

Introduction to Algorithms

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❖ Chapter.3 Data Structures

1. Elementary Data Structures

- 1) Stacks and queues
- 2) Linked lists
- 3) Implementing pointers and objects
- 4) Representing rooted trees

2. Hash Tables

- 1) Direct-address tables
- 2) Hash tables
- 3) Hash functions
- 4) Open addressing

3. Binary Search Trees

- 1) What is a binary search tree?
- 2) Querying a binary search tree
- 3) Insertion and deletion

4. Red-Black Trees

- 1) Properties of red-black trees
- 2) Rotations
- 3) Insertion
- 4) Deletion

5. Augmenting Data Structures

- 1) Dynamic order statistics
- 2) How to augment a data structure
- 3) Interval trees

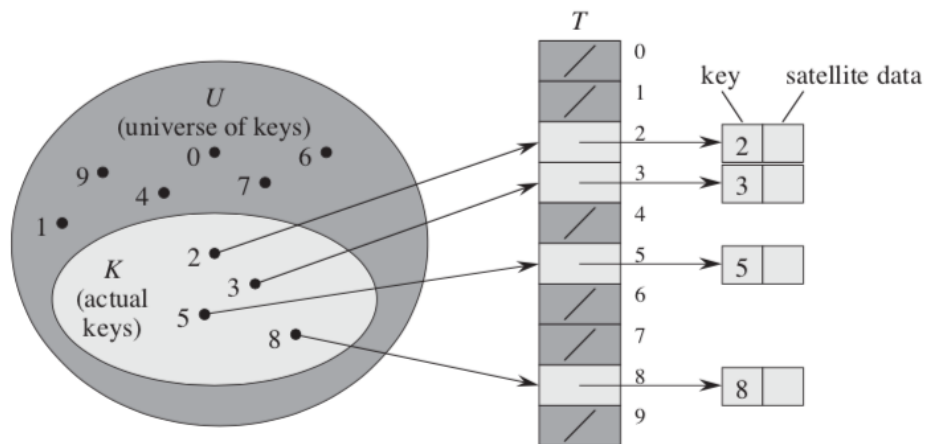
❖ Direct-address tables

• Introduction

- A hash table is an effective data structure for implementing dictionaries
- The average time to search for an element in a hash table is $O(1)$
 - ✓ In worst case, searching for an element in a hash table equals to linked list : $\theta(n)$

• Definition of direct-address tables

- Works well when the universe U of keys is reasonably small
- Each element has a key from the universe $U = \{0, 1, \dots, m - 1\} \rightarrow$ no two elements have the same key



- Use a direct-address table denoted by $T[0, \dots, m - 1]$
- Each slot corresponds to a key in the universe U
- Slot k points to an element in the set with the key k
- If the set contains no element with key k , then $T[k] = NIL$

❖ Direct-address tables

- The operation of table

DIRECT-ADDRESS-SEARCH(T, k)	DIRECT-ADDRESS-DELETE(T, x)	DIRECT-ADDRESS-INSERT(T, x)
1 return $T[k]$	1 $T[x.key] = \text{NIL}$	1 $T[x.key] = x$

➤ Each of the operations takes only $O(1)$ time

❖ Hash tables

- introduction

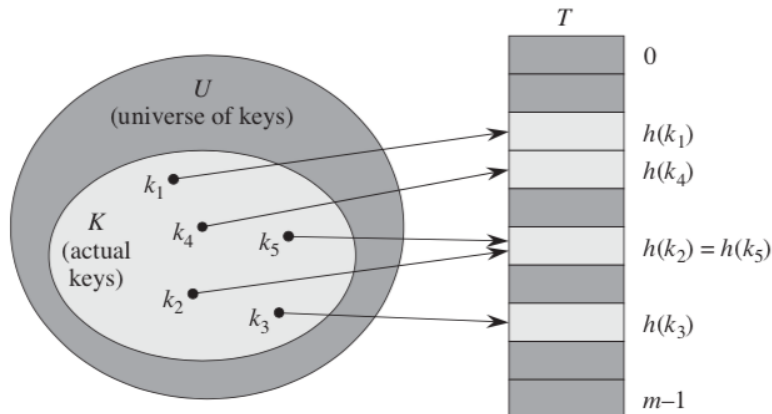
➤ The disadvantages of direct addressing table

- ✓ If the universe U is large, a table T of size $|U|$ may be impossible in given memory
- ✓ The set k of keys actually stored may be small relative to $U \rightarrow$ most of the space allocated for T would be wasted

