CME 2001 Data Structures and Algorithms

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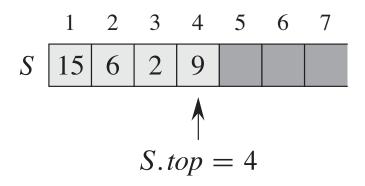
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Elementary Data Structures

Stacks

- Implements last-in, first-out (LIFO) policy.
- Insertion of a new element is performed by PUSH operation => placed to the top
- The top element is removed by POP operation => last one is removed
- A stack of at most *n* elements can be implemented with an array **S** [1...n].
- Array attribute *S.top* indexes the most recently inserted element.

Stacks



- S[1] => bottom element
- S[S.top] => top (last) element

Stack Operations

• Implement stack operations with limited running times.

```
STACK-EMPTY(S) PUSH(S, x) POP(S)

1 if S. top == 0 1 S. top = S. top + 1 1 if STACK-EMPTY(S)

2 return TRUE 2 S[S. top] = x 2 error "underflow"

3 else return FALSE 3 else S. top = S. top - 1

4 return S[S. top + 1]
```

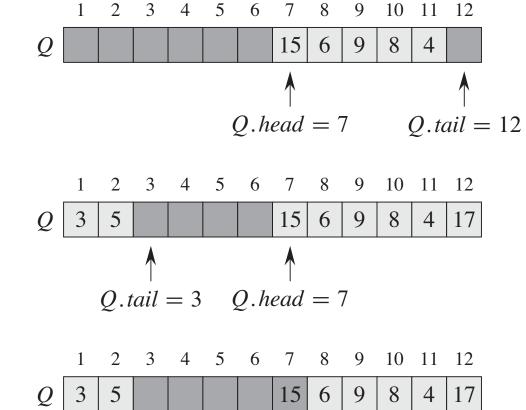
• Each stack operation takes only O(1) time.

Queues

- Implements first-in, first-out (FIFO) policy.
- It has a head and tail.
- Insertion of a new element is performed by ENQUEUE operation => placed to the tail
- The first element is removed by DEQUEUE => removed from the head
- A queue of at most n-1 elements can be implemented with an array \mathbf{Q} [1...n]. Because initially Q.head = Q.tail = 1.
- When Q.head = Q.tail, the queue is empty.
- When Q.head = Q.tail+1, the queue is full.

Queues

Q.tail = 3



Q.head = 8

• Q has 5 elements.

• After adding of 17,3,5 elements to Q.

After removing 15.The new head has key 6.

Queue Operations

```
ENQUEUE(Q, x)

1 Q[Q.tail] = x

2 if Q.tail == Q.length

3 Q.tail = 1

4 else Q.tail = Q.tail + 1

DEQUEUE(Q)

1 x = Q[Q.head]

2 if Q.head == Q.length

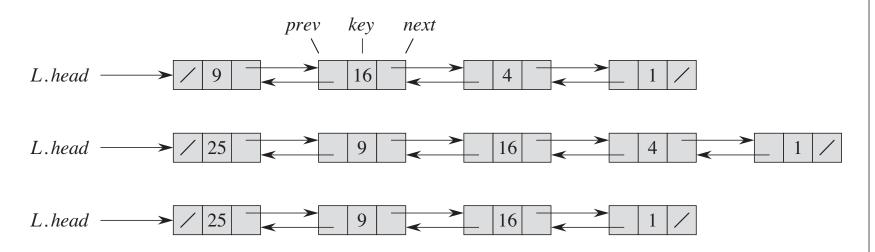
3 Q.head = 1

4 else Q.head = Q.head + 1
```

• Each queue operation takes only O(1) time.

Linked Lists

- Objects are arranged in a linear order
- Order is determined by a pointer in each object
- Simple and flexible representation for dynamic sets (i.e., not known size).



Linked List - Search Operation

```
LIST-SEARCH(L, k)

1 x = L.head

2 while x \neq NIL and x.key \neq k

3 x = x.next

4 return x
```

- Finds the first element with key k in list L by a linear search.
- It takes $\Theta(n)$ in the worst-case, since it might look the entire list.

