

Winter 2016  
COMP-250: Introduction  
to Computer Science

Lecture 22, March 31, 2016

# QuickSort

- Yet another sorting algorithm!
- Usually faster than other algorithms on average, although worst-case is  $O(n^2)$
- Divide-and-conquer:
  - **Divide:** Choose an element of the array for *pivot*. Divide the elements into three groups: those smaller than the pivot, those equal, and those larger.
  - **Conquer:** Recursively sort each group.
  - **Combine:** Concatenate the three sorted groups.

# QuickSort running time

- **Worse case:**
  - Already sorted array (either increasing or decreasing)
  - $T(n) = T(n-1) + c n + d$
  - $T(n)$  is  $O(n^2)$
- **Average case:** If the array is in random order, the pivot splits the array in roughly equal parts, so the average running time is  $O(n \log n)$
- **Advantage over mergeSort:**
  - constant hidden in  $O(n \log n)$  are smaller for quickSort. Thus it is faster by a constant factor
  - QuickSort is easy to do “in-place”

# In-place algorithms

- An algorithm is *in-place* if it uses only a *constant* amount of memory in addition of that used to store the input
- Importance of in-place sorting algorithms:
  - If the data set to sort barely fits into memory, we don't want an algorithm that uses twice that amount to sort the numbers
- SelectionSort and InsertionSort are in-place: all we are doing is moving elements around the array
- MergeSort is not in-place, because of the merge procedure, which requires a temporary array
- QuickSort can easily be made in-place...

## Partition

**Algorithm** partition(A, start, stop)

**Input:** An array A, indices start and stop.

**Output:** Returns an index j and rearranges the elements of A such that for all  $i < j$ ,  $A[i] \leq A[j]$  and for all  $k > j$ ,  $A[k] \geq A[j]$ .

pivot  $\leftarrow$  A[stop]

left  $\leftarrow$  start

right  $\leftarrow$  stop - 1

**while** left  $\leq$  right **do**

**while** left  $\leq$  right **and**  $A[\text{left}] \leq$  pivot) **do** left  $\leftarrow$  left + 1

**while** (left  $\leq$  right **and**  $A[\text{right}] \geq$  pivot) **do** right  $\leftarrow$  right -1

**if** (left < right ) **then** exchange  $A[\text{left}] \leftrightarrow A[\text{right}]$

exchange  $A[\text{stop}] \leftrightarrow A[\text{left}]$

**return** left

## Partition

Example of execution of partition

$A = [ 6 \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ 2 \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ]$       pivot = 5



## Partition

### Example of execution of partition

$A = [ 6 \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ 2 \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ]$       pivot = 5

$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{6} \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ \underset{\uparrow}{2} \ \underset{\uparrow}{5} \ \underset{\uparrow}{7} \ 5 ]$       swap 6, 2




The diagram illustrates the partitioning process. The array A is [6, 3, 7, 3, 2, 5, 7, 5]. The pivot is 5. The element 6 is at index 0 and 2 is at index 4. Red arrows point from index 4 to index 0, and from index 0 to index 4, indicating a swap. Dotted lines connect the pivot 5 to its original position at index 5 and its new position at index 4.

## Partition

### Example of execution of partition

$$A = [ 6 \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ 2 \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ] \quad \text{pivot} = 5$$

$$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{6} \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ \underset{\vdots}{2} \ \underset{\vdots}{5} \ \underset{\vdots}{7} \ 5 ] \quad \text{swap } 6, 2$$



$$A = [ \underset{\uparrow}{2} \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ \underset{\vdots}{6} \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ]$$






## Partition

### Example of execution of partition

$$A = [ 6 \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ 2 \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ] \quad \text{pivot} = 5$$

$$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{6} \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ \underset{\vdots}{2} \ \underset{\vdots}{5} \ \underset{\vdots}{7} \ 5 ] \quad \text{swap } 6, 2$$


$$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{2} \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ \underset{\vdots}{6} \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ]$$


$$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{2} \ \underset{\vdots}{3} \ \underset{\vdots}{7} \ \underset{\vdots}{3} \ \underset{\vdots}{6} \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ] \quad \text{swap } 7, 3$$