❖ Hash tables

- definition

- The hash table requires much less storage than a direct address table
- Reduce the storage requirement to $\theta(|k|)$, maintaining the benefit that searching for an element in only $O(1)$ time
- With hashing, the element k is stored in slot $h(k)$
 - ✓ In direct address table, stored in slot k
 - ✓ Use hash function h to compute the slot from the key k
 - ✓ h maps the universe U of keys into slots of a hash table $T[0, \dots, m - 1]$
 - ✓ $h : U \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, m - 1\}$



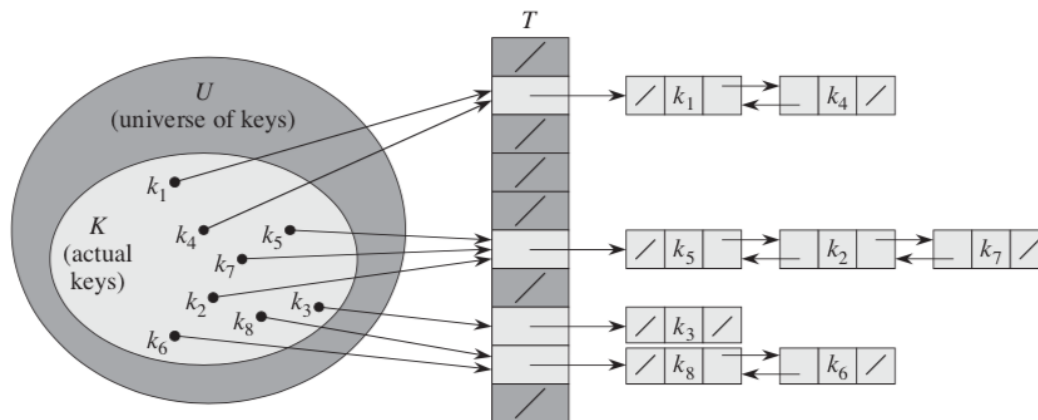
- Reduces the range of array indices and the size of array T
- there is a collision problem like $h(k_2) = h(k_5)$
- Introduce effective techniques for resolving the conflict created by collision

❖ Hash tables

- problems

- The ideal solution would be to avoid collision
 - ✓ $|U| > m$, must be at least two keys that have the same hash value
 - ✓ Avoiding collisions altogether is impossible
 - ✓ Present the simplest collision resolution technique called **chaining**

- Collision resolution by chaining



- Place all elements that hash to the same slot into the same linked-list
- Slot j contains a pointer to the head of the list all stored elements that hash to j
- If there are no elements, slot j contains *NIL*

❖ Hash tables

- The operations on hash table T
 - Easy to implement when collisions are resolved by chaining
 - Worst case running time for *INSERT* & *DELETE* : $O(1)$

CHAINED-HASH-INSERT(T, x)

1 insert x at the head of list $T[h(x.key)]$

CHAINED-HASH-SEARCH(T, k)

1 search for an element with key k in list $T[h(k)]$

CHAINED-HASH-DELETE(T, x)

1 delete x from the list $T[h(x.key)]$

❖ Hash functions

- Introduction
 - In this chapter, we discuss some issues regarding the design of good hash functions
 - Present three methods for their creation
 - A good hash function satisfies the assumption of simple uniform hashing
 - ✓ Each key is equally likely to hash to any of the m slots, independently, evenly

❖ Hash functions

- The division method

- Map a key k into one of m slots by taking the remainder of k divided by m
- $h(k) = k \bmod m$
 - ✓ Hash table size $m = 12$, key $k = 100$
 - ✓ $h(k) = 4$
- Requires only a single division operation, hashing by division is quite fast

- The multiplication method

- Multiply the key k by a constant A in the range $0 < A < 1$ and extract the fractional part of kA
- Multiply this value by m and take the floor of the result
- $h(k) = \lfloor m(kA \bmod 1) \rfloor$

Represent the fractional part of kA , that is $kA - \lfloor kA \rfloor$

❖ Hash functions

- Universal hashing

- In worst-case, n elements are hashed to the same slot
 - ✓ Retrieval time is $\theta(n)$
 - ✓ Fixed hash function is vulnerable to such worst-case
- Choose the hash function randomly in a way that is independent of the keys that are actually going to be stored

❖ Open addressing

- Definition

- All elements occupy the hash table itself
 - ✓ Each table entry contains either the element or NIL value
- no elements are stored outside the table unlike in chaining
- The advantage of open addressing is that it avoids pointers altogether
 - ✓ Instead of following pointers, compute the sequence of slots
 - ✓ The extra memory freed by not storing pointers provide the hash table with a larger number of slots for the same amount of memory

0	700
1	50
2	85
3	92
4	NIL
5	NIL
6	76

❖ Open addressing

• Insertion

- Probe the hash table until we find an empty slot
- Require that for every key k , there is a prob sequence
 - ✓ $\langle h(k, 0), h(k, 1), \dots, h(k, m - 1) \rangle$ → probe number
 - ✓ Every hash table slots are considered as a slot for a new key as the table fills up

