

EC504 ALGORITHMS AND DATA STRUCTURES  
SPRING 2021 MONDAY & WEDNESDAY  
2:30 PM - 4:15 PM

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# Simple Data Structures: Abstract Data Type (ADT)

- o In Object Oriented Programming data and the operations that manipulate that data are grouped together in classes
- o Abstract Data Types (ADTs) or data structures or collections store data and allow various operations on the data to access and change it
- o High level languages like C++, Java, Python often provide implementations of ADTs

# The List ADT

- o List of size N:  $A_0, A_1, \dots, A_{N-1}$
- o Each element  $A_k$  has a unique position in the list
- o Elements can be arbitrarily complex
- o Operations
  - o Depend on what the list is for
- o Implementation: either as arrays or as linked lists

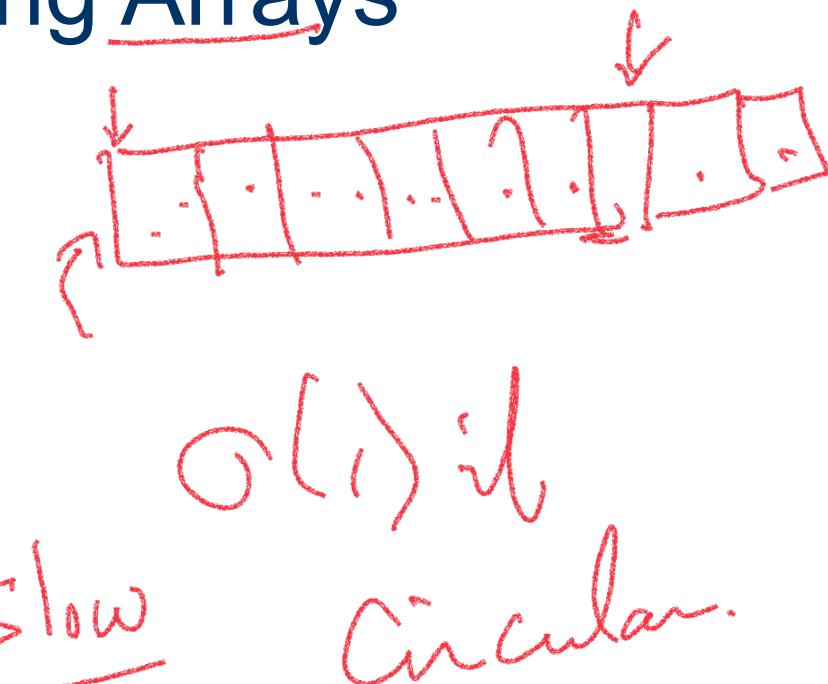
# Sample List (C++) ADT

```
class List {  
public:  
    List();                                // constructor  
    List(const List& list);                // copy constructor  
    ~List();                               // destructor  
    List& operator=(const List& list);    // assignment operator  
  
    bool empty() const;                   // boolean function  
    void addHead(double x);              // add to the head  
    double deleteHead();                 // delete, get head  
  
    void addEnd(double x);               // add to the end  
    double deleteEnd();                  // delete, get end  
  
    bool findNode(double x);            // search for a given x  
    void deleteNode(double x);          // delete node with value x  
  
    int length() const;                 // count the number of elements  
};
```

# Lists Using Arrays

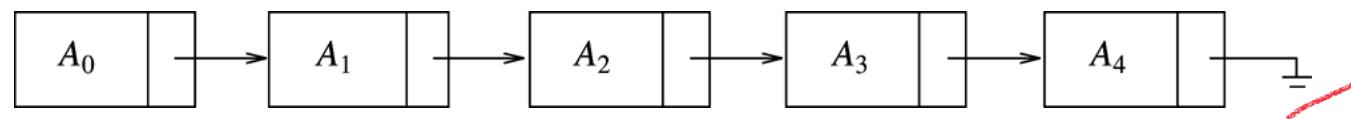
## o Operations

- o ✓ addHead(X) – O(N)
- o ✓ deleteHead() – O(N)
- o ✓ addEnd(X) – O(1)
- o ✓ deleteEnd() – O(1)
- o findNode(X) – O(N)



# Linked Lists

- o Elements not stored in contiguous memory
- o Nodes in list consist of data element and next pointer



Struct Node  
x node, data

# Lists Using Linked Lists

- o Operations

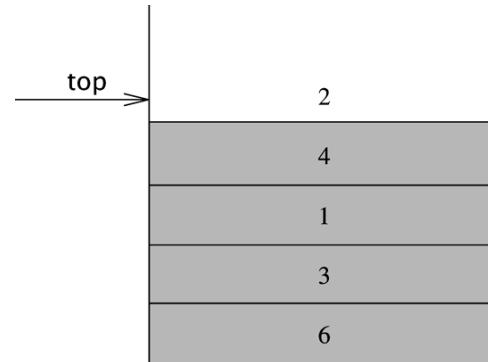
- o  $\text{addHead}(X) - O(1)$  ✓
- o  $\text{deleteHead}() - O(N)$
- o  $\text{addEnd}(X) - O(N)$  ↗
- o  $\text{deleteEnd}() - O(N)$  ↘
- o  $\text{findNode}(X) - O(N)$  ✓



- o Can modify using doubly-linked lists, pointers to end
  - o Make  $\text{addEnd}(X)$ ,  $\text{deleteEnd}$   $O(1)$ .

