	С	А	I	Ε	L	Ε	Р	U	Т	Μ	Q	R	Х	0	S
1			1						1						
lo			i						j						

- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[10]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



stop j scan and exchange a[i] with a[j]

- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].

When pointers cross.

Exchange a[10] with a[j].



- Scan i from left to right so long as (a[i] < a[10]).</p>
- Scan j from right to left so long as (a[j] > a[lo]).
- Exchange a[i] with a[j].

When pointers cross.

Exchange a[10] with a[j].



Quicksort: Java code for partitioning

before

```
private static int partition(Comparable[] a, int lo, int hi)
          {
             int i = lo, j = hi+1;
             while (true)
             {
                 while (less(a[++i], a[lo]))
                     if (i == hi) break;
                                                          find item on left to swap
                 while (less(a[lo], a[--j]))
                                                         find item on right to swap
                     if (j == lo) break;
                                                            check if pointers cross
                 if (i >= j) break;
                                                                           swap
                 exch(a, i, j);
             }
                                                        swap with partitioning item
                                       return index of item now known to be in place
             exch(a, lo, j);
              return j;
          }
                                                                       after
                                                                               ≤v
                                                                                              \geq v
                                                                                      V
                                during
V
                                        \leq V
                                                        \geq v
                                                                                      1
                                                                                                    hi
                                                                           10
                                                                                      i
10
                         hi
                                             i
```

Quicksort animation





http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/quick-sort

Partitioning in-place. Using an extra array makes partitioning easier (and stable), but is not worth the cost.

Terminating the loop. Testing whether the pointers cross is trickier than it might seem.

Preserving randomness. Shuffling is needed for performance guarantee. Equivalent alternative. Pick a random partitioning item in each subarray.

Quicksort: best-case analysis

Best case. Number of compares is $\sim N \lg N$.

										a	[]						
lo	j	hi	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
initi	al valı	ies	Н	А	С	В	F	Е	G	D	L	Ι	К	J	Ν	М	0
rand	lom sł	nuffle	Н	А	С	В	F	Е	G	D	L	Т	К	J	Ν	Μ	0
0	7	14	D	А	С	В	F	Е	G	н	L	Ι	К	J	Ν	М	0
0	3	6	В	А	С	D	F	Е	G	Н	L		К	J	Ν	Μ	0
0	1	2	А	В	С	D	F	Е	G	Н	L		К	J	Ν	M	0
0		0	Α	В	С	D	F	Е	G	Н	L		К	J	Ν	M	0
2		2	А	В	С	D	F	Е	G	Н	L		К	J	Ν	M	0
4	5	6	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	L		К	J	Ν	M	0
4		4	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	L		К	J	Ν	Μ	0
6		6	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	L		К	J	Ν	Μ	0
8	11	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	J	Ι	К	L	Ν	М	0
8	9	10	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	Ι	J	К	L	Ν	Μ	0
8		8	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	T	J	К	L	Ν	Μ	0
10		10	А	В	С	D	Ε	F	G	Н		J	К	L	Ν	Μ	0
12	13	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н		J	К	L	М	Ν	0
12		12	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н		J	К	L	М	Ν	0
14		14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н		J	К	L	M	Ν	0
			А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	н	Т	J	К	L	М	Ν	0

Quicksort: worst-case analysis

Worst case. Number of compares is ~ $\frac{1}{2}N^2$.

										a	[]						
lo	j	hi	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
initi	al valı	ies	А	В	С	D	Ε	F	G	Н	Ι	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
rand	om sl	nuffle	Α	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	Т	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
0	0	14	Α	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	Т	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
1	1	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	н	Ι	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
2	2	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	н	Ι	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
3	3	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	н	Ι	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
4	4	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	н	Ι	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
5	5	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	н	Ι	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
6	6	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	н	Ι	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
7	7	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	н	Ι	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
8	8	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	T	J	К	L	М	Ν	0
9	9	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н		J	К	L	М	Ν	0
10	10	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н		J	К	L	М	Ν	0
11	11	14	А	В	С	D	Ε	F	G	Н		J	К	L	М	Ν	0
12	12	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н		J	К	L	М	Ν	0
13	13	14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н		J	К	L	M	Ν	0
14		14	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н		J	К	L	M	Ν	0
			А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	Т	J	К	L	М	Ν	0

Quicksort is a randomized algorithm.

- Guaranteed to be correct.
- Running time depends on random shuffle.

Average case. Expected number of compares is $\sim 1.39 N \lg N$.

- 39% more compares than mergesort.
- Faster than mergesort in practice because of less data movement.

Best case. Number of compares is ~ $N \lg N$. Worst case. Number of compares is ~ $\frac{1}{2}N^2$. [but more likely that lightning bolt strikes computer during execution]



Running time estimates:

- Home PC executes 10⁸ compares/second.
- Supercomputer executes 10¹² compares/second.

	ins	ertion sort (N ²)	mer	gesort (N lo	g N)	quicksort (N log N)				
computer	thousand	million	billion	thousand	million	billion	thousand	million	billion		
home	instant	2.8 hours	317 years	instant	1 second	18 min	instant	0.6 sec	12 min		
super	instant	1 second	1 week	instant	instant	instant	instant	instant	instant		

- Lesson 1. Good algorithms are better than supercomputers.
- Lesson 2. Great algorithms are better than good ones.

Proposition. Quicksort is an in-place sorting algorithm.

Pf.

- Partitioning: constant extra space.
- Depth of recursion: logarithmic extra space (with high probability).

can guarantee logarithmic depth by recurring on smaller subarray before larger subarray (requires using an explicit stack)

Proposition. Quicksort is not stable.

Pf. [by counterexample]



Insertion sort small subarrays.

- Even quicksort has too much overhead for tiny subarrays.
- Cutoff to insertion sort for ≈ 10 items.

```
private static void sort(Comparable[] a, int lo, int hi)
{
    if (hi <= lo + CUTOFF - 1)
    {
        Insertion.sort(a, lo, hi);
        return;
    }
    int j = partition(a, lo, hi);
    sort(a, lo, j-1);
    sort(a, j+1, hi);
}</pre>
```

	inplace?	stable?	best	average	worst	remarks
selection	\checkmark		$1/_{2} N^{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	$1/_{2} N^{2}$	N exchanges
insertion	\checkmark	\checkmark	N	$^{1}\!\!/_{4}N^{2}$	$1/_{2} N^{2}$	use for small N or partially ordered
merge		\checkmark	$\frac{1}{2} N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	$N \log N$ guarantee; stable
quick	\checkmark		N lg N	$2 N \ln N$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	$N \log N$ probabilistic guarantee; fastest in practice
?	\checkmark	\checkmark	N	$N \lg N$	$N \lg N$	holy sorting grail

Interesting Problem: Selection

Goal. Given an array of *N* items, find the k^{th} smallest item. Ex. Min (k = 0), max (k = N - 1), median (k = N/2).

Applications.

- Order statistics.
- Find the "top k."

Use theory as a guide.

- Easy N log N upper bound. How?
- Easy N lower bound. Why?

Which is true?

- $N \log N$ lower bound?
- N upper bound?

is selection as hard as sorting?

is there a linear-time algorithm?

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



Repeat in one subarray, depending on j; finished when j equals k.

```
public static Comparable select(Comparable[] a, int
k)
```

```
StdRandom.shuffle(a);
int lo = 0, hi = a.length - 1;
while (hi > lo)
{
    int j = partition(a, lo, hi);
    if (j < k) lo = j + 1;
    else if (j > k) hi = j - 1;
    else return a[k];
}
return a[k];
```



{

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

Repeat in one subarray, depending on j; finished when j equals k.

select element of rank k = 5

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
50	21	28	65	39	59	56	22	95	12	90	53	32	77	33

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



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



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

Repeat in one subarray, depending on j; finished when j equals k.

can safely ignore right subarray

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
22	21	28	33	39	32	12	50	95	56	90	53	59	77	65

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



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



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



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

Repeat in one subarray, depending on j; finished when j equals k.



k = 5

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



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





Proposition. Quick-select takes linear time on average.