HASH-INSERT(T, k)

```
1   $i = 0$ 
2  repeat
3       $j = h(k, i)$ 
4      if  $T[j] == \text{NIL}$ 
5           $T[j] = k$ 
6          return  $j$ 
7      else  $i = i + 1$ 
8  until  $i == m$ 
9  error "hash table overflow"
```

- Each slot contains key or *NIL*
- Input : table T , key k
- Output : inserted index number or error message
- line 3 : get index number which is hashed
- line 4~6 : if it finds an empty slot, insert element
- line 7 : if it is not empty slot, examine the next slot
- Line 8~9 : if it examine all slots → hash overflow

0	700
1	50
2	85 40
3	92 40
4	40
5	NIL
6	76

❖ Open addressing

• Search

- The algorithm for searching key k probes the same sequence of slots that the insertion algorithm examined when key k was inserted
- Search can terminate unsuccessfully when it finds an empty slot
 - ✓ Since k would have been inserted there
 - ✓ Not later in its probe sequence

HASH-SEARCH(T, k)

```
1   $i = 0$ 
2  repeat
3       $j = h(k, i)$ 
4      if  $T[j] == k$ 
5          return  $j$ 
6       $i = i + 1$ 
7  until  $T[j] == \text{NIL}$  or  $i == m$ 
8  return NIL
```

- Input : table T , key k
- Output
 - ✓ j – if it finds slot contains key k
 - ✓ NIL – if it doesn't find the element
- line 3 : get index number
- line 4~5 find the element
- line 7~8 : if there is no element, return NIL

0	700
1	50
2	85
3	92
4	
5	
6	76

❖ Open addressing

- Deletion

- Deletion from an open-address hash table is difficult
- When we delete a key from slot i , we cannot simply mark that slot as *NIL*
 - ✓ If we did, we might be unable to retrieve any key k
- By marking the slot as *DELETED*, we solve this problem
 - ✓ Modify the procedure *HASH – INSERT* to treat such slot as empty

0	700
1	50
2	85 <i>NIL</i>
3	92
4	<i>NIL</i>
5	<i>NIL</i>
6	76

❖ Chapter.3 Data Structures

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- 1) What is a binary search tree?
- 2) Querying a binary search tree
- 3) Insertion and deletion

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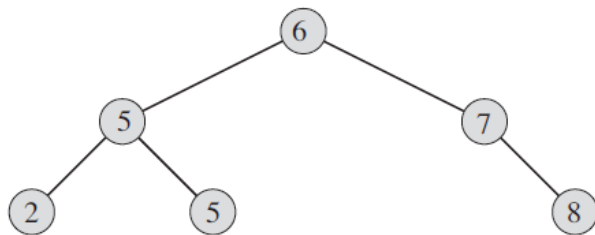
- 1) Dynamic order statistics
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❖ What is a binary search tree?

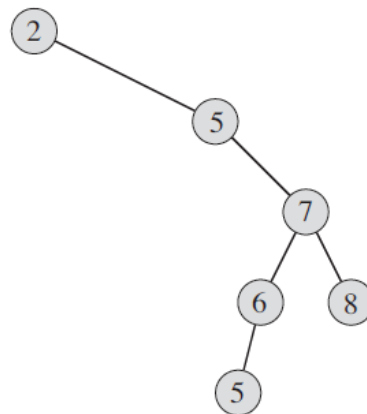
- Introduction

- Search tree data structure supports many operations, including ***SEARCH, MINIMUM, MAXIMUM, PREDECESSOR, SUCCESSOR, INSERT, DELETE***
- Basic operations on a binary search tree take time proportional to the height of the tree
 $\theta(\lg n) = \theta(h)$

- Definition of binary search tree



(a)

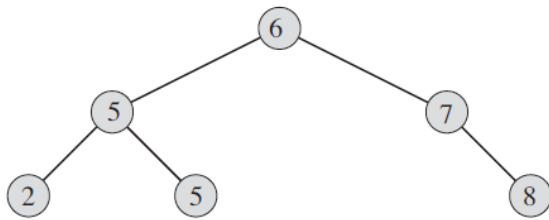


(b)

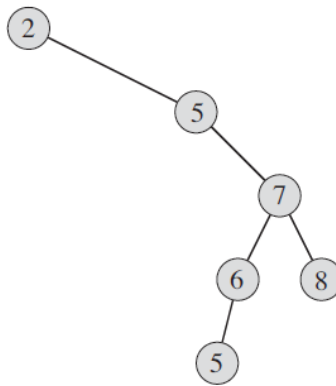
- Represent such a tree by a linked data structure in which each node is an object
- Each node contains a key, satellite data, attributes left, right, and p

❖ What is a binary search tree?