# List Applications: Stacks

- o Stack is a list where insert and remove take place only at the “top”
- o Operations
  - o Push (insert) element on top of stack
  - o Pop (remove) element from top of stack
  - o Top: return element at top of stack
- o LIFO (Last In First Out) queue
- o Stack is a list, any list implementation will do, but will have different advantages



# Stack ADT

```
class Stack {  
public:  
    Stack();                      // constructor  
    Stack(const Stack& stack);   // copy constructor  
    ~Stack();                    // destructor  
  
    bool empty() const;          ←  
    void push(const double x);   ←  
    double pop();                // change the stack ←  
    double top() const;          // keep the stack unchanged  
  
private:  
};
```

# Stack using linked lists

```
struct Node{
    public:
        double data;
        Node* next;
};

class Stack {
    public:
        Stack();                  // constructor
        Stack(const Stack& stack); // copy constructor
        ~Stack();                // destructor

        bool empty() const;
        void push(const double x);
        double pop();            // change the stack

        bool full();             // unnecessary for linked lists
        double top() const;      // keep the stack unchanged
        void print() const;

    private:
        Node* top;
};
```

# Stack using arrays

```

class Stack {
public:
    Stack(int size = 10); // constructor
    ~Stack() { delete [] values; } // destructor
    bool empty() { return top == -1; }
    void push(const double x);
    double pop();
    bool full() { return top == maxTop; }
    double top();
    void print();
private:
    int maxTop; // max stack size = size - 1
    int top; → // current top of stack
    double* values; // element array
}

```



Vect.



## Array versus Linked List Implementation

- push, pop, top are all  $O(1)$  constant-time operations in both array and linked list implementation
  - For array implementation, the operations are performed in very fast constant time
- Linked List structures are larger - need pointers ✓
- Array allocate space contiguously - useful for cache, etc. ✓
- Arrays may have to be resized (lots of data movement...) but **amortized analysis** says worst case is still  $O(1)$ !

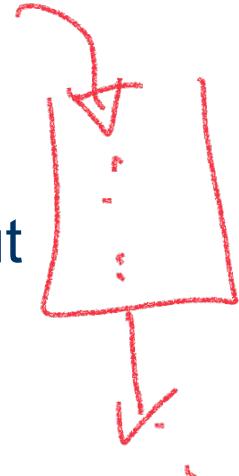
$\mathcal{O}(n)$  once every  $n$ .

# Stack Application: Balancing Symbols

- To check that every right brace, bracket, and parentheses must correspond to its left counterpart (e.g. MATLAB, code syntax checkers, ...)
  - e.g. [( )] is legal, but [( ] ) is illegal
- Algorithm
  - (1) Make an empty stack.
  - (2) Read characters until end of file
    - i. If the character is opening symbol, push onto the stack
    - ii. If closing symbol and stack is empty, error
    - iii. Otherwise, pop stack. If symbol popped is not corresponding opening symbol, error
  - (3) At end of file, if stack is not empty, error
- Other applications
  - Function calls, recursion, ...
  - Back/Forward stacks on browsers
  - Undo/Redo stacks in Excel or Word

$$A = (x+y) * z + D;$$

# Queue



- o Queue is a list where insert takes place at back, but remove takes place at the front
- o Operations
  - o Enqueue (insert) element at the back of the queue
  - o Dequeue (remove and return) element from the front of the queue
- o FIFO (First In First Out) ✓
- o Applications: simple job scheduling, graph traversals, priority queues, routing, printer queues, I/O streams

## Implementation of Queue

- Just as stacks can be implemented as arrays or linked lists, so with queues.
- Need to have fast access to beginning and end of queues
  - Dequeue at front
  - Enqueue at back
- Similar advantages for arrays vs linked lists
  - But there are different ways to do it with arrays which can result in much data movement,  $O(n)$  computation!

## Array implementation of Queue

$O(n)$

- Naive: front is always position 0, back is variable.
  - Dequeue is  $O(n)!$  Must move positions

- Better way: Use circular array

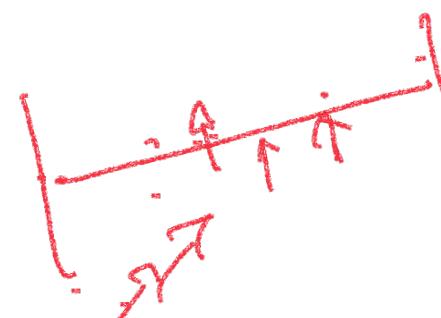
- When an element moves past the end of a circular array, it wraps around to the beginning, e.g. size 9, top 5, bottom 8
- Enqueue(4); 000007963  $\rightarrow$  400007963 (top 5, bottom 0)
- Detect an empty or full queue: Use a counter of the number of elements in the queue.
- $O(1)$
- Only issue is fixed size... reallocate if full. Amortized cost  $O(1)$ .

# Problem of Interest: Search ✓

- Problem: finding an element among a group of elements
  - Data structure issue: what is a good way of storing that data so search is fast?
- Issues:
  - Will the data change? How often? How?
  - Do we search for arbitrary elements by value? By relative value (e.g. largest, smallest, 5th largest?) By order of insertion (e.g. last in, first out (LIFO) or first in, first out (FIFO)?

