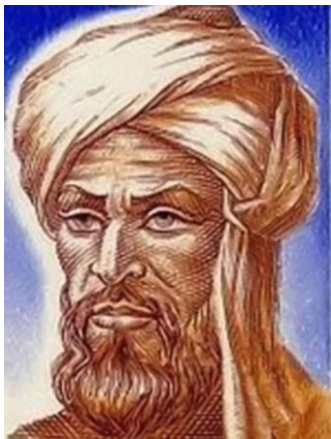




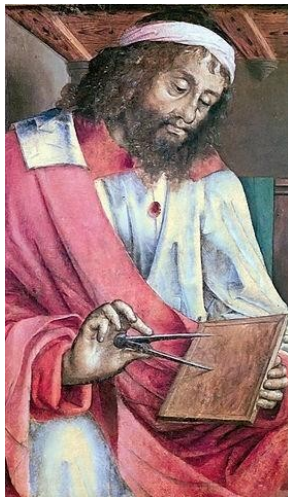
Video 1.1

Sampath Kannan

What is an algorithm?



Muhammad ibn Musa al-Khwarizmi: gave rise to the word "algorithm"



Euclid: Inventor of an algorithm for computing greatest common divisors

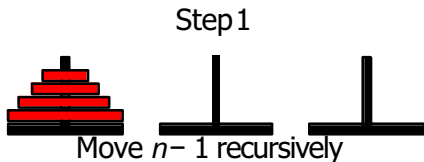
Why study algorithms?

As programs get complicated, thinking algorithmically allows us to:

- › reason about their correctness and efficiency before implementing them
- › focus on techniques for solving problems
- › understand relationship between different computational problems

Induction + Algorithm Design

- › A fundamental idea in algorithm design—solve a problem on bigger data sets using your knowledge of how to solve it on smaller ones.
- › This idea embodies the proof technique of Mathematical Induction.
- › Example: Towers of Hanoi



Induction + Algorithm Design

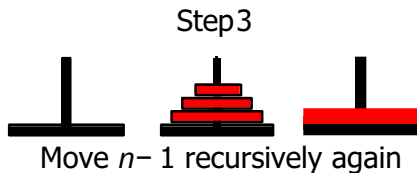
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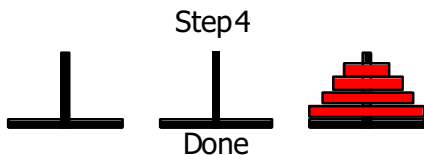
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- › Move top $n-1$ disks from rod A to rod B
- › Move disk 1 from rod A to rod C
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Induction + Algorithm Design

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This idea embodies the proof technique of

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Example: Towers of Hanoi

> Move top $n-1$ disks from rod A to rod B

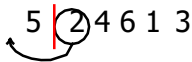
> Move disk 1 from rod A to rod C

> Move the $n-1$ disks from rod B to rod C

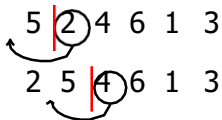
> How long does this take? How can this be analyzed with **induction?**

Another Example: Insertion Sort

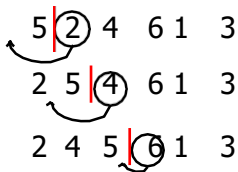
5 | 2 4 6 1 3



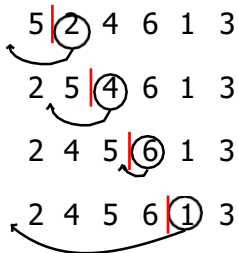
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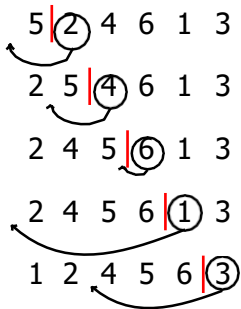
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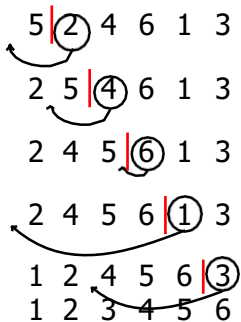
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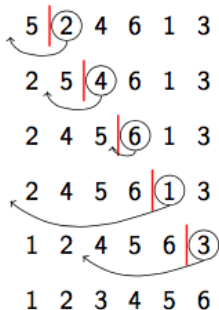


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```

5 | ② 4 6 1 3

2 5 | ④ 6 1 3

2 4 5 | ⑥ 1 3

2 4 5 6 | ① 3

1 2 | ③ 4 5 6

1 2 3 4 5 6

If we've already sorted the first k elements of the array, how long does it take to place the next element?

Recurrence Relations

- › How can we analyze the runtime of an algorithm that is recursive?

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- › Recurrence relation: a function defined in terms of itself
- › How can we write the runtime of Towers of Hanoi using a recurrence?

Recurrence Relations

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Recurrence Relations

- › $T(n)$ = # operations required to solve a tower with n disks
- › $T(n - 1)$ = # operations required to solve a tower with $n - 1$ disks
- › Can we write $T(n)$ using $T(n - 1)$?

Recurrence Relations

Towers of Hanoi recurrence: $T(n) = 2T(n-1) + 1$

Towers of Hanoi: Runtime

We can expand this recurrence out through **telescoping**

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Towers of Hanoi: Runtime

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Towers of Hanoi: Runtime

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Towers of Hanoi: Runtime

We can expand this recurrence out through **telescoping**

- › substituting in for $T(n - 1)$:
- › $T(n) = 2(2T(n - 2) + 1) + 1$
- › $T(n) = 4T(n - 2) + 2 + 1$

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Towers of Hanoi: Runtime

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Towers of Hanoi: Runtime

We can expand this recurrence out through **telescoping**

- › substituting in again for $T(n - 2)$:
- › $T(n) = 8T(n - 3) + 4 + 2 + 1$
- › Can we generalize this to k ?

Towers of Hanoi: Runtime

We can expand this recurrence out through **telescoping**

$$\triangleright T(n) = 2^k T(n-k) + \left(\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 2^i\right)$$

Towers of Hanoi: Runtime

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- › $T(n) = 2^k T(n-k) + (\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 2^i)$
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Towers of Hanoi: Runtime

Result: Solving Towers of Hanoi requires $2^n - 1$ operations!

Towers of Hanoi: Runtime

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- › substituting in for $T(n-1)$:
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 - › $T(n) = 4T(n-2) + 2 + 1$
 - › substituting in again for $T(n-2)$:
 - › $T(n) = 8T(n-3) + 4 + 2 + 1$
 - › Can we generalize this to k ?
 - › $T(n) = 2^k T(n-k) + (\sum_{i=0}^{k-1} 2^i)$
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- › Last iteration of the loop: at most $n - 1$ swaps required
- › In general, k th iteration of the loop: at most $k - 1$ swaps required

Recurrence Relations: Back to Insertion Sort

Finding the total number of swaps:

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Recurrence Relations: Back to Insertion Sort

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Number of swaps
required for
Insertion sort:
 $\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$

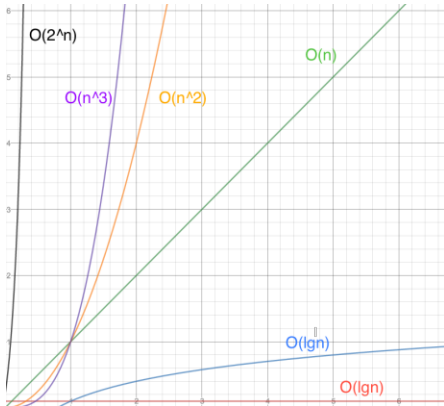


Video 1.2

Sampath Kannan

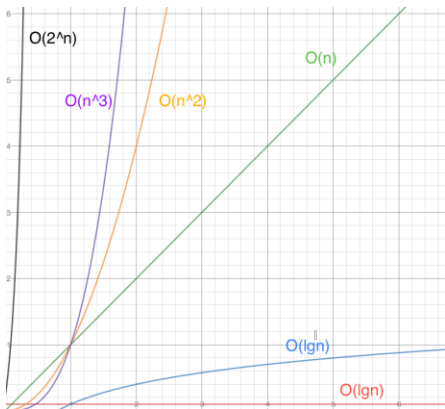
Asymptotic Bounds

Motivation:



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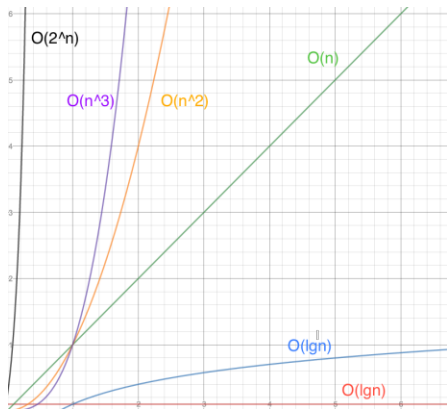
- > Essentially a way to compare functions without worrying about their behavior on small n .

