

DATA STRUCTURES AND ALGORITHMS

LECTURE 5

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In Lecture 4...

- Sorted Lists
- Circular Lists
- Linked Lists on Arrays

Today

- 1 Skip Lists
- 2 ADT Set
- 3 ADT Map
- 4 Iterator
- 5 ADT Matrix
- 6 Heap

Skip Lists

- Assume that we want to memorize a sequence of sorted elements. The elements can be stored in:
 - dynamic array
 - linked list
- What is the time complexity of inserting a new element into the sequence?
 - We can divide the insertion into two steps: *finding the position* and *inserting the element*.

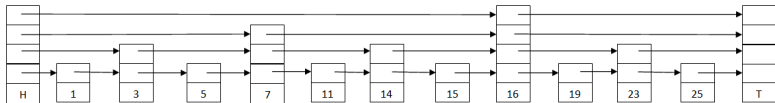
Skip List

- A skip list is a data structure that allows *fast search* in an ordered sequence.
- How can we do that?

Skip List

- A skip list is a data structure that allows *fast search* in an ordered sequence.
- How can we do that?
 - Starting from an ordered linked list, we add to every second node another pointer that skips over one element.
 - We add to every fourth node another pointer that skips over 3 elements.
 - etc.

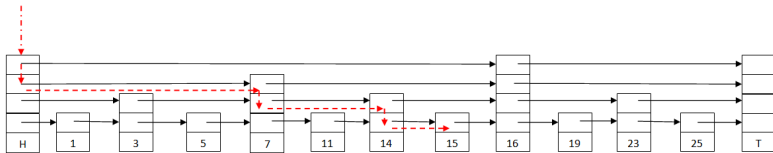
Skip List



- H and T are two special nodes, representing *head* and *tail*. They cannot be deleted, they exist even in an empty list.

Skip List - Search

- Search for element 15.



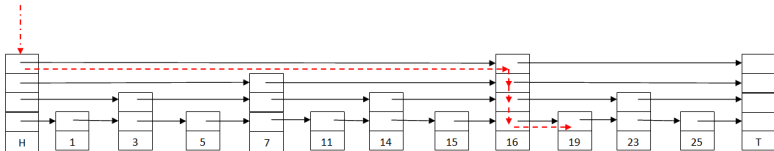
- Start from head and from highest level.
- If possible, go right.
- If cannot go right (next element is greater), go down a level.

Skip List

- Lowest level has all n elements.
- Next level has $\frac{n}{2}$ elements.
- Next level has $\frac{n}{4}$ elements.
- etc.
- \Rightarrow there are approx $\log_2 n$ levels.
- From each level, we check at most 2 nodes.
- Complexity of search: $O(\log_2 n)$

Skip List - Insert

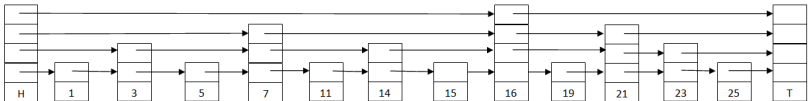
- Insert element 21.



- How *high* should the new node be?

Skip List - Insert

- *Height* of a new node is determined *randomly*, but in such a way that approximately half of the nodes will be on level 2, a quarter of them on level 3, etc.



- Assume we randomly generate the height 3 for the node with 21.

Skip List

- Skip Lists are *probabilistic* data structures, since we decide randomly the height of a newly inserted node.
- There might be a worst case, where every node has height 1 (so it is just a linked list).
- In practice, they function well.

ADT Set

- A *Set* is a container in which the elements are unique, and their order is not important (they do not have positions).
 - No operations based on positions.
 - We cannot make assumptions regarding the order in which elements are stored and will be iterated.
- Domain of the ADT Set:
 $\mathcal{S} = \{s | s \text{ is a set with elements of the type TElem}\}$

Set - Interface I

- **init** (s)
 - **descr:** creates a new empty set.
 - **pre:** true
 - **post:** $s \in \mathcal{S}$, s is an empty set.

Set - Interface II

- $\text{add}(s, e)$
 - **descr:** adds a new element into the set.
 - **pre:** $s \in \mathcal{S}, e \in TElem$
 - **post:** $s' \in \mathcal{S}, s' = s \cup \{e\}$ (e is added only if it is not in s yet. If s contains the element e already, no change is made).
 - What happens if e is already in s ?