## Sorted Lists

- If list changes rarely, best approach may be to store sorted list
  - Best implementation: arrays
  - With array implementation, many steps are fast
    - Find k-th largest:  $O(1)$
    - Find x: Binary search (bisection)  $\underline{O(\log(n))}$
    - Find median:  $O(1)$
  - But rare operations such as insert, delete, or change\_value are  $O(n)$ 
    - Insertion sort  $\leftarrow \underline{O(n)}$
  - We need a search algorithm and a sorting algorithm
    - Focus of modern search algorithms



## Binary Search of Sorted List

- int a[0], a[1], a[2], a[3], ..., a[m], ...

i  
↑  
↳ - ↳

a[N-2], a[N-1] ↲  
j  
↓

```
i= 0; j= N-1; m = N/2
while(b!=a[m] && i!=j ){
    if(b>a[m])  i = m+1;
    if(b<a[m])  j = m-1;
    m = (j-i)/2 + i; }
if(b==a[m])) "found it" else "not found"
```

Choose  
mid point -

$$T(N) = T(N/2) + c_0 \implies T(N) \in O(\log(N))$$

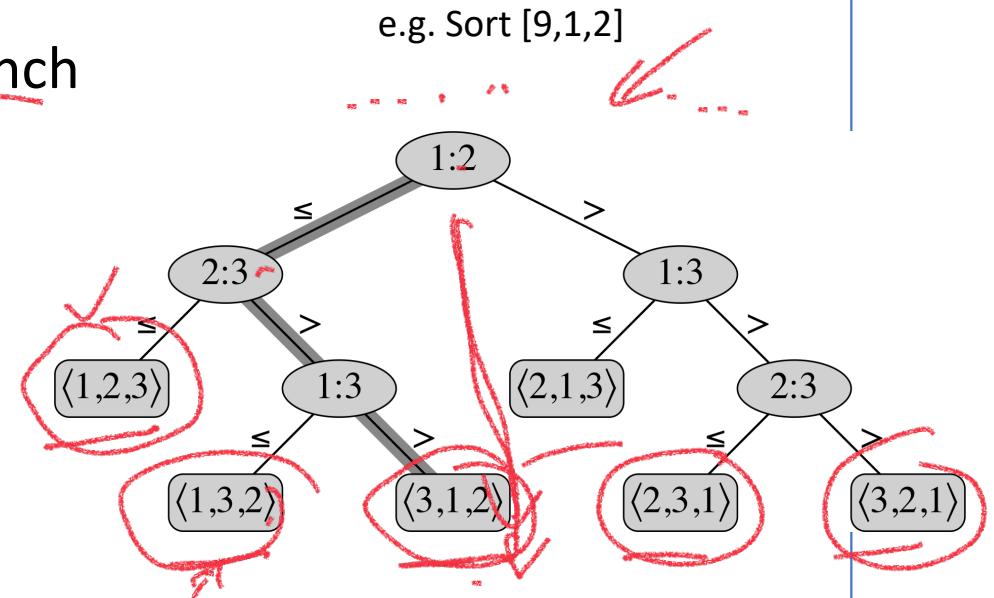
# Sorting Algorithms

- There are lots of them... ✓
- Most are useless ✓ ✓
- Two classes: Comparison-Based vs non-comparison based
  - non-comparison: bucket sort, radix sort, ... Work when number range is discrete and known (e.g. 16-bit integers)
    - Can be  $O(n)$ , but constants depend on value range
    - If values are distinct, constant is  $O(\log(n))$ !  $O(n \log n)$
  - Mergesort, Insertion Sort are comparison-based: Steps compare values.

# Sorting Algorithms

- Theorem: All comparison-based algorithms are  $\Omega(n \log(n))$
- Proof outline: Comparison-based algorithms are similar to binary decision trees
  - Each comparison has binary branch
  - Tree ends in leaves
  - #leaves = #permutations ( $n!$ )
  - Height of binary tree must be  
at least  $\log_2(n!) \in \Omega(n \log(n))$
  - More on binary trees later ✓