Big-Oh is like \leq (ignoring constant factors), and Big-Omega is like \geq

- > Gives us an idea of how fast a function grows

Asymptotic Bounds

Motivation:



- › Essentially a way to compare functions without worrying about their behavior on small n . In this sense Big-Oh is like \leq (ignoring constant factors), and Big-Omega is like \geq
- › Gives us an idea of how fast a function grows

- › Note: $O(f(n))$ is a **set**.
- › $O(n^2)$: the set of all function that do not grow faster than n^2

Asymptotic Bounds: Examples

Some elements of $O(n^2)$:

- › $2n^2 \in O(n^2)$
- › $100n^2 + n + 1 \in O(n^2)$
- › $n \in O(n^2)$

Some elements of $\Omega(n^2)$:

- › $2n^2 \in \Omega(n^2)$
- › $\frac{n^2}{1000} \in \Omega(n^2)$
- › $n^3 \in \Omega(n^2)$

What is the complexity of insertion sort?

- › $T(n) = T(n-1) + n$
- › $T(n) = \frac{n^2+n}{2}$
- › $T(n) \in O(n^2)$

Insertion sort has a runtime of $O(n^2)$

Complexity

More on Insertion Sort...

```
insertion-sort A:
  for i <- 1 to length(A)
    j <- i
    while j > 0 and A[j-1] > A[j]:
      swap A[j] and A[j-1]
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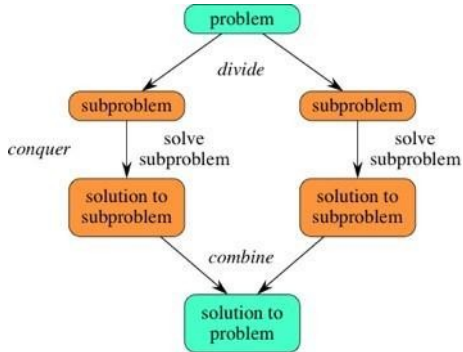
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Takeaway: Can't assume anything about the input. Always assume the worst case!

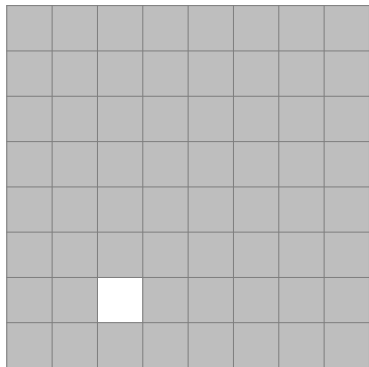
Algorithm Design: Divide and Conquer Paradigm

Idea: Solve a problem by splitting it into pieces, solving those pieces recursively, and merging them to solve the larger problem



Divide and Conquer Example: Triominos

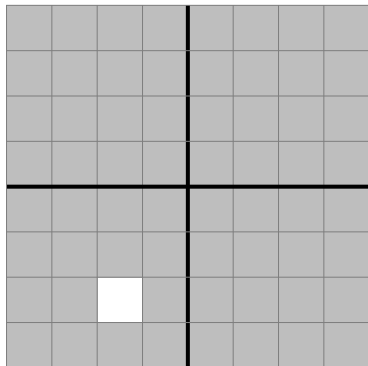
- › Input: $N \times N$ grid (assume n is a power of 2) with a single square removed, and a supply of corner shaped triomino tiles
- › Goal: Fill the grid without any overlapping tiles



Algorithm:

Divide and Conquer Example: Triominos

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Algorithm:

- › **Divide** the grid into 4 squares (size $2^{n-1} \times 2^{n-1}$).
- › note: 1 of these 4 squares contains the missing piece



Video 1.3

Sampath Kannan

Binary Search

- How long does it take to search for an element in an array?
 $O(n)$
- Idea: Can we do better if we know that the array is sorted?

```
Binary-search(A, val, low, high): if
    high < low
        return -1 (not found)
    mid <- (low + high) / 2
    if A[mid] > val
        return Binary-search(A, val, low, mid-1)
    else if A[mid] < val
        return Binary-search(A, val, mid+1, hi)
    else return mid