- Definition of binary search tree



(a)



(b)

- Attributes *left, right*
 - ✓ Point to the nodes corresponding to its left and right child
- Attributes *P*
 - ✓ Point to its parent nodes
- If child or parents is missing, the attribute contains the value *NIL*

➤ Binary search tree property

Let x be a node in a binary search tree. If y is a node in the left subtree of x , then $y.key \leq x.key$. If y is a node in the right subtree of x , then $y.key \geq x.key$.

- ✓ This property holds for every node in tree

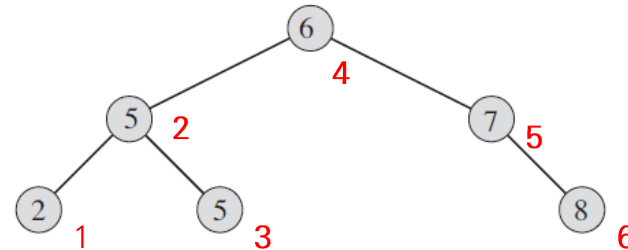
❖ What is a binary search tree?

- Inorder-tree-walk

- BST property allows us to print out all the key in a BST in sorted order
- Print the root of a subtree between printing the left and right subtree (inorder)
 - ✓ Preorder : print the root before the values in either subtree
 - ✓ Postorder : print the root after the values in either subtree

INORDER-TREE-WALK(x)

```
1  if  $x \neq \text{NIL}$ 
2    INORDER-TREE-WALK( $x.\text{left}$ )
3    print  $x.\text{key}$ 
4    INORDER-TREE-WALK( $x.\text{right}$ )
```



- ✓ Takes $\theta(n)$ time to walk an n -node BST
 - ✓ After the initial call, the procedure calls itself recursively exactly twice for each node

❖ What is a binary search tree?

- Inorder-tree-walk

Theorem 12.1

If x is the root of an n -node subtree, then the call `INORDER-TREE-WALK(x)` takes $\Theta(n)$ time.

➤ Proof of the theorem

- ✓ $T(n)$: the time taken by *INORDER - TREE - WALK*
- ✓ If $n = 0, T(0) = c$
- ✓ For $n > 0$, left subtree has k nodes, right subtree has $n - k - 1$ nodes
- ✓ $T(n) \leq T(k) + T(n - k - 1) + d$ for some constant $d > 0$
- ✓ Using substitution method, $T(n) \leq (c + d)n + c$
- ✓ For $n = 0, T(0) = (c + d) * 0 + c = c$
- ✓ For $n > 0, T(n) \leq T(k) + T(n - k - 1) + d$
$$\begin{aligned} &= ((c + d)k + c) + ((c + d)(n - k - 1) + c) + d \\ &= (c + d)n + c - (c + d) + c + d \\ &= (c + d)n + c, \end{aligned}$$

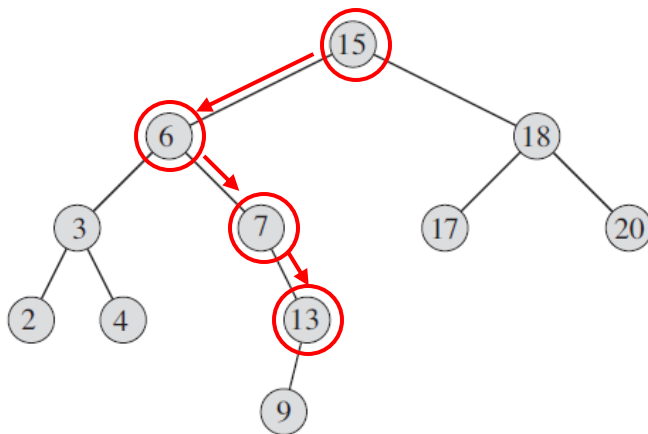
❖ Querying a BST

• Introduction

- In this section, introduce *SEARCH*, *MINIMUM*, *MAXIMUM*, *SUCCESSOR*, *PREDECESSOR*
- Show how to support each one in time $O(h)$ → height of BST is h

• Searching

- Search for a node with a given key in a BST
- Input : a pointer to the root node & key k
- Output : a pointer to a node with key k or *NIL*

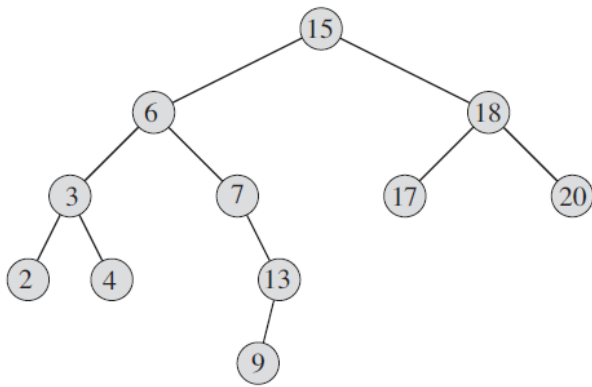


- To search for the key 13
 - ✓ Follow the path $15 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 7 \rightarrow 13$
- For each node x it encounters, it compares the key k with $x.key$