$$n! \approx O(n^n)$$



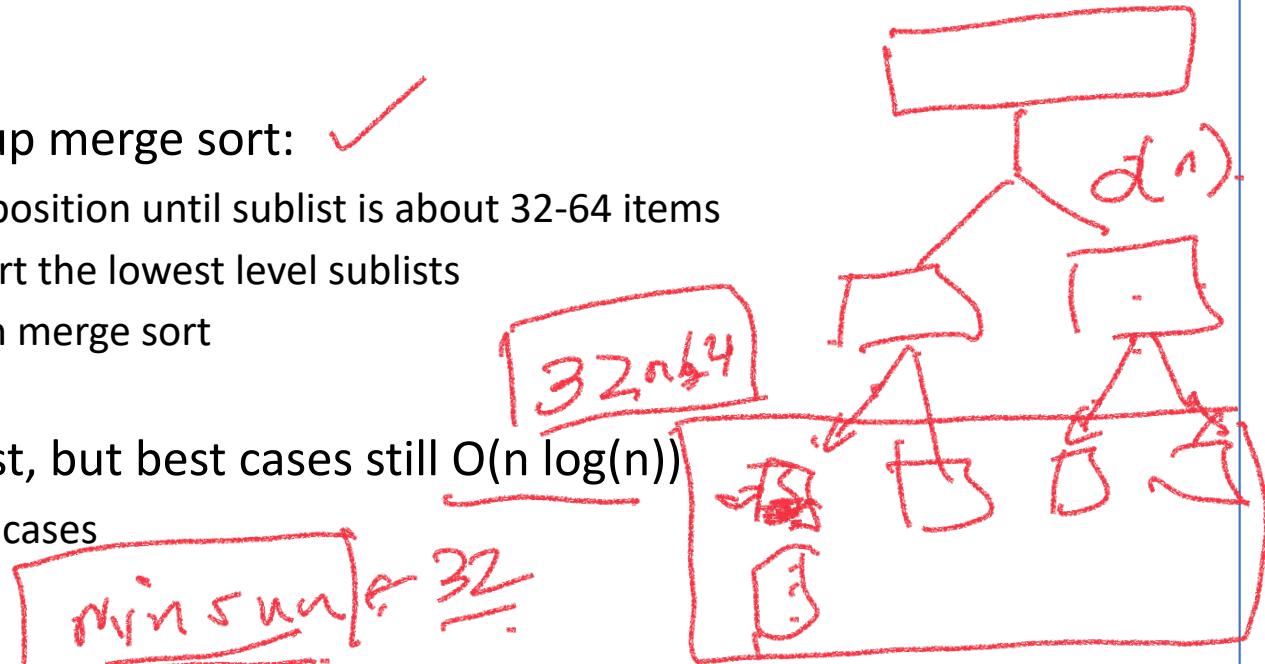
## Comparison-based Sorting Algorithms

Name	Best	Average	Worst	Stable	Extra Memory	Complexity
Quicksort	$n \log(n)$	$n \log(n)$	$n^2$	Depends	$\log(n)$	Small
Merge Sort	$n \log(n)$	$n \log(n)$	$n \log(n)$	Yes	$n$	Small
Heapsort	$n \log(n)$	$n \log(n)$	$n \log(n)$	No	1	Small
Insertion Sort	$n$	$n^2$	$n^2$	Yes	1	Small
Shell Sort	$n$	$n(\log(n))^2$	$n(\log(n))^2$	No	1	Small
Bubble Sort	$n$	$n^2$	$n^2$	Yes	1	Small
Selection Sort	$n^2$	$n^2$	$n^2$	Depends	1	Small
Timsort	$n$	$n \log(n)$	$n \log(n)$	Yes	$n$	Medium

Would like optimal best case and optimal worst case! Fast & robust

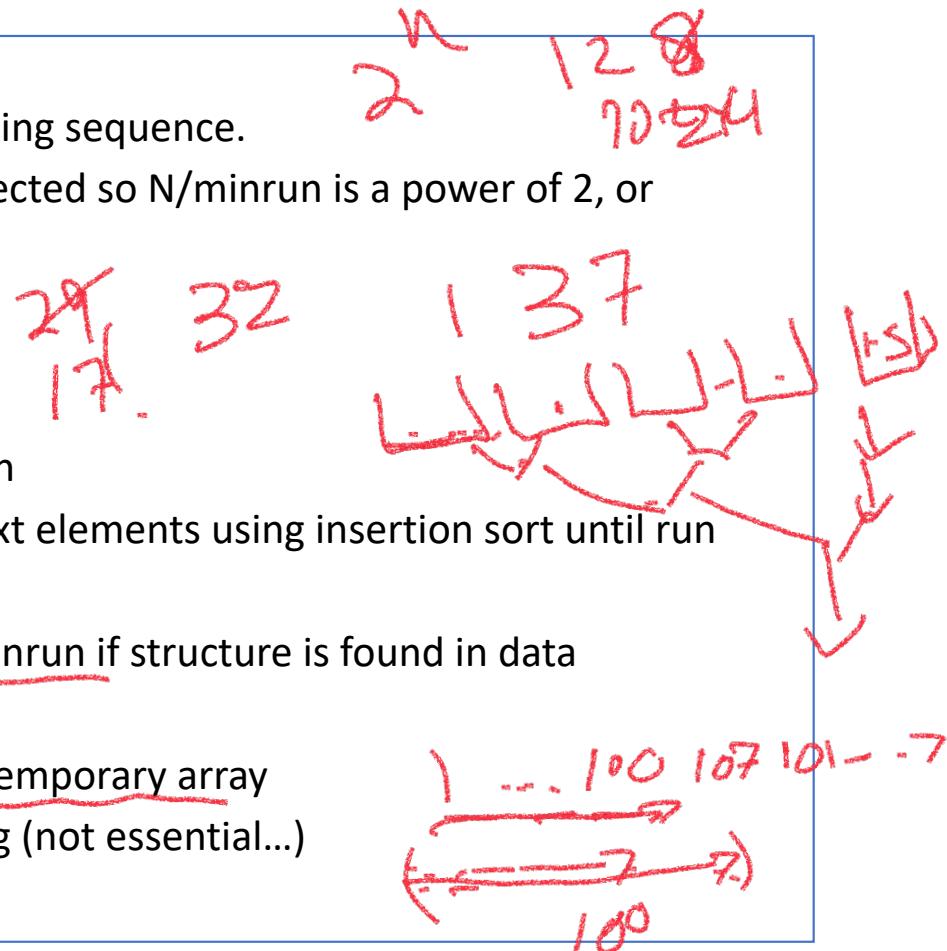
# Timsort (Tim Peters, 2002)