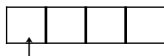
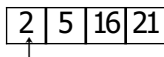
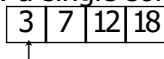
Binary-search(A, val):
    return Binary-search(A, val, 0, (length(A)-1))
```

- Each step of the algorithm, the size of the input halves.
- $T(n) = T\left(\frac{n}{2}\right) + 1$
- How to solve this recurrence: How many times can we halve N before reaching 1? $\frac{N}{2}, \frac{N}{4}, \dots$
- $\frac{N}{2^k} = 1, k = \lg_2 N$
- binary search runs in $O(\lg N)$

Merging two sorted lists

Input: two sorted arrays of size n and m

Output: a single sorted array of size $n+m$



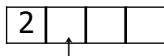
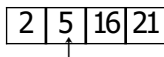
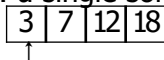
```
merge(A, B) :  
  C = new array[len(A) + len(B)]  
  i, j, k ← 0  
  while i < len(A) and j < len(B):  
    if A[i] < B[j]:  
      C[k] ← A[i]  
      i++, k++  
    else:  
      C[k] ← B[j]  
      j++, k++  
  while i < len(A):  
    C[k++] ← A[i++]  
  while j < len(B):  
    C[k++] ← B[j++]  
  return C
```

- › How long does this take?
- › Every time a comparison is made, either i or j is incremented
- › Total number of comparisons is $n + m$
- › merging runs in $O(n + m)$ time

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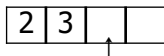
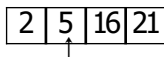
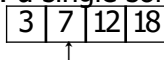
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merge(A, B):  
    C = new array[len(A) + len(B)]  
    i, j, k ← 0  
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        else:  
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    return C
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- › How long does this take?
- › Every time a comparison is made, either i or j is incremented
- › Total number of comparisons is $n + m$
- › merging runs in $O(n + m)$ time

Merging two sorted lists

Input: two sorted arrays of size n and m

Output: a single sorted array of size $n+m$



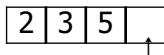
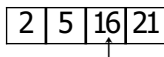
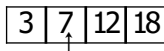
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More on Divide and Conquer: Mergesort

Input: An array of size n , Output: A sorted array of size n

Can we apply the Divide and Conquer paradigm to sorting?

Idea: Split the array, sort halves recursively, **merge** the result

14	7	3	12	9	11	6	2
----	---	---	----	---	----	---	---

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mergesort(A):
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mergesort(A, aux, lo, hi):
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    mergesort(A, mid+1, hi)
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More on Divide and Conquer: Mergesort

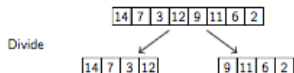
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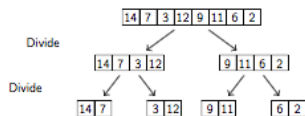
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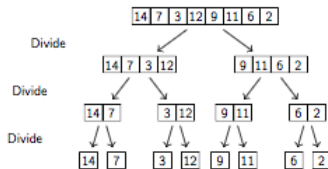
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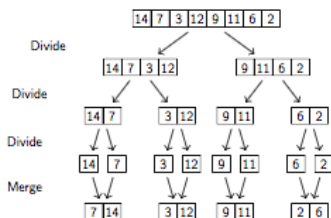
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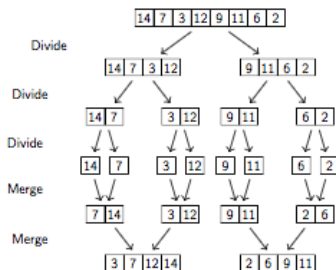
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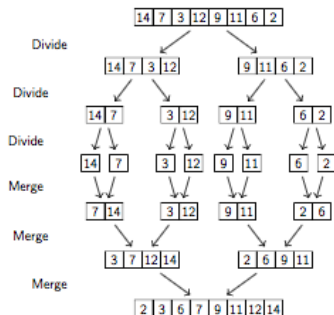
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```





Video 1.4

Sampath Kannan

Algorithm Design: Using Randomness

- e Remember from Insertion Sort: Algorithm performance can depend on the input:
 -) on a sorted list: $O(n)$ comparisons
 -) on a reversed list: $O(n^2)$ comparisons
 -) In general: somewhere between n and $\frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ comparisons
 -) However, the **worst-case** is still $O(n^2)$
- e An “adversary” can repeatedly construct an input to our algorithm that causes it to perform as poorly as possible
- e Can we prevent our algorithm performance from depending on the input?
 -) Shift the dependency: from **input** to **randomization**
- e Idea: Write algorithms that toss a coin!

First: An Introduction to Probability

- ⦿ For a stronger introduction, see:
<https://www.coursera.org/learn/probability-intro>
- ⦿ *Random Variable*: A function X from the results of an experiment to numbers
- ⦿ $E[X]$: the expected value of the random variable X (a "weighted average")
- ⦿ Formula: $E[X] = \sum i * P(X = i)$ (for all values i that X can take on)
- ⦿ Example:
 - ▶ Roll a 6-sided die. Let $X =$ the value that the die lands on. What is $E[X]$?
 - ▶ X can take on each of the values 1 through 6, each with probability $\frac{1}{6}$
 - ▶ $E[X] = 1\frac{1}{6} + 2\frac{1}{6} + \dots + 6\frac{1}{6} = \frac{21}{6} = 3.5$

Intro to Probability: Continued

- e What is the expected sum of two dice?
- e X = the sum of two dice. Want to find $E[X]$.
- e X can take on values from 2...12
- e E.x. $P(X = 5)$. Can result from two die rolls of:
 -) (1, 4)
 -) (4, 1)
 -) (2, 3)
 -) (3, 2)
- ▶ $P(X = 5) = 4 \frac{1}{36} = \frac{1}{9}$
- ▶ $E[X] = \sum_{i=2}^{12} i * P(X = i) = 2 \frac{1}{36} + 3 \frac{2}{36} + \dots + 12 \frac{1}{36}$

sum	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
probability	$\frac{1}{36}$	$\frac{2}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{4}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{6}{36}$	$\frac{5}{36}$	$\frac{4}{36}$	$\frac{3}{36}$	$\frac{2}{36}$	$\frac{1}{36}$

Calculation is not trivial. Solution: Linearity of Expectation!

Intro to Probability: Continued

- *Linearity of Expectation*: For n random variables, X_1, \dots, X_n , $E [X_1 + \dots + X_n] = E [X_1] + \dots + E [X_n]$
- Example:
 -) What is the expected sum of rolling 2 dice?
 -) let X_i be the random variable denoting the value of the i 'th die rolled
 -) let X be the r.v. denoting the sum of all 2 dice
 -) then $X = X_1 + X_2$
 -) $E [X] = E [X_1 + X_2]$
 -) $E [X] = E [X_1] + E [X_2]$ (by lin. of exp.)
 -) as shown above, for each i , $E [X_i] = 3.5$
 -) $E [X] = 3.5 + 3.5 = 7$

Expectation Example: Hat Checking

N people go to a restaurant, take off their hats and throw them in a pile. Afterwards, they each take a hat from the pile at random. What is the expected number of people who get their hat back?

- We can analyze using random variables!
- Let; X = the number of people who get their hats back

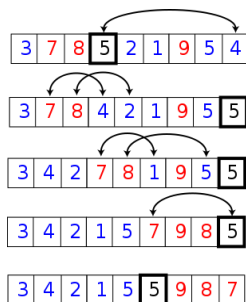
$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{person } i \text{ chooses their own hat} \\ 0 & \text{person } i \text{ doesn't choose their own hat} \end{cases}$$

- What is $E[X_i]$?
 - From the definition:
 - $E[X_i] = 1 * P(\text{choose their hat}) + 0P(\text{don't choose their hat})$
 - $E[X_i] = P(\text{choose hat}) = \frac{1}{n}$
- Again, $X = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$
- $E[X] = E[X_1 + \dots + X_n] = E[X_1] + \dots + E[X_n]$ by lin. of exp.
- $E[X] = n \frac{1}{n} = 1$

In expectation, one person will correctly take their own hat!

Quicksort: An Introduction

Goal: Another sorting algorithm that uses divide-and-conquer



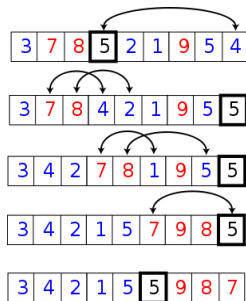
• Idea:

- Select an element in the array
- Partition the other elements of the array around it
- Is the array more sorted than it was before?
- Answer: yes!
- Next step: recursively sort the left and right sides of the array as well.

Problem: What about "adversarial inputs"? This algorithm will perform better on some inputs than others.

Quicksort: Randomized

Can we write an algorithm for sorting that uses coin tossing (randomness)?



• Idea:

- › *Randomly* select an element in the array
- › Partition the other elements of the array around it
- › Recursively sort the left and right sides of the array

Result: Another divide and conquer algorithm for sorting, that uses **randomness**.



Video 1.5

Sampath Kannan

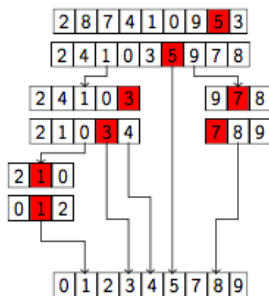
Quicksort

Idea: Choose an element at random. Partition the array around this element. Recursively sort the left and right side.

Quicksort

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```
quicksort(A):  
    quicksort(A, 0, len(A)-1)  
  
quicksort(A, lo, hi):  
    if(lo >= hi) return  
    pivot_location <- partition(A, lo, hi)  
    quicksort(A, lo, pivot_location - 1)  
    quicksort(A, pivot_location + 1, hi)  
  
partition(A, lo, hi):  
    pivot_index <- random(lo, hi)  
    swap(A, pivot_index, hi)  
    pivot <- A[hi]  
    I <- lo, j <- hi, C <- new array  
    for k = lo to hi - 1  
        if A[k] <= pivot:  
            C[i++] <- A[k]  
        else:  
            C[j--] <- A[k]  
    C[i] <- A[hi] (copy the pivot in)  
    copy C[lo : hi] back into A  
    return i
```



Quicksort (compare to Mergesort)

Quicksort

Quicksort (compare to Mergesort)

- divide-and-conquer algorithm
- First partition, then sort recursively

Quicksort

Quicksort (compare to Mergesort)

- divide-and-conquer algorithm
- Can be done with no extra space
- First partition, then sort recursively
- runtime: See next slide

Quicksort: Analysis

- e First: the recurrence for quicksort
- e Step 1: Partition requires $O(n)$
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 -) k and $n - k - 1$, for some k
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Worstcase (bad partition):

- e partition does not split array at all
at every step ($k = 1$ or $n - 1$)
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Best case (good partition):

- e partition splits array evenly at every step ($k = \frac{n}{2}$)
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(recall from merge sort)

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How does the algorithm perform on average?

We can analyze with **expectation**

Quicksort: Analysis

Recurrence for quicksort:

Quicksort: Analysis

Recurrence for quicksort:

- taking the expected value overall possible i:

Quicksort: Analysis

Recurrence for quicksort:

• taking the expected value overall possible i :

$$• T(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n T(i) + T(n-i) + O(n)$$

Quicksort: Analysis

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- taking the expected value overall possible i :
- $T(n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n T(i) + T(n-i) + O(n)$
- This is difficult to analyze! Can we find a better way to analyze quicksort?

