# Essential data structures

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- A data structure is a way of organizing and storing data to perform operations on this data efficiently.
- It defines the relationships and functionalities of the data elements, facilitating tasks like insertion, retrieval, and deletion. Examples include arrays, linked lists, trees, and hash tables, each optimized for specific types of operations.

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What exactly are the operations?

What operations you may want to perform on a data structure?

#### 1.Insertion:

Adding a new element to the data structure.

#### 2.Deletion:

Removing an existing element from the data structure.

#### 3.Search:

Finding the presence or absence of a specific element in the data structure.

#### 4.Traversal:

Visiting and accessing each element in the data structure, often in a specific order.

#### 5.Update:

Modifying the value of an existing element in the data structure.

#### **6.Sorting:**

Arranging the elements in a specified order (e.g., ascending or descending).

#### 7. Merging:

Combining two or more data structures into a single one.

#### 8.Splitting:

Dividing a data structure into two or more separate structures.

#### 9.Access:

Retrieving the value of a specific element in the data structure.

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- Importantly, the efficiency of these operations varies based on the choice of data structure. Different data structures are designed to optimize specific operations, and the selection depends on the requirements of the tasks to be performed.
- Your skill as an experience programmer often comes down to choosing the right structure for the law of the l

# Why data structures?

 Data structures play a fundamental role in executing operations efficiently by organizing and storing data in a way that allows for fast retrieval, insertion, deletion, and manipulation. The choice of an appropriate data structure can significantly impact the efficiency of algorithms and, consequently, the speed of executing tasks.

- The importance of choosing the right data structure is evident in scenarios where execution speed is critical, such as in real-time systems, large-scale databases, and algorithms that process vast amounts of data.
- The efficiency gains achieved by selecting appropriate data structures contribute *significantly* to the overall performance of software systems and applications.

### **Arrays:**

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### **Arrays:**

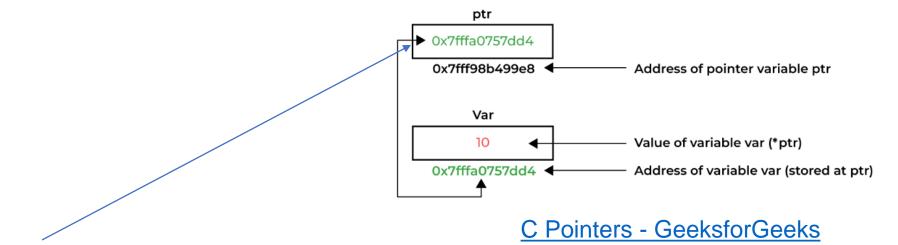
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### **Time Complexity:**

- -Access (Read/Write): O(1) Accessing an element in an array by index is constant time.
- Insertion/Deletion at End: O(1) Adding or removing an element at the end of an array is constant time.
- Insertion/Deletion at Arbitrary Position: O(n) Inserting or deleting an element at an arbitrary position requires shifting elements and takes linear time.

# Recall Pointers

 A pointer is a variable that stores the memory address of another variable in a programming language. It allows direct access to the memory location, enabling efficient manipulation and referencing of data.

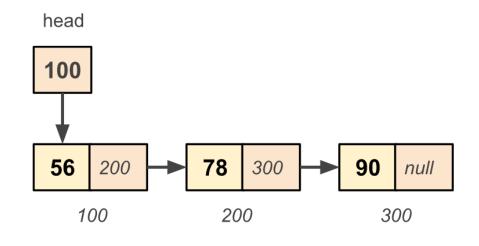


This pointer ptr stores the address of var



# Linked List

A linked list is a linear data structure in which elements are stored in nodes, each containing a data element and a reference (pointer) to the next node,



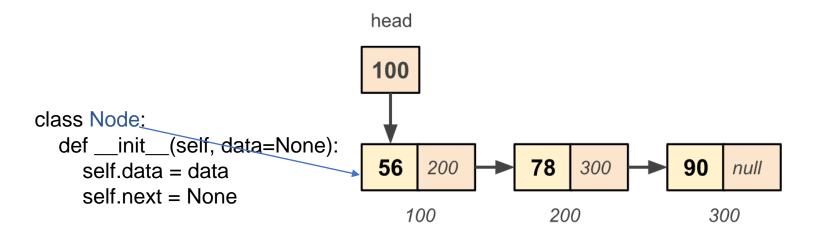


# Linked List

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#### Properties:

- Linked lists allow dynamic allocation and efficient insertion/deletion.
- Require sequential traversal for access.