- Currently used in Python, Java, other places
  - Combination of Insertion Sort and Merge Sort plus clever recognition of good cases
  - Example of what makes good algorithms: robust in worst-case, but able to take advantage of good structure
- One way to do speed up merge sort:
  - Do merge sort decomposition until sublist is about 32-64 items
  - Do insertion sort to sort the lowest level sublists
  - Merge the results as in merge sort
- Result  $O(n \log(n))$  worst, but best cases still  $O(n \log(n))$ 
  - Does not exploit good cases



# Key ideas in Timsort

- Run: a sorted sublist of elements.
    - A run is the longest non-decreasing or decreasing sequence.
  - minrun: minimum size for run, typical 32 to 65, selected so  $N/\text{minrun}$  is a power of 2, or perhaps a little smaller
  - Give a list of numbers of length N:
    - Identify minrun based on N
    - Starting at the beginning of a list, look for a run
      - If run length is less than minrun, add next elements using insertion sort until run length is minrun
      - Run length can be much greater than minrun if structure is found in data
  - Merge consecutive runs using a merge stack
    - Avoid regression, merge with only one temporary array
    - Advanced idea: galloping during merging (not essential...)



# Timsort Illustrated

Sort 1 2 3 4 11 7 5 6 8 9 10

<https://www.chrislaux.com/timsort.html>

Determine minrun in 2, 3, 4: N = 11, so minrun = 3.

3 3 3 2

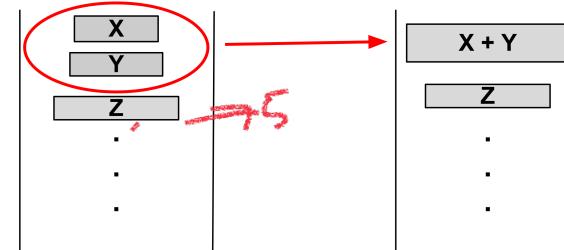
Runs: [1 2 3 4 11] [7 5] → Now run less than minsize and is decreasing → reverse run and insert next element 6 → [5 6 7].

Runs: [1 2 3 4 11] [5 6 7] [8 9 10]

Merge stack: Key properties:

- a. #Z > #X + #Y
- b. #Y > #X

Merge if these are violated.



## Timsort Illustrated (2)

Stack:

Insert indices of first run (0,4)

Insert indices of second run (5,7)

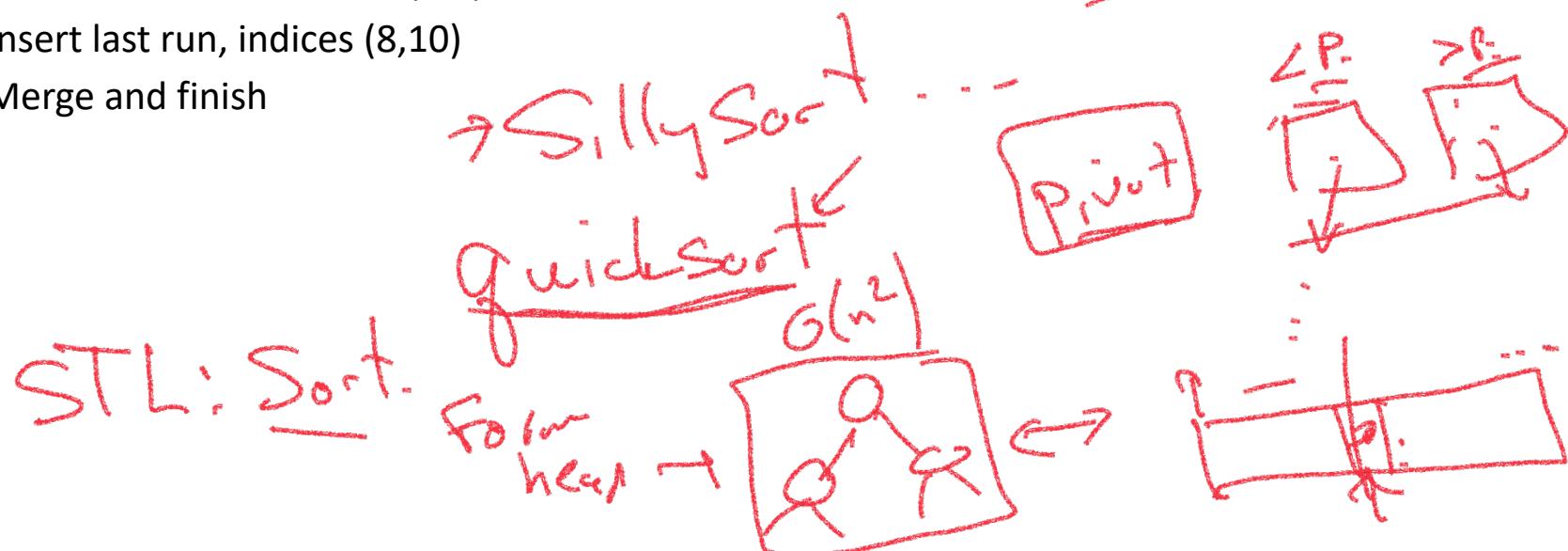
Merge runs because next run will violate  $\#Z > \#X + \#Y$