❖ Querying a BST

- Searching

- Input : a pointer to the root node & key k
- Output : a pointer to a node with key k or NIL



TREE-SEARCH(x, k)

```
1  if  $x == NIL$  or  $k == x.key$ 
2      return  $x$ 
3  if  $k < x.key$ 
4      return TREE-SEARCH( $x.left, k$ )
5  else return TREE-SEARCH( $x.right, k$ )
```

- Line 1~2 : if it finds key k or there are no elements, return x (NIL or $x.key$)
- Line 3~4 : if k is smaller than $x.key$, the search continues in the left subtree of x
 - ✓ The BST property implies that k could not be stored in the right subtree
- ✓ Line 5 : symmetrically with the line 3~4

❖ Querying a BST

- Searching

- Can rewrite this procedure in a iterative fashion

TREE-SEARCH(x, k)

```
1  if  $x == \text{NIL}$  or  $k == x.\text{key}$ 
2      return  $x$ 
3  if  $k < x.\text{key}$ 
4      return TREE-SEARCH( $x.\text{left}, k$ )
5  else return TREE-SEARCH( $x.\text{right}, k$ )
```



ITERATIVE-TREE-SEARCH(x, k)

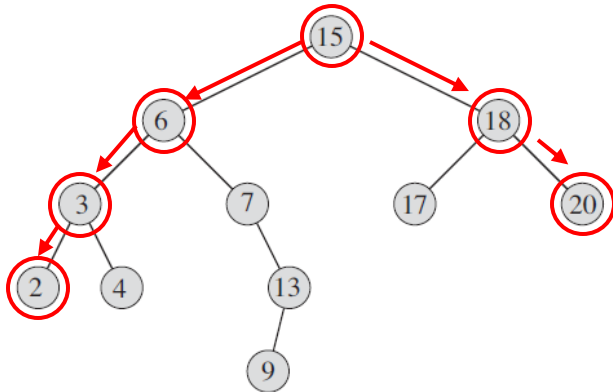
```
1  while  $x \neq \text{NIL}$  and  $k \neq x.\text{key}$ 
2      if  $k < x.\text{key}$ 
3           $x = x.\text{left}$ 
4      else  $x = x.\text{right}$ 
5  return  $x$ 
```

- The running time of *TREE – SEARCH* is $O(h)$
 - ✓ h is the height of tree
 - ✓ Encounter nodes from the root of the tree to the finding key in a simple path downward

❖ Querying a BST

- Minimum and Maximum

- Can always find an element in a BST whose key is a minimum or maximum by following left or right child pointers from the root until we encounter a *NIL*



TREE-MINIMUM(x)

```
1  while  $x.left \neq \text{NIL}$ 
2       $x = x.left$ 
3  return  $x$ 
```

TREE-MAXIMUM(x)

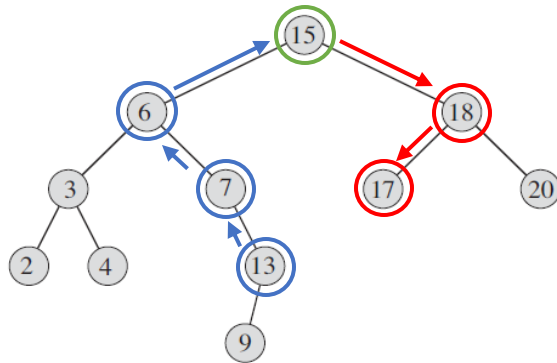
```
1  while  $x.right \neq \text{NIL}$ 
2       $x = x.right$ 
3  return  $x$ 
```

- Input : pointer to the root node x
- Output : pointer to the minimum or maximum element
- The running time of these procedure is $O(h)$
 - ✓ The sequence of nodes encountered forms a simple path downward from the root

❖ Querying a BST

- Successor and predecessor

- Find node x 's successor in the sorted order determined by an inorder tree walk



- The successor of a node x is the node with the smallest key greater than $x.key$
- BST allows us to determine the successor without ever comparing keys