## Partition

### Example of execution of partition

$$A = [ 6 \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ 2 \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ] \quad \text{pivot} = 5$$

$$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{6} \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ \underset{\vdots}{2} \ \overset{\leftarrow}{5} \ \overset{\leftarrow}{7} \ 5 ] \quad \text{swap } 6, 2$$

$$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{2} \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ \underset{\vdots}{6} \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ]$$

$$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{2} \ \overset{\rightarrow}{3} \ \overset{\rightarrow}{7} \ 3 \ \underset{\vdots}{6} \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ] \quad \text{swap } 7, 3$$

$$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{2} \ \overset{\rightarrow}{3} \ \underset{\uparrow}{3} \ \overset{\leftarrow}{7} \ \underset{\vdots}{6} \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ]$$

## Partition

### Example of execution of partition

$$A = [ 6 \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ 2 \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ] \quad \text{pivot} = 5$$

$$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{6} \ 3 \ 7 \ 3 \ \underset{\vdots}{2} \ \overset{\leftarrow}{5} \ \overset{\leftarrow}{7} \ 5 ] \quad \text{swap } 6, 2$$

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$$A = [ \overset{\uparrow}{2} \ \overset{\rightarrow}{3} \ \underset{\uparrow}{3} \ \overset{\rightarrow}{7} \ \underset{\vdots}{6} \ 5 \ 7 \ 5 ] \quad \text{swap } 7, \text{pivot}$$

$$A = [ \underbrace{2 \ 3 \ 3}_{\leq 5} \ \overset{\uparrow}{5} \ \underbrace{6 \ 5 \ 7 \ 7}_{\geq 5} ]$$

# In-place quickSort

**Algorithm** quickSort( $A$ , start, stop)

**Input:** An array  $A$  to sort, indices start and stop

**Output:**  $A[\text{start} \dots \text{stop}]$  is sorted

**if** (start < stop) **then**

    pivot  $\leftarrow$  partition( $A$ , start, stop)

    quickSort( $A$ , start, pivot-1)

    quickSort( $A$ , pivot+1, stop)

## Randomized Quicksort

```
RandomizedQuicksort(A,start,stop) {  
  if |A| = 0 return  
  
  choose a pivot A[i] uniformly at random (start ≤ i ≤ stop)  
  exchange A[i] ↔ A[stop]  
  
  pivot ← partition(A,start,stop)  
  
  RandomizedQuicksort(A, start, pivot-1)  
  RandomizedQuicksort(A, pivot+1, stop)  
}
```

# Quicksort

## Running time.

- [Best case.] Select the median element as the pivot: quicksort makes  $\Theta(n \log n)$  comparisons.
- [Worst case.] Select the smallest (or largest) element as the pivot: quicksort makes  $\Theta(n^2)$  comparisons.

**Randomize.** Protect against worst case by choosing pivot at **random**.

**Intuition.** If we always select a pivot that is bigger than 25% of the elements and smaller than 25% of the elements, then quicksort makes  $\Theta(n \log n)$  comparisons.

**Notation.** Label elements so that  $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n$ .

# Randomized Quicksort: Expected Number of Comparisons

**Theorem.** Expected # of comparisons is  $O(n \log n)$ .

**Theorem.** [Knuth 1973] Stddev of number of comparisons is  $\sim 0.65n$ .

**Ex.** If  $n = 1$  million, the probability that randomized quicksort takes less than  $4n \ln n$  comparisons is at least 99.94%.