Now have stack with run (0,7),

Insert last run, indices (8,10)

Merge and finish

3/20  
median of medians

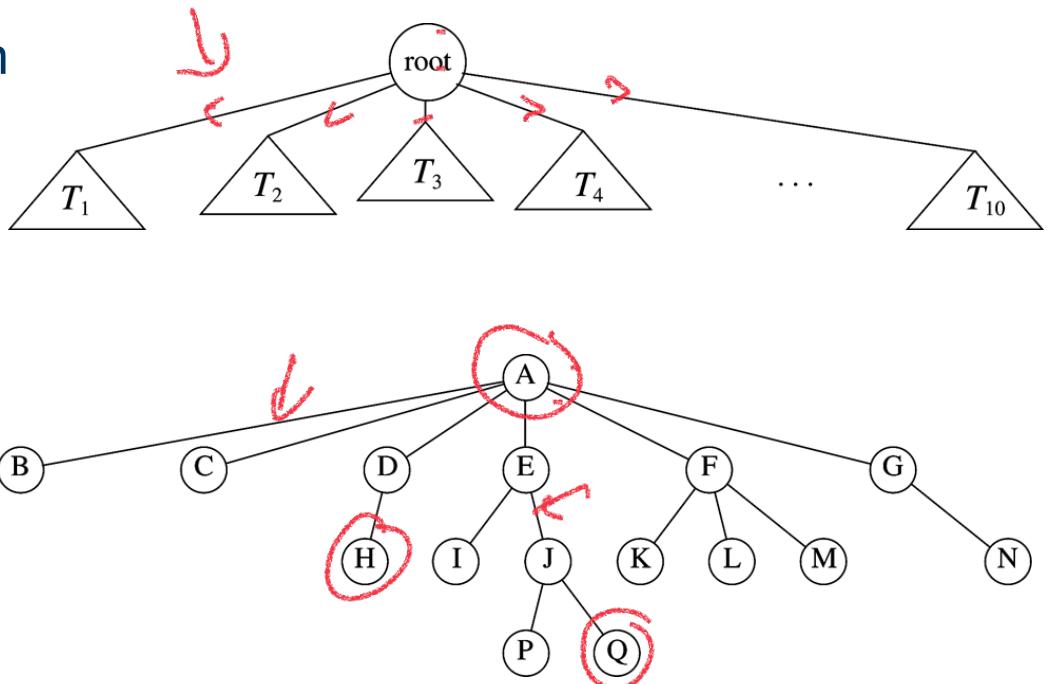


## Search with Dynamic Data

- Problem: finding an element among a group of elements
  - Frequent insertions, frequent deletions, modifications of data
- Operations of interest:
  - Find, insert, delete, find minimum, find maximum
- If we use a sorted list:
  - Takes  $O(n \log(n))$  to form sorted list initially from  $n$  elements
  - Takes  $O(n)$  to insert: Either because of time to find or data movements
  - Takes  $O(n)$  to delete: Either because of time to find or data movements
- Alternative: **Search trees**

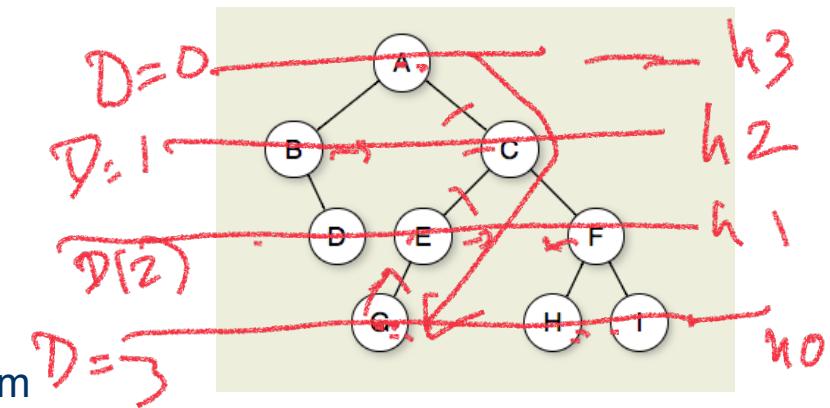
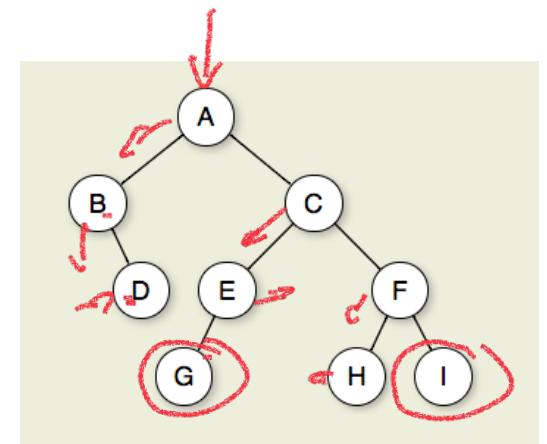
# Background on Trees

- o Many definition of trees
  - o Root node with trees as children
  - o Connected, undirected graph with no cycles
  - o ...
- o Important concepts
  - o Node: a structure with data and pointers to children
  - o Edge: a link from a node to a node that is one of its children