Linked List – Insert Operation

```
LIST-INSERT (L, x)

1 x.next = L.head

2 if L.head \neq NIL

3 L.head.prev = x

4 L.head = x

5 x.prev = NIL
```

- Given element *x* is spliced (i.e., connect) to the head of the list.
- It takes O(1) time.

Linked List - Delete Operation

```
LIST-DELETE (L, x)

1 if x.prev \neq NIL

2 x.prev.next = x.next

3 else L.head = x.next

4 if x.next \neq NIL

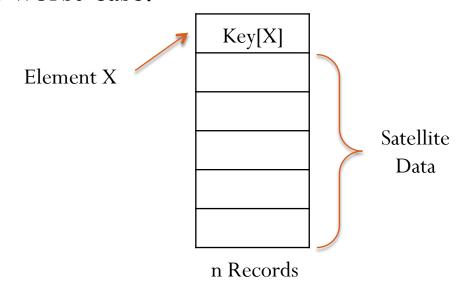
5 x.next.prev = x.prev
```

- For a given element x, delete operation takes O(1) time.
- BUT if we will delete an element with a given "key", delete operation takes $\Theta(n)$ time in the worst case.
- Why?

Hash Tables

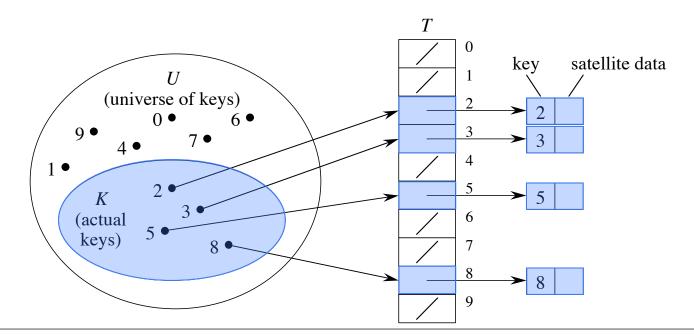
Hash Tables

- Many applications require a dynamic set that supports only the *dictionary operations* INSERT, SEARCH, DELETE.
- E.g., A symbol table in a compiler.
- A hash table is effective structure to implement a dictionary.
- The expected search time is O(1), however, it could be $\Theta(n)$ in the worst-case.



Direct-Address Tables

- Each element has a key drawn from a set $\mathbf{U} = \{0, 1, ..., m\}$ where \mathbf{m} isn't too large.
- No two elements have the same key.
- Represent by a *direct-address table*, or array, T[0...m-1].
- Each *slot* corresponds to a key in **U**.
- If there's an element **x** with key **k**:
 - then T[k] contains a pointer to x.
 - otherwise, T[k] is empty, represented by NIL.



Direct-Address Operations

```
DIRECT-ADDRESS-SEARCH(T, k)

return T[k]

DIRECT-ADDRESS-INSERT(T, x)

T[key[x]] = x

DIRECT-ADDRESS-DELETE(T, x)

T[key[x]] = NIL
```

• Each operation takes O(1) time.

Hash Tables

- The problem with direct addressing is that if the universe ${\bf U}$ is large, storing a table of size ($\|{\bf U}\|$) might be impractical.
- Usually, the set of stored keys is small (compared to U), so that most of the space allocated for T is wasted.

Idea:

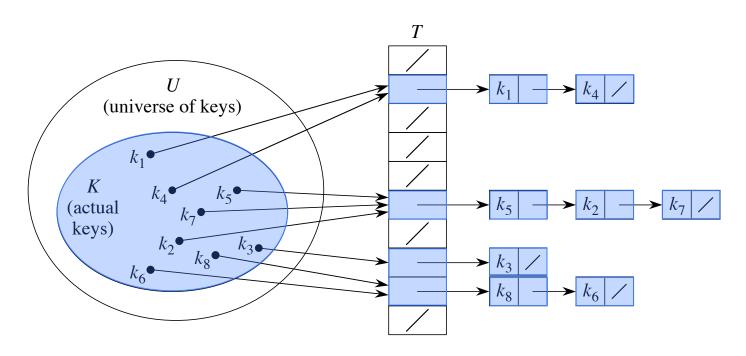
- Instead of storing an element with key k in slot k, use a function h and store the element in slot h(k).
- h is called as hash function.
- $h: U \rightarrow \{0,1,\ldots,m-1\}$, so that h(k) is a legal slot number in T.
- k hashes to slot h(k).