Set - Interface III

- `remove(s, e)`
 - **descr:** removes an element from the set.
 - **pre:** $s \in \mathcal{S}, e \in TElem$
 - **post:** $s \in \mathcal{S}, s' = s \setminus \{e\}$ (if e is not in s , s is not changed).

Set - Interface IV

- $\text{find}(s, e)$
 - **descr:** verifies if an element is in the set.
 - **pre:** $s \in \mathcal{S}, e \in TElem$
 - **post:**

$$\text{find} \leftarrow \begin{cases} \text{True}, & \text{if } e \in s \\ \text{False}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Set - Interface V

- `size(s)`
 - **descr:** returns the number of elements from a set
 - **pre:** $s \in \mathcal{S}$
 - **post:** `size` \leftarrow the number of elements from `s`

Set - Interface VI

- `iterator(s, it)`
 - **descr:** returns an iterator for a set
 - **pre:** $s \in \mathcal{S}$
 - **post:** $it \in \mathcal{I}$, it is an iterator over the set s

Set - Interface VII

- **destroy** (s)
 - **descr:** destroys a set
 - **pre:** $s \in S$
 - **post:** the set s was destroyed.

Set - Interface VIII

- Other possible operations (characteristic for sets from mathematics):
 - reunion of two sets
 - intersection of two sets
 - difference of two sets (elements that are present in the first set, but not in the second one)

Sorted Set

- We can have a Set where the elements are ordered based on a *relation* \rightarrow *SortedSet*.
- The only change in the interface is for the *init* operation that will receive the *relation* as parameter.
- For a sorted set, the iterator has to iterate through the elements in the order given by the *relation*.

Set

- If we want to implement the ADT Set (or ADT SortedSet), we can use the following data structures as representation:
 - (dynamic) array
 - linked list
 - hash tables - to be discussed later
 - (balanced) binary trees - for sorted sets - to be discussed later
 - skip lists - for sorted sets

ADT Map

- A *Map* is a container where the elements are $\langle \text{key}, \text{value} \rangle$ pairs.
- Each *key* has one single associated *value*, and we can access the values only by using the key \rightarrow no positions in a *Map*.
- Keys have to be unique in a *Map*, and each *key* has one single associated value (if a key can have multiple values we have a *MultiMap*).
- When we implement a *Map*, we should use a data structure that makes finding the *keys* easy.

Map

- Examples of using a map:
 - Bank account number (as key) and every information associated with the bank account (as value)
 - Student id (as key) and every information about the student (as value)
 - etc.

- Domain of the ADT Map:

$\mathcal{M} = \{m \mid m \text{ is a map with elements } e = (k, v), \text{ where } k \in T\text{Key} \text{ and } v \in T\text{Value}\}$

Map - Interface I

- `init(m)`
 - **descr:** creates a new empty map
 - **pre:** true
 - **post:** $m \in \mathcal{M}$, m is an empty map.

Map - Interface II

- `destroy(m)`
 - **descr:** destroys a map
 - **pre:** $m \in \mathcal{M}$
 - **post:** m was destroyed

Map - Interface III

- $\text{add}(m, k, v)$
 - **descr:** add a new key-value pair to the map (the operation can be called *put* as well)
 - **pre:** $m \in \mathcal{M}, k \in T\text{Key}, v \in T\text{Value}$
 - **post:** $m' \in \mathcal{M}, m' = m \cup \langle k, v \rangle$
- What happens if there is already a pair with k as key?

Map - Interface IV

- `remove(m, k, v)`
 - **descr:** removes a pair with a given key from the map
 - **pre:** $m \in \mathcal{M}, k \in TKey$
 - **post:** $v \in TValue$, where

$$v \leftarrow \begin{cases} v', & \text{if } \exists \langle k, v' \rangle \in m \text{ and } m' \in \mathcal{M}, \\ & m' = m \setminus \langle k, v' \rangle \\ 0_{TValue}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Map - Interface V

- `search(m, k, v)`
 - **descr:** searches for the value associated with a given key in the map
 - **pre:** $m \in \mathcal{M}, k \in TKey$
 - **post:** $v \in TValue$, where

$$v \leftarrow \begin{cases} v', & \text{if } \exists \langle k, v' \rangle \in m \\ 0_{TValue}, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Map - Interface VI

- `iterator(m, it)`
 - **descr:** returns an iterator for a map
 - **pre:** $m \in \mathcal{M}$
 - **post:** $it \in \mathcal{I}$, it is an iterator over m .