Quicksort: Analysis

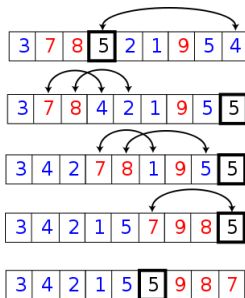
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Idea: Any two elements are never compared more than once

- What happens after an element is compared to the partitioning element?
 -) these two elements won't be compared again

Partition step



Quicksort: Analysis

Analyze with random variables:

e_k denote the k th smallest element in the array as e_k

Quicksort: Analysis

Analyze with random variables:

- denote the k th smallest element in the array as e_k
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$$X_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } e_i \text{ and } e_j \text{ are compared} \\ 0 & \text{if } e_i \text{ and } e_j \text{ are not compared} \end{cases}$$

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- $E[X] = E[\sum \sum X_{ij}] = \sum \sum E[X_{ij}]$ by lin. of exp.
- Recall: $E[X_{ij}] = 1 * P(X_{ij} = 1) + 0 * P(X_{ij} = 0)$
- $E[X_{ij}] = P(X_{ij} = 1)$

Quicksort: Analysis

Analyze with random variables:

What is the probability that e_i and e_j are compared?

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Quicksort: Analysis

Analyze with random variables:

What is the probability that e_i and e_j are compared?

- e_i and e_j will be compared if either is selected as a pivot
- e_i and e_j will not be compared if some $e_k, i < k < j$ is selected as a pivot **first**
 -) e_i will be to the left of e_k , and e_j will be to the right.

Quicksort: Analysis

- e Which pivots must be chosen for e_i and e_j to be compared?
 -) either e_i or e_j (2 total)

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 -) e_{i+1}, e_{i+2}, \dots , or e_{j-1} ($j - i - 1$ total)

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- e Elements are chosen as pivots randomly
- e $E [X_{ij}] = \frac{2}{(j-i-1)+2} = \frac{2}{j-i+1}$
- e $E [X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \frac{2}{j-i+1}$
- e $E [X] \leq 2n \lg n \in O(n \lg n)$

Quicksort: Analysis

- Which pivots must be chosen for e_i and e_j to be compared?
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$$• E[X_{ij}] = \frac{2}{(j-i-1)+2} = \frac{2}{j-i+1}$$

$$• E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=i+1}^n \frac{2}{j-i+1}$$

$$• E[X] \leq 2n \lg n \in O(n \lg n)$$

Result: Randomized Quicksort makes an expected $O(n \lg n)$ comparisons!

Quick Select

Goal: select the k th smallest element of an array

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Option 1:

- Use quicksort to sort the array A
- Select the k th smallest element ($A[k - 1]$)
- Time required: $O(n \lg n)$ to sort the array
- Are we doing unnecessary work? Can we do better?

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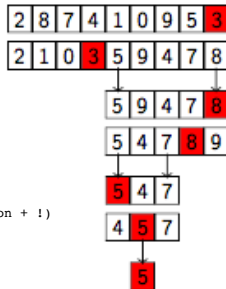
Key Idea:

- When we partition the array, the k th smallest element will only be on one side of this partition
- No need to recursively sort both sides of the array: Only the side containing the element we want

Quick select

```
quicksort(A):  
    quicksort(A, 0, len(A)-1)  
  
quicksort(A, lo, hi):  
    if(lo == hi) return A[lo]  
    pivot_location <- partition(A, lo, hi)  
    if pivot_location == k:  
        return A[k]  
    else if pivot_location < k:  
        return quickselect(A, lo, pivot_location -1, k)  
    else:  
        return quickselect(A, pivot_location +1, hi, k-pivot_location + !)
```

select $k = 6$ (sixth smallest element)

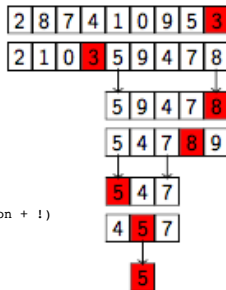


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e Analysis?

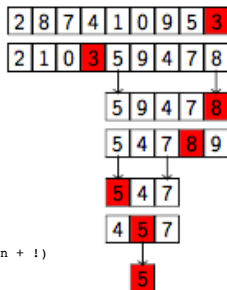
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```

select $k = 6$ (sixth smallest element)



e Analysis?

-) We will use a similar analysis to Quicksort
-) What will change? Are certain elements less likely to be compared?

Quickselect: Analysis

Analyze with random variables:

Quickselect: Analysis

Analyze with random variables:

- denote the k th smallest element in the array as e_k
- What is the probability that e_i and e_j are compared *when selecting e_k* ?
- 3 cases:

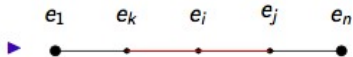
Quickselect: Analysis

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▶ case 1: $k < i < j$.

- ▶ Compared when: e_i or e_j are selected as pivots
- ▶ Not compared when: any other element between e_k and e_j are selected
- ▶ $P(e_i, e_j \text{ compared}) = \frac{2}{j-k+1}$



Quickselect: Analysis

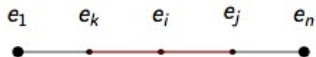
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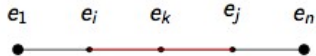
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▶ case 2: $i < k < j$.

- ▶ Similarly: $P(e_i, e_j \text{ compared}) = \frac{2}{j-i+1}$



Quickselect: Analysis

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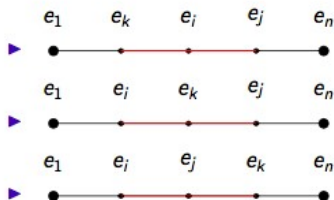
- ▶ Compared when: e_i or e_j are selected as pivots
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▶ case 2: $i < k < j$.

- ▶ Similarly: $P(e_i, e_j \text{ compared}) = \frac{2}{j-i+1}$

▶ case 3: $i < j < k$.

- ▶ Similarly: $P(e_i, e_j \text{ compared}) = \frac{2}{k-i+1}$



Quickselect: Analysis

Runtime:

- e Similar to quick sort analysis, how many total comparisons are we making?

Quickselect: Analysis

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- Sum over all pairs of elements e_i, e_j (split among the 3 cases)

$$E[X] = \sum_{i < j < k} \frac{2}{k-i+1} + \sum_{i < k < j} \frac{2}{j-i+1} + \sum_{k < i < j} \frac{2}{j-k+1}$$

- Non obvious sum, but yields $E[X] = O(n)$!

Quickselect: Analysis

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- Non obvious sum, but yields $E[X] = O(n)$!

Outcome:

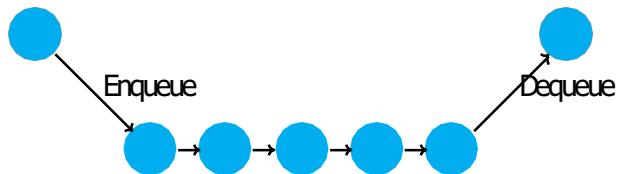
- Quick select is faster than quick sort!
- Note: quick select is randomized
- Can we make it deterministic, and still keep the worstcase $O(n)$?
- Yes, with some extra work



Video 1.6

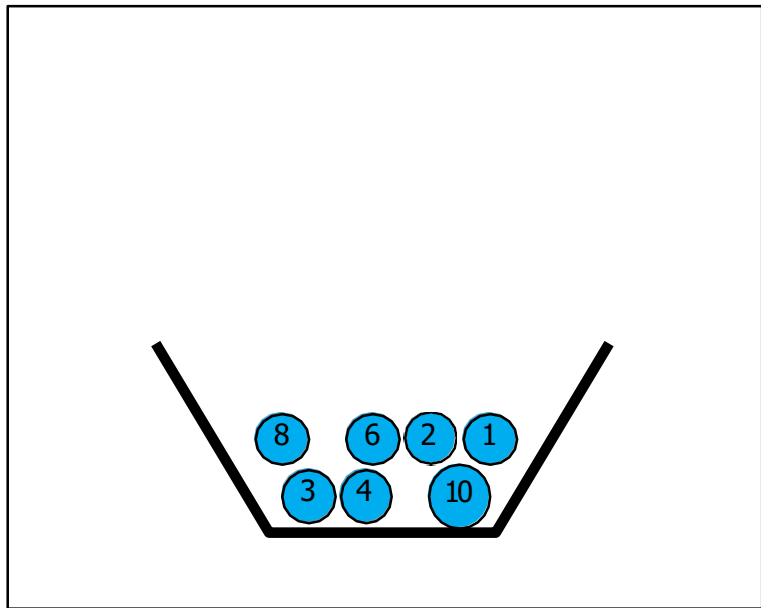
Sampath Kannan

Queues



- Sometimes we want to extract elements not in the order we insert them but instead in the order of some given keys. We call this a *priorityqueue*
- For example your operating system is constantly getting jobs to complete, it needs a fast way of getting the highest priority job to schedule next