Pf sketch.

• Intuitively, each partitioning step splits array approximately in half: $N + N/2 + N/4 + ... + 1 \sim 2N$ compares

Algorithms

ROBERT SEDGEWICK | KEVIN WAYNE

PRIORITY QUEUES

Modified by: Dr. Fahed Jubair and Dr. Ramzi Saifan

Computer Engineering Department

University of Jordan

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Algorithms

 \checkmark

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PRIORITY QUEUES

API and elementary

implementations

ary heaps

heapsort

Algorithms

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A collection is a data types that store groups of items.

data type	key operations	data structure		
stack	Push, Pop	linked list, resizing array		
queue	ENQUEUE, DEQUEUE	linked list, resizing array		
priority queue	INSERT, DELETE-MAX	binary heap		
symbol table	PUT, GET, DELETE	BST, hash table		
set	ADD, CONTAINS, DELETE	BST, hash table		

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



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

Stack. Remove the item most recently added.Queue. Remove the item least recently added.Randomized queue. Remove a random item.

Priority queue. Remove the largest (or smallest) item.

operation	argument	return value
insert	Р	
insert	Q	
insert	E	
remove max	;	Q
insert	Х	
insert	А	
insert	М	
remove max	;	X
insert	Р	
insert	L	
insert	Е	
remove max	;	Ρ

Priority queue applications

- Event-driven simulation.
- Numerical computation.
- Data compression.
- Graph searching.
- Number theory.
- Artificial intelligence.
- Statistics.
- Operating systems.
- Computer networks.
- Discrete optimization.
- Spam filtering.

[customers in a line, colliding particles] [reducing roundoff error] [Huffman codes] [Dijkstra's algorithm, Prim's algorithm] [sum of powers] [A* search] [online median in data stream] [load balancing, interrupt handling] [web cache] [bin packing, scheduling] [Bayesian spam filter]

Generalizes: stack, queue, randomized queue.



Requirement. Generic items are Comparable.

public class MinPQ <key comparable<key="" extends="">></key>						
	MinPQ()	create an empty priority queue				
	MinPQ(Key[] a)	create a priority queue with given keys				
void	insert(Key v)	insert a key into the priority queue				
Кеу	delMin()	return and remove the smallest key				
boolean	isEmpty()	is the priority queue empty?				
Кеу	min()	return the smallest key				
int	size()	number of entries in the priority queue				

Priority queue: unordered array implementation

}



Priority queue elementary implementations

Challenge. Implement all operations efficiently.

implementation	insert	del max	max	
unordered array	1	N	N	
ordered array	N	1	1	
goal	$\log N$	$\log N$	$\log N$	

order of growth of running time for priority queue with N items



API and elementary implementations

binary heaps

heapsort

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Binary tree. Empty or node with links to left and right binary trees.

Complete tree. Perfectly balanced, except for bottom level.



complete tree with N = 16 nodes (height = 4)

Property. Height of complete tree with *N* nodes is $\lfloor \lg N \rfloor$. Pf. Height increases only when *N* is a power of 2. Binary heap. Array representation of a heap-ordered complete binary tree.

Heap-ordered binary tree.

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

Array representation.

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



Heap representations

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

Proposition. Can use array indices to move through tree.

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





Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.



T P R N H O A E I G







Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.



T S R N P O A E I G H

Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.





1

Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.

remove the maximum



11

1

Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.

remove the maximum



11

Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.





Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.





Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.





Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.



S P R N H O A E I G

Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.

remove the maximum



S P R N H O A E I G

Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.



Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.



Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.





Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.





Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.



R	Р	0	Ν	Н	G	А	Е	I	S	
1		3			6					

Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.



R P O N H G A E I










Insert. Add node at end, then swim it up.

Remove the maximum. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down.



S R O N P G A E I H

Scenario. Child's key becomes larger key than its parent's key.

To eliminate the violation:

- Exchange key in child with key in parent.
- Repeat until heap order restored.

```
private void swim(int k)
{
    while (k > 1 && less(k/2, k))
    {
        exch(k, k/2);
        k = k/2;
        parent of node at k is at k/2
    }
}
```



Peter principle. Node promoted to level of incompetence.

Insertion in a heap

Insert. Add node at end, then swim it up. Cost. At most lg *N* compares.

```
public void insert(Key x)
{
    pq[++N] = x;
    swim(N);
}
```



Scenario. Parent's key becomes smaller than one (or both) of its children's.

To eliminate the violation:

why not smaller child?

- Exchange key in parent with key in larger child.
- Repeat until heap order restored.

```
private void sink(int k)
{
    while (2*k <= N)
    {
        int j = 2*k;
        if (j < N && less(j, j+1)) j++;
        if (!less(k, j)) break;
        exch(k, j);
        k = j;
    }
}</pre>
```



}
Power struggle. Better subordinate promoted.

Delete max. Exchange root with node at end, then sink it down. Cost. At most $2 \lg N$ compares.







implementation	insert	del max	max
unordered array	1	N	N
ordered array	N	1	1
binary heap	$\log N$	$\log N$	1

order-of-growth of running time for priority queue with N items

Multiway heaps.

- Complete *d*-way tree.
- Parent's key no smaller than its children's keys.
- Swim takes $\log_d N$ compares; sink takes $d \log_d N$ compares.



implementation	insert	del max	max
unordered array	1	N	N
ordered array	N	1	1
binary heap	$\log N$	$\log N$	1
d-ary heap	$\log_d N$	$d \log_d N$	1
Fibonacci	1	$\log N^{\dagger}$	1
Brodal queue	1	$\log N$	1
impossible	1	1	1

amortized

order-of-growth of running time for priority queue with N items

Binary heap considerations

Underflow and overflow.

- Underflow: throw exception if deleting from empty PQ.
- Overflow: add no-arg constructor and use resizing array.

Minimum-oriented priority queue.

- Replace less() with greater().
- Implement greater().

Other operations.

- Remove an arbitrary item.
- Change the priority of an item.

> can implement efficiently with sink() and swim()

leads to log N amortized time per op (how to make worst case?)



Q. What is this sorting algorithm?

```
public void sort(String[] a)
{
    int N = a.length;
    MaxPQ<String> pq = new MaxPQ<String>();
    for (int i = 0; i < N; i++)
        pq.insert(a[i]);
    for (int i = N-1; i >= 0; i--)
        a[i] = pq.delMax();
}
```

- Q. What are its properties?
- A. $N \log N$, extra array of length N, not stable.

Heapsort intuition. A heap is an array; do sort in place.

Heapsort

Basic plan for in-place sort.

- View input array as a complete binary tree.
- Heap construction: build a max-heap with all N keys.
- Sortdown: repeatedly remove the maximum key.



```
public class Heap
{
   public static void sort(Comparable[] a)
   {
      int N = a.length;
      for (int k = N/2; k \ge 1; k = -)
         sink(a, k, N);
      while (N > 1)
      {
         exch(a, 1, N);
         sink(a, 1, --N);
but make static (and pass arguments)
      }
   }
   private static void sink(Comparable[] a, int k, int N)
   { /* as before 🏹
   private static boolean less(Comparable[] a, int i, int j)
   { /* as before */ }
                                  but convert from 1-based
                                 indexing to 0-base indexing
   private static void exch(Object[] a, int i, int j)
```

















S O R T L X A M P E E







S O R T L X A M P E E







6



S O X T L A A M P E E









S T X P L R A M O E E









X T S P L R A M O E E

Sortdown. Repeatedly delete the largest remaining item.

exchange 1 and 11





Sortdown. Repeatedly delete the largest remaining item.

exchange 1 and 11





Heapsort demo

1

Sortdown. Repeatedly delete the largest remaining item.