**Chebyshev's inequality.**  $\Pr[|X - \mu| \geq k\delta] < 1 / k^2$ .

Mean      Stddev

# STRINGS AND PATTERN MATCHING

- Brute Force, Rabin-Karp, Knuth-Morris-Pratt
- Regular Expressions



# String Searching

- The object of **string searching** is to find the location of a specific text pattern within a larger body of text (e.g., a sentence, a paragraph, a book, etc.).
- As with most algorithms, the main considerations for string searching are speed and efficiency.
- There are a number of string searching algorithms in existence today, but the three we shall review are **Brute Force**, **Rabin-Karp**, and **Knuth-Morris-Pratt**.

# Brute Force

- The **Brute Force** algorithm compares the pattern to the text, one character at a time, until unmatching characters are found:

---

*T*WO ROADS DIVERGED IN A YELLOW WOOD  
*R*OADS

---

T*W*O ROADS DIVERGED IN A YELLOW WOOD  
*R*OADS

---

TW*O* ROADS DIVERGED IN A YELLOW WOOD  
*R*OADS

---

TWO ROADS DIVERGED IN A YELLOW WOOD  
*R*OADS

---

TWO **ROADS** DIVERGED IN A YELLOW WOOD  
**ROADS**

---

- Compared characters are italicized.
- Correct matches are in boldface type.
- The algorithm can be designed to stop on either the first occurrence of the pattern, or upon reaching the end of the text.

# Brute Force

- The **Brute Force** algorithm compares the pattern to the text, one character at a time, until unmatching characters are found:

---

*T*WO ROADS DIVERGED IN A YELLOW WOOD  
*R*OADS

---

T*W*O ROADS DIVERGED IN A YELLOW WOOD  
*R*OADS

This blank space is  
italicized and red



S DIVERGED IN A YELLOW WOOD

---

TWO ROADS DIVERGED IN A YELLOW WOOD  
*R*OADS

---

TWO **ROADS** DIVERGED IN A YELLOW WOOD  
**ROADS**

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**ROADS**

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# Brute Force Pseudo-Code

- Here's the pseudo-code
  - do**
    - if** (text letter == pattern letter)
      - compare next letter of pattern to next letter of text
    - else**
      - move pattern down text by one letter
  - while** (entire pattern found or end of text)

---

cool cat Rolo went over the fence

cat

---

cool cat Rolo went over the fence

cat

---

cool cat Rolo went over the fence

cat

---

cool cat Rolo went over the fence

cat

---

cool\_cat Rolo went over the fence

cat

---

cool cat Rolo went over the fence

cat

---

# Brute Force-Complexity

- Given a pattern M characters in length, and a text N characters in length...
- **Worst case:** compares pattern to each substring of text of length M. For example, M=5.
- This kind of case can occur for image data.

- 1) *AAAAA*AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
*AAAAH*      **5 comparisons made**
- 2) *AAAAA*AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
*AAAAH*      **5 comparisons made**
- 3) *AAAAA*AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
*AAAAH*      **5 comparisons made**
- 4) *AAAAA*AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
*AAAAH*      **5 comparisons made**
- ....
- N) AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA*AAAAA*H  
**5 comparisons made**      *AAAAH*

- Total number of comparisons:  $M(N-M+1)$
- Worst case time complexity:  $O(MN)$

# Brute Force-Complexity(cont.)

- Given a pattern M characters in length, and a text N characters in length...
- **Best case if pattern found:** Finds pattern in first M positions of text. For example, M=5.

1) **AAAAA**AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
**AAAAA**      **5 comparisons made**

- Total number of comparisons: M
- Best case time complexity:  $O(M)$

# Brute Force-Complexity(cont.)

- Given a pattern M characters in length, and a text N characters in length...
- **Best case if pattern not found:** Always mismatch on first character. For example, M=5.

1) AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
O O O O H      1 comparison made

2) AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
O O O O H      1 comparison made

3) AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
O O O O H      1 comparison made

4) AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
O O O O H      1 comparison made

...

N) AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
1 comparison made      O O O O H

- Total number of comparisons: N
- Best case time complexity:  $O(N)$



# Rabin-Karp

- The Rabin-Karp string searching algorithm calculates a **hash value** for the pattern, and for each M-character subsequence of text to be compared.
- If the hash values are unequal, the algorithm will calculate the hash value for next M-character sequence.
- If the hash values are equal, the algorithm will do a **Brute Force comparison** between the pattern and the M-character sequence.
- In this way, there is only one comparison per text subsequence, and Brute Force is only needed when hash values match.
- Perhaps an example will clarify some things...

# Rabin-Karp Example

Hash value of "AAAAA" is 37

Hash value of "AAAAH" is 100

1) **AAAAA**AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
**AAAAH**

37≠100      **1 comparison made**

2) **AAAAA**AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
**AAAAH**

37≠100      **1 comparison made**

3) **AAAAA**AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
**AAAAH**

37≠100      **1 comparison made**

4) **AAAAA**AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAH  
**AAAAH**

37≠100      **1 comparison made**

...

N) AAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAAA**AAAAH**  
**AAAAH**

**5 comparisons made**

100=100

# Rabin-Karp Algorithm

*pattern is M characters long*

**hash\_p**=hash value of pattern

**hash\_t**=hash value of first M letters in  
body of text

**do**

**if** (**hash\_p** == **hash\_t**)

brute force comparison of pattern  
and selected section of text

**hash\_t** = hash value of next section of  
text, one character over

**until** (end of text **or**

brute force comparison == true)

# Rabin-Karp

- Common Rabin-Karp questions:
  - “What is the hash function used to calculate values for character sequences?”
  - “Isn’t it time consuming to hash every one of the M-character sequences in the text body?”
  - “Is this going to be on the final?”
- To answer some of these questions, we’ll have to get mathematical.

# Rabin-Karp Math

- Consider an M-character sequence as an M-digit number in base  $b$ , where  $b$  is the number of letters in the alphabet. The text subsequence  $t[i .. i+M-1]$  is mapped to the number

$$x(i) = t[i] \cdot b^{M-1} + t[i+1] \cdot b^{M-2} + \dots + t[i+M-1]$$

- Furthermore, given  $x(i)$  we can compute  $x(i+1)$  for the next subsequence  $t[i+1 .. i+M]$  in constant time, as follows:

$$x(i+1) = t[i+1] \cdot b^{M-1} + t[i+2] \cdot b^{M-2} + \dots + t[i+M]$$

$$x(i+1) = x(i) \cdot b$$

Shift left one digit

$$- t[i] \cdot b^M$$

Subtract leftmost digit

$$+ t[i+M]$$

Add new rightmost digit

- In this way, we never explicitly compute a new value. We simply adjust the existing value as we move over one character.

# Rabin-Karp Math Example

- Let's say that our alphabet consists of 10 letters.
- our alphabet = a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j
- Let's say that "a" corresponds to 1, "b" corresponds to 2 and so on.

The hash value for string "cah" would be ...

$$3*100 + 1*10 + 8*1 = 318$$

# Rabin-Karp Mods

- If  $M$  is large, then the resulting value ( $\sim b^M$ ) will be enormous. For this reason, we hash the value by taking it **mod** a **prime number**  $q$ .
- The **mod** function ( $\%$  in Java) is particularly useful in this case due to several of its inherent properties:
  - $[(x \bmod q) + (y \bmod q)] \bmod q = (x+y) \bmod q$
  - $(x \bmod q) \bmod q = x \bmod q$

# Rabin-Karp Mods

- For these reasons:

$$h(i) = ((t[i] \cdot b^{M-1} \bmod q) + (t[i+1] \cdot b^{M-2} \bmod q) + \dots + (t[i+M-1] \bmod q)) \bmod q$$

$$h(i+1) = (h(i) \cdot b \bmod q$$

Shift left one digit

$$- t[i] \cdot b^M \bmod q$$

Subtract leftmost digit

$$+ t[i+M] \bmod q )$$

Add new rightmost digit

$$\bmod q$$



# Rabin-Karp Complexity

- If a sufficiently large prime number is used for the *hash function*, the hashed values of two different patterns will usually be distinct.
- If this is the case, searching takes  $O(N)$  time, where  $N$  is the number of characters in the larger body of text.
- It is always possible to construct a scenario with a worst case complexity of  $O(MN)$ . This, however, is likely to happen only if the prime number used for hashing is small.

