COMPSCI 220S2C, 2007

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Introduction and Background Heapsort



2 Analysis of Searching

- List implementations
- Tree implementations
- Hashing implementations

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Heapsort

Selection sort improvement idea

• In selection sort, finding the minimum of a[i..n-1] by sequential search is slow, and it dominates the running time. Can we do this operation faster?

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- Not with the current data structure. What about a different one?
- We want a data structure that allows us to find and extract the minimum quickly.

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Heapsort

Priority queues

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- Priority queues are important in many areas: discrete event simulation, graph algorithms (later in this course), sorting.
- Priority queues can be implemented in many ways: unsorted list, sorted list, binary heap, binomial heap,

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 - If we use a sorted list to implement Q, we obtain insertion sort. Insertion takes $\Theta(n)$ time but deletion is O(1).
 - We can do better with an implementation in which insertion and deletion each take time in $O(\log n)$. The simplest is the binary heap.

Heapsort

Priority queue sort pseudocode

```
algorithm pqsort (list a)

Q \leftarrow \text{pqbuild}(a)

t = \text{list}()

while not Q.\text{empty}

t.\text{add}(\text{delete}(Q))

return t

end
```

Analysis of Searching

Heapsort

Priority queue: binary heap implementation

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 - Keys are stored in nodes.
 - To insert a node, create a new leaf at the bottom level as far left as possible. Swap it upward until no swap is required.
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- A heap is sometimes called a tournament.

Heapsort

Array representation of binary heap

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- To insert a key x, put it in position n + 1 and swap as above.
- To delete the root, swap a[1] with a[n], and swap as above. Note that deleted elements end up at the end of the array.

Heapsort

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- Detailed average-case analysis is more difficult, but the best and worst case are not very different.

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- There is also a way to delete the maximum that is about twice as fast on average: it involves swapping down a long way and then swapping back up if necessary. See me for more details.
- There is still serious research being done on better priority queue implementations.

Summary of sorting algorithms

Table: Characteristics of sorting methods

Method	Worst	Average	Best	Stable?	In-place?
Insertion	n^2	n^2	n	Yes	Yes
Selection	n^2	n^2	n^2	No	Yes
Shellsort	??	??	n	No	Yes
Mergesort	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	Yes	No
Quicksort	n^2	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	No	Almost
Heapsort	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	$n\log n$	No	Yes

Running times give asymptotic order only. Shellsort analysis depends on the increments used, and is difficult. Quicksort needs a stack of size $\Theta(\log n)$ for the recursion.

Selection

- Fix r with 1 ≤ r ≤ n. We want to find the element with rth key from an input list (the rth order statistic). Should be easier than sorting!
- Building a priority queue and extracting is probably too much work even if r = 1, certainly if r = n/2.
- One approach is to use the quicksort idea. At each stage we only need to make a recursive call on one half of the array because we know where the pivot is relative to the desired element.
- The recurrence for the average number of comparisons has the form $E(n) = n + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} E(p)$. This has a solution that is $\Theta(n)$. See textbook for details.
- The worst case is still quadratic; there is another divide-and-conquer algorithm that is worst-case linear, but more complicated (see COMPSCI 320).

Extra: sorting analysis - where to from here?

- Basic calculations that we have performed give the worst and average case running time, which is enough to rule out certain algorithms as being competitive for large input.
- More precise analysis (such as covered in COMPSCI 720) allows us to choose parameters (such as quicksort cutoff, pivot selection strategies) to optimize performance, and to make finer comparisons between algorithms.
- The more detail is required, the more advanced the mathematical machinery needed. The mathematics involved in modern research makes heavy use of advanced calculus techniques even though it is about discrete quantities.
- See Flajolet and Sedgewick, *Introduction to the Analysis of Algorithms*; Knuth, *The Art of Computer Programming*; me, for a research project.

Table ADT

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- There are many implementations: (sorted or unsorted) list, hash table and (various types of) binary search trees are the main ones. Also skip lists, jump lists.
- Static searching does not perform insertions or deletions (such as in a telephone book), while dynamic searching allows insertion and deletion (such as in a database).

List implementations

Sequential search

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- This takes time in $\Theta(n)$ for any reasonable implementation (such as array or linked list).
- We only need to be able to iterate through the elements in linear time, so even more general structures than lists also allow for this type of search.