# Linked List

```
class Node:
    def __init__(self, data=None):
        self.data = data
        self.next = None
```

```
def __init__(self):
    self.head = None
 def is_empty(self):
    return self.head is None
 def append(self, data):
    new_node = Node(data)
    if self.head is None:
      self.head = new node
      return
    last node = self.head
    while last_node.next:
      last node = last node.next
    last node.next = new node
def display(self):
    current node = self.head
    while current_node:
      print(current_node.data, end=" -> ")
      current_node = current_node.next
    print("None")
```

class LinkedList:

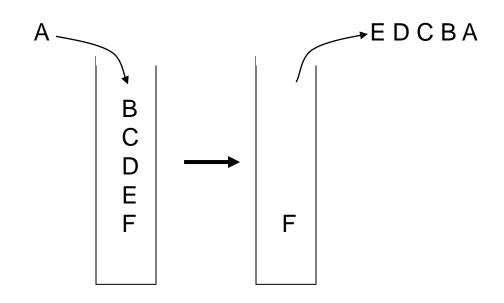
```
# Example usage:
linked_list = LinkedList()
linked_list.append(1)
linked_list.append(2)
linked_list.append(3)
linked_list.prepend(0)
linked_list.display()
```

# Output: 0 -> 1 -> 2 -> 3 -> None



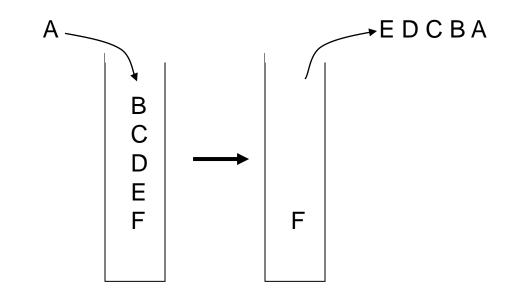
# Stack, Last In First Out data structure

- Stack operations
  - create
  - destroy
  - push
  - pop
  - top
  - is\_empty



# Stack, Last In First Out data structure

- Stack operations
  - create
  - destroy
  - push
  - pop
  - top
  - is\_empty



 Stack property: if an element x is pushed into the stack before an element y is pushed, then x will be popped after y is popped.
 This is why this data structure is called a LIFO stands for Last In First Out

```
class Stack:
  def __init__(self):
     self.items = []
  def is_empty(self):
     return len(self.items) == 0
  def push(self, item):
     self.items.append(item)
  def pop(self):
     if not self.is_empty():
        return self.items.pop()
     else:
        print("Stack is empty. Cannot pop.")
  def peek(self):
     if not self.is_empty():
        return self.items[-1]
     else:
        print("Stack is empty. Cannot peek.")
  def size(self):
     return len(self.items)
```

```
# Example usage:
stack = Stack()
stack.push(1)
stack.push(2)
stack.push(3)
print("Stack:", stack.items)
print("Size:", stack.size())
print("Peek:", stack.peek())
popped_item = stack.pop()
print("Popped item:", popped_item)
print("Stack after pop:", stack.items)
```

# Queue, First In First Out data structure

### **Queue Operations:**

- 1. Create: Initialize an empty queue.
- 2. Destroy: Deallocate resources and remove all elements from the queue.
- 3. Enqueue (Push): Add an element to the rear of the queue.
- 4. Dequeue (Pop): Remove and return the element from the front of the queue.
- 5. Is Empty: Check if the queue is empty.

# Queue, First In First Out data structure

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- 4. Dequeue (Pop): Remove and return the element from the front of the queue.
- 5. Is Empty: Check if the queue is empty.
- Queue Property:
- If an element x is enqueued into the queue before an element y is enqueued, then x will be dequeued before y is dequeued. This is why this data structure is called a FIFO, which stands for First In First Out.
- Note: In a queue, elements are added at the rear and removed from the front.

```
class Queue:
  def __init__(self):
     self.items = []
  def is_empty(self):
     return len(self.items) == 0
  def enqueue(self, item):
     self.items.append(item)
  def dequeue(self):
     if not self.is_empty():
       return self.items.pop(0)
     else:
       print("Queue is empty. Cannot dequeue.")
  def size(self):
     return len(self.items)
```

```
# Example usage:
queue = Queue()
queue.enqueue(1)
queue.enqueue(2)
queue.enqueue(3)
print("Queue:", queue.items)
print("Size:", queue.size())
print("Front:", queue.front())
print("Rear:", queue.rear())
dequeued_item = queue.dequeue()
print("Dequeued item:", dequeued_item)
print("Queue after dequeue:", queue.items)
```