# Trees

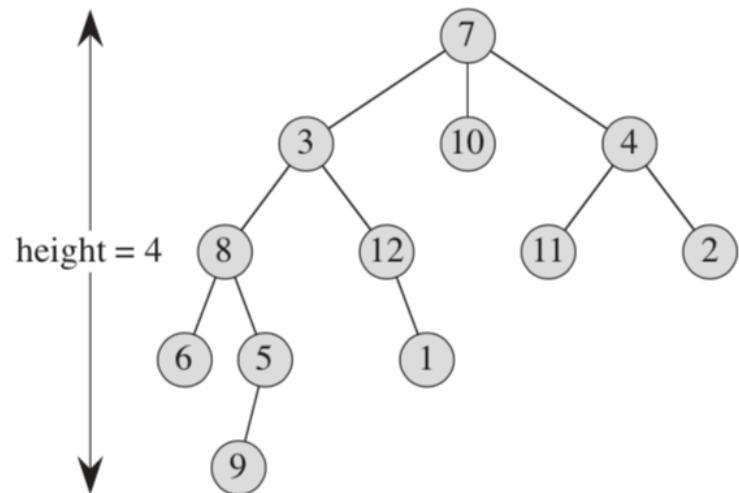
- o **Node:** an element of the tree. Contains data, pointers to other nodes
- o **Root:** The entry node of the tree. Has no parent
- o **Edge:** the link from a node to a child node
- o **Child(X):** A node that is linked from node X
- o **Parent(X):** The node in the tree that has X as its child
- o **Sibling(X):** a node that has the same parent as X
- o **Leaf:** A node with no children nodes
- o **Internal node:** has at least one child
- o **Path( $n_1, n_k$ ):** a sequence  $n_1, n_2, \dots, n_k$  so  $n_{i+1}$  is child of  $n_i$
- o **Depth(n):** number of edges on path from root to n.
- o **Height:** maximum depth of any leaf
- o **Ancestor:** n ancestor of m if there is path from n to m
- o **Descendant:** m is a descendant of n if there is path from n to m



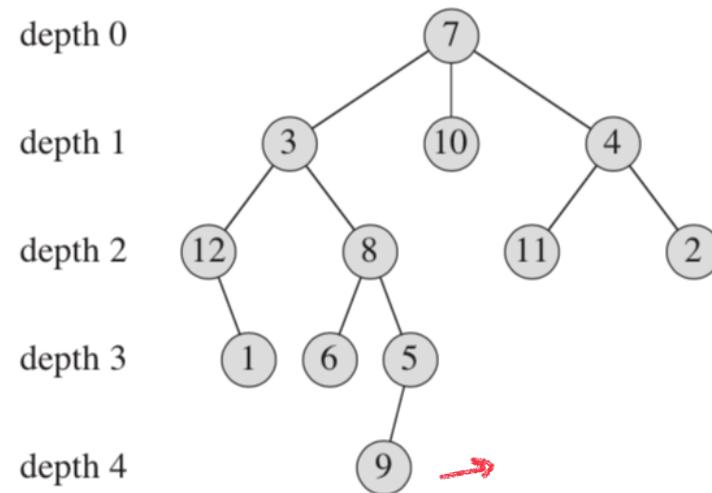
# Height vs Depth of “nodes”

B.5 Trees

1177



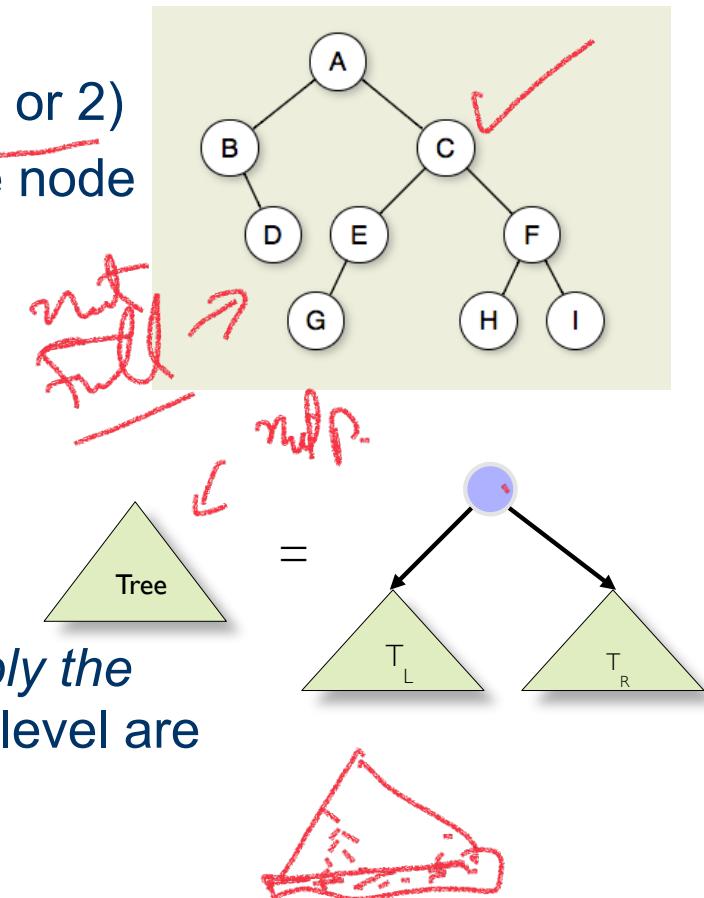
(a)