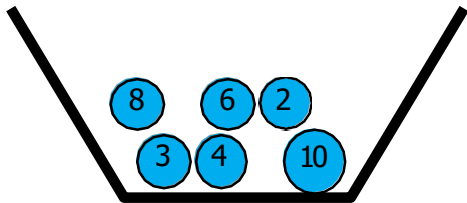
Operations of Priority Queues



Operations of Priority Queues

Extract Min:

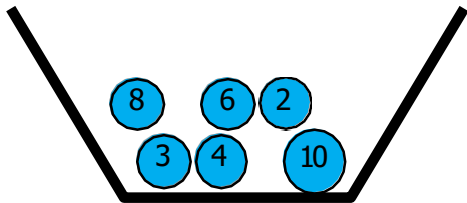
1



Operations of Priority Queues

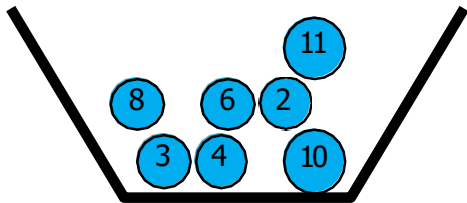
Find Min:

2



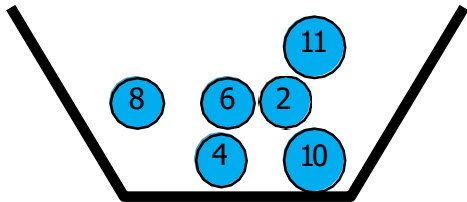
Operations of Priority Queues

Insert(11):



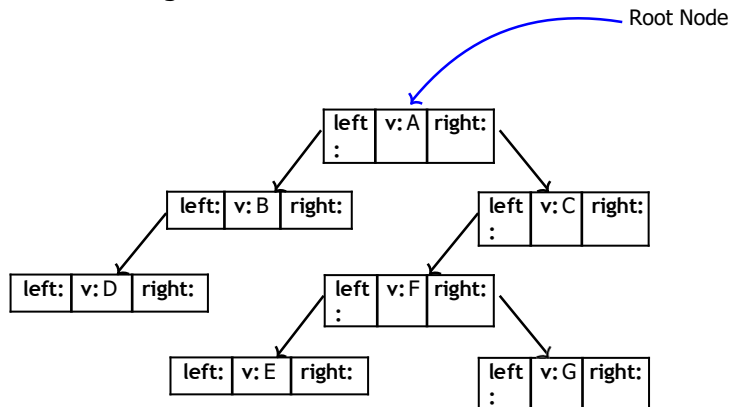
Operations of Priority Queues

Delete(3):



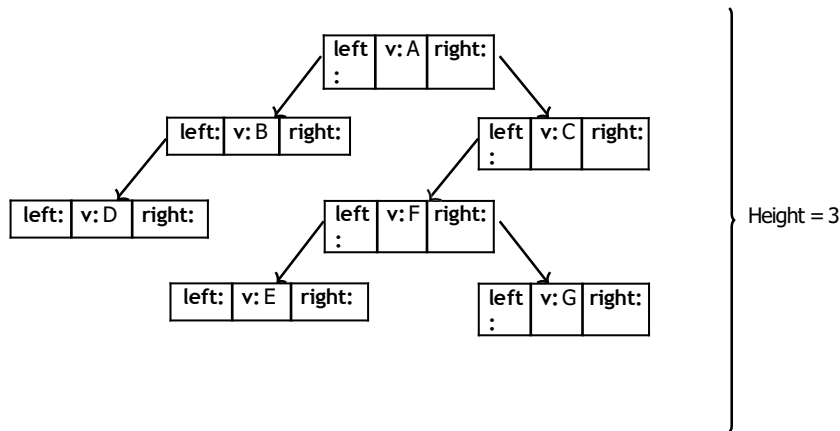
Trees

In order to make an efficient priority heap we will use a more general data structure called a tree.



Trees

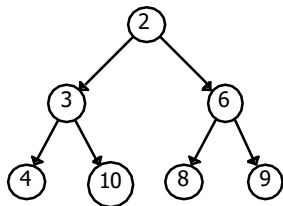
In order to make an efficient priority heap we will use a more general data structure called a tree.



Heaps as trees

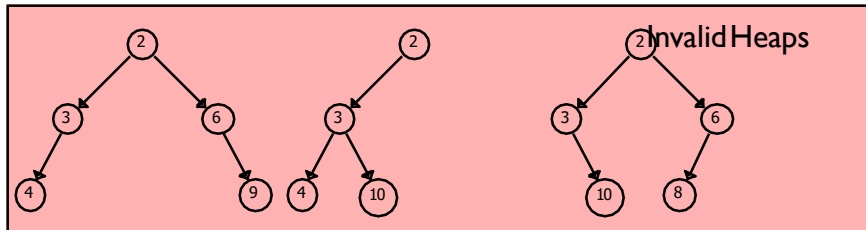
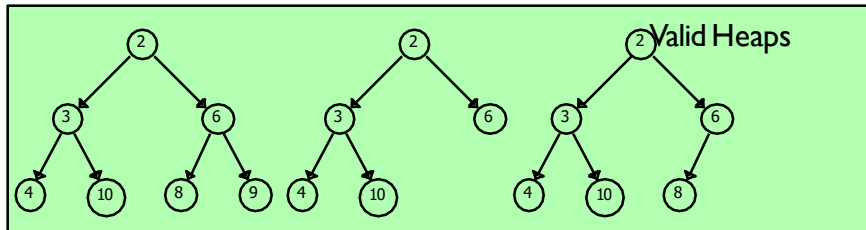
We can use a tree to make a heap by enforcing the properties that node will have a key value that is less than both of its children, and that the tree will always be complete except for the last layer.

- This makes finding the minimum very easy. It's always on top!



- We will see that removing the root (minimum) element can be done in a number of operations proportional to the height.
- However if we want to find an arbitrary element we will have to search the whole tree.

Heaps Shapes



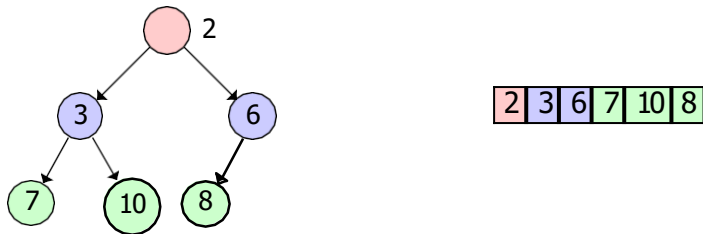


Video 1.7

Sampath Kannan

Heap Representation

Since the tree for a heap will always be contiguous we can represent the m implicitly with an array



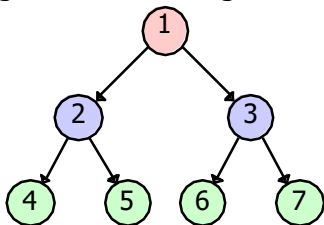
So the i th level of the tree will occupy spots 2^{i-1} to $2^i - 1$ (we are using 1 based indexing for convenience)

Heap Representation

We need to be able to compute positions of the left and right children of a given element.

Heap Representation

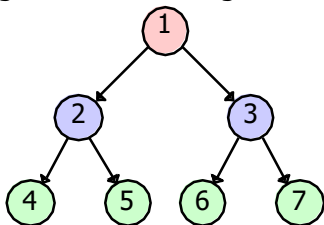
We need to be able to compute positions of the left and right children of a given element.