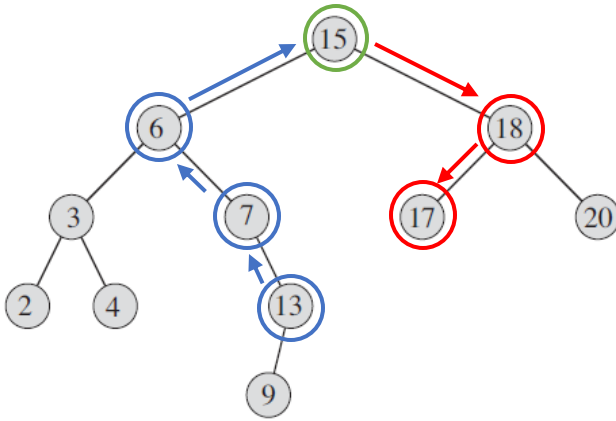
TREE-SUCCESSOR(x)

```
1  if  $x.right \neq \text{NIL}$ 
2      return TREE-MINIMUM( $x.right$ )
3   $y = x.p$ 
4  while  $y \neq \text{NIL}$  and  $x == y.right$ 
5       $x = y$ 
6       $y = y.p$ 
7  return  $y$ 
```

- Input : pointer of node x
- Output : pointer of node x 's successor in sorted order
- Divide the pseudocode in two steps
- First step : node x has right subtree
 - ✓ Line 1~2 : find the minimum value on right subtree

❖ Querying a BST

- Successor and predecessor



TREE-SUCCESSOR(x)

```
1  if  $x.right \neq \text{NIL}$ 
2      return TREE-MINIMUM( $x.right$ )
3   $y = x.p$ 
4  while  $y \neq \text{NIL}$  and  $x == y.right$ 
5       $x = y$ 
6       $y = y.p$ 
7  return  $y$ 
```

- Second step : node x has no right subtree
 - ✓ Find the parents node which is larger than child
 - ✓ Line 3~7 : simply go up the tree from x until encounter a node that is the left child of its parent
- The running time of tree successor on a tree of height h is $O(h)$
 - ✓ Either follow a simple path up the tree or down the tree

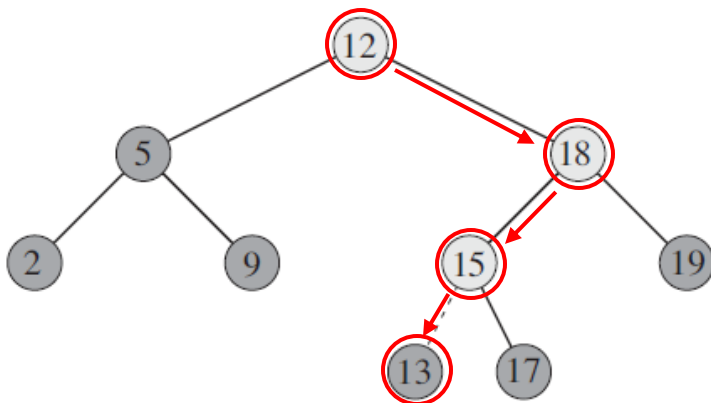
❖ Insertion and deletion

- Definition

- The operation of insertion and deletion cause the dynamic set represented by a BST to change
 - ✓ The BST property continues to hold

- Insertion

- To insert the new value v into a BST T , we use the procedure $TREE-INSERT(T, z)$
- Initialize the node z for which $z.key = v$, $z.left = NIL$, $z.right = NIL$



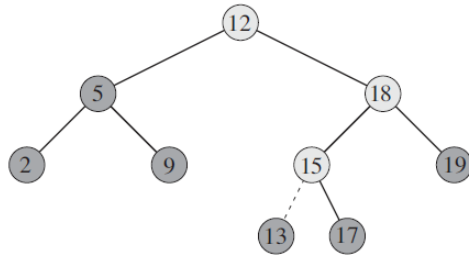
- $TREE-INSERT$ begins at the root of the tree
- pointer x traces a simple path downward looking for a NIL
- replace NIL with the input item z

❖ Insertion and deletion

• Insertion

TREE-INSERT(T, z)

```
1   $y = \text{NIL}$ 
2   $x = T.\text{root}$ 
3  while  $x \neq \text{NIL}$ 
4       $y = x$ 
5      if  $z.\text{key} < x.\text{key}$ 
6           $x = x.\text{left}$ 
7      else  $x = x.\text{right}$ 
8   $z.p = y$ 
9  if  $y == \text{NIL}$ 
10      $T.\text{root} = z$       // tree  $T$  was empty
11 elseif  $z.\text{key} < y.\text{key}$ 
12      $y.\text{left} = z$ 
13 else  $y.\text{right} = z$ 
```