Sortdown. Repeatedly delete the largest remaining item.





1 2

Sortdown. Repeatedly delete the largest remaining item.






Т	Р	S	0	L	R	А	Μ	Е	Е	Х
1	2		4					9		



T P S O L R A M E E X













S	Р	R	0	L	Е	А	Μ	Е	Т	Х
1		3			6					



S P R O L E A M E T X





Sortdown. Repeatedly delete the largest remaining item.



E P R O L E A M S T X

Sortdown. Repeatedly delete the largest remaining item.





3

1



R P E O L E A M S T X













R S T X

P O E M L E A R S T X

























R S T X

M L E A E O P R S T X














Heapsort demo





















end of sortdown phase



array in sorted order



Heapsort animation

50 random items algorithm position in order not in order

http://www.sorting-algorithms.com/heap-sort

Heapsort: mathematical analysis

Proposition. Heap construction uses $\leq 2 N$ compares and $\leq N$ exchanges. **Proposition.** Heapsort uses $\leq 2 N \lg N$ compares and exchanges.

algorithm can be improved to $\sim 1 \text{ N} \log \text{ N}$

Significance. In-place sorting algorithm with *N* log *N* worst-case.

- Mergesort: no, linear extra space. in-place merge possible, not practical
- Quicksort: no, quadratic time in worst case. -
- Heapsort: yes!

N log N worst-case quicksort possible, not practical

Bottom line. Heapsort is optimal for both time and space, but:

- Inner loop longer than quicksort's.
- Makes poor use of cache.
- Not stable.

advanced tricks for improving

Sorting algorithms: summary

	inplace?	stable?	best	average	worst	remarks
selection	\checkmark		$1/_{2} N^{2}$	$1/_{2} N^{2}$	$1/_{2} N^{2}$	N exchanges
insertion	\checkmark	\checkmark	N	$^{1}/_{4} N^{2}$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	use for small N or partially ordered
merge		\checkmark	$\frac{1}{2} N \lg N$	N lg N	N lg N	$N \log N$ guarantee; stable
quick	\checkmark		N lg N	$2 N \ln N$	$\frac{1}{2} N^2$	N log N probabilistic guarantee; fastest in practice
heap	\checkmark		N	$2 N \log N$	2 <i>N</i> lg <i>N</i>	N log N guarantee; in-place
?	\checkmark	\checkmark	N	N lg N	$N \lg N$	holy sorting grail

Algorithms

ROBERT SEDGEWICK | KEVIN WAYNE

SYMBOL TABLES

Modified by: Dr. Fahed Jubair and Dr. Ramzi Saifan

Computer Engineering Department

University of Jordan

Robert Sedgewick | Kevin Wayne

Algorithms

 \checkmark

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Key-value pair abstraction.

- Insert a value with specified key.
- Given a key, search for the corresponding value.
- Ex. DNS lookup.
 - Insert domain name with specified IP address.
 - Given domain name, find corresponding IP address.

domain name	IP address		
www.cs.princeton.edu	128.112.136.11		
www.princeton.edu	128.112.128.15		
www.yale.edu	130.132.143.21		
www.harvard.edu	128.103.060.55		
www.simpsons.com	209.052.165.60		
Î	1		
key	value		

application	purpose of search	key	value	
dictionary	find definition	word	definition	
book index	find relevant pages	term	list of page numbers	
file share	find song to download	name of song	computer ID	
financial account	process transactions	account number	transaction details	
web search	find relevant web pages	keyword	list of page names	
compiler	find properties of variables	variable name	type and value	
routing table	route Internet packets	destination	best route	
DNS	find IP address	domain name	IP address	
reverse DNS	find domain name	IP address	domain name	
genomics	find markers	DNA string	known positions	
file system	find file on disk	filename	location on disk	

Also known as: maps, dictionaries, associative arrays.

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

Language support.

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

every object is an table is the only every array is an associative array primitive data structure associative array

Associative array abstraction. Associate one value with each key.



Conventions

- Values are not null. Java allows null value
- Method get() returns null if key not present.
- Method put() overwrites old value with new value.

Intended consequences.

Easy to implement contains().

public boolean contains(Key key)

- { return get(key) != null; }
- Can implement lazy version of delete().

```
public void delete(Key key)
{ put(key, null); }
```

Value type. Any generic type.

Key type: several natural assumptions.

- Assume keys are Comparable, use compareTo().
- Assume keys are any generic type, use equals() to test equality.

Best practices. Use immutable types for symbol table keys.

- Immutable in Java: Integer, Double, String, java.io.File, ...
- Mutable in Java: StringBuilder, java.net.URL, arrays, ...

All Java classes inherit a method equals().

Java requirements. For any references x, y and z:

- Reflexive: x.equals(x) is true.
- Symmetric: x.equals(y) iff y.equals(x).
- Transitive: if x.equals(y) and y.equals(z), then x.equals(z).
- Non-null: x.equals(null) is false.

do x and y refer to
 the same object?
Default implementation. (x == y)
Customized implementations. Integer, Double, String, java.io.File, ...
User-defined implementations. Some care needed.

equivalence

relation

Implementing equals for user-defined types

```
Seems easy.
```

```
public
       class Date implements
Comparable<Date>
{
   private final int month;
   private final int day;
   private final int year;
   . . .
   public boolean equals(Date that)
   {
      if (this.day != that.day ) return false;
      if (this.month != that.month) return false;
      if (this.year != that.year ) return false;
                                                           check that all significant
      return true;
                                                           fields are the same
   }
}
```

Implementing equals for user-defined types



Equals design

"Standard" recipe for user-defined types.

- Optimization for reference equality.
- Check against null.
- Check that two objects are of the same type and cast.
- Compare each significant field:
 - if field is a primitive type, use ==
 - if field is an object, use equals()
 - if field is an array, apply to each entry
- but use Double.compare() with double
 (or otherwise deal with -0.0 and NaN) apply rule recursively
 can use Arrays.deepEquals(a, b)

but not a.equals(b)

Best practices.

- Compare fields mostly likely to differ first.
- Make compareTo() consistent with equals().

x.equals(y) if and only if (x.compareTo(y) == 0)

SYMBOL TABLES

~AP

elementary implementations

dered operations

Algorithms

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Data structure. Maintain an (unordered) linked list of key-value pairs.

Search. Scan through all keys until find a match.

Insert. Scan through all keys until find a match; if no match add to front.



Trace of linked-list ST implementation for standard indexing client

	guarantee		average case		key
ST implementation	search	insert	search hit	insert	interface
sequential search (unordered list)	Ν	N	N / 2	N	equals()

Challenge. Efficient implementations of both search and insert.

Data structure. Maintain an ordered array of key-value pairs.

Rank helper function. How many keys < *k*?



```
public Value get(Key key)
{
    if (isEmpty()) return null;
    int i = rank(key);
    if (i < N && keys[i].compareTo(key) == 0) return vals[i];</pre>
    else return null;
 }
private int rank(Key key)
                                              number of keys < key
 {
    int lo = 0, hi = N-1;
    while (lo <= hi)</pre>
    {
        int mid = 10 + (hi - 10) / 2;
        int cmp = key.compareTo(keys[mid]);
            (cmp < 0) hi = mid - 1;
        if
        else if (cmp > 0) lo = mid + 1;
        else
                            return mid;
   }
   return lo;
}
```

Binary search: trace of standard indexing client

Problem. To insert, need to shift all greater keys over.



CT implementation	guarantee		average case		key	
STIMPlementation	search	insert	search hit	insert	interface	
sequential search (unordered list)	N	N	N / 2	N	equals()	
binary search (ordered array)	log N	(2*N)	$\log N$	N	compareTo()	

Challenge. Efficient implementations of both search and insert.