# The Knuth-Morris-Pratt Algorithm

- The **Knuth-Morris-Pratt (KMP)** string searching algorithm differs from the brute-force algorithm by keeping track of information gained from previous comparisons.
- A **failure function** ( $f$ ) is computed that indicates how much of the last comparison can be reused if it fails.
- Specifically,  $f$  is defined to be the longest prefix of the pattern  $P[0,..,j]$  that is also a suffix of  $P[1,..,j]$ 
  - **Note:** **not** a suffix of  $P[0,..,j]$

# The Knuth-Morris-Pratt Algorithm

- Specifically,  $f$  is defined to be the longest prefix of the pattern  $P[0,\dots,j]$  that is also a suffix of  $P[1,\dots,j]$ 
  - **Note:** **not** a suffix of  $P[0,\dots,j]$

- Example:

- value of the KMP failure function:

$j$	0	1	2	3	4	5
$P[j]$	a	b	a	b	a	c
$f(j)$	0	0	1	2	3	0

- This shows how much of the beginning of the string matches up to the portion immediately preceding a failed comparison.
  - if the comparison fails at (4), we know the a,b in positions 2,3 is identical to positions 0,1

# The KMP Algorithm (contd.)

- the KMP string matching algorithm: Pseudo-Code

Algorithm **KMPMatch**( $T, P$ )

**Input:** Strings  $T$  (text) with  $n$  characters and  $P$  (pattern) with  $m$  characters.

**Output:** Starting index of the first substring of  $T$  matching  $P$ , or an indication that  $P$  is not a substring of  $T$ .

```
 $f \leftarrow$  KMPFailureFunction( $P$ ) {build failure function}
 $i \leftarrow 0$ 
 $j \leftarrow 0$ 
while  $i < n$  do
  if  $P[j] = T[i]$  then
    if  $j = m - 1$  then
      return  $i - m + 1$  {a match}
     $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
     $j \leftarrow j + 1$ 
  else if  $j > 0$  then {no match, but we have advanced}
     $j \leftarrow f(j-1)$  {j indexes just after matching prefix in P}
  else
     $i \leftarrow i + 1$ 
return "There is no substring of  $T$  matching  $P$ "
```

# The KMP Algorithm (contd.)

- The KMP failure function: Pseudo-Code

Algorithm **KMPFailureFunction**( $P$ );

**Input:** String  $P$  (pattern) with  $m$  characters

**Output:** The failure function  $f$  for  $P$ , which maps  $j$  to the length of the longest prefix of  $P$  that is a suffix of  $P[1, \dots, j]$