- Left child of 1 is 2, left child of 2 is 4, left child of 3 is 6, etc...

Heap Representation

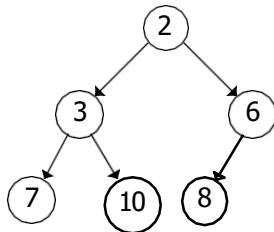
We need to be able to compute positions of the left and right children of a given element.



- Left child of 1 is 2, left child of 2 is 4, left child of 3 is 6, etc...
- In general the left child of node k is at position $2k$. So the right child is at $2k + 1$

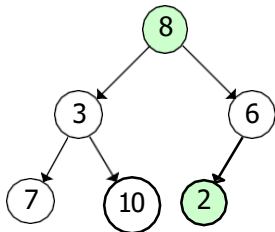
Operations on Heaps: Extract Min

We want to remove the minimum element (root) while maintaining the two heap properties: order and shape



Operations on Heaps: Extract Min

Step 1: Swap the root node with the node in the bottom right

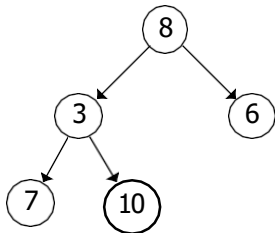


```
sink(A, k):  
  N = length(A)  
  while 2*k <= N  
    smallest = 2*k  
    if A[2*k] < A[2*k+1]  
      smallest = 2*k+1  
    if A[k] < smallest: break  
    swap(A[k], A[smallest])  
    k = smallest
```

```
extract-min(A, k):  
  N = length(A)  
  min = A[1]  
  A[1] = A[N]  
  sink(A, 1)  
  return min
```

Operations on Heaps: Extract Min

Step 2: Now we can remove(2) while maintaining the shape property

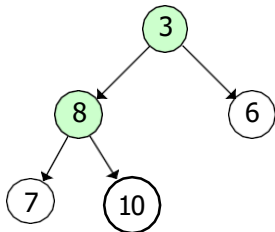


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  A[1] = A[N]  
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```

Operations on Heaps: Extract Min

Step 3: We will fix the order property by swapping (8) with it's smallest child

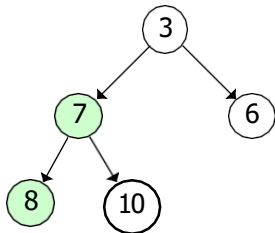


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  N = length(A)  
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  A[1] = A[N]  
  sink(A, 1)  
  return min
```


Operations on Heaps: Extract Min

Step 4: Keep fixing the order property by swapping (8) with it's smallest child again

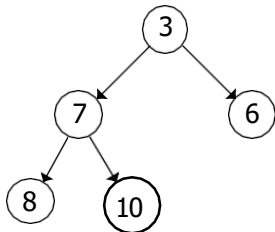


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```

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  min = A[1]  
  A[1] = A[N]  
  sink(A, 1)  
  return min
```

Operations on Heaps: Extract Min

Step 5: The heap properties have been preserved so we're done!