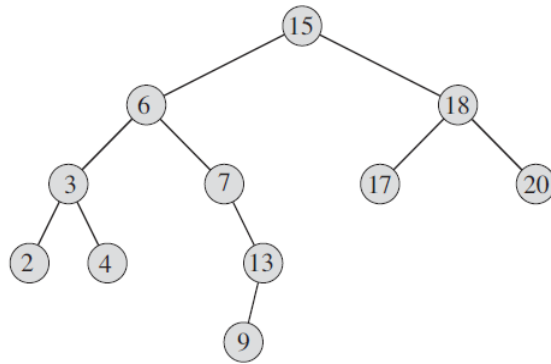


- Line 1~2 : initialize x, y
 - ✓ x : current node
 - ✓ y : parent node of x
- Line 3~7
 - ✓ While loop causes two pointers to move down
 - ✓ Going left or right depending on the comparison of $z.\text{key}$ with $x.\text{key}$ until x becomes NIL
- Line 8~13
 - ✓ Set the pointer that cause z to be inserted
- The running time is $O(h)$
 - ✓ Start from root to NIL

❖ Insertion and deletion

• Deletion

➤ The overall strategy for deleting a node z from a BST T has three basic cases



➤ First case

- ✓ z has no children
- ✓ Simply remove it by modifying its parent to replace z with NIL as its child
- ✓ *Delete 9* \rightarrow $13.left = NIL$

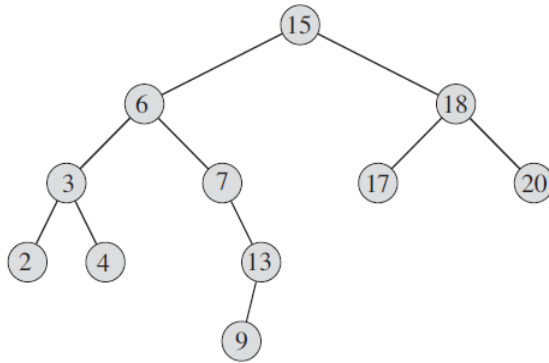
➤ Second case

- ✓ z has just one child
- ✓ Elevate that child to take z 's position by modifying z 's parent to replace z by z 's child
- ✓ *Delete 13* \rightarrow $7.right = 9 \rightarrow 9.p = 7$

❖ Insertion and deletion

• Deletion

➤ The overall strategy for deleting a node z from a BST T has three basic cases



➤ Third case

- ✓ z has two children
- ✓ Find z 's successor y
- ✓ Rest of z 's original right & left subtree becomes y 's new right & left subtree
- ✓ *Delete 15* → find successor 17 → $17.left = 6$ & $17.right = 18$

➤ In order to move subtree around within the BST, we define a subroutine $TRANSPLANT(T, u, v)$

- ✓ Replace the subtree rooted at node u with the subtree rooted at node v
- ✓ Node u 's parent becomes node v 's parent

❖ Insertion and deletion

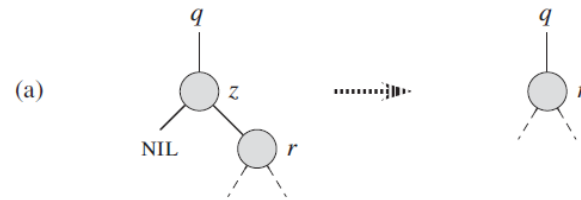
- Deletion

- Pseudocode for *TRANSPLANT*

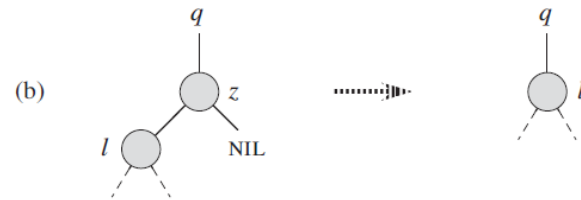
```
TRANSPLANT( $T, u, v$ )  
1  if  $u.p == \text{NIL}$  ✓ Line 1~2 : handle the case  $v$  is root of  $T$   
2       $T.root = v$   
3  elseif  $u == u.p.left$  ✓ Line 3~5 : examine  $v$  is left child or right child, updating  $u.p.left$  or  
4       $u.p.left = v$        $u.p.right$   
5  else  $u.p.right = v$   
6  if  $v \neq \text{NIL}$  ✓ Line 6~7 : update point to parent node  
7       $v.p = u.p$ 
```