SYMBOL TABLES

AP

elementary implementations ordered operations

Algorithms

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	keys	values
min()—	→09:00:00	Chicago
	09:00:03	Phoenix
	09:00:13	Houston
get(09:00:13)-	09:00:59	Chicago
	09:01:10	Houston
floor(09:05:00)	→ 09:03:13	Chicago
	09:10:11	Seattle
select(7)—	→09:10:25	Seattle
	09:14:25	Phoenix
	09:19:32	Chicago
	09:19:46	Chicago
keys(09:15:00, 09:25:00)→	- 09:21:05	Chicago
	09:22:43	Seattle
	09:22:54	Seattle
	09:25:52	Chicago
ceiling(09:30:00)—	→ 09:35:21	Chicago
	09:36:14	Seattle
max()—	→ 09:37:44	Phoenix
size(09:15:00, 09:25:00) is	5	

Ordered symbol table API

. . .

public class ST<Key extends Comparable<Key>, Value>

Key min() smallest key Key max() largest key Key floor(Key key) largest key less than or equal to key Key ceiling(Key key) smallest key greater than or equal to key int rank(Key key) number of keys less than key Key select(int k) key of rank k void deleteMin() delete smallest key void deleteMax() delete largest key int size(Key lo, Key hi) number of keys between lo and hi Iterable<Key> keys() all keys, in sorted order Iterable<Key> keys(Key lo, Key hi) keys between lo and hi, in sorted order

	sequential search	binary <u>se</u> searc h
search	N	$\log N$
insert / delete	N	N
min / max	N	1
floor / ceiling	N	$\log N$
rank	N	$\log N$
select	N	1
ordered iteration	$N \log N$	N

order of growth of the running time for ordered symbol table operations

Algorithms

ROBERT SEDGEWICK | KEVIN WAYNE

BINARY SEARCH TREES

Modified by: Dr. Fahed Jubair and Dr. Ramzi Saifan

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

A binary tree is either:

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

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

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





Java definition. A BST is a reference to a root Node.

A Node is composed of four fields:

- A Key and a Value.
- A reference to the left and right subtree.





Binary search tree

```
public class BST<Key extends Comparable<Key>, Value>
{
   private Node root;
                                                             root of BST
   private class Node
   { /* see previous slide */ }
   public void put(Key key, Value val)
   { /* see next slides */ }
   public Value get(Key key)
   { /* see next slides */ }
   public void delete(Key key)
   { /* see next slides */ }
   public Iterable<Key> iterator()
   { /* see next slides */ }
}
```

Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.



Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.



Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.

successful search for H compare H and E S (go right) Н Ε R A Η Μ

Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.



Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.



Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.



Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.



Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.



Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.



Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.



Search. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if equal, search hit.







Insert. If less, go left; if greater, go right; if null, insert.

insert G













Get. Return value corresponding to given key, or null if no such key.

```
public Value get(Key key)
{
  Node x = root;
  while (x != null)
   {
     int cmp = key.compareTo(x.key);
     if (cmp < 0) x = x.left;
     else if (cmp > 0) x = x.right;
     else if (cmp == 0) return x.val;
   }
   return null;
}
```

Cost. Number of compares is equal to 1 + depth of node.

Put. Associate value with key.

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

Cost. Number of compares is equal to 1 + depth of node.

Put. Associate value with key.

Search for key, then two cases:

- Key in tree \Rightarrow reset value.
- Key not in tree \Rightarrow add new node.



Insertion into a BST

- Many BSTs correspond to same set of keys.
- Number of compares for search/insert is equal to 1 + depth of node.



Bottom line. Tree shape depends on order of insertion.

Ex. Insert keys in random order.



implementation	guarantee		average case		operations
	search	insert	search hit	insert	on keys
sequential search (unordered list)	N	N	¹∕₂ N	N	equals()
binary search (ordered array)	lg N	N	lg N	$\frac{1}{2} N$	compareTo()
BST	N	N	1.39 lg N	1.39 lg N	compareTo()

BINARY SEARCH TREES

ordered operations

BSTS

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Minimum. Smallest key in table. Maximum. Largest key in table.



Q. How to find the min / max?

Floor. Largest key \leq a given key. Ceiling. Smallest key \geq a given key.


Case 1. [*k* equals the key in the node] The floor of *k* is *k*.

Case 2. [k is less than the key in the node] The floor of k is in the left subtree.

Case 3. [k is greater than the key in the node] The floor of k is in the right subtree (if there is any key $\leq k$ in right subtree); otherwise it is the key in the node.



Computing the floor

}

```
public Key floor(Key key)
{
   Node x = floor(root, key);
   if (x == null) return null;
   return x.key;
}
private Node floor(Node x, Key key)
{
   if (x == null) return null;
   int cmp = key.compareTo(x.key);
   if (cmp == 0) return x;
   if (cmp < 0) return floor(x.left, key);</pre>
   Node t = floor(x.right, key);
   if (t != null) return t;
   else
                  return x;
```



Q. How to implement size(), rank() and select() efficiently?

A. In each node, we store the number of nodes in the subtree rooted at that node; to implement size(), return the count at the root.



BST implementation: subtree counts

```
private class Node
                                    public int size()
{
                                      return size(root); }
                                    {
   private Key key;
   private Value val;
                                    private int size(Node x)
   private Node left;
                                    {
   private Node right;
                                       if (x == null) return 0;
   private int count;
                                       return x.count;
}
                                    }
                     number of nodes in subtree
     private Node put(Node x, Key key, Value val)
                                                         initialize subtree
      {
                                                            count to 1
        if (x == null) return new Node(key, val, 1);
        int cmp = key.compareTo(x.key);
        if
                 (cmp < 0) x.left = put(x.left, key, val);
```

```
else if (cmp > 0) x.right = put(x.right, key, val);
else if (cmp == 0) x.val = val;
```

```
x.count = 1 + size(x.left) + size(x.right);
```

return x;

Rank

Rank. How many keys < *k*?

Easy recursive algorithm (3 cases!)



```
public int rank(Key key)
{ return rank(key, root); }
private int rank(Key key, Node x)
{
    if (x == null) return 0;
    int cmp = key.compareTo(x.key);
    if (cmp < 0) return rank(key, x.left);
    else if (cmp > 0) return 1 + size(x.left) + rank(key, x.right);
    else if (cmp == 0) return size(x.left);
}
```

Selection

Select. Key of given rank.

```
public Key select(int k)
{
    if (k < 0) return null;
    if (k >= size()) return null;
    Node x = select(root, k);
    return x.key;
}
private Node select(Node x, int k)
{
   if (x == null) return null;
   int t = size(x.left);
   if (t > k)
      return select(x.left, k);
   else if (t < k)
      return select(x.right, k-t-1);
   else if (t == k)
      return x;
}
```



- Traverse left subtree.
- Enqueue key.
- Traverse right subtree.

```
public Iterable<Key> keys()
{
    Queue<Key> q = new Queue<Key>();
    inorder(root, q);
    return q;
}
private void inorder(Node x, Queue<Key> q)
{
   if (x == null) return;
   inorder(x.left, q);
   q.enqueue(x.key);
   inorder(x.right, q);
}
```



Property. Inorder traversal of a BST yields keys in ascending order.