Map - Interface VII

- **size(m)**
 - **descr:** returns the number of pairs from the map
 - **pre:** $m \in \mathcal{M}$
 - **post:** $\text{size} \leftarrow$ the number of pairs from m

Map - Interface VIII

- `keys(m, s)`
 - **descr:** returns the set of keys from the map
 - **pre:** $m \in \mathcal{M}$
 - **post:** $s \in \mathcal{S}$, s is the set of all keys from m

Map - Interface IX

- `values(m, b)`
 - **descr:** returns a bag with all the values from the map
 - **pre:** $m \in \mathcal{M}$
 - **post:** $b \in \mathcal{B}$, b is the bag of all values from m

Map - Interface X

- `pairs(m, s)`
 - **descr:** returns the set of pairs from the map
 - **pre:** $m \in \mathcal{M}$
 - **post:** $s \in \mathcal{S}$, s is the set of all pairs from m

Sorted Map

- We can have a Map where we can define an order (a relation) on the set of possible keys: instead of *TKey* we will have *TComp*.
- The only change in the interface is for the *init* operation that will receive the *relation* as parameter.
- For a sorted map, the iterator has to iterate through the pairs in the order given by the *relation*, and the operations *keys* and *pairs* return SortedSets.

Map

- If we want to implement the ADT Map (or ADT SortedMap), we can use the following data structures as representation:
 - (dynamic) array
 - linked list
 - hash tables - to be discussed later
 - (balanced) binary trees - for sorted maps - to be discussed later
 - skip lists - for sorted maps

Iterator - why do we need it? I

- Most containers have iterators and for every data structure we will discuss how we can implement an iterator for a container defined on that data structure.
- Why are iterators so important?

Iterator - why do we need it? II

- They offer a uniform way of iterating through the elements of any container

Iterator - why do we need it? III

subalgorithm printContainer(c) **is:**

//pre: c is a container

//post: the elements of c were printed

//we create an iterator using the iterator method of the container

iterator(c, it)

while valid(it) **execute**

//get the current element from the iterator

getCurrent(it, elem)

print elem

//go to the next element

next(it)

end-while

end-subalgorithm

Iterator - why do we need it? IV

- For most containers the iterator is the only thing we have to see the content of the container.
 - List (will be discussed later) is the only container that has positions, for other containers we can use only the iterator.

Iterator - why do we need it? V

- Giving up positions, we can gain performance.
 - Containers that do not have positions can be represented on data structures where some operations have good complexities, but where the notion of a position does not naturally exist and where enforcing positions is really complicated (ex. hash tables).

Iterator - why do we need it? VI

- Even if we have positions, using an iterator might be faster.
 - Going through the elements of a linked list with an iterator is faster than going through every position one-by-one.

ADT Matrix

- A *Matrix* is a container that represents a two-dimensional array.
- Each element has a unique position, determined by two indexes: its line and column.
- The operations for a Matrix are different from the operations that exist for most other containers, because in a Matrix we cannot add elements, and we cannot delete an element from a Matrix, we can only change the value of an element.

Matrix - Operations

- The minimum set of operations that should exist for the ADT Matrix is:
 - `init(matrix, nrL, nrC)` - create a new matrix with *nrL* lines and *nrC* columns
 - `nrLine(matrix)` - return the number of lines from the matrix
 - `nrColumns(matrix)` - return the number of columns from the matrix
 - `element(matrix, i, j)` - return the element from the line *i* and column *j*
 - `modify(matrix, i, j, val)` - change the values of the element from line *i* and column *j* into *val*

Matrix - Operations

- Other possible operations:
 - get the position of a given element
 - create an iterator that goes through the elements by columns
 - create an iterator the goes through the elements by lines
 - etc.

Matrix - representation

- Usually a sequential representation is used for a Matrix (we memorize all the lines one after the other in a consecutive memory block).
- If the Matrix contains many values of 0 (or 0_{TElem}), we have a *sparse matrix*, where it is more (space) efficient to memorize only the elements that are different from 0.

Sparse Matrix example

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 & 5 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Out of the 36 elements, only 10 are different from 0.