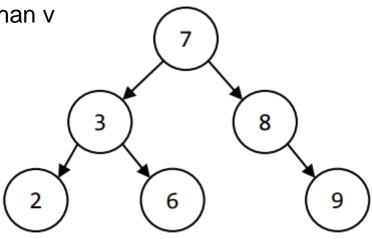
### Binary Search Tree

- •What is a Binary Search Tree (BST)?
  - A data structure that organizes elements in a hierarchical tree-like structure.
  - Key feature: Each node has at most two children, with a specific ordering property.

For every node n in a tree which has a value v:

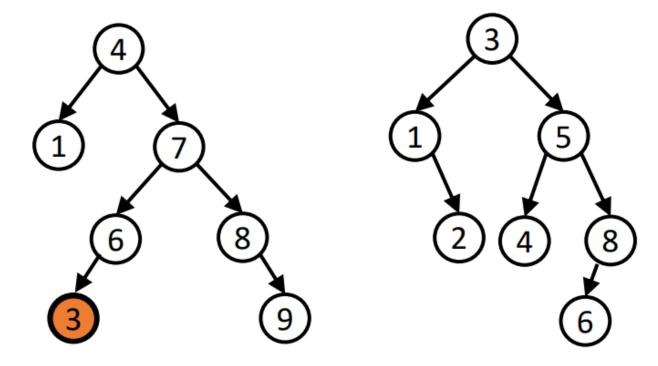
• Each left child (and all its children, etc.) must be strictly less than v

• Each right child (and all its children, etc.) must be strictly greater than v

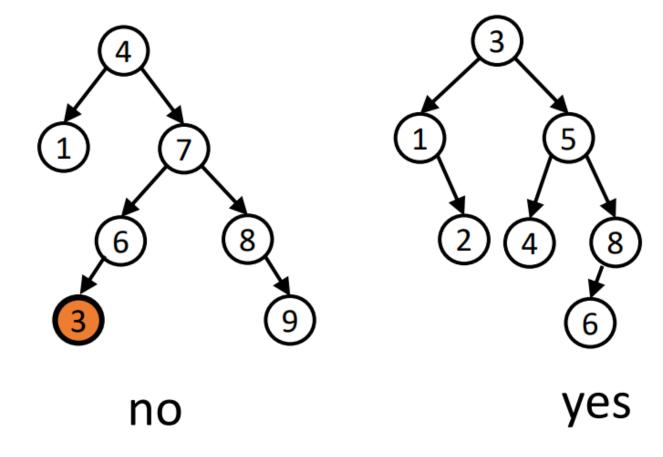


# Binary Search Tree

Which binary tree is BST?

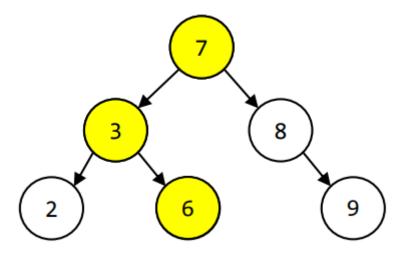


Which binary tree is BST?



### 1.Starting Point: Root Node 7

• We initiate the search from the root node, which is 7 in this case.



#### Binary Search Tree

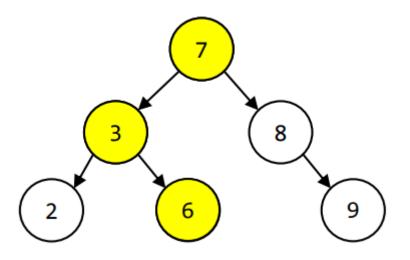
### **Looking for 5**

### 1.Starting Point: Root Node 7

• We initiate the search from the root node, which is 7 in this case.

#### 2. Comparison with 7: Move to Left Child

• Since all nodes less than 7 are situated in the left subtree, and 5 is indeed less than 7, our search focuses solely on the left child tree.