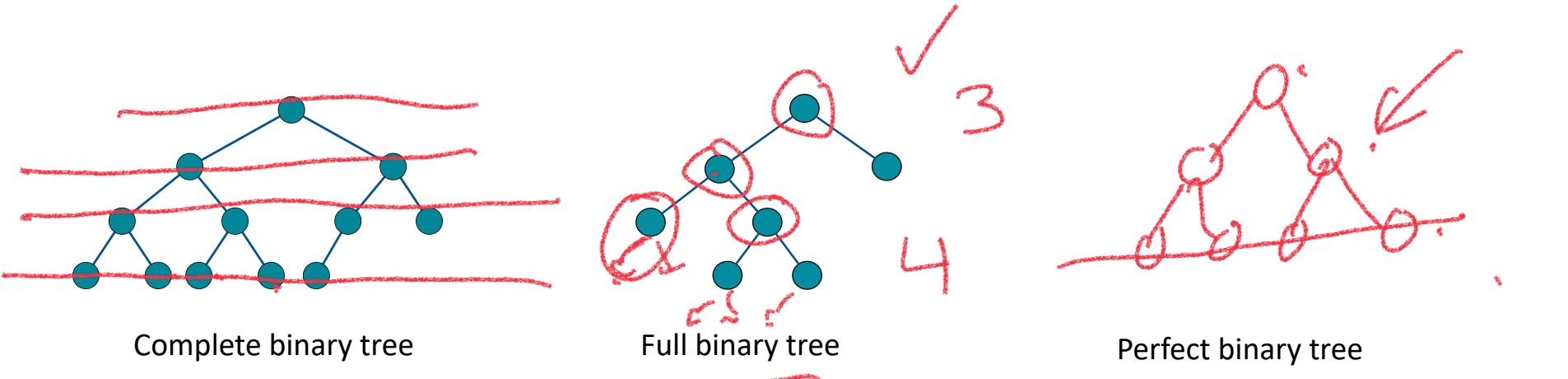


(b)

## Special Case: Binary Trees

- o Binary Tree: Every node has at most 2 children (0, 1 or 2)
- o Recursive definition: A binary tree is null, or a single node with a Right and Left Child that is a binary tree! ✓
- o Special cases:
  - o Full Binary Tree: Every node has 0 or 2 children
  - o Perfect Binary Tree: all interior nodes have two children and all leaves have the same depth
  - o Complete Binary Tree: every level, except possibly the last, is completely filled, and all nodes in the last level are as far left as possible

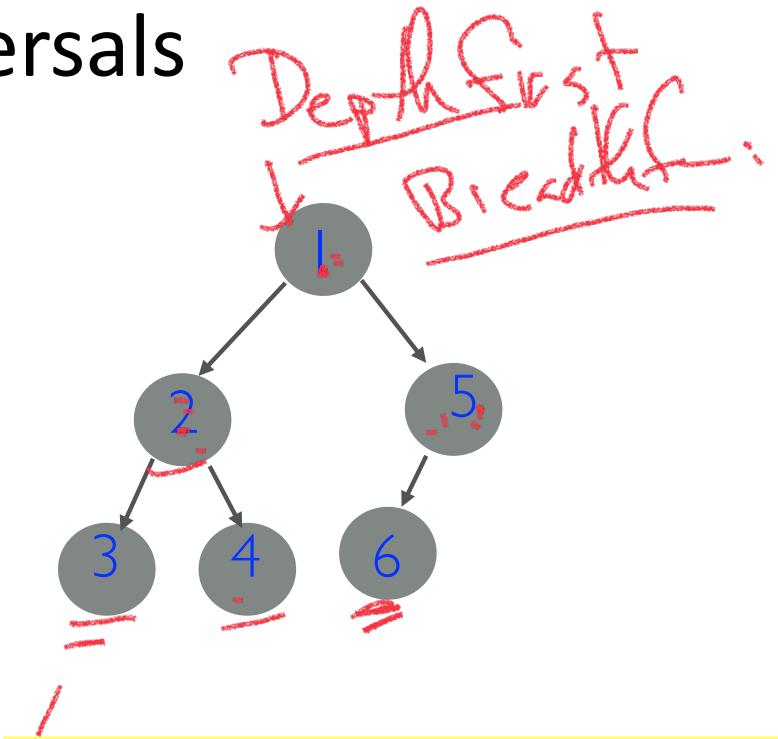




- o Simple results:
  - o Full binary tree: number of leaves = number of internal nodes + 1
  - o In non-empty binary tree, number of null children = number of nodes in trees
  - o In perfect binary tree, number of nodes is  $2^{\text{height}+1} - 1$ 
    - o For  $n$  nodes,  $\text{height} = \log_2(n + 1) - 1$

# Binary tree traversals

```
■ Preorder: Print [Tree]{  
    Print root;  
    Print Tree[LeftTree];  
    Print Tree:[RightTree];  
}  
  
■ Inorder: Print [Tree]{  
    Print Tree[LeftTree];  
    Print root;  
    Print Tree:[RightTree]  
}  
  
■ Postorder: Print [Tree]{  
    Print Tree[LeftTree];  
    Print Tree:[RightTree]  
    Print root;  
}
```



Pre:  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 6$

In:  $3 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 5$

Post:  $3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 6 \rightarrow 5 \rightarrow 1$