$i \leftarrow 1$

$j \leftarrow 0$

while  $i \leq m-1$  do

  if  $P[j] = P[i]$  then

    {we have matched  $j + 1$  characters}

$f(i) \leftarrow j + 1$

$i \leftarrow i + 1$

$j \leftarrow j + 1$

  else if  $j > 0$  then

    { $j$  indexes just after a prefix of  $P$  that matches}

$j \leftarrow f(j-1)$

  else

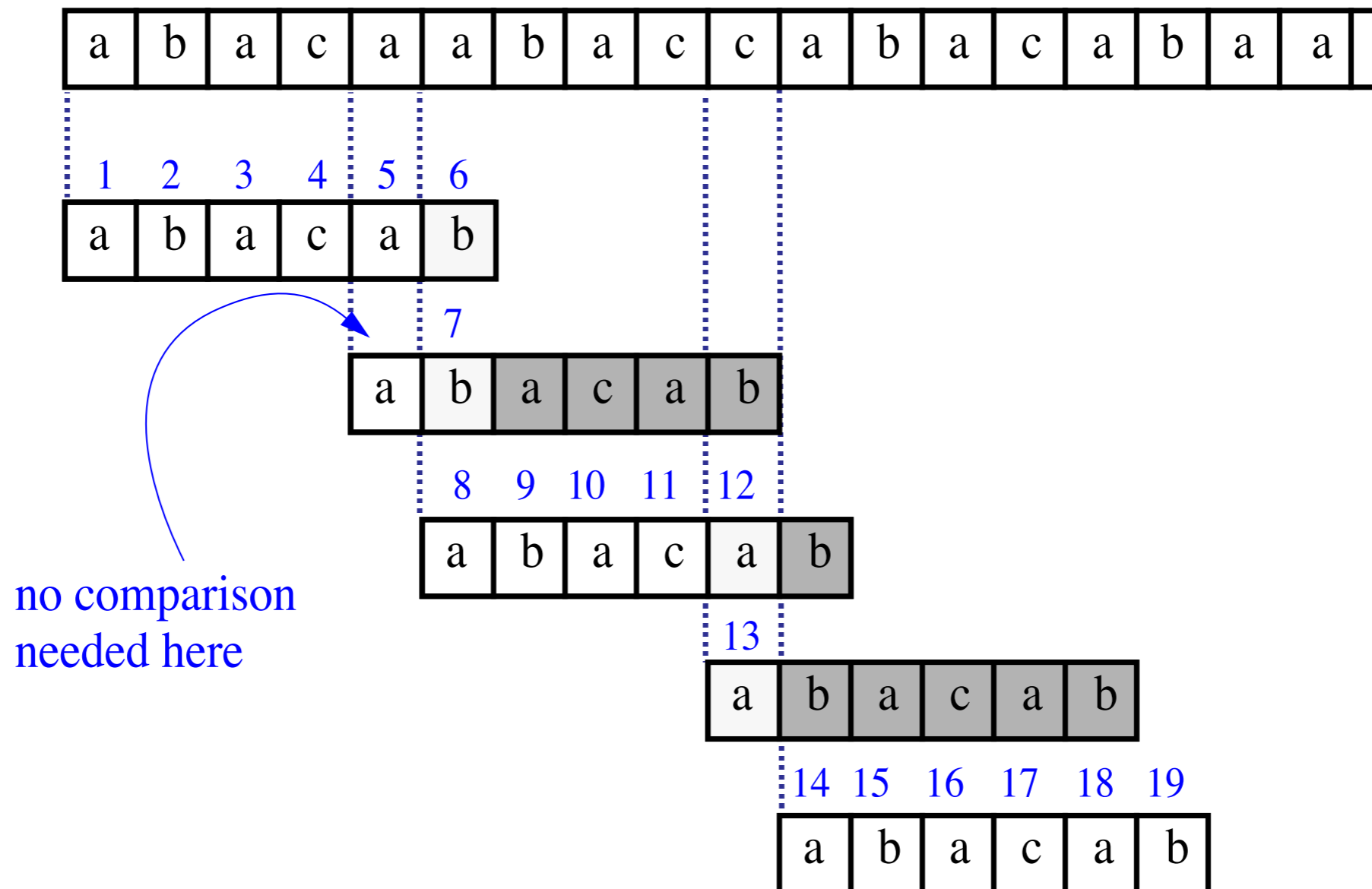
    {there is no match}

$f(i) \leftarrow 0$

$i \leftarrow i + 1$

# The KMP Algorithm (contd.)

- A graphical representation of the KMP string searching algorithm



# The KMP Algorithm (contd.)

- Time Complexity Analysis
- define  $k = i - j$
- In every iteration through the while loop, one of three things happens.
  - 1) if  $T[i] = P[j]$ , then  $i$  increases by 1, as does  $j$   
 $k$  remains the same.