#### 1.Starting Point: Root Node 7

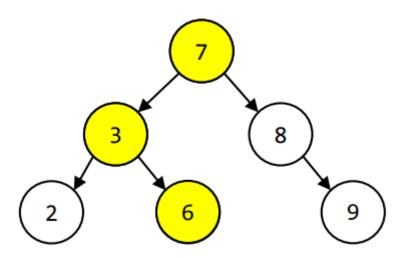
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#### 2. Comparison with 7: Move to Left Child

 Since all nodes less than 7 are situated in the left subtree, and 5 is indeed less than 7, our search focuses solely on the left child tree.

#### 3. Comparison with 3: Move to Right Child

• Subsequently, as we compare 5 to 3, the realization is that all values greater than 3 but less than 7 must exist in the right subtree of 3. Given that 5 is greater than 3, our search narrows down to the right child of 3.



#### 1.Starting Point: Root Node 7

• We initiate the search from the root node, which is 7 in this case.

#### 2. Comparison with 7: Move to Left Child

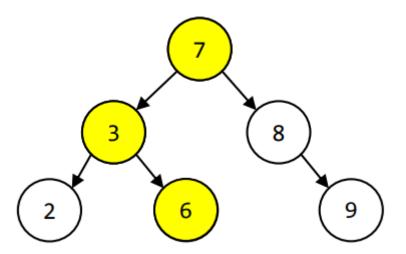
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#### 3. Comparison with 3: Move to Right Child

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#### **4.Binary Search Principle**

 The entire process mirrors the essence of binary search, a systematic approach to efficiently locate a specific value within a sorted dataset.



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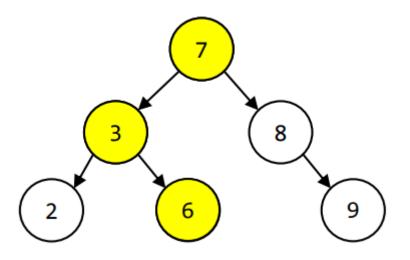
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### **5.Conclusion: Binary Search Tree (BST)**

 Therefore, the search methodology aligns with the principles of a Binary Searc Tree (BST), where nodes are arranged in a hierarchical structure with the left child containing smaller values and the right child containing larger values.



### Binary Search Tree: main methods

#### •Insertion

Add a new key while maintaining the order of the BST.

#### Deletion

• Remove a key, ensuring the BST properties are preserved.

#### •Search

• Locate a specific key efficiently using the binary search property.

#### Binary Search Tree

```
class BST:
class TreeNode:
                                     def __init__(self):
  def __init__(self, key):
                                        self.root = None
     self.key = key
     self.left = None
                                     def insert(self, key):
     self.right = None
                                        self.root = self._insert(self.root, key)
                                     def _insert(self, root, key):
                                        if root is None:
                                           return TreeNode(key)
                                        if key < root.key:
                                           root.left = self._insert(root.left, key)
                                        elif key > root.key:
                                           root.right = self._insert(root.right, key)
                                        return root
                                     def search(self, key):
                                        return self._search(self.root, key)
                                     def _search(self, root, key):
                                        if root is None or root.key == key:
                                           return root
                                        if key < root.key:
                                           return self._search(root.left, key)
```

return self.\_search(root.right, key)

### # Example Usage:

```
bst = BST()
values = [7, 3, 9, 2, 5, 8, 10]

for value in values:
    bst.insert(value)

search_key = 5
result = bst.search(search_key)

if result:
    print(f"Value {search_key} found in the BST.")
else:
    print(f"Value {search_key} not found in the BST.")
```



# Let examine search more closely

```
def search(p:TreeNode, x:object):
   if p is None: return None
   if x < p.value:
      return search(p.left, x)
   if x > p.value:
      return search(p.right, x)
   return p
```

What is the complexity?

### Binary Search Tree: complexity

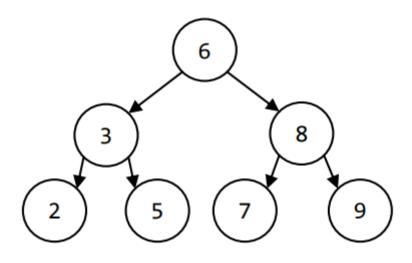
- •Average Case
  - Search, Insertion, and Deletion: O(log n)
- •Worst Case
  - Unbalanced Tree: O(n) Degenerates to a linked list.