List implementations

Binary search

 In a sorted list where constant time access is possible (such as an array implementation), we can find a key x as follows.
 Start at the middle key, and recursively go left or right if the key is greater or less than x; stop if we hit x or search subinterval is empty.

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- The (worst-case) recurrence is $T(n) = 1 + T(\lfloor n/2 \rfloor)$, with solution in $O(\log n)$.
- The execution of this algorithm (looking for all possible keys) can be described by a decision tree called a (static) binary search tree. The number of comparisons required to find the key is the depth of the leaf containing that key.

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Tree implementations

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- BSTs are very versatile. They are good for sorting. An inorder traversal of the tree yields the keys in sorted order. Also, BSTs model the behaviour of quicksort.
- Main problem with BSTs: they can become unbalanced by insertions and deletions.

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Tree implementations

Analysis of BST operations

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- However deletions can mess this up, and are hard to analyse.
- Conclusion: we need another idea to guarantee good worst-case performance. We need to rebalance BSTs.

Tree implementations

Relation between Quicksort and BSTs

- After choosing the pivot and partitioning, we can represent the file as a binary tree: pivot at the root, left subfile on the left, right subfile on the right. It has the BST property with respect to the sort keys.
- Given the above BST describing the execution of quicksort on the file, note that the cost of constructing the tree (measured by key comparisons) is the same as the number of comparisons used by quicksort in sorting the file.
- This is equal to the internal path length, the sum of all depths of nodes.
- Thus the average search cost is $\Theta(\log n)$ for randomly grown BSTs with no deletions.

Tree implementations

Extra: self-balancing binary search trees

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- These operations are based on local rotations of the tree.
- Analysis of performance is fairly difficult. It is not too hard to show that AVL trees maintain the right height (see textbook). Average-case height is not really known.
- Java Collection Framework's TreeMap uses red-black tree implementation.

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Hashing implementations

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- We need a collision resolution policy to prescribe what to do when collisions occur.
- We assume the first-come-first served (FCFS) model for resolving collisions.

Hashing implementations

Hash functions

• There are several desirable properties of a hash function:



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- Example: Java String hashcode computes the address of a string s using integer arithmetic via the formula $s[0] * 31^{n-1} + s[1] * 31^{n-2} + ... + s[n-1].$

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Hashing implementations

Collision resolution policies

• Open addressing uses no extra space - every element is stored in the hash table. If it gets overfull, we can reallocate space and rehash.

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 - probe nearby for a free position (linear probing, quadratic probing);
 - go to a "random" position by using a second-level hash function (double hashing);
 - try a position given by a second, third, ... hash function (this plus LCFS gives *cuckoo hashing*).

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Collision resolution via chaining

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- Insertion can then be done in constant time.
- Deletion can be done in constant time with a doubly linked list, for example.
- A drawback is the additional space overhead. Also, the distribution of sizes of lists turns out to be very uneven.

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 - Another method is double hashing. Move to the left by a fixed step size t, wrapping around if necessary, until we find an empty address. The difference is that t is not fixed in advance, but is given by a second hashing function p(k).

Hashing implementations

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- Define the load factor to be $\lambda := n/m$.

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Analysis of balls in boxes

Define

$$Q(m,n) = \frac{m!}{(m-n)!m^n} = \frac{m}{m} \frac{m-1}{m} \dots \frac{m-n+1}{m}.$$

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• The probability of no collisions when n balls are thrown into m boxes uniformly at random is Q(m, n). For example, $Q(366, 180) \approx 0.4486998183 \times 10^{-23}$, $Q(366, 24) \approx 0.4626535709$.

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- The expected number of balls until the first collision is equal to $E(m) := \sum_{n < m} Q(m, n)$. Note $E(365) \approx 25$.

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Hashing implementations

Statistics for balls in bins: some facts

• When do we expect the first collision? This is the birthday problem. Answer: $E(m) \approx \sqrt{\pi m/2} + 2/3$. So collisions happen even in fairly sparse tables.

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- When m = n, what is the expected maximum number of balls in a box? Answer: about $(\log n)/(\log \log n)$. Some of the lists may be fairly long.
- The analysis that gives these results is beyond this course. See me for references.

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• Thus provided the load factor is kept bounded, basic operations run in constant time on average.

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Results for open addressing

• We assume uniform hashing: each configuration of *n* keys in a table of size *m* is equally likely to occur. In other words, the hash function produces a random permutation of the keys, and the slots are probed in random order for each key.

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- See me for details of the proofs.