Inorder traversal

- Traverse left subtree.
- Enqueue key.
- Traverse right subtree.

inorder(S) inorder(E) inorder(A) enqueue A inorder(C) enqueue C enqueue E inorder(R) inorder(H) enqueue H inorder(M) enqueue M enqueue R enqueue S inorder(X) enqueue X

	S					
	S	Ε				
	S	Ε	A			
A						
	S	Ε	Α	С		
C						
E						
	S	Ε	R			
	S	E	R	Η		
н						
	S	Ε	R	Η	Μ	
М						
R						
S						
	S	Х				
X	_	_				_



	Sequential search	Binary search	BST	
search	N	$\lg N$	h	
insert	N	Ν	h	h - boight of PST
min / max	N	1	h	(proportional to log N if keys inserted in random order)
floor / ceiling	N	$\lg N$	h	
rank	N	lg N	h	
select	N	1	h	
ordered iteration	$N \log N$	N	N	

order of growth of running time of ordered symbol table operations



		guarantee	2	a	verage case		ordered	operations
implementation	search	insert	delete	search hit	insert	delete	ops?	on keys
sequential search list)	Ν	Ν	Ν	¹∕₂ N	N	½ N		equals()
binary search <mark>sep</mark> (ordered array)	lg N	Ν	Ν	lg N	¹∕₂ N	½ N	\checkmark	compareTo()
BST	Ν	Ν	Ν	1.39 lg <i>N</i>	1.39 lg <i>N</i>	???	\checkmark	compareTo()

Next. Deletion in BSTs.

Deleting the minimum

To delete the minimum key:

- Go left until finding a node with a null left link.
- Replace that node by its right link.
- Update subtree counts.

```
public void deleteMin()
{ root = deleteMin(root); }
```

}

```
private Node deleteMin(Node x)
{
```

```
if (x.left == null) return x.right;
x.left = deleteMin(x.left);
x.count = 1 + size(x.left) + size(x.right);
return x;
```



To delete a node with key k: search for node t containing key k.

Case 0. [0 children] Delete t by setting parent link to null.



To delete a node with key k: search for node t containing key k.

Case 1. [1 child] Delete t by replacing parent link.



To delete a node with key k: search for node t containing key k.

Case 2. [2 children]

left link

Find successor x of t. x has no left child Delete the minimum in t's right subtree. but don't garbage collect x Put x in t's spot. still a BST node to delete deleteMin(t.right) t.left *search for key* E successor min(t.right) go right, then update links and go left until node counts after reaching null

recursive calls

```
public void delete(Key key)
{ root = delete(root, key); }
private Node delete(Node x, Key key) {
   if (x == null) return null;
   int cmp = key.compareTo(x.key);
   if
            (cmp < 0) x.left = delete(x.left, key);</pre>
                                                                      search for key
   else if (cmp > 0) x.right = delete(x.right, key);
   else {
      if (x.right == null) return x.left;
                                                                      no right child
                                                                       no left child
      if (x.left == null) return x.right;
      Node t = x;
                                                                      replace with
      x = min(t.right);
                                                                       successor
      x.right = deleteMin(t.right);
      x.left = t.left;
   }
   x.count = size(x.left) + size(x.right) + 1;
                                                                      update subtree
   return x;
                                                                         counts
}
```

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Hibbard deletion: analysis

Unsatisfactory solution. Not symmetric.



Surprising consequence. Trees not random (!) $\Rightarrow \sqrt{N}$ per op. Longstanding open problem. Simple and efficient delete for BSTs.

	guarantee			average case			ordered	operations
Implementation	search	insert	delete	search hit	insert	delete	ops?	on keys
sequential search list)	Ν	Ν	Ν	¹∕₂ N	Ν	¹∕₂ N		equals()
binary search <u>sep</u> (ordered array)	lg N	Ν	Ν	lg N	¹∕₂ N	¹∕₂ N	\checkmark	compareTo()
BST	Ν	Ν	Ν	1.39 lg <i>N</i>	1.39 lg N	\sqrt{N}		compareTo()
					other o	operations a if deletions	also become 🗸 allowed	/N

Algorithms

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HASH TABLES

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implomentation		guarantee			average case		ordered	key interface
implementation	search	insert	delete	search hit	insert	delete	ops?	
sequential search (unordered list)	N	N	Ν	½ N	N	½ N		equals()
binary search هrray)	lg N	Ν	Ν	lg N	$1/_{2} N$	$1/_{2} N$	\checkmark	compareTo()
BST	Ν	Ν	Ν	1.39 lg N	1.39 lg <i>N</i>	\sqrt{N}	\checkmark	compareTo()
red-black BST	2 lg N	2 lg N	2 lg <i>N</i>	1.0 lg N	1.0 lg N	1.0 lg N	\checkmark	compareTo()

Optional Read: red-black BST, 3.5 in textbook

- Q. Can we do better?
- A. Yes, but with different access to the data.

Save items in a key-indexed table (index is a function of the key).





0

Issues.

- Computing the hash function.
- Equality test: Method for checking whether two keys are equal.
- Collision resolution: Algorithm and data structure to handle two keys that hash to the same array index.

Classic space-time tradeoff.

- No space limitation: trivial hash function with key as index.
- No time limitation: trivial collision resolution with sequential search.
- Space and time limitations: hashing (the real world).

HASH TABLES

separate chaining

inear probind

hash functions

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Computing the hash function

Idealistic goal. Scramble the keys uniformly to produce a table index.

- Efficiently computable.
- Each table index equally likely for each key.

thoroughly researched problem, still problematic in practical applications

Ex 1. Phone numbers.

- Bad: first three digits.
- Better: last three digits.

Ex 2. Social Security numbers.

- Bad: first three digits.
- Better: last three digits.



(assigned in chronological order within geographic region)

Practical challenge. Need different approach for each key type.



All Java classes inherit a method hashCode(), which returns a 32-bit int.

Requirement. If x.equals(y), then (x.hashCode() == y.hashCode()).
Highly desirable. If !x.equals(y), then (x.hashCode() != y.hashCode()).



Default implementation. Memory address of x. Legal (but poor) implementation. Always return 17. Customized implementations. Integer, Double, String, File, URL, Date, ... User-defined types. Users are on their own.

Implementing hash code: integers, booleans, and doubles

Java library implementations

```
public final class Integer
{
    private final int value;
    ...
    public int hashCode()
    { return value; }
}
```

```
public final class Boolean
{
    private final boolean value;
    ...
    public int hashCode()
    {
        if (value) return 1231;
        else return 1237;
```

```
public final class Double
{
   private final double value;
    . . .
   public int hashCode()
   {
       long bits = doubleToLongBits(value);
       return (int) (bits ^ (bits >>> 32));
   }
}
            convert to IEEE 64-bit representation;
                xor most significant 32-bits
                with least significant 32-bits
```

Warning: -0.0 and +0.0 have different hash codes

Implementing hash code: strings

```
Java library implementation
```

```
public final class String
{
    private final char[] s;
    ...
    public int hashCode()
    {
        int hash = 0;
        for (int i = 0; i < length(); i++)
            hash = s[i] + (31 * hash);
        return hash;
    }
}</pre>
```

char	Unicode
'a'	97
'b'	98
'c'	99

- Horner's method to hash string of length L: L multiplies/adds.
- Equivalent to $h = s[0] \cdot 31^{L-1} + \ldots + s[L-3] \cdot 31^2 + s[L-2] \cdot 31^1 + s[L-1] \cdot 31^0$.

Ex. String s = "call";
int code = s.hashCode();
$$3045982 = 99 \cdot 31^3 + 97 \cdot 31^2 + 108 \cdot 31^1 + 108 \cdot 31^0$$
$$= 108 + 31 \cdot (108 + 31 \cdot (97 + 31 \cdot (99)))$$

Implementing hash code: strings

Performance optimization.

- Cache the hash value in an instance variable.
- Return cached value.



Q. What if hashCode() of string is 0?

Implementing hash code: user-defined types

```
public final class Transaction implements Comparable<Transaction>
{
   private final String who;
   private final Date
                          when;
   private final double amount;
   public Transaction(String who, Date when, double amount)
   { /* as before */ }
   public boolean equals(Object y)
   { /* as before */ }
   public int hashCode()
   {
                                  nonzero constant
      int hash = 17;
                                                                          for reference types,
      hash = 31*hash + who.hashCode();
                                                                          use hashCode()
      hash = 31*hash + when.hashCode();
                                                                          for primitive types,
      hash = 31*hash + ((Double) amount).hashCode();
                                                                          use hashCode()
      return hash;
                        typically a small prime
                                                                          of wrapper type
   }
}
```

Hash code design

"Standard" recipe for user-defined types.