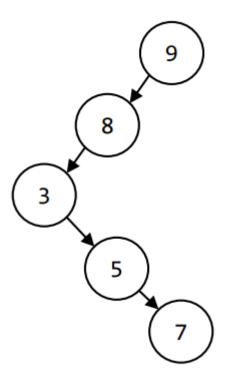
#### Balanced Binary Search Tree

Let's consider the runtime of search on a BST that is balanced.

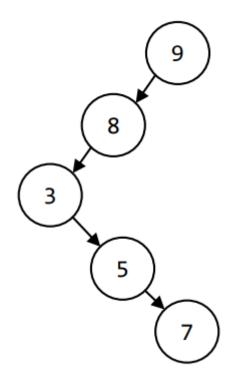
A tree is balanced if for every node in the tree, the node's left and right subtrees are approximately the same size. This results in a tree that minimizes the number of recursive levels.

Every time you take a search step in a balanced tree, you cut the number of nodes to be searched in half. This means that you'll take O(log n) time, like with ordinary binary search.





Is this a valid BST?

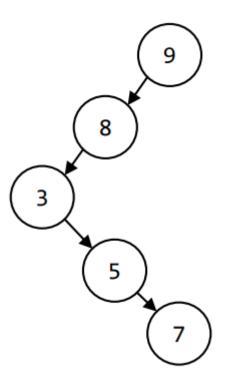


Is this a valid BST? Yes!



### Unbalanced Binary Search Tree

A tree is considered unbalanced if at least one node has significantly different sizes in its left and right children. For example, consider the tree on the right.

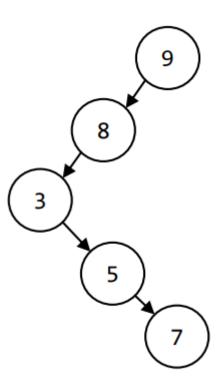


## Unbalanced Binary Search Tree

A tree is considered unbalanced if at least one node has significantly different sizes in its left and right children. For example, consider the tree on the right.

This is a valid BST, but it is still difficult to search! If you search it for a number like 6, it can still take O(n) time. When we put data into BSTs, we usually strive to make them balanced, to avoid these edge cases.

When we design the insertion function in that way, we can assume the average runtime will be O(log n), why?.



## Dictionaries (Hashtables)

- Dict.Init(): Initialize the dictionary;
- Dict.Insert(Key K, Data D): Insert (key,data) in dictionary;
- bool Dict.Member(Key K): Return true if key K is in dictionary;
- Data Dict.Retrieve(Key K): Return data associated with key K.

## Hashing

Hash table: H[0], H[1], . . . , H[m-1]. m = Size of hash table. This about it as a list of size m.

Hash functions: h : Key  $K \rightarrow \{0, 1, ..., m-1\}$ .

## Examples of hash functions

The set of all Keys K is typically much larger than the size of the table m, could be infinite!

- $h(K) = K \mod m$ ;
- h(K) = ((aK + b) mod p) mod m for some large prime p >> m

## Bad hash functions

Lets consider the Division hashing:  $h(K) = K \mod m$ .

## Problems:

• If m = 1000, then keys (1027, 2027, 3027, . . . , 9027) all map to H[27];

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- If m = 1000, then keys (1027, 2027, 3027, . . . , 9027) all map to H[27];
- If m is even and keys K are always even, then h(K) is always even. (Never access the H[i] for i odd.)
- If m is a multiple of 10 and keys K are always multiples of 10, then h(K) is always a power of 10. (Only access 1/10'th of the hash table, a huge waste of memory.)

Rule of thumb: m should be a prime.

## Good hash functions

• All hash table locations are equally likely to be accessed;

• Keys with a regular pattern are not mapped to the same locations

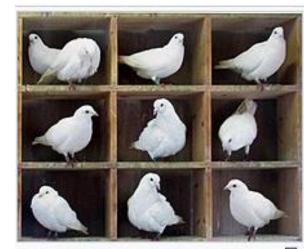
Collisions means : h(K1) = h(K2) but K1 is not equal K2.

Collisions is unavoidable, why?

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Collisions is unavoidable, why?