  - 2) if  $T[i] \neq P[j]$  and  $j > 0$ , then  $i$  does not change  
and  $k$  increases by at least 1, since  $k$  changes  
from  $i - j$  to  $i - f(j-1)$
  - 3) if  $T[i] \neq P[j]$  and  $j = 0$ , then  $i$  increases by 1 and  
 $k$  increases by 1 since  $j$  remains the same.

# The KMP Algorithm (contd.)

- Thus, each time through the loop, either  $i$  or  $k$  increases by at least 1, so the greatest possible number of loops is  $2n$
- This of course assumes that  $f$  has already been computed.
- However,  $f$  is computed in much the same manner as `KMPMatch` so the time complexity argument is analogous. `KMPFailureFunction` is  $O(m)$
- Total Time Complexity:  $O(n + m)$

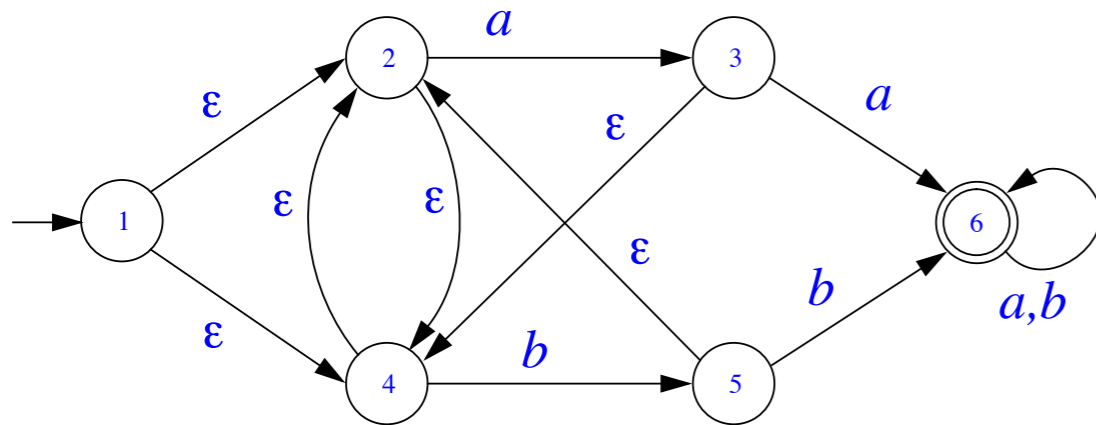
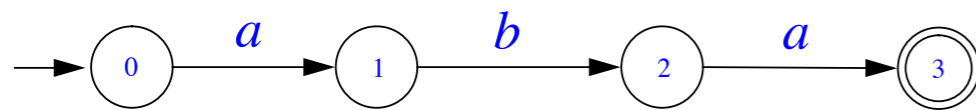
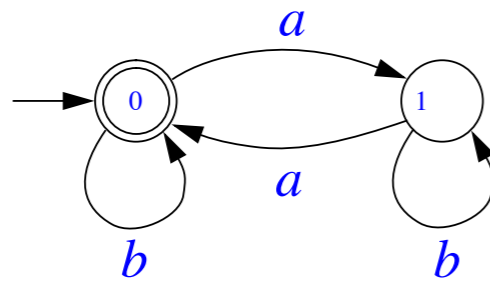