Sparse Matrix - representation

- We can memorize (line, column, value) triples, where value is different from 0 (or 0_{TElem}). For efficiency, we memorize the elements sorted by the (line, column) pairs (if the lines are different we order by line, if they are equal we order by column).
- Triples can be stored in:
 - (dynamic) arrays
 - linked lists
 - (balanced) binary trees

Sparse Matrix - representation example

- For the previous example we would keep the following triples:
 $\langle 1, 3, 3 \rangle$, $\langle 1, 5, 5 \rangle$, $\langle 2, 1, 2 \rangle$, $\langle 3, 6, 4 \rangle$, $\langle 4, 1, 1 \rangle$,
 $\langle 4, 4, 7 \rangle$, $\langle 5, 2, 6 \rangle$, $\langle 5, 6, 5 \rangle$, $\langle 6, 3, 9 \rangle$, $\langle 6, 4, 1 \rangle$.
- We need to retain the dimensions of the matrix as well (we might have last line(s) or column(s) with only 0 values).

Sparse Matrix - representation

- Linked representation, using circular lists.
- Each node contains the line, the column, and the value (different from 0) and each node has two pointers: to the next element on the same line and to the next element on the same column. Last elements keep a pointer to the first ones (circular lists).
- We will have special nodes for each line and each column to show the beginning of the corresponding list.

Sparse Matrix - representation example

- For the following matrix:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 9 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

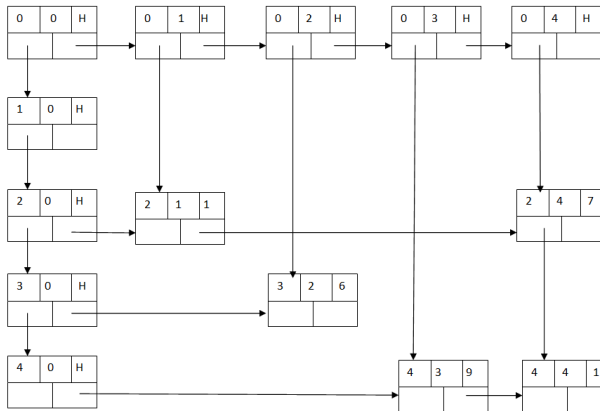
Sparse Matrix - representation example

- The linked lists will be made of nodes. Each node contains the line, column and value and two pointers: one to the next element on the same line, and one to the next element from the same column.

2	1	1

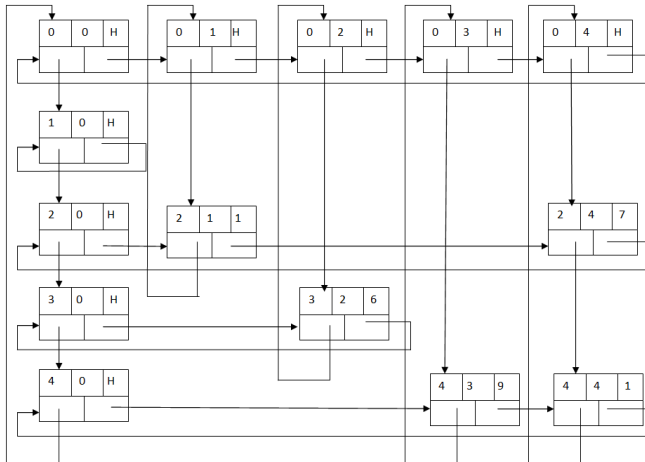
- This is how a node will be represented on the following figures. It represents the element from line 2, column 1 with value 1.

Sparse Matrix - representation example



- Nodes with line or column 0 and with value H , are *header* nodes, they do not represent actual elements, just the first node of the corresponding column or row.
- Obviously, the nodes can be anywhere in the memory (but it is easier to understand the representation if we draw them like this).
- And since we have circular lists, on each row and column the last node has a pointer to the corresponding header node.
- It is enough to retain the address of header node 0,0.

Sparse Matrix - representation example



Sparse Matrix - operations

- Operations of a sparse matrix are exactly the same as the operations for a *regular* matrix. The most difficult operation is *modify*, because here we have 4 different cases, based on the current value at line i and column j (we will call it *old_value*) and the value we want to put there (*new_value*).