❖ Insertion and deletion

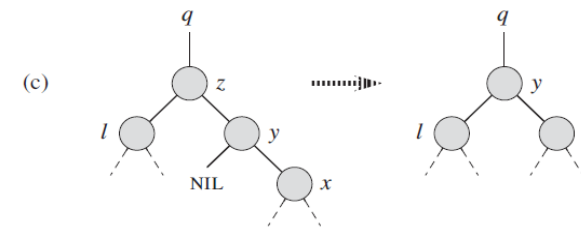
• Deletion



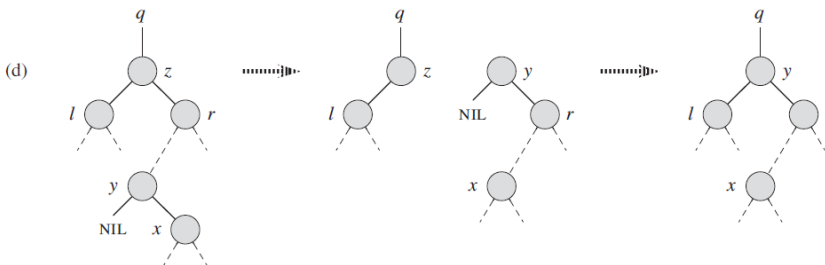
- (a) : z has no left child
- ✓ Replace z with its right child



- (b) : z has no right child
- ✓ Replace z with its left child



- (c) : z has both left & right child → successor y is z's right child
- ✓ Replace z with its right child y



- (d) : z has both left & right child → successor y is not z's right child
- ✓ Replace y by its own right child x
- ✓ Replace z with y

❖ Insertion and deletion

• Deletion

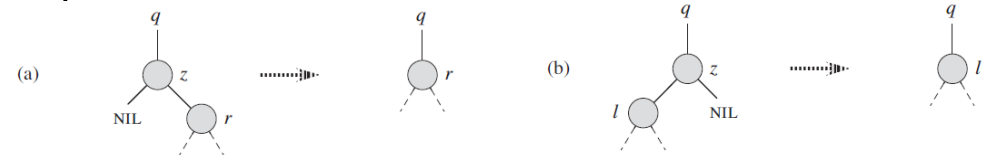
- Pseudocode for *TREE – DELETE*
- Delete node z from BST T

TREE-DELETE(T, z)

```
1  if  $z.left == \text{NIL}$ 
2      TRANSPLANT( $T, z, z.right$ )
3  elseif  $z.right == \text{NIL}$ 
4      TRANSPLANT( $T, z, z.left$ )
5  else  $y = \text{TREE-MINIMUM}(z.right)$ 
6      if  $y.p \neq z$ 
7          TRANSPLANT( $T, y, y.right$ )
8           $y.right = z.right$ 
9           $y.right.p = y$ 
10     TRANSPLANT( $T, z, y$ )
11      $y.left = z.left$ 
12      $y.left.p = y$ 
```

- Line 1~2 or line 3~4

- ✓ Only have right or left child
- ✓ Replace z with $z.right$ or $z.left$

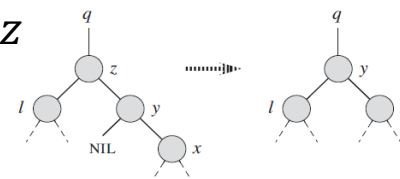


- Line 5

- ✓ Find the minimum key in right subtree (successor y)

- ✓ Line 10~12

- ✓ If $y.p == z \rightarrow y$ is right child of z
- ✓ Replace z with y
- ✓ Connect $z.left$ with y



❖ Insertion and deletion

• Deletion

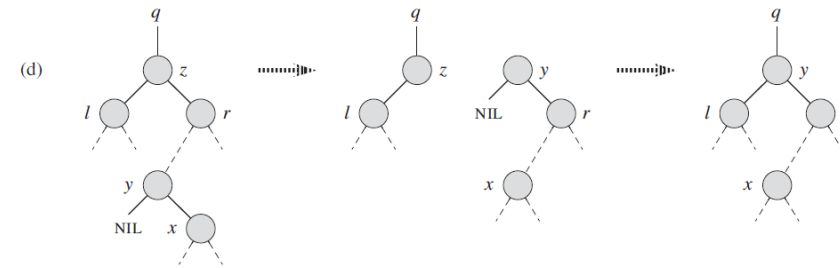
- Pseudocode for *TREE – DELETE*
- Delete node z from BST T

TREE-DELETE(T, z)

```
1  if  $z.left == \text{NIL}$ 
2      TRANSPLANT( $T, z, z.right$ )
3  elseif  $z.right == \text{NIL}$ 
4      TRANSPLANT( $T, z, z.left$ )
5  else  $y = \text{TREE-MINIMUM}(z.right)$ 
6      if  $y.p \neq z$ 
7          TRANSPLANT( $T, y, y.right$ )
8           $y.right = z.right$ 
9           $y.right.p = y$ 
10     TRANSPLANT( $T, z, y$ )
11      $y.left = z.left$ 
12      $y.left.p = y$ 
```

➤ Line 6~9

- ✓ Successor y is not a right child of z
- ✓ Replace y with $y.right$



- The running time of *TREE – DELETE* and *TRANSPLANT* takes constant time $O(1)$
- *TREE – MINIMUM* takes $O(h)$

Thank You!