The Pigeonhole principle



Pigeons in holes. Here there are n = 10 pigeons in m = 9 holes. Since 10 is greater than 9, the pigeonhole principle says that at least one hole has more than one pigeon. (The top left hole has 2 pigeons.)

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pigeonhole\_principle



Remember that Hash table: H[0], H[1], ..., H[m - 1].

m = Size of hash table.

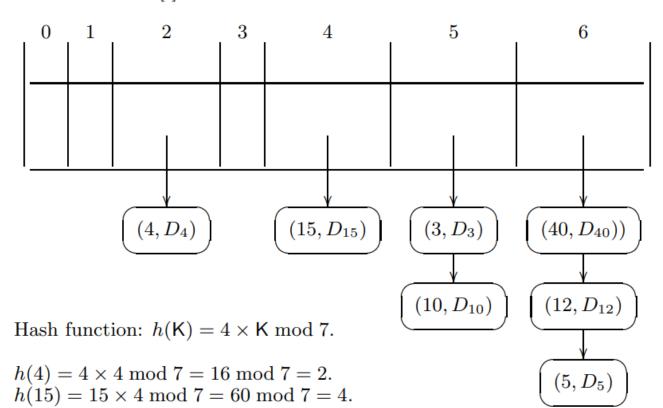
n = Number of elements in the table.

N = Size of the set containing all possible keys. (e.g., 232 or 264 for 32-bit or 64-bit unsigned integers.) (N could be infinite! For example when the keys are all possible strings.)

Typically,  $N \gg m > n$ 

One solution for the collision problem: Chained Hashing.

Each location H[i] is a linked list.



Hashing: application

Problem: For each element x in array A, report the number of occurrences of x in A.

Hashing: application

Problem: Return true if there is a duplicate element in a given list.

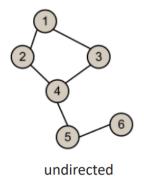
## Running time comparison

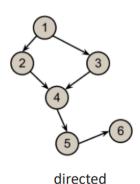
Data Structure	Time Complexity							
	Average				Worst			
	Access	Search	Insertion	Deletion	Access	Search	Insertion	Deletion
Array	Θ(1)	Θ(n)	Θ(n)	Θ(n)	0(1)	0(n)	0(n)	0(n)
Stack	Θ(n)	Θ(n)	Θ(1)	Θ(1)	0(n)	0(n)	0(1)	0(1)
Queue	Θ(n)	Θ(n)	Θ(1)	Θ(1)	0(n)	0(n)	0(1)	0(1)
Singly-Linked List	Θ(n)	Θ(n)	Θ(1)	Θ(1)	0(n)	0(n)	0(1)	0(1)
Doubly-Linked List	Θ(n)	Θ(n)	Θ(1)	Θ(1)	0(n)	0(n)	0(1)	0(1)
Hash Table	N/A	$\Theta(1)$	Θ(1)	$\Theta(1)$	N/A	0(n)	0(n)	0(n)
Binary Search Tree	$\Theta(\log(n))$	$\Theta(\log(n))$	$\Theta(\log(n))$	$\Theta(\log(n))$	0(n)	0(n)	0(n)	0(n)

Complexity of different operations on different data structures according to the Big-O notation - Stack Overflow

# Graphs

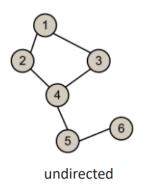
- A graph is a data structure that consists of a set of nodes (vertices) and a set of edges connecting these nodes.
- The edges may have a direction (directed graph) or may not (undirected graph).
- Graphs are widely used to represent relationships and connections between different entities.

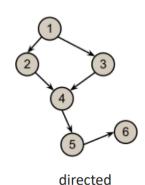




# Graphs

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#### A few terms:

- 1. Vertex (Node): A fundamental unit in a graph, representing an entity.
- 2. Edge: A connection between two vertices. It may have a direction (directed) or not (undirected).
- 3. Directed Graph: A graph in which edges have a direction, indicating a one-way relationship between vertices.
- 4. Undirected Graph: A graph in which edges have no direction, representing a mutual relationship between vertices.
- 5. Path: A sequence of vertices where each adjacent pair is connected by an edge.
- 6. Cycle: A path that starts and ends at the same vertex, forming a closed loop.

Graphs are used in various applications, including social networks, transportation systems, computer networks, and more. They provide a powerful and flexible way to model and analyze relationships between entities.