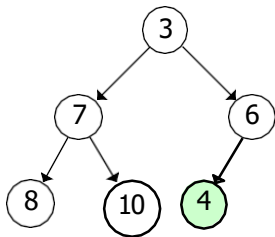


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  A[1] = A[N]  
  sink(A, 1)  
  return min
```

Operations on Heaps: Insert

Step 1: Preserve the shape property by inserting the new element at the bottom right



`swim(A, k) :`

`while k > 1 and A[k/2] < A[k]:`

`swap(A[k], A[k/2])`

`k = k/2`

`insert(A, k, val) :`

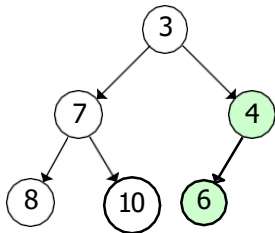
`N = length(A)`

`A[N+1] = val`

`swim(A, N+1)`

Operations on Heaps: Insert

Step 2: Fix the order property by swapping (4) with its parent since it's smaller



`swim(A, k) :`

 while $k > 1$ and $A[k/2] < A[k]$:

 swap($A[k]$, $A[k/2]$)

$k = k/2$

in `insert(A, k, val) :`

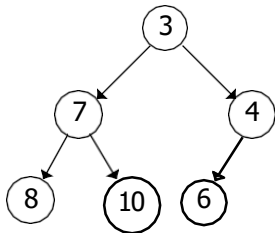
$N = \text{length}(A)$

$A[N+1] = \text{val}$

`swim(A, N+1)`

Operations on Heaps: Insert

Step 3: (4) is bigger than its parent now so we're done!



swim(A, k) :

while $k > 1$ and $A[k/2] < A[k]$:

swap(A[k], A[k/2])

$k = k/2$

insert(A, k, val) :

$N = \text{length}(A)$

$A[N+1] = \text{val}$

swim(A, N+1)

Heap efficiency

- All operations on the heap are a combination of a constant number of operations and sink or swim operation.
- Swim operation executes as long as $k > 1$ and divides it by 2 on every iteration
- Can execute at most $\log_2 k$ times. Since k is initially at most n , the number of elements, swim has a run time that is $O(\log n)$
- By the same logic sink has run time that is $O(\log n)$ as well.
- So all the operations are $O(\log n)$. Except for delete which must first take potentially $O(n)$ steps to locate the given element in the array.



Video 1.8

Sampath Kannan

Dynamic Dictionaries

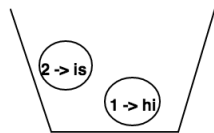
Dynamic Dictionaries support three main operations:

- e **insert** into dictionary
- e **delete** from dictionary
- e **search** for an element in a dictionary

Abstract representation:

Dynamic dictionaries are used in applications everywhere:

- e Databases
- e Router lookup tables, ids of IP packets
- e Any application that involves storing information!



Dynamic Dictionaries

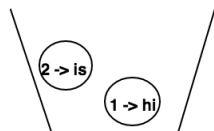
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Abstract representation:



next: insert the pair
(3, "the")

Dynamic Dictionaries

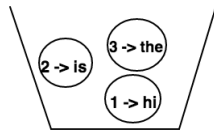
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Dynamic Dictionaries

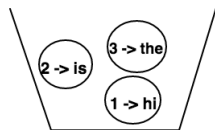
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next: lookup 1

Dynamic Dictionaries

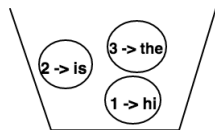
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Abstract representation:



next: lookup 1
returns "hi"

Dynamic Dictionaries

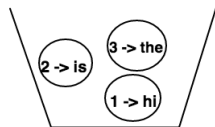
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Abstract representation:



next: lookup 1
returns "hi"

next: delete 3 from
dictionary

Dynamic Dictionaries

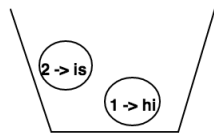
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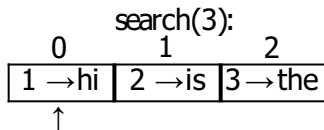


Implementations of Dictionaries

Can we find an efficient implementation for dictionaries?

Attempt 1: Arrays

- e search: $O(n)$
 -) Entire array must be traversed
- e insertion, deletion: $O(n)$
 -) Array may need to be resized (requires copying all elements to a new array)



Implementations of Dictionaries

Can we find an efficient implementation for dictionaries?

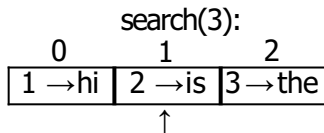
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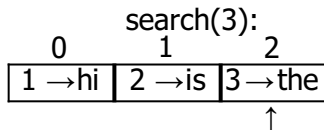


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Can we find an efficient implementation for dictionaries?

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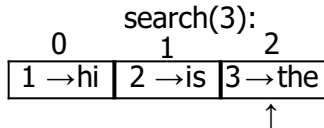


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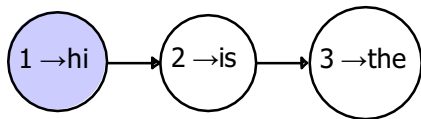
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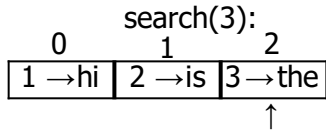


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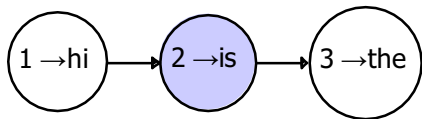
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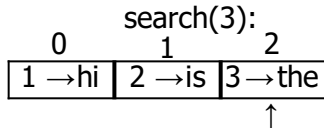


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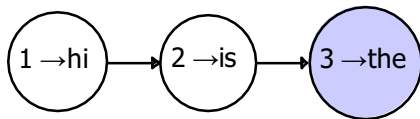
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insert (4, "a")

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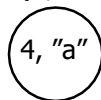
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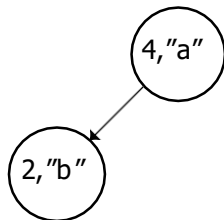
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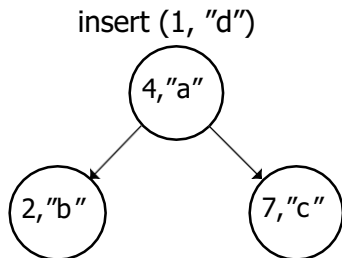