- Combine each significant field using the 31x + y rule.
- If field is a primitive type, use wrapper type hashCode().
- If field is null, return 0.
- If field is a reference type, use hashCode(). ______ applies rule recursively
- If field is an array, apply to each entry.

In practice. Recipe works reasonably well; used in Java libraries. In theory. Keys are bitstring; "universal" hash functions exist.

Basic rule. Need to use the whole key to compute hash code; consult an expert for state-of-the-art hash codes.

or use Arrays.deepHashCode()

Modular hashing



Uniform hashing assumption

Uniform hashing assumption. Each key is equally likely to hash to an integer between 0 and M - 1.

Bins and balls. Throw balls uniformly at random into *M* bins.



Birthday problem. Expect two balls in the same bin after $\sim \sqrt{\pi M/2}$ tosses.

Coupon collector. Expect every bin has ≥ 1 ball after $\sim M \ln M$ tosses.

Load balancing. After *M* tosses, expect most loaded bin has $\Theta(\log M / \log \log M)$ balls.

Uniform hashing assumption

Uniform hashing assumption. Each key is equally likely to hash to an integer between 0 and M - 1.

Bins and balls. Throw balls uniformly at random into *M* bins.





Java's String data uniformly distribute the keys of Tale of Two Cities

HASH TABLES

hash functions
 separate chaining

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Collisions

Collision. Two distinct keys hashing to same index.

- Birthday problem \Rightarrow can't avoid collisions unless you have a ridiculous (quadratic) amount of memory.
- Coupon collector + load balancing \Rightarrow collisions are evenly distributed.



Challenge. Deal with collisions efficiently.

Separate-chaining symbol table

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

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



Separate-chaining symbol table: Java implementation

```
public class SeparateChainingHashST<Key, Value>
{
  private int M = 97;
                      // number of chains
                                                               array doubling and
  private Node[] st = new Node[M]; // array of chains
                                                               halving code omitted
  private static class Node
  {
     private Object key; _____ no generic array creation
     private Node next;
      . . .
  }
  private int hash(Key key)
  { return (key.hashCode() & 0x7fffffff) % M; }
  public Value get(Key key) {
     int i = hash(key);
     for (Node x = st[i]; x != null; x = x.next)
        if (key.equals(x.key)) return (Value) x.val;
     return null;
  }
}
```
Separate-chaining symbol table: Java implementation

```
public class SeparateChainingHashST<Key, Value>
{
                       // number of chains
   private int M = 97;
   private Node[] st = new Node[M]; // array of chains
   private static class Node
   {
     private Object key;
     private Object val;
     private Node next;
      . . .
   private int hash(Key key)
   { return (key.hashCode() & 0x7fffffff) % M; }
   public void put(Key key, Value val) {
     int i = hash(key);
     for (Node x = st[i]; x != null; x = x.next)
         if (key.equals(x.key)) { x.val = val; return; }
      st[i] = new Node(key, val, st[i]);
   }
```

}

Proposition. Under uniform hashing assumption, prob. that the number of keys in a list is within a constant factor of N/M is extremely close to 1.

Consequence. Number of probes for search/insert is proportional to N/M.

- *M* too large \Rightarrow too many empty chains.
- *M* too small \Rightarrow chains too long.
- Typical choice: $M \sim N/4 \Rightarrow$ constant-time ops.

Resizing in a separate-chaining hash table

Goal. Average length of list N/M = constant.

- Double size of array M when $N/M \ge 8$.
- Halve size of array M when $N/M \leq 2$.
- Need to rehash all keys when resizing.

x.hashCode() does not change
 but hash(x) can change



after resizing



Deletion in a separate-chaining hash table

- Q. How to delete a key (and its associated value)?
- A. Easy: need only consider chain containing key.









implementation	guarantee			average case			ordered	key
	search	insert	delete	search hit	insert	delete	ops?	interface
sequential search list)	Ν	Ν	Ν	$^{1}\!/_{2} N$	N	$\frac{1}{2}N$		equals()
binary search array)	lg N	Ν	Ν	lg N	$1/_{2} N$	$1/_{2} N$	\checkmark	compareTo()
BST	Ν	Ν	Ν	1.39 lg N	1.39 lg <i>N</i>	\sqrt{N}	\checkmark	compareTo()
red-black BST	2 lg N	2 lg N	2 lg N	1.0 lg N	1.0 lg N	1.0 lg N	\checkmark	compareTo()
separate chaining	Ν	Ν	Ν	3-5 *	3-5 *	3-5 *		equals() hashCode()

* under uniform hashing assumption



hash functions

linear probing

separate chaining

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Open addressing. [Amdahl-Boehme-Rocherster-Samuel, IBM 1953] When a new key collides, find next empty slot, and put it there.



linear probing (M = 30001, N = 15000)

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

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





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

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



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

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

insert ^S hash(S) = 6



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

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

insert ^S hash(S) = 6



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

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

insert ^S hash(S) = 6



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

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



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

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

insert ^E hash(E) = 10



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

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

insert ^E hash(E) = 10



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

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

insert ^E hash(E) = 10



M = 16

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

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



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

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

insert Ahash(A) = 4



M = 16

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

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

insert Ahash(A) = 4



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

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

insert A hash(A) = 4



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

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



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

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

insert ^R hash(R) = 14



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

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

insert ^R hash(R) = 14



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

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

insert ^R hash(R) = 14



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

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



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

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

insert ^C hash(C) = 5



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

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

insert^C hash(C) = 5



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

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

insert ^C hash(C) = 5



M = 16

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

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



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

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

insert ^H hash(H) = 4



M = 16

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

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

insert^H hash(H) = 4



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

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

insert ^H hash(H) = 4



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

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

insert ^H hash(H) = 4



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

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

insert ^H hash(H) = 4



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

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

insert ^H hash(H) = 4



M = 16

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

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


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

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

insert ^X hash(X) = 15



M = 16

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

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



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

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

insert ^X hash(X) = 15



M = 16

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

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



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

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

insert^M hash(M) = 1



M = 16

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

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



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

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



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

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



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

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

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	
st[]		М			А	С	S	Н			Е				R	Х	
M = 16																	

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

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



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

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

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
st[]		Μ			А	С	S	н			Е				R	Х
M = 16	Р															Р

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

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

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
st[]	Ρ	М			А	С	S	Н			Е				R	Х
M = 16																

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

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



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

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

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
st[]	Р	М			А	С	S	н			Е				R	Х
M = 16																

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

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



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

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



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

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



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

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

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
st[]	Р	Μ			А	С	S	н	L		Е				R	Х
M = 16																

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

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



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

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



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

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

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
st[]	Р	Μ			А	С	S	н	L		Е				R	Х
M = 16																

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

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

search ^E hash(E) = 10



search hit (return corresponding value) Hash. Map key to integer i between 0 and M-1.

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



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

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

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
st[]	Р	М			А	С	S	н	L		Е				R	Х
M = 16																

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

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



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

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



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

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



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

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



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

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

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
st[]	Р	Μ			А	С	S	Н	L		Е				R	Х
M = 16																

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

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



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

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



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

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



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

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



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

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



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

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

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

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




Linear-probing symbol table: Java implementation

```
public class LinearProbingHashST<Key, Value>
{
  private int M = 30001;
  private Value[] vals = (Value[]) new Object[M];
  private Key[] keys = (Key[]) new Object[M];
  private int hash(Key key) { /* as before  */ }
  private Value get(Key key) { /* previous slide */ }
  public void put(Key key, Value val)
   {
     int i;
     for (i = hash(key); keys[i] != null; i = (i+1) % M)
        if (keys[i].equals(key))
            break;
     keys[i] = key;
     vals[i] = val;
  }
}
```

Knuth's parking problem

Model. Cars arrive at one-way street with *M* parking spaces. Each desires a random space i: if space i is taken, try i + 1, i + 2, etc.