# Regular Expressions

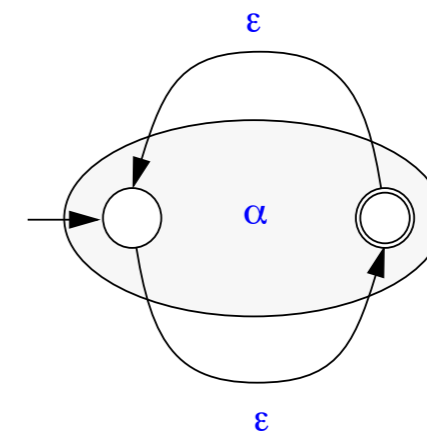
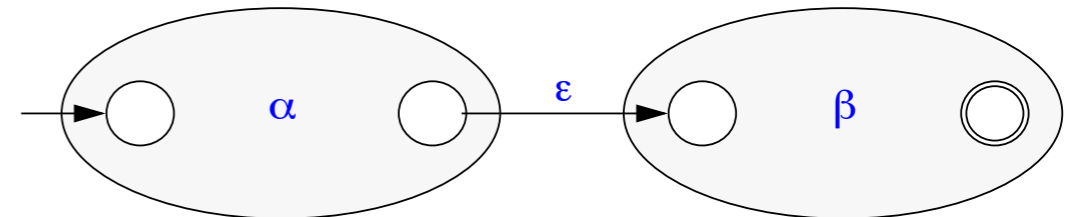
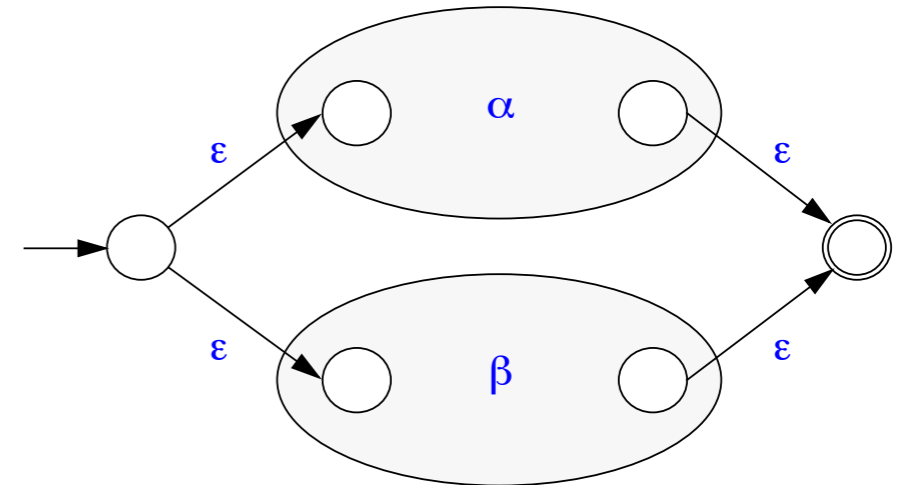
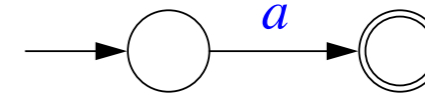
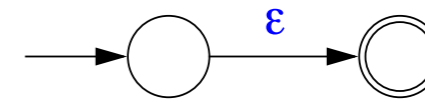
- notation for describing a set of strings, possibly of infinite size
- $\epsilon$  denotes the empty string
- $\mathbf{ab + c}$  denotes the set  $\{ab, c\}$
- $\mathbf{a}^*$  denotes the set  $\{\epsilon, a, aa, aaa, \dots\}$
- Examples
  - $\mathbf{(a+b)^*}$  all the strings from the alphabet  $\{a,b\}$
  - $\mathbf{b^*(ab^*a)^*b^*}$  strings with an even number of a's
  - $\mathbf{(a+b)^*sun(a+b)^*}$  strings containing the pattern "sun"
  - $\mathbf{(a+b)(a+b)(a+b)a}$  4-letter strings ending in a

# Finite State Automaton

- “machine” for processing strings



# Composition of FSA's



Winter 2016  
COMP-250: Introduction  
to Computer Science

Lecture 22, March 31, 2016