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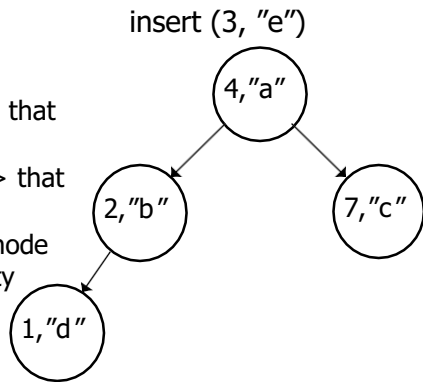
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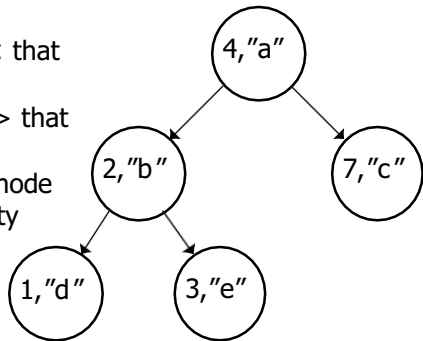
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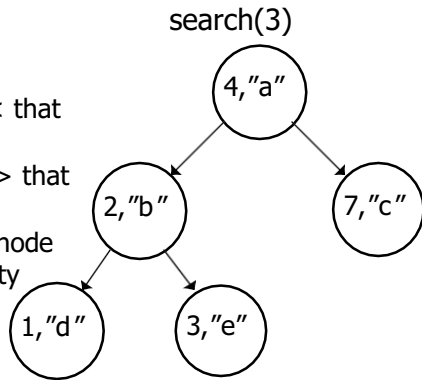
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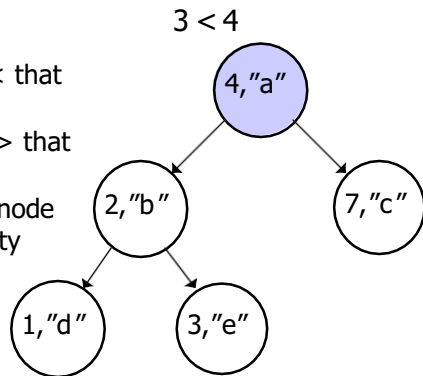
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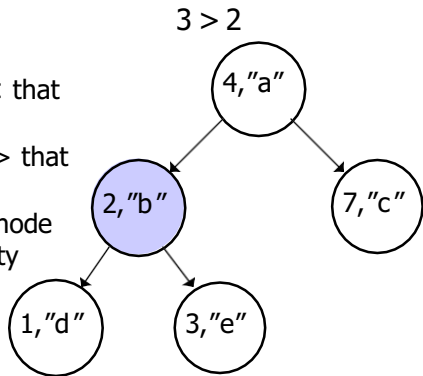
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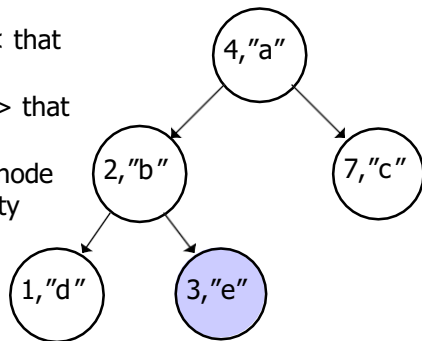
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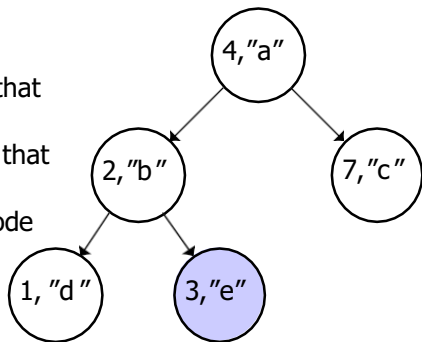
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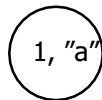
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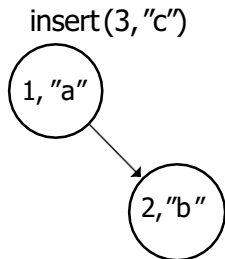
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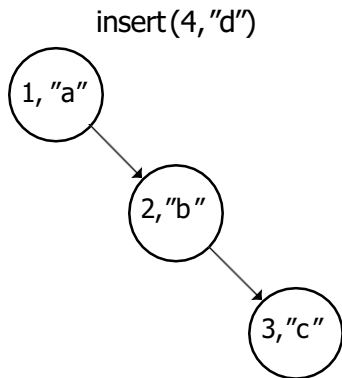
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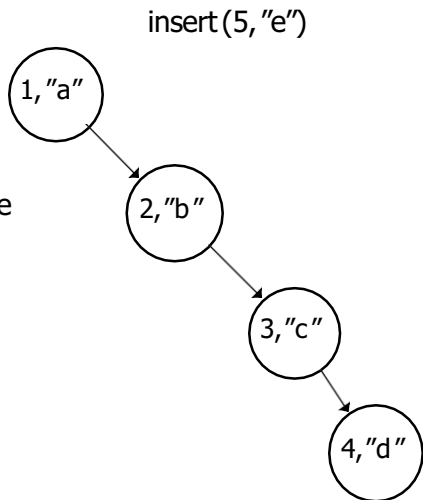
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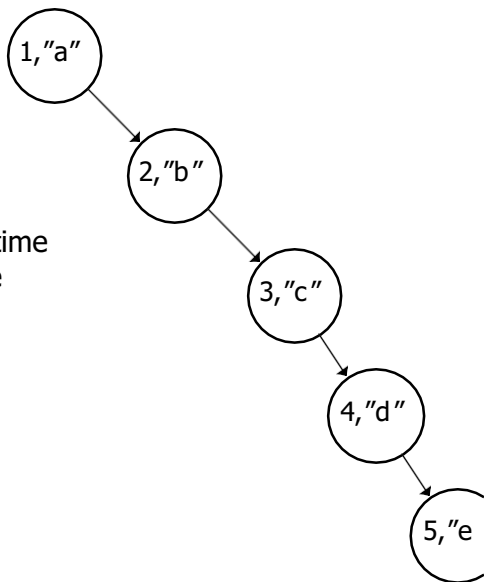
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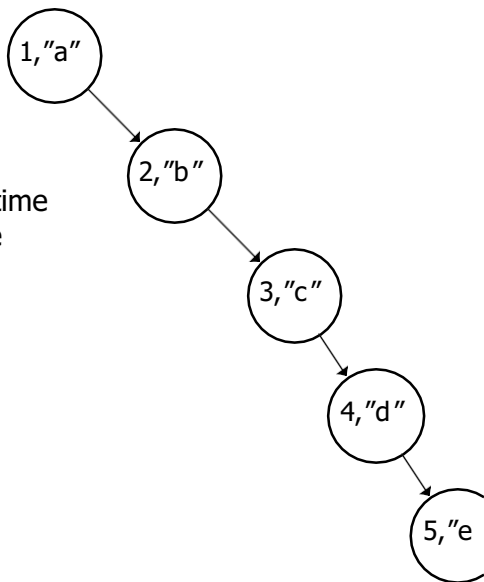
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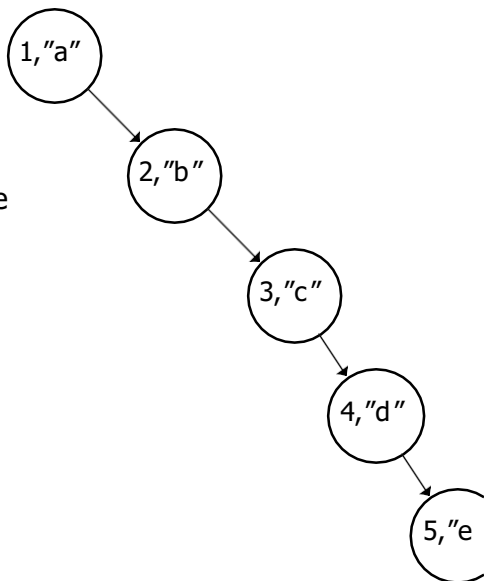
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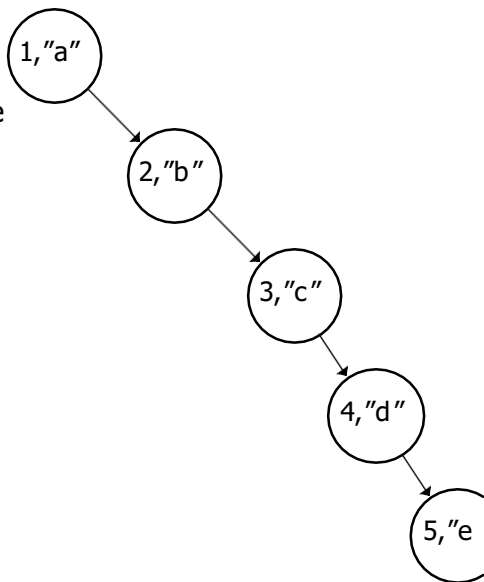
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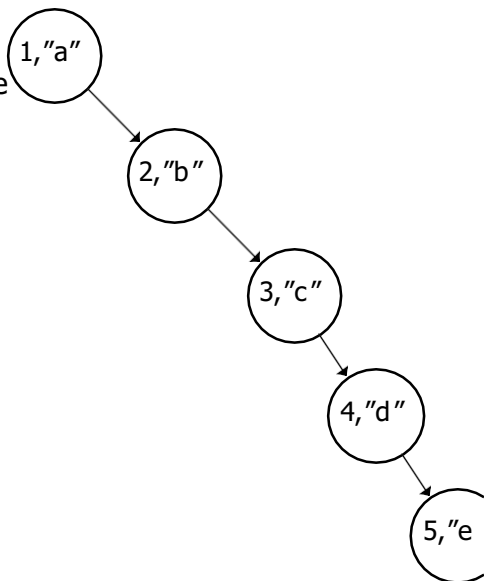
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 - › $n = 1 + 2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^k$
 - › $2^{k+1} - 1 = n, k = O(\lg n)$



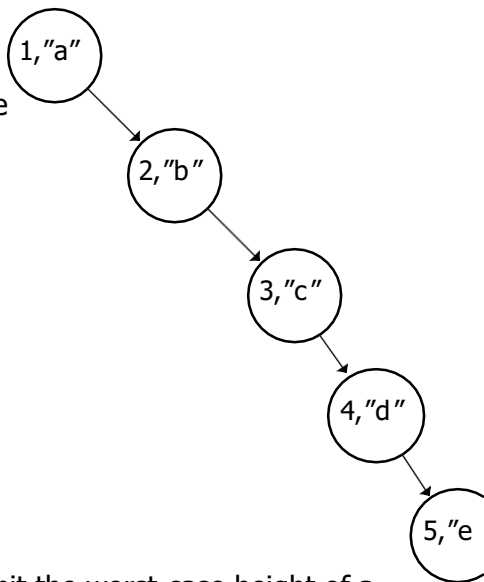
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- Is there anything we can do to limit the worst-case height of a binary search tree?





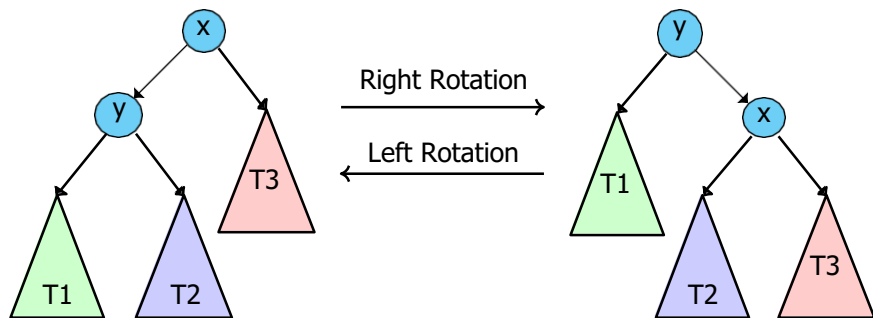
Video 1.9

Sampath Kannan

Balanced Binary Search Trees

- e BSTs can become unbalanced leading to $O(n)$ run times for operations.
- e We need a way to modify them so that their height is $O(\log n)$ instead of $O(n)$.
- e Intuitively we can get this property if the left and right sub-trees always have similar heights
- e Modifications must preserve search tree property

Rotations



We use rotations to keep left and right sub-trees balanced. In an AVL tree we maintain the invariant that all left and right sub-trees have a height difference of at most 1.

Hashing

- e To use an array to implement a dictionary we need a way to map elements from our universe to indices. This mapping is called a **hash function** and the array is called a **hash table**
- e Example: If our universe is all the integers and we have a hash table of size 37 we could use $h(x) = x \bmod 37$ as our hash function.
- e If only one item gets mapped to each index then all operations are $O(1)$!

Load factor

- e Suppose we have m different keys and a hash table of size n , and suppose that for each key we randomly choose an index to map it to.

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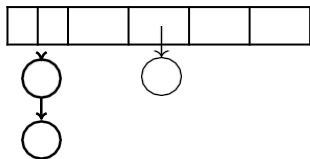
- Let X_i be the number of keys mapped to index i and

$$E[X] = \sum_k P(h(k) = i) * (1) = \sum_k (1/n) * (1) = m/n$$

- load factor** = a .

Handling Collisions

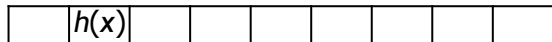
- e Can't get rid of collisions so we need to store multiple items in a single bin
- e One approach to this is **chaining**:



- e Instead of storing each item directly in the array, we store a linked list of all the items that map to that index
- e Run-time of all operations is now proportional to the length of the linked lists at the index we are operating on. We just saw that this gives *expected* $O(a)$ performance.
- e Note that the worst case is still $O(m)$!

Handling Collisions 2

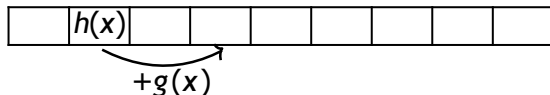
- Instead of chaining we can use **open addressing** where keys that map to the same index are stored in separate locations in the table.
- One approach to this is **double hashing**, where we use 2 hash functions $h(x)$ and $g(x)$.
- When there is a collision at $h(x)$ we try to insert at $h(x) + g(x)$, then $h(x) + 2g(x)$, ... etc



- Pros: No extra storage required, we don't have to deal with pointers
- Cons: Deletion is very tricky and easy to mess up

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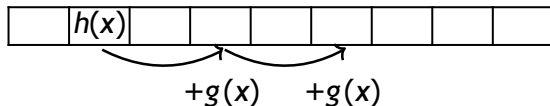
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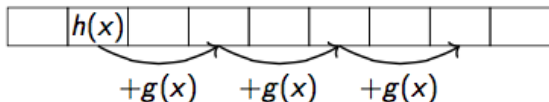
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