Sparse Matrix - operations

- Operations of a sparse matrix are exactly the same as the operations for a *regular* matrix. The most difficult operation is *modify*, because here we have 4 different cases, based on the current value at line i and column j (we will call it *old_value*) and the value we want to put there (*new_value*).
 - $old_value = 0$ and $new_value = 0 \Rightarrow$ do nothing
 - $old_value = 0$ and $new_value \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ add a new triple/node with *new_value*
 - $old_value \neq 0$ and $new_value = 0 \Rightarrow$ delete the triple/node with *old_value*
 - $old_value \neq 0$ and $new_value \neq 0 \Rightarrow$ modify the value from the triple/node to *new_value*

Heap

- A binary heap is a data structure that can be used as an efficient representation for Priority Queues (will be discussed later).
- A binary heap is a kind of hybrid between a dynamic array and a binary tree.
- The elements of the heap are actually stored in the dynamic array, but the array is visualized as a binary tree.

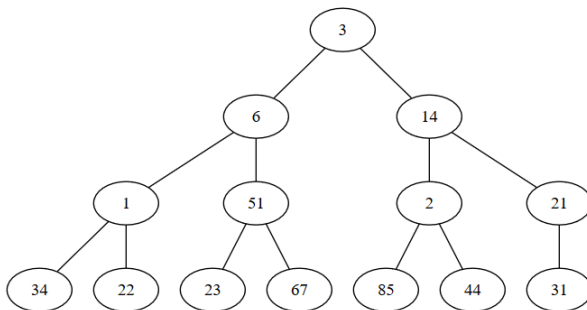
Heap

- Assume that we have the following array (upper row contains positions, lower row contains elements):

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
3	6	14	1	51	2	21	34	22	23	67	85	44	31

Heap

- We can visualize this array as a binary tree, in which each node has exactly 2 children, except for the last two rows, but there the children of the nodes are completed from left to right.



Heap

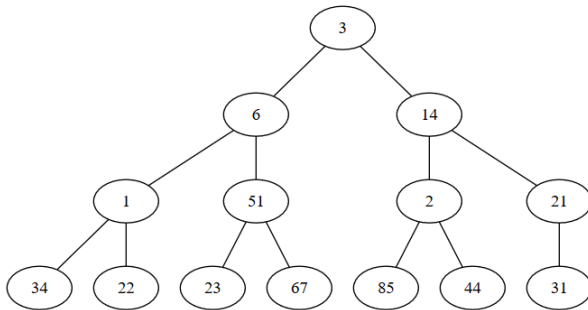
- If the elements of the array are: $a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_n$, we know that:
 - a_1 is the root of the heap
 - for an element from position i , its children are on positions $2 * i$ and $2 * i + 1$ (if $2 * i$ and $2 * i + 1$ is less than n)
 - for an element from positions i ($i > 1$), the parent of the element is on position $[i/2]$ (integer part of $i/2$)

Heap

- A *binary heap* is an array that can be visualized as a binary tree having a *heap structure* and a *heap property*.
 - *Heap structure*: in the binary tree every node has exactly 2 children, except for the last two levels, where children are completed from left to right.
 - *Heap property*: $a_i \geq a_{2*i}$ (if $2 * i \leq n$) and $a_i \geq a_{2*i+1}$ (if $2 * i + 1 \leq n$)
 - The \geq relation between a node and both its descendants can be generalized (other relations can be used as well).

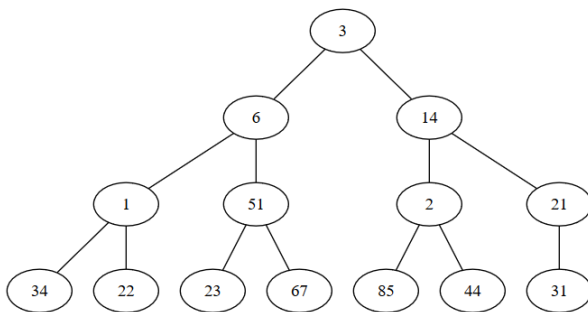
Heap

- Is this a heap?



Heap

- Is this a heap?



- No. It has the heap structure, but it does not have the heap property.

Heap - Notes

- If we use the \geq relation, we will have a *MAX-HEAP*.
- If we use the \leq relation, we will have a *MIN-HEAP*.
- The height of a heap with n elements is $\log_2 n$, so the operations performed on the heap have $O(\log_2 n)$ complexity.

Heap - operations

- A heap can be used as representation for a Priority Queue and it has two specific operations:
 - add a new element in the heap (in such a way that we keep both the heap structure and the heap property).
 - remove (we always remove the root of the heap - no other element can be removed).