Q. What is mean displacement of a car?



Half-full. With M/2 cars, mean displacement is ~ 3/2. Full. With M cars, mean displacement is ~ $\sqrt{\pi M/8}$.

Analysis of linear probing

Proposition. Under uniform hashing assumption, the average # of probes in a linear probing hash table of size *M* that contains $N = \alpha M$ keys is:



search hit

search miss / insert



Parameters.

- *M* too large \Rightarrow too many empty array entries.
- *M* too small \Rightarrow search time blows up.
- Typical choice: $\alpha = N/M \sim \frac{1}{2}$. \leftarrow # probes for search hit is about 3/2

probes for search miss is about 5/2

Resizing in a linear-probing hash table

Goal. Average length of list $N/M \leq \frac{1}{2}$.

- Double size of array M when $N/M \ge \frac{1}{2}$.
- Halve size of array M when $N/M \leq \frac{1}{8}$.
- Need to rehash all keys when resizing.



Deletion in a linear-probing hash table

- **Q.** How to delete a key (and its associated value)?
- A. Requires some care: can't just delete array entries.



ter deleting S	?															
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
keys[]	Ρ	М			А	С		Н	L		Е				R	Х
vals[]	10	9			8	4		5	11		12				3	7

		guarantee			average case	ordered	key	
Implementation	search	insert	delete	search hit	insert	delete	ops?	interface
sequential search list)	Ν	N	Ν	$1/_{2} N$	N	$1/_{2} N$		equals()
binary search هrray)	$\lg N$	Ν	Ν	lg N	$1/_{2} N$	$1/_{2} N$	\checkmark	compareTo()
BST	Ν	Ν	Ν	1.39 lg <i>N</i>	1.39 lg <i>N</i>	\sqrt{N}	\checkmark	compareTo()
red-black BST	2 lg N	2 lg N	2 lg N	1.0 lg N	1.0 lg N	1.0 lg N	\checkmark	compareTo()
separate chaining	Ν	Ν	Ν	3-5 *	3-5 *	3-5 *		equals() hashCode()
linear probing	Ν	Ν	Ν	3-5 *	3-5 *	3-5 *		equals() hashCode()

* under uniform hashing assumption 99

Algorithms

ROBERT SEDGEWICK | KEVIN WAYNE

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Algorithms

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Graph. Set of vertices connected pairwise by edges.

Why study graph algorithms?

- Thousands of practical applications.
- Hundreds of graph algorithms known.
- Interesting and broadly useful abstraction.
- Challenging branch of computer science and discrete math.





Graph applications

graph	vertex	edge
communication	telephone, computer	fiber optic cable
circuit	gate, register, processor	wire
mechanical	joint	rod, beam, spring
financial	stock, currency	transactions
transportation	intersection	street
internet	class C network	connection
game	board position	legal move
social relationship	person	friendship
neural network	neuron	synapse
protein network	protein	protein-protein interaction
molecule	atom	bond

Path. Sequence of vertices connected by edges.

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

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



Some graph-processing problems

problem	description					
s-t path	Is there a path between s and t?					
shortest s-t path	What is the shortest path between s and t?					
cycle	Is there a cycle in the graph ?					
Euler cycle	Is there a cycle that uses each edge exactly once ?					
Hamilton cycle	Is there a cycle that uses each vertex exactly once ?					
connectivity	Is there a way to connect all of the vertices ?					
biconnectivity	Is there a vertex whose removal disconnects the graph ?					
planarity	Can the graph be drawn in the plane with no crossing edges ?					
graph isomorphism	Do two adjacency lists represent the same graph ?					

Challenge. Which graph problems are easy? difficult? intractable?

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Graph representation

Vertex representation.

- This lecture: use integers between 0 and V-1.
- Applications: convert between names and integers with symbol table.



Anomalies.

public class	Graph	
	Graph(int V)	create an empty graph with V vertices
	Graph(In in)	create a graph from input stream
void	addEdge(int v, int w)	add an edge v-w
Iterable <integer></integer>	adj(int v)	vertices adjacent to v
int	V()	number of vertices
int	E()	number of edges
// deg	gree of vertex v in graph	G
public	static int degree(Graph	G, int v)

```
int degree = 0;
for (int w : G.adj(v))
    degree++;
return degree;
}
```

Graph input format.



Maintain a list of the edges (linked list or array).



Q. How long to iterate over vertices adjacent to *v* ?

Maintain a two-dimensional *V*-by-*V* boolean array;

for each edge v-w in graph: adj[v][w] = adj[w][v] = true.



vertices adjacent to v?

Q.

Maintain vertex-indexed array of lists.



Q. How long to iterate over vertices adjacent to *v* ?



Graph representations

In practice. Use adjacency-lists representation.

- Algorithms based on iterating over vertices adjacent to v.
- Real-world graphs tend to be sparse.

huge number of vertices, small average vertex degree



Graph representations

In practice. Use adjacency-lists representation.

- Algorithms based on iterating over vertices adjacent to v.
- Real-world graphs tend to be sparse.

huge number of vertices, small average vertex degree

representation	space	add edge	edge between v and w?	iterate over vertices adjacent to v?
list of edges	E	1	E	E
adjacency matrix	V^2	1 *	1	V
adjacency lists	E + V	1	degree(v)	degree(v)

* disallows parallel edges

Adjacency-list graph representation: Java implementation



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Maze graph.

- Vertex = intersection.
- Edge = passage.



Goal. Explore every intersection in the maze.

Trémaux maze exploration

Algorithm.

- Unroll a ball of string behind you.
- Mark each visited intersection and each visited passage.
- Retrace steps when no unvisited options.



Goal. Systematically traverse a graph.

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

DFS (to visit a vertex v)

Mark v as visited.

Recursively visit all unmarked

vertices w adjacent to v.

Typical applications.

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

Design challenge. How to implement?

To visit a vertex v :

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

Data structures.

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

(edgeTo[w] == v) means that edge v-w taken to visit w for first time

Function-call stack for recursion.

Depth-first search: Java implementation

```
public class DepthFirstPaths
{
   private boolean[] marked;
                                                            marked[v] = true
   private int[] edgeTo;
                                                            if v connected to s
                                                            edgeTo[v] = previous vertex
   private int s;
                                                            on path from s to v
   public DepthFirstPaths(Graph G, int s)
   {
      dfs(G, s);
                                                            initialize data structures
   }
                                                            find vertices connected to s
   private void dfs(Graph G, int v)
   {
                                                            recursive DFS does the work
      marked[v] = true;
       for (int w : G.adj(v))
          if (!marked[w])
          {
              dfs(G, w);
              edgeTo[w] = v;
          }
   }
}
```



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



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



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



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- Recursively visit all unmarked vertices adjacent to v.



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- Recursively visit all unmarked vertices adjacent to v.



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- Recursively visit all unmarked vertices adjacent to v.



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- Recursively visit all unmarked vertices adjacent to v.



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



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



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



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



Proposition. DFS marks all vertices connected to *s* in time proportional to the sum of their degrees (plus time to initialize the marked[] array).

Pf. [correctness]

- If w marked, then w connected to s (why?)
- If w connected to s, then w marked.
 (if w unmarked, then consider last edge on a path from s to w that goes from a marked vertex to an unmarked one).

Pf. [running time]

Each vertex connected to *s* is visited once.



Depth-first search: properties

Proposition. After DFS, can check if vertex v is connected to s in constant time and can find v-s path (if one exists) in time proportional to its length.