Collisions

- When two or more keys hash to the same slot, a collision occurs.
- Can happen when there are more possible keys than available slots (|U| > m).
- Therefore, must be prepared to handle collisions in all cases.
- Two methods are used:
 - Chaining
 - Open addressing

Collision Resolution by Chaining

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



Dictionary Operations with Chaining

Insertion:

```
CHAINED-HASH-INSERT (T, x) insert x at the head of list T[h(x.key)]
```

- Worst-case running time is O(1).
- Assumes that the element being inserted isn't already in the list.
- It might need an extra search to check if it was already inserted.

Search:

```
CHAINED-HASH-SEARCH (T, k) search for an element with key k in list T[h(k)]
```

• Running time is proportional to the length of the list of elements in slot h(k).

Dictionary Operations with Chaining

Deletion:

```
CHAINED-HASH-DELETE (T,x) delete x from the list T[h(x.key)]
```

- Given pointer *x* to the element to delete, no search is needed to find this element.
- Worst-case running time is O(1) time if the lists are doubly linked.
- If the lists are singly linked, deletion takes as long as searching, because we must find x's predecessor in its list to correctly update *next* pointers.

- Given a key, how long does it take to find an element with that key, or to determine that there is no element with that key?
- Analysis is in terms of the *load factor* $\alpha = n/m$:
 - *n* : # of elements in the table.
 - m: # of slots in the table.
 - Load factor is average number of elements per linked list.
 - Can have $\alpha < 1$, $\alpha = 1$, or $\alpha > 1$.
- Worst-case: when all n keys hash to the same slot => get a single list of length n => worst-case time to search : $\Theta(n)$ + time to compute hash function.
- Average-case depends on how well the hash function distributes the keys among the slots.

Lets focus on average-case performance of hashing with chaining.

- *Simple uniform hashing*: any given element is equally likely to hash into any of the **m** slots.
- For j = 0, 1, ..., m-1, denote the length of list T[j] by n_j . Then $n = n_0 + n_1 + ... + n_{m-1}$.
- Average value of n_i is $E[n_i] = \alpha = n/m$
- Assume that we can compute the hash function in O(1) time, so the time required to search for the element with key k depends on the length $n_{h(k)}$ of the list T[h(k)].

If the hash table contains no element with key k, then the search is unsuccessful. It takes expected time $\Theta(1+\alpha)$.

If the hash table contains an element with key k, then the search is successful. It takes expected time $\Theta(1+\alpha)$.

Hash Functions

- What makes a good hash function?
 - Uniformly distribute the keys into slots
- In practice: not possible to satisfy this rule because:
 - unknown probability distribution that keys are drawn from
 - keys might not drawn independently
- Use heuristics, based on the domain of the keys, to create a hash function that performs well.

Division method

 $h(k) \equiv k \mod m$

e.g. m=20 and k=91 = h(k) = 11

Pros: Fast, requires only one division operation.

Cons: Should avoid certain values of *m*

• Good choice of m: A prime number, but not too close to an exact power of 2 or 10.

Multiplication method

- 1. Choose constant A in the range $0 \le A \le 1$.
- 2. Multiply key k by A.
- 3. Extract the fractional part of kA.
- 4. Multiply the fractional part by *m*.
- 5. Take the floor of the result.

$$h(k) = \lfloor m (k A \mod 1) \rfloor$$
, where $k A \mod 1 = kA - \lfloor kA \rfloor$

Pros: Value of *m* is not critical.

Cons: Slower than division method.