Pf. edgeTo[] is parent-link representation of a tree rooted at vertex s.

```
public boolean hasPathTo(int v)
{ return marked[v]; }
public Iterable<Integer> pathTo(int v)
{
    if (!hasPathTo(v)) return null;
    Stack<Integer> path = new tack<Integer>();
    for (int x = v; x != s; x = edgeTo[x])
        path.push(x);
    path.push(s);
    return path;
```

}



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Repeat until queue is empty:

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



BFS (from source vertex s)

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

Repeat until the queue is empty:

- remove the least recently added vertex v
- add each of v's unvisited neighbors to the queue,

and mark them as visited.





Breadth-first search: Java implementation

```
public class BreadthFirstPaths
{
   private boolean[] marked;
   private int[] edgeTo;
   private int[] distTo;
   private void bfs(Graph G, int s) {
      Queue<Integer> q = new Queue<Integer>();
                                                             initialize FIFO queue of
      q.enqueue(s);
      marked[s] = true;
                                                            vertices to explore
      distTo[s] = 0;
      while (!q.isEmpty()) {
         int v = q.dequeue();
         for (int w : G.adj(v)) {
            if (!marked[w]) {
                                                             found new vertex w
                q.enqueue(w);
                                                            via edge v-w
                marked[w] = true;
                edgeTo[w] = v;
                distTo[w] = distTo[v] + 1;
            }
         }
      }
   }
```

Repeat until queue is empty:

Remove vertex v from queue.





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



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



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



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



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


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



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



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



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



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



Breadth-first search properties

- Q. In which order does BFS examine vertices?
- A. Increasing distance (number of edges) from *s*.

queue always consists of ≥ 0 vertices of distance k from s, followed by ≥ 0 vertices of distance k+1

Proposition. In any connected graph *G*, BFS computes shortest paths from *s* to all other vertices in time proportional to E + V.



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Def. Vertices *v* and *w* are **connected** if there is a path between them.

Goal. Preprocess graph to answer queries of the form *is v connected to w?* in constant time.

public class	CC	
	CC(Graph G)	find connected components in G
boolean	<pre>connected(int v, int w)</pre>	are v and w connected?
int	count()	number of connected components
int	id(int v)	<i>component identifier for v</i> (<i>between</i> 0 <i>and</i> count () - 1)

Connected components

The relation "is connected to" is an equivalence relation:

- Reflexive: v is connected to v.
- Symmetric: if *v* is connected to *w*, then *w* is connected to *v*.
- Transitive: if v connected to w and w connected to x, then v connected to x.
- **Def.** A **connected component** is a maximal set of connected vertices.

	V	id[]
	0	0
	1	0
	2	0
(1) (2) (6)	3	0
	4	0
	5	0
	6	0
	7	1
	8	1
3 connected components	9	2
	10	2
	11	2
Remark. Given connected components, can answer queries in const	ant t	ime.

Finding connected components with DFS





Connected components demo

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



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Algorithms

ROBERT SEDGEWICK | KEVIN WAYNE

DIRECTED GRAPHS

Modified by: Dr. Fahed Jubair and Dr. Ramzi Saifan

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ROBERT SEDGEWICK | KEVIN WAYNE

Algorithms

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staph search

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digraph AP

Algorithms

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Digraph. Set of vertices connected pairwise by **directed** edges.



Digraph applications

digraph	vertex	directed edge
transportation	street intersection	one-way street
web	web page	hyperlink
food web	species	predator-prey relationship
WordNet	synset	hypernym
scheduling	task	precedence constraint
financial	bank	transaction
cell phone	person	placed call
infectious disease	person	infection
game	board position	legal move
citation	journal article	citation
object graph	object	pointer
inheritance hierarchy	class	inherits from
control flow	code block	jump
problem	description	
---------------------	--	--
s→t path	Is there a path from s to t?	
shortest s→t path	What is the shortest path from s to t?	
directed cycle	Is there a directed cycle in the graph ?	
topological sort	Can the digraph be drawn so that all edges point upwards?	
strong connectivity	Is there a directed path between all pairs of vertices ?	
transitive closure	For which vertices v and w is there a directed path from v to w?	
PageRank	What is the importance of a web page ?	



Almost identical to Graph API.

public class	Digraph	
	Digraph(int V)	create an empty digraph with V vertices
	Digraph(In in)	create a digraph from input stream
void	addEdge(int v, int w)	add a directed edge $v \rightarrow w$
Iterable <integer></integer>	adj(int v)	vertices pointing from v
int	V()	number of vertices
int	E()	number of edges
Digraph	reverse()	reverse of this digraph
String	toString()	string representation



Digraph representation: adjacency lists

Maintain vertex-indexed array of lists.





Digraph representations

In practice. Use adjacency-lists representation.

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

huge number of vertices, small average vertex degree

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

[†] disallows parallel edges

Adjacency-lists graph representation (review): Java implementation

```
public class Graph
{
   private final int V;
   private final Bag<Integer>[] adj;
                                                      adjacency lists
   public Graph(int V)
   {
      this.V = V;
      adj = (Bag<Integer>[]) new Bag[V];
                                                      create empty graph
                                                      with V vertices
      for (int v = 0; v < V; v++)
          adj[v] = new Bag<Integer>();
   }
   public void addEdge(int v, int w)
                                                      add edge v-w
   {
      adj[v].add(w);
      adj[w].add(v);
   }
   public Iterable<Integer> adj(int v)
                                                      iterator for vertices
     return adj[v]; }
   {
                                                      adjacent to v
}
```

Adjacency-lists digraph representation: Java implementation



DIRECTED GRAPHS

introduction

digraph AP

digraph search

topological sort

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Algorithms

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Problem. Find all vertices reachable from *s* along a directed path.



Same method as for undirected graphs.

- Every undirected graph is a digraph (with edges in both directions).
- DFS is a digraph algorithm.

DFS (to visit a vertex v)

Mark v as visited.

Recursively visit all unmarked

vertices w pointing from v.

Depth-first search demo

Mark vertex *v* as visited.

To visit a vertex v :

4→2

 $2 \rightarrow 3$

6→0

• Recursively visit all unmarked vertices pointing from v. $3 \rightarrow 2$



- 8→6
- 5→4
- 0→5
 - 6→4

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Depth-first search demo

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Depth-first search (in undirected graphs)

Recall code for undirected graphs. public class DepthFirstSearch { private boolean[] marked; public DepthFirstSearch(Graph G, int s) true if connected to s ł marked = new boolean[G.V()]; dfs(G, s); constructor marks vertices connected to s } private void dfs(Graph G, int v) { recursive DFS does the work marked[v] = true; for (int w : G.adj(v)) if (!marked[w]) dfs(G, w); } public boolean visited(int v) client can ask whether any { return marked[v]; } vertex is connected to s }

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Code for directed graphs identical to undirected one.

[substitute Digraph for Graph]

Every data structure is a digraph.

- Vertex = object.
- Edge = reference.

Roots. Objects known to be directly accessible by program (e.g., stack).

Reachable objects. Objects indirectly accessible by program (starting at a root and following a chain of pointers).

Reachability application: mark-sweep garbage collector

Mark-sweep algorithm. [McCarthy, 1960]

- Mark: mark all reachable objects.
- Sweep: if object is unmarked, it is garbage (so add to free list).

Memory cost. Uses 1 extra mark bit per object (plus DFS stack).

Same method as for undirected graphs.

- Every undirected graph is a digraph (with edges in both directions).
- BFS is a digraph algorithm.

BFS (from source vertex s)

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

Repeat until the queue is empty:

- remove the least recently added vertex v
- for each unmarked vertex pointing from v:

add to queue and mark as visited.

Proposition. BFS computes shortest paths (fewest number of edges) from *s* to all other vertices in a digraph in time proportional to E + V.
Remove vertex v from queue.



• Add to queue all unmarked vertices pointing from *v* and mark them.



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